

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND BEHAVIORAL STUDIES
SCHOOL OF PSYCHOLOGY

PARENTING STYLES AND SELF-REGULATION OF ADOLESCENTS
AMONG AMANUEL SECONDARY AND PREPARATORY SCHOOL
STUDENTS

By
Alebel Addis Tesfaw

June 2019

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

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A THESIS SUBMITTED TO SCHOOL OF PSYCHOLOGY AS PART OF
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Declaration

I the undersigned declare that this thesis, which entitled “parenting styles and self-regulation of adolescents among Amanuel secondary and preparatory school students”, is my original work, has never been presented in this or any other university, and that all resources and materials used here in, have been duly acknowledged.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
ASRI	Adolescent Self-regulation Inventory
CI	Confidence Interval
DF	Degrees of Freedom
HSD	Tukey's Honestly Significant Different
LL	Lower Limit
M	Mean
N	Number of Cases
PDQ	Parenting Dimension Questionnaire
P	Probability Value
Sig.	Significant
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
SD	Standard Deviation
UL	Upper Limit

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to examine the impact of adolescents' perceived parenting styles and some selected demographic factors on the self-regulation of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students. The data related to the demographic characteristics, perceived parenting styles, and adolescent self-regulation were collected through self-report measures from a total of 349 (164 females and 185 males) adolescent students selected via stratified and simple random sampling techniques from all grade levels of the school. Descriptive statistics, one sample t-test, independent samples t-test, one way ANOVA, and Pearson product moment coefficient were used to analyze the data that were collected from samples of the study. The results revealed that family structure and perceived parenting style significantly affected Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students' self-regulation. Hence, adolescents who were from intact families had significantly higher self-regulation than those who were from non-intact families. In addition, adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative had significantly higher self-regulation score than those who perceived their parents as authoritarian and neglectful. Sex, age, and parental education of participant adolescents did not significantly affect their self-regulation. The finding also indicated that there were statistically significant positive correlations between parental dimensions (parental responsiveness and parental demandingness) and adolescents' self-regulation. One can conclude that adolescent students of Machakel woreda had significant lower score of self-regulation; and parenting styles and structures of their families had significantly affected their level of self-regulation. Finally, recommendations were forwarded based on the findings of the present study.

Key words: Adolescents, Family structure, Parental dimension, Parenting style, Self-regulation

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The introductory part of this research report mainly included the background of the study, problem statement, research questions, objectives of the study, significance of the study, delimitation of study, and operational definition of terms.

1.1. Background of the Study

Self-regulation is becoming an increasingly popular topic in psychology specially in developmental science, covering a broad age range from infancy to old age because of its theoretical importance and practical implications (Farley & Kim-Spoon, 2014; Fitim, 2017; Zimmermann & Thompson, 2014).

The term self-regulation and self-control refer to the capacity to alter or override one's responses, including thoughts, emotions, and actions (Baumeister, 2002). Self-regulation and self-control can be used interchangeably (Baumeister, 2002; Baumeister & Alquist, 2009); Baumeister, Vohs, & Tice, 2007). In this study, they were used interchangeably too. It is essentially a matter of altering one's responses, including thoughts, emotions, and actions. The deliberate exertion of control to alter one's response is logically quite relevant to free will, because it assumes that at least two different responses were possible for the person in that situation and the person exerted choice to bring about one rather than the other (Baumeister & Monroe, 2014). It is the ability to resist the temptation of an immediate reward in favor of a larger reward later (Casey & Caudle, 2013). In addition, self-regulation can also be defined as the ability to regulate the self strategically in response to goals, priorities, and environmental demands (Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004).

Self-regulation does have many advantages and the role it plays is very much important especially during the period of adolescence. Because the period of adolescence is a period of marked changes in cognitive, physical, psychological, and social aspects of the person's development and in the individual's relations with the people and institutions of the social world.

Since, peoples are living in complex physical, social, cultural, and historical contexts; they are required to make decisions about how to act in a way that satisfies both personal and environmental demands. Hence, adaptation requirements are especially salient during the period of adolescence in the context of changes in family, peer group, and school, as well as vocational transitions (Gestsdottir & Lerner, 2008). A paradox for human adolescence is why, during a time when the individual is probably faster, stronger, of higher reasoning capacity, and more resistant to disease, there is such an increase in mortality relative to childhood. This is due not to disease but, rather, to preventable forms of death (accidental fatalities, suicide, and homicide) associated with adolescents putting themselves in harm's way, in part because of diminished self-regulation (Casey & Caudle, 2013). Human beings' ability to regulate their thoughts, feelings or emotions, and behaviors is particularly vital in the prevention of psychopathology and the promotion of optimal psychological adjustment during the period of adolescence (Gestsdottir & Lerner, 2008). It is a predictor of crucial developmental outcomes including mental and physical health during the period of adolescence (Farley & Kim-Spoon, 2014). Although self-regulation is vital during the period of adolescence, there was no improvement or advancement of self-regulatory skill during adolescence as it has been studied by Raffaelli, Crockett, and Shen (2005).

Individual differences exist in people's capacity for self-regulation. Some are much better able than others to manage their lives, hold their tempers, keep their diets, fulfill their promises, stop after a couple of drinks, save money, persevere at work, keep secrets, and so forth. These differences seemingly ought to be associated with greater success and well-being in life (Tangney et al., 2004).

Higher scores on self-control correlated with a higher grade point average, better adjustment (fewer reports of psychopathology, higher self-esteem), less binge eating and alcohol abuse, better relationships and interpersonal skills, secure attachment, and more optimal emotional responses (Tangney et al., 2004). Many findings, for example Elahi, Amrai, and Javad (2011), Fuente & Francisco (2014), McClelland & Wanless (2012) and VanDerhei (2017) revealed that the academic performance of adolescent students was predicted by their level of self-regulation.

Modern American society suffers from a broad range of problems that have self-regulation failure as a common core. Crime, teen pregnancy, alcoholism, drug addiction, venereal disease, educational underachievement, gambling, and domestic violence are among the social

problems that revolve around the apparent inability of many individuals to discipline and control themselves. Although economic, political, and sociological causes may be relevant to such issues, the proximal importance of self-regulation failure to many cases is undeniable (Baumeister & Heatherton, 2010). Self-regulation failure is also implicated in sexually transmitted diseases, including AIDS; unwanted pregnancy; underachievement in school; crime and criminality; violence, including domestic abuse; eating disorders; obesity; lack of exercise; gambling problems; failure to save money and excessive personal debt; procrastination; cigarette smoking; marital conflict; and many other problems (Baumeister, 2003). Failures of self-control can be seen in emotional difficulties, addiction, crime, violence, underachievement, money problems, unwanted pregnancy, sexually transmitted diseases, obesity, eating disorders, substance abuse, prejudice, relationship problems, and more (Baumeister, Tice, & Vohs, 2018).

Thus, the capacity for self-regulation is one of the most important elements of personality. One could go so far as to say it is the single most important aspect because, given sufficient powers of self-regulation, any other personality trait can be overcome (Dewall, Baumeister, Stillman, & Gailliot, 2007). The same researchers concluded that, if a person's self-regulation is powerful enough, then regardless of his/her inclinations, past experiences, or neuroses, he/she could always do the adaptive or right thing.

Researches were conducted in different parts of our country, Ethiopia to examine the prevalence and magnitude of risky sexual behavior, substance use, and alcohol use among high school and preparatory adolescent students. For instance, the overall current prevalence of substance use among the adolescent students was observed to be 34.8%, 47.9%, and 22.2% as is revealed by the findings of Dida, Kassa, Sirak, Zerga, and Dessalegn (2014); Birhanu, Bisetegn, and Woldeyohannes (2014); Reda, Moges, Wondmagegn, and Biadgilign (2012) respectively. It was found that 48.23 % and 26.4 % of the respondents had the experience of alcohol use as ever based and during last thirty days interview period, respectively (Yismaw & Hassen, 2015).

The prevalence or the magnitude of risky sexual behavior among adolescents was found to be 51.3%, and 17.9% as it has been studied by Belay, Worku, Addisu, and Addis (2017); and Birhanu, Bisetegn, and Woldeyohannes (2014) respectively. A considerable number of students have practiced risky sexual behaviors that might predispose them to different sexual and reproductive health problems. Risky sexual behaviors were proven by having sex under the

influence of alcohol and khat, having multiple sexual partners, having sexual intercourse with commercial sex workers and low practice of utilization of condoms (Belay et al., 2017).

Thus, Ethiopian adolescent students had been observed to encounter such kinds of problems, which are very problematic to the individual and society as well. Moreover, those problematic developmental outcomes are highly linked with having poor/low self-regulation as foreign researches revealed. However, few local studies give attention to the role of self-regulation while examining the prevalence and causes of problematic behaviors.

For the successful development of adolescents' self-regulation, the quality of parent-adolescent relationship is one of primary important factors (Moilanen, Shaw, & Fitzpatrick, 2010). Similarly, researchers concluded that parenting and the context of the parent-child relationship was linked to self-regulation during adolescence. A research conducted by Herzog, Hill-chapman, Hardy, Wrighten, and El-khabbaz (2015) illustrated that, parenting styles contributed to emotional regulation and participants who reported high levels of authoritative parenting endorsed high levels of positive emotion. Another research done by Jabeen and Riaz (2013) also found that, authoritative parenting style had significant positive effect on emotional regulation whereas permissive parenting style had significant negative effect on emotion regulation.

In a recent study conducted by Moilanen and Manuel (2017), self-regulation was positively associated with parental acceptance, and negatively with psychological control, i.e., high parental acceptance and low psychological control predicted high levels of self-regulation. However, researchers examined the impact of three parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive) in which they did not include the fourth style of parenting (i.e., neglectful parenting style).

Generally, higher level of self-regulation in adolescents is associated with a range of positive outcomes; whereas lower level of self-regulation in adolescents is associated with a range of problematic behaviors. However, as far as the present researcher's knowledge is concerned little was known about the demographic factors including parenting styles that affect the naturalistic development of self-regulation during the period of adolescence.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The main purpose of this study was to examine the impact of demographic factors and adolescents' perceived parenting styles on the self-regulation of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students.

A research conducted in Czech Republic indicated that the presence of highest deficit in adolescents' ability to regulate their emotions (Hrbackova & Petr, 2016). Regarding the self-regulatory behavior of Ethiopian adolescents, a study conducted by Belay, Abdinasir, and Mintesenot (2014) revealed that the self-regulatory behavior was significantly higher among the adolescent students. Even though these studies were not conducted with in similar country, there were contradictions in their research findings. In addition, there are studies conducted locally which shows that the prevalence of problematic behaviors are very much high among Ethiopian adolescent students. Moreover, those problematic behaviors are very much consistent with having low/ poor/ weak self-regulation among adolescents. Hence, there is contradiction among those research findings and so that in this study attempts have been made to fill those gaps.

Substantial attention have been dedicated to studying parenting behaviors and family environmental characteristics associated with the development of self-regulation during childhood to promote optimal self-regulation and prevent psychopathology (Newman, 2017). Recently, researchers' interest in the self-regulation behavior had expanded to the period of adolescence (Herzog, Hill-chapman, Hardy, Wrighten, & El-khabbaz, 2015; Jabeen & Riaz, 2013; Moilanen et al., 2010), but to date, far less is known about the role of parenting styles during adolescence than is known about earlier periods of childhood (Moilanen & Manuel, 2017). Belay et al. (2014) examined the impact of some selected demographic factors on the self-regulatory behavior of adolescent students.

Moreover, although adolescent's behavior is deeply affected by the family environment and parents are the main source of influence and credible sources to their children, with regard to self-regulation, little is known in Ethiopia about the effect of parenting styles on adolescent students' self-regulatory behavior. In the present study in addition to parenting styles, some selected demographic characteristics were considered to examine their impact on adolescent students' self-regulatory behavior. Thus, the main purpose of this study was to assess the impact

of parenting styles as perceived by adolescents' and some selected demographic factors on the self-regulatory behavior of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students.

1.3. Research Questions

This study attempted to answer the following basic research questions.

1. What is the predominantly practiced parenting style as perceived by adolescents?
2. What is the level of adolescent students' self-regulation?
3. Are there statistically significant differences in adolescents' self-regulation due to demographic variables (sex, age, socioeconomic statuses/parental education, and family structure)?
4. Are there statistically significant differences in adolescents' self-regulation due to perceived parenting style exercised at home?
5. Are there any statistically significant relationships between parenting dimensions and adolescents' self-regulation?

1.4. Research Objectives

1.4.1. General Objective

Examining the impact of adolescents' perceived parenting styles and demographic factors on the self-regulation of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students was the general objective of this study.

1.4.2. Specific Objectives

This study attempted to achieve the following specific objectives.

1. To identify the predominantly practiced parenting style as perceived by adolescent students.
2. To describe the level of adolescent students' self-regulation.
3. To examine whether there are or not significant differences in adolescents' self-regulation, due to demographic variables (sex, age, socioeconomic statuses/parental education, and family structure).
4. To examine if there are significant differences in adolescents' self-regulation as a function of adolescents' perceived parenting styles.

5. To examine whether there are statistical significant relationships between parenting dimensions and adolescents' self-regulation.

1.5. Significance of the Study

This study will contribute for future researchers to consider the role of self-regulatory behavior among adolescents while investigating problematic behaviors and their risk factors. This study will provide an insight about the demographic factors and parenting styles that affect adolescents' self-regulatory behavior. This study will also provide an insight about the nature and extent of relationship between parenting dimensions and self-regulation of adolescents. Furthermore, it will provide insight for parents and other interested stakeholders who may work on the area by identifying the type of parenting style that is most effective for adolescents students level of self-regulation. In addition, it will be as a triggering factor for future researchers who are interested in the area of self-regulation. Moreover, this research will contribute a lot to literature on the impact of demographic factors and parenting styles on adolescents' self-regulatory behavior; and on the relationship between parenting dimensions and self-regulation among adolescents and it can serve as important resource for further study on the area.

1.6. Delimitations of the Study

This study was delimited to Amanuel secondary and preparatory school found in Machakl worda, East Gojjam, Amhara region of Ethiopia. Students of grade 9, 10, 11, and 12 in Amanuel general secondary and preparatory school were the participants of the study. Moreover, this study focused on examining parenting styles and demographic factors (sex, age, parental education, and family structure) affecting self-regulation; and examining the relation between parenting dimensions and self-regulation among adolescent students of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school.

1.7. Operational Definition of Terms

Parenting style: Refers to Amanuel secondary and preparatory school students' perception of their parents' behaviors toward them with respect to parental responsiveness and parental demandingness sub-scales as measured by PDQ.

Self-regulation: In this study, self-regulation refers to students' score on the Adolescent self-regulation inventory (ASRI). Higher scores indicate higher self-regulatory behavior and lower scores indicate poor/ weak self-regulatory behavior.

Parental responsiveness: Refers to Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students score on parental responsiveness subscale as measured by the PDQ.

Parental demandingness: It refers to Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students score on parental demandingness subscale as measured by the PDQ.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Chapter 2 provides the readers of this study a review of the empirical studies that are related with the objectives of the present study. The review started with the conceptual overview of parenting style and followed by describing parenting styles. In addition, empirical studies with respect to the predominantly practiced parenting styles were also reviewed roughly. The researcher also attempted to review empirical studies with regard to the definitions of self-regulation, the nature of self-regulation during the period of adolescence, the positive and negative consequences of self-regulation, and the demographic factors (sex, age, parental education, and structure of the families) that may affect the regulatory behavior of adolescents. Finally, a review was made on the previous studies in relation with the relationship between parenting style, parenting dimension and self-regulation of adolescents.

2.1. The Concept of Parenting Style

Parents are the main socializing agents for their own children. Parents cannot escape from having a determining effect upon the personality, character, and competence of their own children. They are or should be the originators of actions or behaviors of their own children (Baumrind, 1978). From infancy through adolescence, they can serve important roles in managing their children's experiences and opportunities (Santrock, 2011). Parenting styles have a definite impact on children (Zgourides, 2000). Hence, parenting is a socialization process through which parents transfer their cultural values, beliefs, traditions, and norms as well as other socially and culturally desirable behaviors to their children, adolescents, and young adults to be good citizens of the society and for the attainment of adult competence.

Darling and Steinberg (1993) suggested that it is very much important not understanding parenting style as a socialization practice itself rather it should have to be understood as a context within which socialization occurs which facilitates or undermines parent's efforts to socialize their children. Parenting includes different specific behaviors that function individually and together to influence child outcomes since it is a complex activity in which parents can socialize their children (Darling, 1999). Parenting style has been defined by Darling and Steinberg (1993)

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 parent's behaviors are expressed. These behaviors include both the specific, goal-directed behaviors through which parents perform their parental duties (to be referred to as parenting practices) and non—goal directed parental behaviors, such as gestures, changes in tone of voice, or the spontaneous expressions of emotion (p. 488).

Darling and Steinberg, (1993) also defined parenting practices as the specific behaviors and attitudes demonstrated by parents in socializing their children, such as doing assignments with their children, providing their children with time to read, assisting their children when they encounter problems, and attending their children's school activities to enable them to succeed in schools. Thus, parenting style and parenting practice are different constructs. Parenting style refers to the broad pattern of practices and behaviors employed by parents to discipline their child (Estlein, 2016). Parenting style is different from parenting behaviors which are characterized by specific actions and socialization goals. The combination of parental warmth and demandingness is central to conceptualization of parenting style (Salkind & Margolis, 2002). Thus, parenting style refers to the behaviors or characteristics of the parent that can change their capacity to socialize their children by altering the effectiveness of their parenting practices (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

Fostering moral character and optimal competence are the two intertwined generic positive goals of childrearing (Baumrind, 1996). The term character refers to the feature of personality, which is responsible for persistence of the person in the face of challenges, bans impulses in the service of some more remote or other-oriented goal. In addition, the term competence refers to the functioning of humans in the processes of achieving of goals that are personally desired and culturally valued (Baumrind, 1996). In addition, as Baumrind (1996) stated that, the immediate goal of parental authority is to establish order in the given family; and the long-term goal is to enhance children's development from a dependent infant into a self-determining, socially responsible young person.

2.2. Types of Parenting Styles

Although the primary obligation of all parents is to influence, guide, train, teach, and control their children, parents may differ in the degree of controlling and the way of controlling or socializing their children (Darling, 1999). Thus, there are different types of parenting styles and parents may employ different styles parenting. The styles of parenting preferred by parents depend on cultural and community standards, the situation, and the children's behavior at the time (Zgourides, 2000). Baumrind (1971) identified three (authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive) different patterns of parental authority and these are qualitatively different.

Maccoby and Martin (1983) subsequently revised and extended Baumrind's typology by categorizing families according to their levels of parental demandingness and responsiveness as cited in Abesha (2012).

Parental responsiveness (also referred to as parental warmth or supportiveness) refers to "the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality, self-regulation, and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children's special needs and demands" (Baumrind, 1991, p. 62).

Parental demandingness (also referred to as behavioral control) refers to "the claims parents make on children to become integrated into the family whole, by their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child who disobeys" (Baumrind, 1991, p. 61- 62).

Both responsiveness and demandingness of parents are very much important elements of being good parent. Thus, using responsiveness and demandingness parents can be categorized in to four

Authoritative parents are both demanding and responsive. They monitor and impart clear standards for their children's conduct. They are assertive but not intrusive or restrictive. Their disciplinary methods are supportive rather than punitive. They want their children to be assertive as well as socially responsible, and self-regulated as well as cooperative (Baumrind, 1991 p. 62).

Authoritarian parents are demanding and directive, but not responsive. They are obedience-and status-oriented, and expect their orders to be obeyed without explanation. They provide an orderly environment, and a clear set of regulations, and monitor their children's activities carefully. Not all directive or traditional parents are authoritarian (Baumrind, 1991 p. 62).

Permissive or nondirective parents are more responsive than they are demanding. They are nontraditional and lenient, do not require mature behavior, allow considerable self-regulation, and avoid confrontation (Baumrind, 1991 p. 62).

Rejecting-neglecting or disengagement parents are neither demanding nor responsive. They do not structure and monitor, are not supportive but may be actively rejecting or else neglect their childrearing responsibilities altogether (Baumrind, 1991 p. 62).

2.3. Parenting Styles in Ethiopia

Researches have been conducted here in our context regarding parenting styles practiced in the Ethiopian cultural context. Researchers specifically attempted to identify predominantly practiced parenting style among Ethiopian parents. However, their results were not coherent; for instance, studies conducted by Seleshi and Sentayehu (1998), Abesha (2012), Senper (2014), Henock (2014), Lensa (2015), Abel (2015), and Melaku (2017) indicated that it is authoritative parenting style dominantly practiced in the Ethiopian families. On the contrary, a study conducted by Amsalu and Yemane (2015) using large sample size (3545) indicated that it is authoritarian parenting style exercised predominantly in the Ethiopian context. Moreover, neglectful parenting was found as the prevailing parenting style followed by authoritative parenting style (34.2% and 27.9%) respectively (Tigist, 2013).

2.4. Definition of Self-Regulation

As the present researcher tried to review literatures regarding the definition of self-regulation, there are numerous definitions. The common denominator in many of the definitions incorporates ability to change, alter, or modify one's own behavior.

Self-regulation is essentially a matter of altering one's responses, including thoughts, emotions, and actions (Baumeister & Monroe, 2014). Self-regulation is a highly adaptive, distinctively

human trait that enables people to override and alter their responses, including changing themselves to live up to social and other standards. It is an important personality process by which people seek to exert control over their thoughts, their feelings, their impulses and appetites, and their task performances (Baumeister, Gailliot, & Dewall, 2006). Self-regulation is the human capacity to override and restrain socially inappropriate behavior (Dewall et al., 2007). Self-regulation or self-control refers to the ability of altering one's own responses, especially to make them consistent with standards such as ideals, values, morals, and social expectations, and to support the pursuit of long-term goals (Baumeister et al., 2007). Self-regulation is essentially a matter of altering one's responses, including thoughts, emotions, and actions.

The deliberate exertion of control to alter one's response is logically quite relevant to free will, because it assumes that at least two different responses were possible for the person in that situation and the person exerted volition to bring about one rather than the other (Baumeister & Monroe, 2014). Self-regulation is the process by which the self-changes its thoughts, feelings, and actions, including impulsive urges and task performance (Baumeister et al., 2018). Moilanen's, (2007) definition of self-regulation is more comprehensive:

Self-regulation is the ability to flexibly activate, monitor, inhibit, persevere, and/or adapt one's behavior, attention, emotions, and cognitive strategies in response to direction from internal cues, environmental stimuli, and feedback from others, in an attempt to attain personally relevant goals. (p. 835).

Self-regulation involves individuals' abilities to control their emotions, attention and behavior so that they may persevere and thus, attain short- or long-term goals (Gestsdottir & Lerner, 2008; Moilanen, 2007). Thus, self-regulation is an adaptive ability, which can help individuals to manage their thoughts, emotions, and behaviors as well.

2.5. Consequences of Self-Regulation

The present researcher reviewed different literatures to grasp the overall consequences of having a good self-regulatory behavior or being poor in regulating ones' own behavior or emotion. As the current researcher reviewed it, previous studies have examined the positive and negative consequences of having higher and poor level of self-regulation respectively. Although it is very difficult to list all the consequences of having higher level of self-regulation and the cost of

having poor self-regulatory behavior fully in this paper, here are some of the reviewed advantages of having higher level of self-regulation and costs of having poor self-regulatory behavior as well.

Self-regulation helps individuals to make plans, choose from alternatives, control impulses, inhibit unwanted thoughts, regulate social behavior, live cooperatively, achieve important goals, demonstrate improved relationships, increase job success and better mental health, become less at risk of developing alcohol abuse problems or engaging in risky sexual behavior, and maintain health throughout their life span (Heatherton & Wagner, 2011). It can help people bring them in line with standards such as ideals, values, morals, and social expectations, and to support the pursuit of long-term goals (Baumeister et al., 2007); to live up to social and other standards (Baumeister et al., 2006); restrain socially inappropriate behavior (Dewall et al., 2007).

It help students to reduce level of anxiety, to be effective in exam performance (Morosanova & Fomina, 2017); to decrease externalizing and internalizing psychopathology, and to have higher level of social competence and well-being (King, Lengua, & Monahan, 2012). In addition, self-regulation help adolescents not to behave aggressively, to live and work together in a cooperative cultural system (Dewall et al., 2007); to buffer adolescents from having antisocial behavior (Gardner, Dishion, & Connell, 2008); to protect against heavy drinking, alcohol-related problems, and unprotected sex with non-monogamous partners (Quinn & Fromme, 2011). Having better self-regulation contributes a lot to have higher grade point average, to have higher scores on tests of academic achievement, to have fewer school absences, to spend more time on homework, and to start homework earlier than other students are all the benefits of having better self-regulation skills (Baumesiter & Alquist, 2009).

On the contrary, in an extensive study by Tangney et al. (2004), participants who scored low in self-control reported a wide range of negative outcomes including addiction, alcohol abuse, drug abuse, eating disorders and binge eating, debt and bankruptcy, lack of savings, violent and criminal behavior, underachievement in school and work, procrastination, smoking, and lack of exercise. Failing to regulate one's own behavior is an important cause of several contemporary societal problems such as obesity, addiction, poor financial decisions, sexual infidelity and so on (Heatherton & Wagner, 2011). Unwanted pregnancy, AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases (Tangney et al., 2004); emotional difficulties, addiction, crime, violence,

underachievement, money problems, obesity, eating disorders, substance abuse, prejudice, and relationship problems resulted from failure of self-control (Baumeister et al., 2018).

Generally, having good self-regulatory behavior is associated with numerous healthy developmental outcomes. On the other hand, having low or poor level of self-regulation may result in numerous problematic behaviors. Hence, being self-regulated is very much important to the individual him/herself in particular and to the society in general. The current study was mainly focused on examining demographic factors affecting this adaptive human trait; and examining the relationship between parenting dimensions and self-regulation among adolescent students in Amanuel secondary and preparatory school.

2.6. Self-Regulation during Adolescence

Adolescence refers to the transition from childhood to adulthood that begins with the onset of puberty and ends with successful independence from the parent. A paradox for human adolescence is why, during a time when the individual is probably faster, stronger, of higher reasoning capacity, and more resistant to disease, there is such an increase in mortality relative to childhood. This is due not to disease but, rather, to preventable forms of death (accidental fatalities, suicide, and homicide) associated with adolescents putting themselves in harm's way, in part because of diminished self-control—the ability to suppress inappropriate emotions, desires, and actions (Casey & Caudle, 2013).

A hallmark of self-regulation is the ability to resist the temptation of an immediate reward in favor of a larger reward later, known as delay of gratification. The development of self-regulation is key to successful adaptation in childhood and adolescence. Self-regulation skills develop from childhood well into early adulthood and the study suggested that there is variability in this development from late childhood across the transition to adolescence (King et al., 2012). Self-regulation is fundamental for the successful accomplishment of adaptive developmental tasks at all stages of life (McClelland et al., 2018).

In the period of adolescence, children experience another sensitive period of development, especially for self-regulation. Adolescence, the second decade of life, is a period of ontogeny characterized by extraordinary biological, social, and ecological changes (Lerner and Steinberg 2009). In this case, cognitive and social development means that the capacities necessary for

advanced, adult-like self-regulation may for the most part emerge in adolescence. This is in large part due to the gradual maturation of the prefrontal cortex. In particular, as the frontal lobe develops, so does higher-order, regulation- relevant cognition, such as metacognition and internalized control life (McClelland et al., 2018). Young teens must deal with physical, cognitive, and socio-emotional changes, and are expected to start making adult-like decisions that can tax teenagers' self-regulatory skills and carry significant consequences (Moilanen et al., 2010).

Adolescence is a stage of the lifecycle in which managing constant and daily temptations and gaining and maintaining healthy lifestyles are difficult tasks and a test of the powers of self-regulation (Chaves, Bento, Ferreira, & Duarte, 2013). Self-regulation is important during the period of adolescence because during this period they are expected to take responsibilities in managing themselves. Thus, individuals need to have higher level of self-regulation especially during the period of adolescence.

There are inconsistent findings with respect to adolescents' level of self-regulation. For instance, Finkenauer, Engels, and Baumeister (2005) conducted a study by using cross-sectional data collected from 1359 boys and girls aged 10–14 years, and the young adolescents reported moderate levels of self-control. On the contrary, a study conducted by Hrbáková and Petr (2016) using 2776 participants from schools in the Zlín Region of the Czech Republic indicated that adolescents were observed in the highest deficit in regulating their emotions. Moreover, a local study conducted by Belay et al., (2014) revealed that self-regulatory behavior was significantly higher among the adolescents students in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

2.7. Demographic Variables and Self-Regulation

The researcher tried to review previous studies regarding the demographic characteristics that may affect self-regulatory behavior of adolescents. In the present study, demographic factors specifically adolescent students' sex, age, parental education, and family structure were examined. Thus, the researcher reviewed literatures, which were done in some selected demographic factors including adolescents' sex, age, parental education, and family structure.

Regarding gender differences in relation to self-regulation, there are inconsistent findings. For instance, girls exhibited significantly higher levels of self-regulation than did boys at all 3 time

points (Raffaelli et al., 2005). In addition, women were more likely than men to self-regulate so that women were significantly more likely than men to engage in self-regulation, and to be negatively influenced by their emotions or affective attitude (Gwyther & Holland, 2012). In addition, in a one-year longitudinal study by employing a sample of N= 1,136 college students indicated that women reported greater levels of self-regulation than men (Quinn & Fromme, 2011). A recently conducted research by Dias and Cadime (2017) using 393 students (aged between 14 and 21 years old) of grade 10, 11, and 12 , from three high schools located in northern Portugal indicated that females reported higher level of impulse control than males. Males were found to be weak in their self-regulation skills than females in a study conducted in America by Piotrowski, Lapierre, and Linebarger (2013) and in German by Achtziger and Bayer (2018). However, in a research conducted by Park and Edmondson (2012) and Finkenauer et al. (2005) found that no gender differences in self-regulation among adolescents. Moreover, in a research conducted by Wang, Fan, Tao, and Gao (2016) using 2910 adolescents, males exhibited greater self-control than females. Considering Ethiopian adolescents, Belay et al. (2014) conducted a study by using 211 secondary school adolescent students as a sample and their result indicated that participants who possess female sex had a better self-regulatory behavior than males.

Coming to adolescents' level of self-regulation differences in relation to parental education status, children whose parents had more formal educations were slightly less likely to have self-regulation problems (Piotrowski et al., 2013). On the other hand, in a research that was done in China, recently indicated that there was no statistical significant difference in adolescents' self-control with regard to parental education levels (illiteracy, primary school, junior high school, senior high school, junior college, University graduate, Master's degree or higher) (Wang et al., 2016). While coming to local study done by Belay et al. (2014) there was no statistically significant difference in adolescents' self-regulation behavior across their parents' educational status.

Regarding age difference among adolescents in their level of self-regulatory behavior, there was no statistically significant difference (Park & Edmondson, 2012). On the contrary, statistical significant age difference was found in a study conducted by Steinberg et al. (2008) aimed at examining age differences in sensation seeking and impulsivity in a socioeconomically and

ethnically diverse sample of 935 individuals from Denver; Irvine (California), Los Angeles, Philadelphia, and Washington, DC between the ages of 10 and 30. There was an increment in sensation seeking and impulsivity between 10 and 15, and declining or remaining stable thereafter (Steinberg et al., 2008). Hence, self-regulation is low between the ages of 10 and 15 and improved after age 16. The relationship between adolescents' age and their self-control was significant; adolescents between the ages of 12 and 19 years scored significantly lower than those scores among older individuals in their self-control (Wang et al., 2016). A local study by Belay et al. (2014) revealed that there was no statistically significant difference among adolescents in their level of self-regulatory behavior because of differences in their age levels which is consistent with the finding of Park and Edmondson (2012).

The difference in the structure of family may induce differences in self-regulation of adolescents. Being from intact family may be associated with a better self-regulatory behavior. For instance, in a very recent study done by Cho, Kim, and Kim (2018) using 944 adolescents attending high school in five cities (Gwangju, Jeonnam, Chungnam, Seoul, and Gyeonggi) in South Korea indicated that participants from two-parent families had better self-control than did participants from single parent and grandparent-led families. However, in a locally conducted research, statistically significant difference in adolescents' level of self-regulation behavior between adolescents from intact and non-intact families was not observed (Belay et al., 2014).

2.8. Parenting Styles and Self-regulation

The development of self-regulation is influenced by the ways in which parents socialize their children. The influence of parent socialization may not stop at the period of childhood rather it will continue to influence the development of self-regulation into the period of adolescence (Hay & Forrest, 2006). The parent-adolescent relationship is one of primary importance to the successful development of adolescents' self-regulation (Moilanen et al., 2010; Purdie, Carroll, & Roche, 2004). The findings suggest that parenting and the context of the parent-child relationship are associated with self-regulation during early adolescence (Moilanen et al., 2010).

Parenting dimensions had significant relationship with the levels of adolescents' self-regulation. The direction of the relationship between parenting dimensions and self-regulation was not the same. For instance, in a study conducted by Moilanen (2007), there was positive significant

relationship between parental responsiveness/ acceptance and the levels of adolescents' self-regulation. That is high parental responsiveness/ acceptance was associated with high levels of self-regulation in adolescence; and low parental responsiveness/ acceptance was associated with low levels of self-regulation in adolescence. In addition, mainly cross-sectional studies confirm the association of high parental responsiveness/ acceptance and high levels of self-regulation in adolescence (Finkenauer et al., 2005). Furthermore, a high level of self-regulation was positively associated with parental responsiveness/ acceptance (Moilanen & Manuel, 2017). However, parental demandingness/ control had negative relationship with self-regulation. For instance a study conducted by Moilanen and Manuel (2017) revealed that a high level of self-regulation was negatively associated with parental demandingness/ control; and high parental acceptance and low parental demandingness/ control predicted high levels of self-regulation.

Coming to the effect of different perceived parenting styles on adolescents' self-regulation, different literatures were reviewed. In most of these study findings, parenting styles had significant effect on self-regulatory behavior of children and adolescents. For instance, adolescents who reported high levels of authoritative parenting endorsed better self-regulation (Moilanen, 2005). In addition, a study revealed that adolescents who reported high levels of authoritative parenting endorsed high levels of positive emotion (Herzog et al., 2015). Furthermore, children who were from authoritative parents demonstrated stronger self-regulatory skills whereas children from both permissive and authoritarian parenting styles demonstrated weaker self-regulation skills (Piotrowski et al., 2013). Another study conducted by Jabeen & Riaz (2013) using 194 adolescents with age range of 12-15 years revealed that permissive parenting style has significant negative correlation with emotional regulation. Authoritative parenting style has significant positive correlation with emotional regulation among adolescent students in Pakistan. However, authoritarian parenting styles have not a significant correlation with emotional regulation among adolescent participants of the study. A recent study done by Newman (2017) even though it has been done by children revealed that authoritative parenting is positively correlated with enhanced self-regulation, and authoritarian and permissive parenting are associated with decreased self-regulation.

However, studies conducted by Herzog, Hill-chapman, Hardy, Wrighten, and El-khabbaz (2015), Jabeen and Riaz (2013), Newman (2017), and Piotrowski et al. (2013) did not include the fourth

style of parenting the so called neglectful parenting style. Moreover, their findings were not consistent. For instance, in a study conducted by Jabeen & Riaz (2013), there was no significant relationship between authoritarian parenting style and adolescents' self-regulation; whereas, in a study done by Piotrowski et al. (2013) and Newman (2017), there was significant relationship between authoritarian parenting style and self-regulation. Although the previous researcher did not consider the fourth style of parenting, one can come up with the conclusion that states parenting styles are significant factors, which affect adolescents' self-regulatory behavior. Hence, in the present study, authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful parenting styles were considered to be examined whether they had significant impact on adolescents' self-regulation.

Generally, as indicated in the review of related literatures many researches were conducted to examine the impact of parenting styles and demographic factors on the self-regulatory behavior of adolescents. However, those previous researchers examined the impact and relationship of three parenting styles (i.e., authoritative, authoritarian and permissive/indulgent) with self-regulation so that the fourth parenting style (i.e., neglectful/uninvolved) was not considered. In addition, there were contradicting findings regarding the impact of demographic factors on the self-regulatory behavior of adolescents. There were also contradicting study findings regarding adolescents' level of self-regulation and the predominantly exercised styles of parenting in our context, Ethiopia. Furthermore, there are few studies conducted locally regarding the relationships between parental dimensions and adolescents' self-regulatory behavior. Therefore, there is a need to conduct studies considering the aforementioned issues.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Chapter three of the present study focused on describing research design, study area, population of the study, sample and sampling techniques, data collection instruments, pilot testing, the data collection procedure, methods of data analysis, and ethical considerations of the present study.

3.1. Research Design

Since the purpose of this study was to examine the impact of adolescents' perceived parenting styles and demographic factors on the self-regulation of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students; and to investigate the relationships between parenting dimensions and self-regulation, descriptive-correlational research methods were used in the present study. Because correlational research design provides an opportunity to describe and measure the degree of association or relationship between two or more variables or sets of scores (Creswell, 2012; Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtler, 2006). Therefore, it is a suitable approach to answer basic research questions of the present study.

3.2. Study Area

The study was carried out in Amanuel town, Machakl woreda, East Gojjam Zone, Amhara Region, Ethiopia. Machakl is one of the woredas in Amhara region. It is part of the East Gojjam Zone; bordered by Debre Elias on the south, West Gojjam Zone on the northwest, Sinan woreda on the east, and Guzamn woreda on the southeast.

Based on the 2007 national census conducted by the Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia (CSA), Machakl woreda has a total population of 118,097 of whom 58,529 were men and 59,568 were women; only 8,728 or 7.39% of its population were urban inhabitants. Coming to the ethnicity of inhabitants, the largest ethnic group reported in Machakel was the Amhara (99.92%). The majority of the inhabitants practiced Ethiopian Orthodox Christianity; with 98.87% reporting as their religion, while 1.1% of the population said they were Muslim. The population seems homogeneous. Amanuel is a woreda town for Machakel, which is 328 kilometers away from Addis Ababa. Thus, the study was conducted in Amanuel secondary and preparatory school, which is found in Amanuel town [See the map of study area in figure 1].

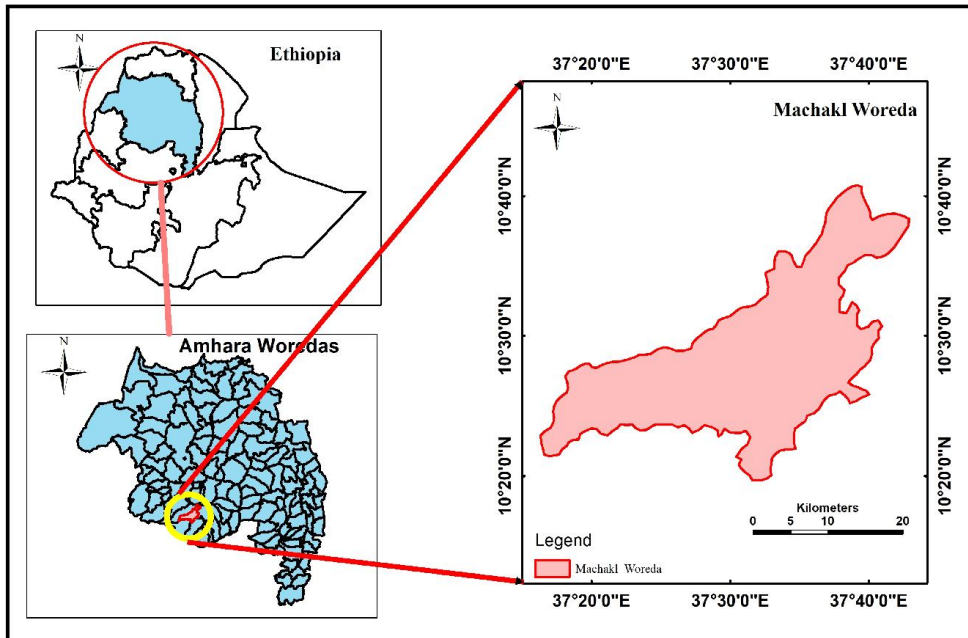


Figure 1: Map of the Study Area

Source: Arc GIS Version 10.4.

3.3. Population

A population is a group of individuals who have the same characteristic and the sampling frame is a group of individuals (or a group of organizations) with some common defining characteristic that the researcher can identify and study (Creswell, 2012). Amanuel secondary and preparatory school students were the population of the present study. In this case, population refers to students of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school from which a sample were drawn, and to which the results of this study had been generalized. The target population of this study consisted of 4137 students, male=2169 and female=1968 students from grade 9 up to grade 12. The population of this study summarized in Table 1 by grade level, number of sections, and number of male and female students of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school.

Table 1:

Summary for Grade level, Number of Sections and Sex of the Population

Grade level	No of sections	Males	Females	Total
Nine	18	605	630	1235
Ten	18	501	520	1021
Eleven	16	545	437	982
Twelve	16	518	381	899
Total	68	2169	1968	4137

3.4. Sample Size and Sampling Technique

Krejcie and Morgan (1970) developed a table, “Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population” which can be used to determine the sample size of a given study. In addition, Krejcie and Morgan (1970) recommend researchers to apply a formula in order to determine the sample size of their participants.

The formula follows:

$$S = \frac{X^2 NP (1-P)}{d^2 (N-1) + X^2 P (1-P)}$$

Where,

S= required sample size.

X^2 = the table value of the chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841).

N= the population size.

P= the population proportion (assumed to be 0.50 since this would provide the maximum sample size).

d= the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05).

Thus, the sample size for this study was decided by using the above formula.

$$S = \frac{X^2 NP (1-P)}{d^2 (N-1) + X^2 P (1-P)}$$

$$N=4137$$

$$S = \frac{3.841 \times 4137 \times 0.5(1-0.5)}{.05 \times .05 (4137-1) + 3.841 \times 0.5 (1-0.5)}$$

- $15890.55 \times 0.25 / 10.34 + 0.96$
- $3972.64 / 11.3$
- **351.56**

Hence, according to Krejcie and Morgan (1970) a sample size of 352 would be a representative of 4137 population with a confidence level of 95%. In addition, one should have to anticipate the non-response questionnaires while determining the sample size of the study. Therefore, the sample size in the present study with a reserve of non-response questionnaires (10%) was totaled to 387 participants (116 participants from grade 9, 95 participants were from grade 10, 92 participants were from grade 11, and 84 participants were from 12 grade).

However, out of the total 387 selected participants who filled-in the questionnaire, only 349 participants did so properly. Thirty-eight questionnaires (11 from grade 9, 7 from grade 10, 9 from grade 11, and 11 from grade 12) were discarded, the majority of them were partially answered (i.e. demographic questions were left blank) and few of them were returned completely blank. Therefore, the remaining 349 questionnaires were used for the main data analysis in the present study.

Coming to sampling technique, probability-sampling technique specifically stratified sampling and simple random sampling techniques were used for this research to identify participants of study. The rationale for using stratified sampling technique was that it can help the researcher to get more accurate representative sample (Best & Kahn, 2006; Lodico et al., 2006; Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009) and to make more accurate inferences about a population (Peck, Olsen, & Devore, 2010). Target population of this study was students from four grade levels i.e., grade 9, grade 10, grade 11, and grade 12. By using stratified sampling technique, strata were made based on grade levels and sex. Then, each grade level and sex had been represented with proportional allocation stratified random sampling technique. Two sections from each grade level (section A and H from grade 9, section B and O from grade 10, section H and F from grade 11, section K and M from grade 12) were chosen in a simple random sampling technique. Finally, a simple random sampling technique was employed to select participants from each section and sex for the present study. The participants of the present study, which were used for the main data analysis, were summarized by their grade level and sex in Table 2.

Table 2:

Summary of Study Participants' Grade Level and Sex

Grade levels	Male		Female		Total
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
Nine	51	48.6	54	51.4	105
Ten	43	48.9	45	51	88
Eleven	47	56	36	44	83
Twelve	44	60.3	29	39.7	73
Total	185	53	164	47	349

3.5. Data Collection Instruments

In this study, questionnaires were used for collecting the primary data from samples of the study. The questionnaires, which were used in this study, were all self-report measures and consisted of demographic variables, the Parenting Dimension Questionnaire (PDQ), and the Adolescent Self-regulation Inventory (ASRI).

3.5.1. Demographic Variables

Participants completed a short demographic questionnaire regarding their sex, age, parental education (both for their father's/ male guardian's and for mother's/ female guardian's separately), and family structure (intact/ non-intact) [see Appendix A for the English versions and Appendix B for the Amharic versions].

3.5.2. The Parenting Dimension Questionnaire (PDQ)

The Parenting Dimension Questionnaire was used to measure the perceived parenting style of adolescent students of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school. Originally, Gafoor & Kurukkan (2014) developed the instrument to identify parenting styles as perceived by adolescent students in Kerala, India. In addition, Tarekegn (2018) contextualized the instrument, the PDQ, into the Ethiopian parenting practices and cultural context. Tarekegn (2018) used 32 items, 16 items for parental responsiveness sub-scale and 16 items for parental demandingness sub-scale rated on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5

(Strongly Agree). Therefore, the PDQ that consisted 32 items was employed to measure perceived parenting styles of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students.

According to Tarekegn (2018), the PDQ had good internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.94 for the parental responsiveness sub-scale and 0.92 for the parental demandingness sub-scale. In the present study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the parental responsiveness sub-scale was 0.79 and 0.78 was the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the parental demandingness sub-scale.

Coming to the scoring of the instrument (PDQ), the total scores for the parental responsiveness sub-scale and for the parental demandingness sub-scale ranged from 16-80. Initially, participants rated their mother's/ female guardian's and father/ male guardian's style of parenting separately by the items of the PDQ, and finally combined scores, by averaging both ratings, were created (one score for parental responsiveness and another single score for parental demandingness) to reflect the general parenting style within the given family. Therefore, the ratings of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students for mother's/ female guardian's and father's/ male guardian's parenting behavior in both sub-scales (parental responsiveness and parental demandingness) were averaged, and the average scores were used to categorize the parents into the four categories of parenting styles. The median values of parental responsiveness and parental demandingness sub-scales were used to categorize perceived parenting styles. Therefore,

Parents who were rated by their adolescent children with a score above or equal to the sample median on both the responsiveness sub-scale and demandingness sub-scale were considered as authoritative and assigned the number "1".

Parents who were rated by their adolescent children with a score below the sample median on the responsiveness sub-scale but above or equal to the sample median on the demandingness sub-scale were considered as authoritarian and assigned the number "2".

Parents who were rated by their adolescent children with a score above or equal to the sample median on the responsiveness sub-scale but below the sample median on the demandingness sub-scale were considered as permissive/ indulgent and assigned the number "3".

Parents who were rated by their adolescent children with a score below the sample median on both the responsiveness and demandingness sub-scales were considered as neglectful and assigned the number “4”.

3.5.3. Adolescent Self-regulation Inventory (ASRI)

ASRI was designed to assess the degree to which adolescents are able to activate, monitor, maintain, inhibit, and adapt their emotions, thoughts, attention, and behavior in the moment and over extended period (Moilanen, 2007). Moilanen (2007) developed the instrument by including 36 items during pilot test to measure adolescents’ self-regulation abilities. Among those 36 items, nine of them were discarded due to their low level of inter-item correlations. Thus, Moilanen (2007) used 27 items for final data collection. Respondents were expected to rate how true each item is for them, ranging from 1 (*not at all true for me*) to 5 (*really true for me*). Therefore, ASRI was employed to assess Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students’ self-regulation in the present study [see Appendix A for the English versions and Appendix B for the Amharic versions]. The five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*not at all true for me*) to 5 (*really true for me*) were changed in to a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*) due to the comments provided by experts from PhD student of developmental Psychology and Lecturer in the department of Psychology at Wolkite University. Higher scores on the ASRI indicate good/ strong/ higher level of self-regulatory behavior. Lower scores on the ASRI indicate poor/ weak in self-regulatory behavior.

According to Moilanen (2007), the ASRI had good internal consistency, with a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of 0.80. In the current study, the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the ASRI was 0.79, which is almost equivalent with the original reliability coefficient of the ASRI. Hence, the instrument has been employed to evaluate the self-regulation ability of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students in this study.

3.6. Pilot Test

In order to check the reliabilities of the instruments (the PDQ and the ASRI), piloting was undertaken. However, before pilot testing was undertaken, validity, forward and backward translations of the instruments were done. Initially, the content validities of the instruments (the PDQ and the ASRI) were checked by two experts (1 Developmental Psychology PhD student

and 1 Lecturer in the department of Psychology at Wolkite University). These experts suggested the researcher to change the five-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (*not at all true for me*) to 5 (*really true for me*) to a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). In addition, the questionnaires were first translated into Amharic language in order to avoid the difficultness of language, expected to be a barrier in understanding the items, by two translators who are lecturers in the Department of English at Wolkite University.

First, one of the two translators translated the questionnaires from English language into Amharic language. The other translator did back-translation of the questionnaires from the Amharic language into English language without having access to the original instruments. There were minor differences that were observed in the forward and backward translations of the questionnaire; and they were corrected by the two translator jointly so that the items were made ready for pilot study.

Finally, the Amharic versions of the instruments were administered to 64 (16 i.e., eight male and eight female students from each grade level) students. The participants were selected randomly from four grade levels (9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th), and all these (64) questionnaires were used. The responses of the participants were scored and the reliability of the two instruments, i.e., the Parenting Dimensions Questionnaire (PDQ) (parental responsiveness sub-scale, parental demandingness sub-scale) and the Adolescent Self-regulation Inventory (ASRI), were computed by using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 23. Therefore, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of 0.79, 0.78, and 0.79 were observed for the parental responsiveness sub-scale, for the demandingness sub-scale, and for the Adolescent Self-regulation Inventory (ASRI) respectively [See Appendix D]. The reliability of instruments during the main study were 0.78, 0.75, and 0.79 for parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, and the ASRI respectively. The pilot test had checked the reliability and validity of each instrument, which were used in present study. There was no any elimination of items from all these instruments so that 32 items for the PDQ (16 items for each sub-scale) and 27 items for the ASRI were used in the present study as data collection instruments for the main study [see Appendix A for English versions and Appendix B for Amharic versions].

3.7. Data Collection Procedure

The survey process was started with taking a cooperation letter from School of Psychology, Addis Ababa University, to Amanuel secondary and preparatory school's principal; and by stating the purpose of the study, permission for data collection was obtained from the school's principal. Once permission obtained for data collection, the school's principal was also requested to communicate the purpose of this study to classroom teachers of the selected sections, who arranged for the researcher to gather participants in their classrooms according to their respective sections. Eight classroom teachers were participated in this study as assistants for the process of data collection task. Subsequently, classroom teachers were asked to inform and encourage students to participate in the research and in setting up times for the researcher to access students in their classroom and they did so.

After all the participants were in their respective classroom, the researcher introduced himself to the participants as a Master of Arts degree student who intended to conduct a study that involved Amanuel secondary and preparatory school students to meet the requirements for the MA degree in Developmental Psychology at Addis Ababa University.

The participating students were informed of the purpose and usefulness of the study and the importance of their participation. They were also informed that their responses would be kept strictly confidential. Informed verbal consent to participate in the study was obtained from all the participating students who were involved in this study. They were also given appropriate instructions for completing the questionnaires in their respective classrooms. Subsequently, the Amharic versions of the questionnaires were distributed with the help of classroom teachers and participants were also requested to spend time and respond to all items in the questionnaires and not to provide any identifying personal information such as their name. Thus, students completed the questionnaires and the completion of questionnaires took approximately 45 minutes.

3.8. Data Analysis Methods

The collected data entry was performed using SPSS version 23. The test of significance for all statistical procedure was at 0.05 alpha levels. In order to answer basic research questions of this study, several analyses were undertaken such as frequency, percentages, one sample t test,

independent sample t-test, one-way ANOVA, and bivariate correlation specifically Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient.

Descriptive statistical methods such as frequency and percentage were used to describe the distribution of participants in their demographic characteristics, and perceived parenting styles.

According to Gerald (2018), the one sample t-test can be used to test statistical differences between the sample mean and a known/ hypothesized value of the mean in the population; and to test statistical differences between the sample mean and the sample midpoint of the test variable. Thus, one-sample t test was performed to describe the level of Amanuel secondary and preparatory adolescent students' self-regulation as measured by the ASRI.

Independent samples t-test was employed in order to compare males' and females' scores of self-regulation. In addition, independent samples t-test was also used to compare self-regulation of adolescents who were from intact and non-intact family structure. Moreover, independent samples t-test was used to examine statistical significant differences in adolescents' self-regulation between middle and late adolescence period. At the beginning, age was categorized under three groups namely early adolescence, middle adolescence, and late adolescence. However, only the two groups were used because there were no participants who were in early adolescence age group.

One-way ANOVA was used to explore the impact of the educational level of fathers /male guardians and mothers /female guardians on adolescent students' self-regulation. Furthermore, One-way ANOVA was used to explore the impact of parenting styles on Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students' self-regulation. Moreover, to examine relationships between parenting dimensions (parental responsiveness and parental demandingness) and Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students' self-regulation, Pearson correlation coefficient was employed.

3.9. Ethical Considerations

While doing this research, the researcher gave emphasis to the ethical issues involved in doing a research. Participants were assured that, the information they provide would be confidential and would not be disclosed to anyone else; instead it would be used only for a research purpose. The participants' full consent was asked before distributing the questionnaire to fill in. Hence, participation in this study was voluntary, and participants' responses were kept confidential.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The findings of the present study were presented here in this chapter. Thus, in the first part of this chapter the demographic characteristics of the study sample were presented and described as well. This was followed by presenting the results of the predominantly practiced style of parenting in the families of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students. Then after, findings regarding adolescents' status of self-regulation were presented here in this chapter. This chapter also presents the findings of this study concerning the statistical differences in adolescent students' self-regulation score due to the differences in their sex, age, parental education, family structure, and their perceived parenting styles. Finally, this chapter presents the finding of this study regarding the relationship between parental dimensions and adolescents' self-regulation. Generally, analysis of descriptive statistics, one sample mean test, independent samples t-test, one way ANOVA, and correlational analyses were presented in line with the objectives that were set to be dealt in the present study.

4.1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

The frequencies and percentages of the demographic characteristics of participants with respect to their sex, age, parental education, and family structure were demonstrated here in Table 3.

Table 3:

Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Demographic characteristics	Groups	Sex		Total	
		Female	Male	Frequency	Pecrcent
		164 (47%)	185 (53%)	349	100
Age	Middle Adolescence	71	34	105	30.1
	Late Adolescence	93	151	244	69.9
	Total	164	185	349	100
Father's/ Male guardian's	No formal education	90	106	196	56.2
	Primary	50	64	114	32.7
	Senior secondary/high school	9	9	18	5.2
	Certificate/Diploma	3	2	5	1.4
	First degree and above	12	4	16	4.6
	Total	164	185	349	100
Mother's/	No formal education	114	130	244	69.9
	Primary	33	46	79	22.6
	Senior secondary/high school	10	6	16	4.6
	Certificate/Diploma	2	2	4	1.1
	First degree and above	5	1	6	1.7
	Total	164	185	349	100
Family structure	Intact	126	141	267	76.5
	Non-intact	38	44	82	23.5
	Total	164	185	349	100

As can be observed in Table 3, about 53% of the participants were males and about 47% of the total participants were females. Hence, the sample sizes of female and male participants of the present study were significantly proportionate [$\chi^2 (1) = 1.264, p = 0.261$] [see Appendix C].

Regarding participants' age group, about 70.2% of the participants were in late adolescence period and about 29.8% were in middle adolescence period. Coming to the educational status of fathers'/male guardians of the participants, about 56 % of them did not attend formal education as reported by their adolescent children. About 32.7 % of the participants' fathers/ male guardians attended primary education; and participants endorse 5.2%, 1.4%, 4.6% for senior secondary, diploma/ certificate, and for first degree and above educational qualifications respectively. In addition, participants also disclosed the educational status of their mothers/ female guardians to be 69.9%, 22.6%, 4.6%, 1.1%, and 1.7% for no formal education, primary/junior secondary, senior secondary, certificate/diploma, and for first degree and above educational levels respectively. Thus, the majority of participants' mothers/ female guardians did not attend any formal educational system. Coming to the family structure of participants', the majority of participants (76.5%) reported that they were from intact families (i.e., residing with both biological parents) and the rest 23.5% of the total participants were from non-intact families.

4.2. Predominantly Practiced Parenting Style

In this section, attempts were made to assess the type of parenting style, which was predominantly perceived to be practiced in the families of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students. The frequencies and percentages of parenting styles were presented in Table 4.

Table 4:

Frequencies and Percentages of Perceived Parenting Styles

S.N	Parenting styles	Frequency	Percent
1.	Authoritative parenting style	107	30.7
2.	Authoritarian parenting style	65	18.6
3.	Permissive/ Indulgent parenting style	68	19.5
4.	Neglectful parenting style	109	31.2
	Total	349	100

In Table 4, the descriptive statistics revealed that among 349 parents of adolescents, 31.2% were neglectful, 30.7% were authoritative, 19.5% were permissive/ indulgent, and 18.6% were authoritarian parents as reported by Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students. Thus, both neglectful and authoritative parenting styles were found to be the predominantly practiced parenting style in the families of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students, and an authoritarian parenting style was the least commonly practiced parenting style as reported by participants.

4.3. Self-Regulation of Adolescents

In this section, the researcher attempted to determine Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students' self-regulation score. The status of adolescents with respect to their self-regulation was determined by using one sample mean test and the result was presented here in Table 5.

Table 5:

The Results of one sample mean test on Adolescents' Self-regulation

	N	Expected Mean	Mini mum	Maxi mum	Mean	Std. de viation	T-value	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	95 % CI	
										LL	UL
Self-Regulation	349	108	56	121	91.93	13.235	-22.690	.000	-16.074	-17.47	-14.68
Valid N (listwise)	349										

Note. N = 349; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

As indicated in Table 5, a one sample mean test was run to determine the level of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students' self-regulation. There was statistically significant mean difference between the expected mean (108) and the observed mean (91.93) score of self-regulation. This shows that adolescent students in Amanuel secondary and

preparatory school had significantly lower score on their self-regulation ($t(348) = -22.690$, $p = .000$, 2-tailed). That is, adolescent students in Amanuel secondary and preparatory school had poor ability to regulate their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors.

4.4. Self-Regulation Differences by Demographic Characteristics

In this study, attempts were made to examine demographic characteristics as factors, which may affect self-regulation of adolescent students of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school. Demographic characteristics were sex (female, male), age (middle Adolescence, late Adolescence), parental education (No formal education, Primary/Junior secondary, Senior secondary, Certificate/Diploma, First degree and above), and family structure (intact, non-intact) of participants of the present study.

4.4.1. Adolescents' Self-Regulation by Sex

In this study, by applying an independent samples t-test, the researcher attempted to check whether there was statistically significant mean difference in scores of adolescent students' self-regulation because of their sex (gender) difference. The results were presented in two subsequent Tables i.e., Table 6 and Table 7.

Table 6:

The Means and Standard Deviations of Score of Adolescents' Self-regulation by Sex

Variable	Sex	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error Mean
Self-regulation	Female	164	92.98	13.485	1.053
	Male	185	90.99	12.975	.954

Table 6 indicated that the mean score of adolescents' self-regulation was 92.98 for females sex and 90.99 for males.

Table 7:

The Results of Independent Samples t-test on Comparison of Adolescents' Self-regulation by Sex

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% CI _____	
								LL	UL	
Self-regulation	Equal variances assumed	.000	.991	1.398	347	.163	1.981	1.418	-.807	4.769
	Equal variances not assumed			.763	338.412	.164	1.981	1.421	-.814	4.776

Note. CI= confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of self-regulation for females and males. There was no statistically significant mean difference in scores for females (M= 92.98, SD= 13.485) and males (M= 90.99, SD= 12.975; $t(447) = 1.398$, $p = .163$, two-tailed) on their self-regulatory behavior. The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 1.98, 95% CI: -.807 to 4.769) was very small ($\eta^2 = .0029$). That is, male adolescent students and female adolescent students of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school had similar level of scores on their self-regulation as measured by ASRI. Thus, the sex of adolescents did not affect their score of self-regulation.

4.4.2. Adolescents' Self-Regulation by Age

By using an independent-samples t-test, the researcher tried to examine whether there was statistically significant mean difference between middle and late adolescents' score of self-regulation. The findings of this study regarding age difference were presented in two subsequent Tables i.e., Table 8 and Table 9.

Table 8:

The Means and Standard Deviations of Score of Adolescents' Self-regulation by Age groups

Variable	Age group	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error Mean
Self-regulation	Middle Adolescence	105	92.77	13.853	1.352
	Late Adolescence	244	91.56	12.972	.830

Table 8 indicated that the mean score of adolescents' self-regulation was 92.77 for those who were in middle adolescence period and 91.56 for adolescents who were in the period of late adolescence.

Table 9:

The Results of Independent samples t-test on Comparison of Adolescents' Self-regulation by Age

		Levene's Test For Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% CI	
								LL		UL
Self-regulation	Equal variances assumed	.931	.335	.783	347	.434	1.210	1.546	-1.830	4.250
	Equal variances not assumed			.763	185.960	.447	1.210	1.587	-1.920	4.340

Note. CI= confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of self-regulation for middle and late adolescents. There was no statistical significant mean difference in scores for middle adolescents (M= 92.77, SD= 13.853) and late adolescents (M= 91.26, SD= 12.972; $t(447) = .783$, $p = .434$, two-tailed) on their self-regulatory behavior. The magnitude of the differences in

the means (mean difference = 1.21, 95% CI: -1.80 to 4.25) was very small (eta squared = .0029). That means age did not affect the self-regulation of adolescents because middle adolescent students and late adolescent students of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school had similar score of self-regulation as measured by ASRI.

4.4.3. Difference in Adolescents' Self-Regulation by Fathers' Education

An attempt was made to determine the statistically significant mean differences in adolescents' score of self-regulation due to the difference in their fathers'/ male guardians' levels of education. A one way ANOVA revealed the following results which were presented in two subsequent Tables (Table 10 and Table 11).

Table 10:

The Means and Standard Deviations of Score of Adolescents' Self-regulation by Fathers Levels of Education

Groups	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	196	90.97	13.859	.990	89.02	92.93
2	114	92.73	12.250	1.147	90.46	95.00
3	39	94.36	12.636	2.023	90.26	98.45
Total	349	91.93	13.235	.708	90.53	93.32

Table 10 indicated that the mean score of adolescents' self-regulation was 90.97 for those whose father has had no any formal education, 92.73 for adolescents whose father attended primary education, and 94.36 for adolescents whose father attended secondary education and above.

Table 11:

The Results of one-way ANOVA on Comparison of Adolescents' self-regulation by fathers'/ male guardians' levels of education

Self-regulation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	481.646	2	240.823	1.378	.254
Within Groups	60474.917	346	174.783		
Total	60956.563	348			

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of fathers'/ male guardians' level of education on adolescents score of self-regulation as measured by the Adolescent Self-regulation Inventory (ASRI). Participants were divided into three groups according to their fathers'/ male guardians' levels of education (Group 1: No formal education; Group 2: Primary education; Group 3: Senior secondary/high school and above). There was no statistically significant difference at the $p > .05$ level in self-regulation scores for the three paternal education groups: $F(2, 346) = 1.38, p = .254$. Thus, fathers'/ male guardians' education status did not affect the self-regulatory behavior of adolescent students of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school.

4.4.4. Adolescents' Self-Regulation by Mothers' Education

In the present study an attempt was also made to determine the statistically significant mean differences in Adolescents' score of self-regulation due to the difference in their mothers'/ female guardians' levels of education. A one way ANOVA revealed the results, which were presented in the following Tables (Table 12 and Table 13).

Table 12:

The Means and Standard Deviations of Score of Adolescents' Self-regulation by Mothers Levels of Education

Groups	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	244	91.16	13.385	.857	89.47	92.84
2	79	92.84	13.400	1.508	89.83	95.84
3	26	96.38	10.377	2.035	92.19	100.58
Total	349	91.93	13.235	.708	90.53	93.32

As indicated in Table 12, the mean score of adolescents' self-regulation was 91.16 for those whose mother has had no any formal education, 92.84 for adolescents whose mothers attended primary education, and 96.38 for adolescents whose mothers attended secondary education and above.

Table 13:

The Results of one-way ANOVA on Comparison of Adolescents' self-regulation by mothers'/ female guardians' levels of education

Self-regulation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	726.966	2	363.483	2.09	.125
Within Groups	60229.597	346	174.074		
Total	60956.563	348			

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of mothers'/ female guardians' level of education on adolescents score of self-regulation as measured by the Adolescent Self-regulation Inventory (ASRI). Participants were divided into

three groups according to their mothers'/ female guardians' levels of education (Group 1: No formal education; Group 2: Primary education; Group 3: Senior secondary/high school and above). A one-way ANOVA indicated that there was no statistically significant difference at the $p > .05$ level in self-regulation scores for the three maternal education groups: $F(2, 346) = 2.09$, $p = .125$. That is, mothers'/ female guardians' education status did not affect the self-regulatory behavior of adolescent students of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school.

4.4.5. Adolescents' Self-Regulation by Family Structure

In this part, the researcher of the present study tried to examine the presence or absence of statistically significant mean difference between adolescents from intact families and adolescents from non-intact families in their score of self-regulation. The result was performed by an independent samples t-test and it was demonstrated below in Table 14 and Table 15.

Table 14:

The Means and Standard Deviations of Score of Adolescents' Self-regulation by Family Structures

Variable	Family structure	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error Mean
Self-regulation	Intact	267	92.40	13.499	.826
	Non-intact	82	88.63	15.500	1.712

Table 14 indicated that the mean score of adolescents' self-regulation was 92.40 for those whose family structure was intact and 88.63 for those whose family structure was non-intact.

Table 15:

The Results of Independent sample t-test on Comparison of Adolescents' Self-regulation by Family Structure

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% CI	
								LL	UL	
Self-regulation	Equal variances assumed	1.169	.280	2.001	347	.046	3.330	1.664	.057	6.602
	Equal variances not assumed			1.923	126.748	.057	3.330	1.732	-.097	6.757

Note. CI= confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the score of self-regulation for participants from intact and non-intact family structures. There was statistically significant mean difference in scores for participants from intact family (M= 92.40, SD= 13.499) and non-intact family (M= 88.63, SD= 15.500); $t(447) = 2.001$, $p = .046$, two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 3.330, 95% CI: .057 to 6.602) was very small (eta squared = .0029). That is, family structure affected adolescent students' score of self-regulation as measured by ASRI. Meaning that, adolescents who were from intact family structures had better self-regulatory behavior than those who were from non-intact family structures.

4.5. Adolescents' Self-Regulation by Perceived Parenting Styles

Examining whether there are statistically significant differences in adolescents' self-regulation score as a function of perceived parenting styles was another objective of the present study. The results were presented in Table 16 and Table 17.

Table 16:

The Means and Standard Deviations of Adolescents' Self-regulation by their Perceived Parenting Styles

Groups	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	107	96.92	12.215	1.181	94.57	99.26
2	65	91.10	12.433	1.542	88.02	94.18
3	68	95.54	12.828	1.556	92.43	98.64
4	109	85.27	12.093	1.158	82.97	87.56
Total	349	91.93	13.235	.708	90.53	93.32

As indicated in Table 16, the mean score of adolescents' self-regulation was 96.92 for those who perceived their parents as authoritative, 91.10 for those who perceived their parents as authoritarian, 95.54 for those who perceived their parents as permissive and 85.27 for those who perceived their parents as neglectful parents.

Table 17:

The Results of one-way ANOVA on Comparison of Adolescents' self-regulation by their perceived parenting styles

Self-regulation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8429.778	3	2809.93	18.46	.000
Within Groups	52526.785	345	152.25		
Total	60956.563	348			

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of parenting styles on adolescents' levels of self-regulation, as measured by the Adolescent Self-regulation Inventory (ASRI). Participants were divided into four groups according to their perceived parenting style (Group 1: Authoritative parenting style; Group 2: Authoritarian parenting style; Group 3: Indulgent/ Permissive parenting style; Group 4: Neglectful parenting style). The result revealed that there was statistically significant mean difference at the $p < .05$ level in self-regulation scores for the four parenting style groups: $F(3, 345) = 18.456, p = .000$. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .14 so that the actual difference in mean scores of self-regulation between the four groups was large. Hence, parenting style affects adolescents' self-regulatory behavior. Even though ANOVA indicated that there were statistically significant mean differences in self-regulation score among adolescents who had different perceived styles of parenting, it did not indicate where exactly the difference exist. Thus, Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test was computed to know where exactly the difference was existed and it had been demonstrated in Table 18.

Table 18:

Tukey Post Hoc Tests for Self-regulation Mean Scores of the four Parenting style Groups

(I) Parenting styles	(J) Parenting styles	Mean Difference	Std.Error	Sig.	95% CI	
					LB	UB
Authoritative	Authoritarian	5.816*	1.940	.015	.81	10.83
	Permissive	1.379	1.914	.889	-3.56	6.32
	Neglectful	11.650*	1.679	.000	7.31	15.98
Authoritarian	Authoritative	-5.816*	1.940	.015	-10.83	-.81
	Permissive	-4.437	2.140	.164	-9.96	1.09
	Neglectful	5.834*	1.934	.015	.84	10.83
Permissive/	Authoritative	-1.379	1.914	.889	-6.32	3.56
Indulgent	Authoritarian	4.437	2.140	.164	-1.09	9.96
	Neglectful	10.271*	1.907	.000	5.35	15.19
Neglectful	Authoritative	-11.650*	1.679	.000	-15.98	-7.31
	Authoritarian	-5.834*	1.934	.015	-10.83	-.84
	Permissive	-10.271*	1.907	.000	-15.19	-5.35

Note. CI= confidence interval; LB = lower bound, UB = upper bound.

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

In Table 18, Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score of self-regulation for Group 1 (M= 96.92, SD= 12.21) was significantly different from Group 2(M= 91.10, SD= 12.43) and Group 4 (M= 85.27, SD= 12.09). That means adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative had significantly higher self-regulation score than those who perceived their parents as authoritarian and neglectful. The mean score of self-regulation for

Group 2(M= 91.10, SD= 12.43) was significantly different from Group 4. That means adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritarian had significantly higher self-regulation score than those who perceived their parents as neglectful.

The mean score of self-regulation for Group 3(M= 95.54, SD= 12.83) was significantly different from Group 4, but they did not differ significantly from either Group 1 or two. That means adolescents who perceived their parents as indulgent / permissive had significantly higher score of self-regulation than those who perceived their parents as neglectful.

4.6. The Relationship between Parenting Dimensions and Self-Regulation

Examining the relationship between parenting dimensions (parental responsiveness and parental demandingness) and adolescents’ self-regulation was one of the objectives of the present study. An attempt was made to determine the direction and magnitude of the relationship between parenting style dimensions and self-regulation by applying Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient accordingly. The results were presented here in Table 19.

Table 19:

The relationship between Parental dimensions and self-regulation

		Parental responsiveness	Parental demandingness
Self-regulation	Pearson Correlation	.371**	.225**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	349	349

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

The relationship between parental responsiveness (as measured by the PDQ) and adolescents’ self-regulation (as measured by the ASRI) was investigated by using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The result revealed that there was statistically significant moderate, positive correlation between parental responsiveness and self-regulation, $r = .371$, $n = 349$, $p < .001$, with higher levels of parental responsiveness associated with higher levels of self-regulation. Parental responsiveness helps to explain 13.8 per cent of the variance in participant’s score of self-regulation on the Adolescent Self-regulation Inventory (ASRI).

As demonstrated in Table 18, the relationship between parental demandingness (as measured by the PDQ) and adolescents' self-regulation (as measured by the ASRI) was investigated by using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The result revealed that there was statistically significant small or weak, positive correlation between parental demandingness and self-regulation, $r = .225$, $n = 349$, $p < .001$, with higher levels of parental demandingness associated with higher levels of self-regulation. Parental demandingness helps to explain only 5.1 per cent of the variance in participant's score of self-regulation on the Adolescent Self-regulation Inventory (ASRI).

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS

This chapter provides a discussion related to the results obtained in the result section of chapter four. The discussion section aims to discuss the results of the analysis in line with the previous findings related to the objectives of the present study. The main purpose of this study was to examine the impact of adolescents' perceived parenting styles and some selected demographic factors on the self-regulatory behavior of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students. Hence, discussions were made on the results of the analysis in accordance with the objectives of this study. First, discussion was made about the result obtained in relation to determining the predominantly practiced parenting style among the parents of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students. Discussion was also made with regard to the result obtained in relation to examining adolescent students' self-regulation status in Amanuel secondary and preparatory school. In addition, it was made about the findings with regard to differences in adolescents' self-regulation due to their sex, age, parental education, family structure, and perceived parenting styles. Finally, the relationship between parenting dimensions and adolescent students' self-regulation were addressed.

5.1. The Predominantly Practiced Parenting Style

Describing the parenting style that was predominantly practiced by parents of the participants was one of the principal objectives of this study. The current study revealed that both neglectful and authoritative parenting styles found to be the most commonly practiced parenting styles.

The finding that a neglectful parenting style was the most predominantly practiced parenting style repeats the results of few previous studies in Ethiopia. For instance, a neglectful parenting style was found to be the most predominantly practiced parenting style with a sample size of 477 students (Tigist, 2013). In addition, another study conducted by Tarekegn (2018) also revealed that a neglectful parenting style was the most predominantly practiced style of parenting in the Ethiopian families. Previous studies conducted by using participants from different parts of our country, Ethiopia also revealed that it is authoritative parenting style that was predominantly exercised. For instance, researches conducted using participants from Ambo, Butajira, Debre Berhan, and Harrar (Seleshi & Sentayehu, 1998), and Addis Ababa, Kotebe College of Teachers'

Education, and Wolayta Soddo University (Abesha, 2012) indicated that authoritative parenting style to be dominantly practiced in the Ethiopian families. Furthermore, researches done by using participants from Tana Haik Compulsory secondary school, and Gion secondary school and Fasilo general secondary School (Melaku, 2017) also indicated that authoritative parenting style to be dominantly practiced in the Ethiopian families. In addition, a study conducted by using 424 students from Entoto Amba secondary school and Wondirad preparatory school also revealed authoritative parenting style to be dominantly practiced in the Ethiopian families (Henock, 2014). Thus, in the present study authoritative parenting style was also the predominantly practiced style of parenting among the families of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students.

One possible explanation for the predominance of neglectful parenting style may be life style of the community. In the community where the study conducted, parents are mostly very busy to meet the needs of their families; as a result, they may have no any time to spend with their children. They may go out in the early morning before their children are awakened, and they may come back to their home too late after their children get asleep. In this case, they may not even contact their children for days and this may affects the perception of children toward the responsiveness and demandingness of their parents.

As indicated in the analysis section of the demographic characteristics of participants, the majority of fathers/ male guardians and mothers/ female guardians of participants did not attend any formal education. This may have affected the choices of their style of parenting. Hence, this could be another possible explanation for the predominance of neglectful parenting style.

5.2. Self-Regulation of Adolescents

The present study revealed that Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students had significantly lower score on their self-regulation as it has been determined by applying a one sample mean test.

This study findings is inconsistent with a study conducted by Belay et al. (2014) using 211 secondary school adolescent students and the study revealed that self-regulatory behavior was significantly higher among the adolescent students in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

One possible explanation for these inconsistencies may be the test value which have been used by the researchers. For instance, Belay et al. (2014) used the midpoint of the test variable (i.e., the third response option “undecided”) and the number of items to determine the test value. The response option undecided is not enough in labeling adolescents as having better or poor level of self-regulatory behavior because undecided by itself is meaningless. However, the present researcher selected the fourth response option (i.e., agree) as the minimum requirement to label adolescents’ self-regulatory behavior as high or low, and finally to determine the test value (i.e., $4 \times 27 = 108$).

5.3. Self-Regulation Differences by Demographic Characteristics

Examining the effects of demographic variables like sex, age, parental education, and family structure on adolescents’ self-regulation were also another specific objectives of the present study.

5.3.1. Adolescents’ Self-Regulation by Sex

Regarding sex or gender difference in adolescent students of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school, the finding of the present study indicated that statistically significant difference in adolescents’ score of self-regulation was not observed as it has been performed via an independent samples t-test. Thus, the present study finding revealed that the sex of adolescents had no statistically significant effect on their self-regulation. That is, the mean score of male adolescents’ self-regulation and female adolescents’ self-regulation was not found to be different significantly.

The finding of the present study is inconsistent with most of the findings of previously conducted researches in different countries around the globe. For instance, males were found to be weak in their self-regulation skills than females in a study conducted in America by Piotrowski, Lapierre, and Linebarger (2013), in German by Achtziger and Bayer (2018), and in northern Portugal by Dias and Cadime (2017). A one-year longitudinal study by employing a sample of $N = 1,136$ college students indicated that women reported greater levels of self-regulation than men which is also inconsistent with the finding of the present study (Quinn & Fromme, 2011). In addition, in a research conducted by Wang, Fan, Tao, and Gao (2016) using 2910 adolescents, males

exhibited greater self-control than females which is also inconsistent with the finding of the present study. Thus, the present research finding is inconsistent with the findings of Ahtziger and Bayer (2018), Dias and Cadime (2017), Piotrowski, Lapierre, and Linebarger (2013), and Quinn and Fromme (2011).

Moreover, considering the Ethiopian adolescents, a study finding by Belay et al. (2014) indicated that participants who females had better self-regulatory behavior than males which is also inconsistent with the finding of the present study.

The way females are treated in rural areas may be very different from the way females are treated in urban areas. In this case, females in urban areas may be treated by parenting style that is more authoritative, and in rural areas, they may be treated by parenting style that is more neglectful. Even there could be perceptual differences towards their parents' level of responsiveness and demandingness. Therefore, residing in rural and urban may affect the actual parenting style, and the adolescents' perceived parenting style; and this may be the possible explanation for such inconsistencies.

5.3.2. Adolescents' Self-Regulation by Age

With regard to difference in Adolescents' scores on their self-regulation due to age differences, in the present study, an independent-samples t-test indicated that there was no statistically significant mean difference in their scores of self-regulation among adolescent students from middle adolescence and late adolescence age groups. That is, the mean score of middle adolescents' self-regulation is not significantly different from late adolescents' self-regulation. This finding is in agreement with the finding of Park and Edmondson (2012) which demonstrated that there was no statistically significant difference in adolescents' level of self-regulatory behavior due to difference in their age. In addition, the finding of a previously conducted local research Belay et al. (2014) revealed that there was no statistically significant difference among adolescents in their level of self-regulatory behavior because of differences in their age which is in accordance with the finding of the present study.

5.3.3. Adolescents' Self-Regulation by Parental education

With regard to fathers'/ male guardians' educational level, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance in the present study demonstrated that there was no statistically significant difference among participants on their self-regulation, as measured by ASRI, due to difference in the educational level of their fathers/ male guardians. That is, the educational level of fathers/ male guardians had no statistically significant effect on adolescent students' self-regulation.

In addition, with regard to mothers'/ female guardians' educational level, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance in the present study demonstrated that there was no statistically significant difference among participants on their self-regulation, as measured by ASRI, due to difference in the educational level of their mothers/ female guardians. That is, the educational level of mothers/ female guardians had no statistically significant effect on adolescent students' self-regulation.

The present study findings were in agreement with the previously conducted researches. For instance, a research that was conducted in China revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in adolescents' self-control with regard to parental education levels (illiteracy, primary school, junior high school, senior high school, junior college, University graduate, Master's degree or higher) (Wang et al., 2016). Moreover, the finding of the present study is also consistent with a locally conducted research by Belay et al. (2014) which revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in adolescents' self-regulation behavior because of differences in their parental education levels.

5.3.4. Adolescents' Self-Regulation by Family Structure

Coming to difference in adolescents' score on their self-regulation due to the difference in family structure, in the present study, an independent-samples t-test revealed that there was statistically significant difference among participants from intact family and non-intact family. That is, the mean score of adolescents' self-regulation was higher in adolescents who are growing up in intact family than adolescents who are from non-intact family.

The finding of the present study is consistent with some of research findings, which were conducted previously. For instance, in a very recent study done by Cho, Kim, and Kim (2018)

using 944 adolescents attending high school in five cities (Gwangju, Jeonnam, Chungnam, Seoul, and Gyeonggi) in South Korea revealed that participants who were from two-parent families had better self-control than participants who were from single parent and grandparent-led families.

On the contrary, the finding of the present study is inconsistent with the finding of previously conducted research here in our country, Ethiopia. For instance, in a study conducted by Belay et al. (2014) there was no statistical significance difference in adolescents' score of self-regulation behavior between adolescents from intact and non-intact families.

The previous research was conducted in Addis Ababa and the present research was conducted in Amhara region, East Gojjam zone, Machkel Woreda, Amanuel town. Peoples who are living in Addis (urban area) may have very different attitude towards being a stepparent than peoples who are living in Amanuel Woreda (sub-urban/ rural area). For instance, peoples who are living in Addis may have a positive attitude towards having stepchild, and the reverse could be true to peoples who are living in Amanuel Woreda. Thus, peoples who are living in Addis may treat their step-adolescent child in a way that is very much similar with the way in which their own biological child can be treated. Perhaps, this could be the possible explanation behind the inconsistencies of the present and previous findings of studies.

5.4. Adolescents' Self-Regulation by Perceived Parenting Styles

Examining whether there are significant differences in adolescents' self-regulation as a function of perceived parenting styles was another objective of the present study. A one-way between-groups analysis of variance result revealed that there was statistically significant mean difference in adolescents' self-regulation scores for the four parenting style groups (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful). In addition, Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score of self-regulation for adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative had significantly higher self-regulation score than those who perceived their parents as authoritarian and neglectful. Adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritarian had significantly higher self-regulation score than those who perceived their parents as neglectful. Adolescents who perceived their parents as indulgent/ permissive had significantly higher score of self-regulation than those who perceived their parents as neglectful. Adolescents

who perceived their parents as neglectful had significantly lower score of self-regulation than those who perceived their parents as authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. The findings of the present study is supported by the study finding which revealed that adolescents who reported high levels of authoritative parenting endorsed better self-regulation (Moilanen, 2005). In addition, a study revealed that adolescents who reported high levels of authoritative parenting endorsed high levels of positive emotion (Herzog et al., 2015).

5.5. The Relationship between Parenting Dimensions and Self-Regulation

Another objective of the present study was examining the relationships between parenting dimensions and adolescents' self-regulation, and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was employed. In the present study, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient indicated that there was statistically significant moderate, positive correlation between parental responsiveness and self-regulation. This study finding is consistent with the studies conducted by Moilanen (2007), and Moilanen and Manuel (2017) which indicated that there was significant positive relationship between parental responsiveness/acceptance and the levels of adolescents' self-regulation.

The present study also revealed that there was statistically significant small or weak, positive correlation between parental demandingness/control and self-regulation among adolescent students. This finding is inconsistent with previous research findings. For instance, a study conducted by Moilanen and Manuel (2017) revealed that a high level of parental demandingness/control was associated with a lower level of self-regulation and a lower level of parental demandingness/ control was associated with a high level of self-regulation. Perhaps, the Ethiopian adolescents may perceive parental demandingness/ control positively and this could be one of the possible explanations for these inconsistencies.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, key elements of the study were summarized, conclusions were drawn, and relevant recommendations were made for designing intervention strategies to strengthen positive developmental outcomes among adolescent students based on the results of the present study.

6.1. Summary

Examining the impact of adolescents' perceived parenting styles and demographic factors on the self-regulation of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students was the major objective of the present study. Thus, in order to achieve this major objective and other specific objectives of this study, the following questions were formulated as basic research questions.

1. What is the dominant parenting style experienced as perceived by adolescents?
2. What is the status of adolescents in their self-regulation?
3. Are there statistically significant differences in adolescents' self-regulation due to demographic characteristics like sex, age, parental education, and family structure?
4. Are there statistically significant differences in adolescents' self-regulation due to their perceived parenting styles?
5. Is there any statistical significant relationship between parenting dimensions and adolescents' self-regulation?

Amanuel secondary and preparatory school students which consisted of 4137 students, male=2169 and female=1968 students from grade 9th up to grade 12th were the target population of the present study. The sample size was 387 and the formula $[S=X^2NP(1-P) \div d^2(N-1) + X^2P(1-P)]$ which was developed by Krejcie & Morgan (1970) was employed and 10% was included as a reserve for non-used questionnaires in determining the size of samples. The main data analyses were conducted using 349 participants because the rest 38 respondents were discarded from the main data analysis. Probability sampling technique specifically stratified sampling and simple random sampling techniques were used to select participants of the present study.

The questionnaires of self-report measures used for collecting primary data from samples of the study. The data, which were pertaining to adolescent students' perceived parenting styles, were

collected through the Parenting Dimension Questionnaire (PDQ). In addition, the data, which were pertaining to adolescents' self-regulation, were collected through the Adolescent Self-regulation Inventory (ASRI).

The collected data entry had been performed using SPSS version 23 and the analyses were conducted. Frequency, percentages, one sample t-test, independent sample t-test, one-way ANOVA, and bivariate correlation specifically Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient were undertaken to answer basic research questions of the present study. The following were the major findings of the present study that were presented in Chapter 4.

- Neglectful and authoritative parenting styles were found to be the predominantly practiced parenting style in the families of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students.
- Amanuel secondary and preparatory school adolescent students had significantly lower self-regulation.
- There was no statistically significant mean difference in the self-regulation score of female and male adolescents.
- There was no statistically significant mean difference in the self-regulation score between adolescent of middle and late adolescence period.
- There was no statistically significant mean difference in adolescents' self-regulation due to the difference in adolescents' mothers' and fathers' level of education.
- There was statistically significant mean difference between adolescents from intact families and non-intact families (i.e., adolescents who reported intact families had significantly higher level of self-regulation that those who were from non-intact families).
- There were statistically significant mean differences in adolescents' self-regulation due to the difference in their perceived parenting styles.
- There was statistically significant moderate, positive correlation between parental responsiveness and adolescents' self-regulation.
- There was statistically significant positive weak correlation between parental demandingness and adolescents' self-regulation.

Finally, based on the present research findings conclusions and recommendations were forwarded.

6.2. Conclusions

Based on the findings of the present study, one may come up with the following conclusions.

- Neglectful and authoritative parenting styles found to be the most commonly employed parenting styles among the families of Amanuel secondary and preparatory school students. Even though there would be no significant differences in the proportion of neglectful and authoritative parenting styles, there was very little difference (i.e., neglectful stands first and followed by authoritative style of parenting) between these two styles of parenting. This indicates that the parenting style practiced in the community where the study was conducted is generally poor in terms of parental responsiveness and demandingness, and in turn, this had influenced adolescent students' self-regulation ability.
- Adolescent students of Machakel woreda had significant lower score of self-regulation. That means adolescents are poor in regulating their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. Adolescents' perceived parenting styles and structures of their families had significantly affected their level of self-regulation. Thus, they are more likely to involve in various problematic behaviors.

6.3. Recommendations

The following recommendations were forwarded based on the findings of the present study.

1. The administration of Machakl woreda should design workshops, and meetings to create awareness on different parenting styles and to enable parents to employ the best parenting style accordingly.
2. Having higher level of self-regulation is a protective factor that can save adolescents from negative developmental outcomes. Therefore, school administrators in Machakel woreda should work with other stakeholders to improve adolescent students' level of self-regulation by providing them life skill trainings.
3. The present study indicated that adolescents from intact family structures had significantly higher self-regulatory behavior than from non-intact family structures. However, the causes that forced parents to raise their children in non-intact family structures were not addressed in the present study. Therefore, future researches should be

conducted to identify those possible causes, and come up with conclusions and directive recommendations.

4. Further researches should be conducted employing heterogeneous population to know the exact impact of variables on adolescents' self-regulatory behavior and to generalize the findings for the period of adolescence.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

English Versions of the Questionnaires

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND BEHAVIORAL STUDIES
SCHOOL OF PSYCHOLOGY

Questionnaire to be Filled by Amanuel Secondary and Preparatory
School Students

The purpose of this questionnaire is to get some relevant information for the MA research entitled “Parenting styles and self-regulation of adolescents among Amanuel secondary and preparatory school students” being conducted in Addis Ababa University, College of Education and Behavioral Studies, School of Psychology. Therefore, the information and responses obtained from you are very important for this research to meet its prime objective. The study can be accomplished successfully only when you complete all the items honestly and genuinely.

The information and responses obtained from you will be kept confidential and used only for the purpose of this research.

You are not required to write your name at any place in the questionnaire.

Thank you very much for your kind cooperation!!!

Part I- General Background Information

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

1. Sex: (A) Female (B) Male
2. Age _____
3. Grade: (A) 9th (B) 10th (C) 11th (D) 12th
4. With whom you were growing up _____
 - (A) With both father and mother
 - (B) With father
 - (C) With mother
 - (D) With mother and step father
 - (E) With father and step mother
 - (F) Others specify _____
5. Your father's/male guardian's level of education is _____
 - (A) No formal education
 - (B) Primary
 - (C) Secondary
 - (D) Certificate/Diploma
 - (E) First degree and above
6. Your mother's/female guardian's level of education is _____
 - (A) No formal education
 - (B) Primary
 - (C) Secondary
 - (D) Certificate/Diploma
 - (E) First degree and above

Part II- The Parenting Dimension Questionnaire (PDQ)

Direction: Please read each of the following statements carefully and think about your parents'/guardians' attitudes and behaviors in raising you, and rate them using the scale below by putting a check mark (√) on the alternative numbers which you believe best describes your parents' style of parenting.

The numbers represent 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

S.N	Statements	Father/male Guardian					Mother/female Guardian				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
		1	Listens to my ideas and opinions.								
2	Gives me freedom to select the subject for study.										
3	Takes care of my food preferences.										
4	Appreciates me when I try to become independent.										
5	Gives me a lot of care, attention, and support.										
6	Enjoys talking and playing with me.										
7	Involves in my education.										
8	Discusses responsibilities in line with my growth.										
9	Points out ways I could do better.										
10	Rewards me for good doings.										
11	Takes care of my dressing.										
12	Fulfills my desires with available means.										
13	Makes me aware that what I do is for me myself.										
14	Respects my interest and view.										
15	Celebrates in my successes with me.										
16	Speaks to me with a warm and friendly voice.										

17	Tries to frame my likes and dislikes.													
18	Exerts firm control on me.													
19	Expects me to do something immediately.													
20	Punishes me when I do not meet expectations.													
21	Sets high standards for me to meet.													
22	Puts burdens that are beyond my capacity.													
23	Pushes me to do my best in whatever I do.													
24	Sets rules and laws, which I have to follow.													
25	Strict about how I should behave.													
26	Always saying how I must behave.													
27	Gets angry when I am late to reach home.													
28	Believes I must obey all orders.													
29	Makes most of the decisions about what I can do.													
30	Does not forget what I do wrong													
31	Uses criticism to make my behavior improved.													
32	Monitors me whereabouts and activities.													

Part III- Adolescent Self-regulatory Inventory (ASRI)

Direction: Please read each of the following statements carefully and for each item, think about your self-regulatory behavior. Then, choose one of the five alternative numbers by putting a check mark (√) on the alternative numbers, which you believe best describes your parents' style of parenting.

The numbers represent 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

S.N	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	When I am sad, I can usually start doing something that will make me feel better.					
2	When I am bored, I fidget or cannot sit still.					
3	I can usually act normal around everybody if I am upset with someone.					
4	I am good at keeping track of lots of things going on around me, even when I'm feeling stressed.					
5	I can start a new task even if I am already tired.					
6	Little problems detract me from my long-term plans.					
7	I forget about whatever else I need to do when I am doing something really fun.					
8	During a dull class, I have trouble forcing myself to start paying attention.					
9	After I am interrupted or distracted, I can easily continue working where I left off.					
10	If there are other things going on around me, I find it hard to keep my attention focused on whatever I am doing.					
11	I never know how much more work I have to do					
12	It is hard to start making plans to deal with a big project or problem, especially when I'm feeling stressed.					
13	I can calm myself down when I am excited or all wound up.					
14	If something is not going according to my plans, I change my actions to try and reach my goal.					
15	I can find ways to make myself study even when my friends want to go out.					
16	I lose control whenever I don't get my way.					
17	If I really want something, I have to have it right away.					
18	When I have a serious disagreement with someone, I can talk calmly about it without losing control.					
19	I can stay focused on my work even when it is dull.					
20	I can stop myself from doing things like throwing objects when I am					

	mad.					
21	I work carefully when I know something will be tricky.					
22	I am usually aware of my feelings before I let them out.					
23	In class, I can concentrate on my work even if my friends are talking.					
24	When I am excited about reaching a goal (e.g., getting my driver's license, going to college), it is easy to start working toward it.					
25	I can find a way to stick with my plans and goals, even when it is tough.					
26	When I have a big project, I can keep working on it.					
27	I can resist doing something when I know I should not do it.					

Appendix B

Amharic Versions of the Questionnaires

አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ

የትምህርትና ሥነ-ባህሪ ጥናት ኮሌጅ

የሳይኮሎጂ ት/ቤት

ለአማኑኤል ሁለተኛ ደረጃና መሰናዶ ት/ቤት ተማሪዎች የቀረበ የጽሑፍ መጠይቅ

የዚህ መጠይቅ ዋና ዓላማ በአዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ በሳይኮሎጂ ትምህርት ቤት ለሁለተኛ (ማስተርስ) ዲግሪ “የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ ዓይነትና የአማኑኤል ሁለተኛና መሰናዶ ት/ቤት ወጣት ተማሪዎች ራስን የመቆጣጠር/የመግዛት ችሎታ” በሚል ርዕስ ለሚካሄደው የምርምር ሥራ አስፈላጊውን መረጃ ለመሰብሰብ ሲሆን ከአንተ/ቺ የሚገኘው ትክክለኛ ምላሽ ለዚህ የምርምር ሥራ መሳካት የጎላ ድርሻ አለው። ስለዚህ አንተ/ቺ የምትሰጣቸው/ሜቸው መልሶች ጥናቱ ያለመለትን ግብ እንዲመታ በጣም ጠቃሚ በመሆናቸው የቀረቡትን ሁሉ ጥያቄዎች በግልጽነትና በታማኝነት መልስ/ሽ። ከአንተ/ቺ የሚገኙ መልሶች የሚያገለግሉት ለዚህ ምርምር ዓላማ ብቻ በመሆኑ አጥኚው በሚስጥርና በታማኝነት ይይዛቸዋል።

በመጠይቁ ላይ ስም መጻፍ አያስፈልግም።

ስለ ትብብርህ/ሽ በጣም አመሰግናለሁ!

ክፍል አንድ- አጠቃላይ መረጃ

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

1. የታ ሀ. ሴት ለ. ወንድ
2. እድሜ
3. የክፍል ደረጃ ሀ. 9ኛ ለ. 10ኛ ሐ. 11ኛ መ. 12ኛ
4. ከማን ጋር ነው ያደግህ/ሽ?
 ሀ. ከእናትና አባቱ ጋር መ. ከእናቱ እና ከእንጆራ አባቱ ጋር
 ለ. ከአባቱ ጋር ብቻ ሠ. ከአባቱ እና ከእንጆራ እናቱ ጋር
 ሐ. ከእናቱ ጋር ብቻ ረ. ከተጠቀሱት ውጭ ከሆነ ግለጥ/ጪ
5. የአባትህ/ሽ (የወንድ አሳዳጊህ/ሽ) የትምህርት ደረጃ፡- 6. የእናትህ/ሽ (የሴት አሳዳጊህ/ሽ) የትምህርት ደረጃ፡-
 ሀ. መደበኛ ትምህርት ያልተማረ ሀ. መደበኛ ትምህርት ያልተማረ
 ለ. አንደኛ ደረጃ ለ. አንደኛ ደረጃ
 ሐ. ከፍተኛ ሁለተኛ ደረጃ ሐ. ከፍተኛ ሁለተኛ ደረጃ
 መ. ሠርተፊኬት/ዲፕሎማ መ. ሠርተፊኬት/ዲፕሎማ
 ሠ. የመጀመሪያ ዲግሪ እና በላይ ሠ. የመጀመሪያ ዲግሪ እና በላይ

ክፍል ሁለት- የወላጆችን የልጅ አስተዳደግ ዓይነት መለኪያ

መመሪያ- ከዚህ በታች የተዘረዘሩት ዓረፍተ ነገሮች የአንተን/ቺን ወላጆች/አሳዳጊዎች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት ምን እንደሚመስል ለማወቅ የቀረቡ ሲሆን የአንተ/ቺ ወላጆች አንተን/ቺን ሲያሳድጉ የሚያሳዩትን የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት በሚገባ ይገልጻል የምትለውን/ይውን የስምምነት ደረጃ የ (✓) ምልክትን በማድረግ መልስ/ሽ።

የእናት/ ሴት አሳዳጊና የአባት/ ወንድ አሳዳጊ ለየብቻ መልስ/ሽ።

- መግለጫ፡-
 1 = በጣም አልስማማም
 2 = አልስማማም
 3 = መወሰን ያስቸግረኛል
 4 = እስማማለሁ
 5 = በጣም እስማማለሁ

ተ/ቁ	ዓረፍተ-ነገር	አባት/ ወንድ አሳዳጊ					እናት/ ሴት አሳዳጊ				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1.	የግል ሃሳቤን/ አመለካከቱን ያዳምጣል/ ታዳምጣለች።										
2	የማጠናውን የትምህርት ዓይነት እኔ ብቻ እንድወስን ይፈቅድልኛል/ ትፈቅድልኛለች።										
3	የምግብ ምርጫዬን ያከብራል/ ታከብራለች።										
4	በራሴ ሃሳብ ለመመራት ጥረት ሳደርግ ያደንቀኛል/ ታደንቀኛለች።										
5	እንክብካቤ፣ ትኩረትና ድጋፍ ያደርግልኛል/ታደርግልኛለች።										
6	ከእኔ ጋር ማውራትና መጫወት ይወዳል/ትወዳለች።										

32	የምሄደበትን ቦታና የማደርጋቸውን ነገሮች ይቆጣጠራል/ ትቆጣጠራለች።									
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ክፍል ሦስት- የወጣቶችን ራስን የመቆጣጠር/የመግዛት ችሎታ መለኪያ

መመሪያ- የሚከተሉትን ዐ/ነገሮች በማንበብ አንተ/ቺ ያለህን/ሽን ራስን የመቆጣጠር/የመግዛት እቅም ግንዛቤ ወስጥ በማስገባት ከቀረቡት እያንዳንዱ ሰድስት አማራጮች አንተን/ቺን በይበልጥ የሚገልጽህን/ሽን የስምምነት ደረጃ የ (√) ምልክትን በማድረግ ለእያንዳንዱ ዐ/ነገር መልስ ስጥ/ጩ።

- መግለጫ:-
- 1 = በጣም አልስማማም
 - 2 = አልስማማም
 - 3 = መወሰን ያስቸግረኛል
 - 4 = እስማማለሁ
 - 5 = በጣም እስማማለሁ

ተ/ቁ	ዓረፍተ ነገር	1	2	3	4	5
1	ሲከፋኝ/ሳዘን አብዛኛውን ጊዜ የተሻለ/ጥሩ ስሜት የሚፈጥርብኝን ነገር አደርጋለሁ።					
2	ስልጥት ሲለኝ አንድ ቦታ መቀመጥ አልቻልኩም(አቁጠነጣለሁ)።					
3	በአንድ ሰው ብናደድም ብዙ ጊዜ ጤናማ ባህሪ ማሳየት/ማንፀባረቅ አቻላለሁ።					
4	በተጨማሪነቅሁበት አጋጣሚ እንኳን ነገሮች መስመራቸውን/ አሰራራቸውን ጠብቀው እንዲቀጥሉ የማድረግ ብቃት አለኝ።					
		1	2	3	4	5
5	ቢደክመኝም እንኳን ሌላ ተጨማሪ ስራ ጀምሮ መስራት አቻላለሁ።					
6	ትንንሽ መሰናክሎች/ ችግሮች የረጅም ጊዜ ዕቅድን ከማሳካት ይገድቡኛል።					
7	እኔ የምደሰትበትን ነገር ካገኘሁ ሌሎች ማድረግ የሚጠበቅብኝን ነገሮች ሙሉ በሙሉ አረጋግጥለሁ።					
8	በማልወደድ የትምህርት ዓይነት ክፍለ-ጊዜ ትኩረት ሰጥቼ ለመከታተል አቸገራለሁ።					
9	ስራዬን በምሰራበት ጊዜ የሚያቋርጠኝ ነገር ቢከሰትም እንደገና ካቆምሁበት መቀጠል አቸገራለሁ።					
10	በአጠገቤ ሌሎች ክስተቶች ከተከሰቱ በምሰራው ስራ ላይ ብቻ ትኩረት አድርጌ ለመቆየት አቸገራለሁ።					
11	አሁን ባሉኝ የስራ ድርሻዎች ላይ ምን ያህል ሌሎች ተጨማሪ የስራ ድርሻዎችን ጨምሮ መስራት እንደምችል በፍፁም አላወቅም።					
12	በተለይ በተጨማሪነቅሁ ጊዜ ለችግሮች መፍትሄ ለመንደፍ በጣም አቸገራለሁ።					
13	በጣም ስደሰት አሊያም በጣም ስከፋ ራሴን ማረጋገጥ አቸገራለሁ።					
14	አንድ ነገር ባቀድሁት መሰረት ካልሄደልኝ ሌላ ዘዴ በመጠቀም አላማዬን ለማሳካት አቸገራለሁ።					
15	ጓደኞቼ ከቤት/ከደርግ/ከቤተ-መጻሕፍት መውጣት ቢፈልጉም እንኳን እኔ እያጠናሁ መቆየት የምችልበትን ሁኔታ ማመቻቸት አቸገራለሁ።					
16	ነገሮች እንዳሰብኳቸው ካልሄዱ ራሴን ለመቆጣጠር አቸገራለሁ።					
17	አንድን ነገር በትክክል የምፈልገው ከሆነ ወዲያውኑ ላገኘው ይገባል ብዬ አምናለሁ።					
18	ከአንድ ሰው ጋር ከፍተኛ አለመግባባት ቢያጋጥመኝ ራሴን በመቆጣጠር ተረጋግቼ ማናገር አቸገራለሁ።					
19	የምሰራው ስራ እያስጠላኝም ቢሆን እንኳን ስራው ላይ ብቻ ትኩረት አድርጌ መቆየት አቸገራለሁ።					

20	አንዳንድ ነገሮችን ከማድረግ ራሴን መግታት (ለምሳሌ ስናደድ ያገኘሁትን ነገር ሁሉ አለመወርወር) እችላለሁ።					
21	የምሰራው ስራ ሁሉ እንዳይበላሽብኝ ከፍተኛ ጥንቃቄ በማድረግ መስራት እችላለሁ።					
22	ብዙ ጊዜ የራሴ ስሜት ከመንፀባረቁ/ከመውጣቱ በፊት በደንብ አውቀዋለሁ።					
23	ክፍል ውስጥ ጓደኞቼ እያወሩም ቢሆን እንኳን ትምህርቴ ላይ ብቻ ትኩረት ማድረግ እችላለሁ።					
24	አላማን በማሳካት (ለምሳሌ፡- ዩኒቨርሲቲ በመግባት) የሚገኘውን ደስታ ሳስብ ለራሴ አላማ መሳካት ጠንክራ ለመስራት እነሳሳለሁ።					
25	አላማዬን ከግብ ለማድረስ ከባድ መሰናክሎች ቢያጋጥሙኝም እንኳን አላማዬን ለማሳካት የተለያዩ ዘዴዎችን መፈለግ እችላለሁ።					
26	ትልቅ ጉዳይ ሲኖረኝ ጉዳዩን ብቻ ማከናወን እችላለሁ።					
27	አንድን ነገር ማድረግ እንደሌለብኝ የማውቅ ከሆነ ላለማድረግ መቋቋም እችላለሁ።					

Appendix C

Chi-Square Test for Sex Proportion

Frequencies of Participants Sex

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Female	164	174.5	-10.5
Male	185	174.5	10.5
Total	349		

Chi-Square test results

	Sex	df	Asymp. Sig.
Chi-square	1.264 ^a	1	.261

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 174.5.

Appendix D

Reliability Coefficients of Instruments

Scale: Responsiveness sub-scale

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	67	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	67	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Cronbach's Alpha	.794	16

Scale: Demandingness sub-scale

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	64	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	64	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Cronbach's Alpha	.784	16

Scale: Adolescent Self-regulation Inventory (ASRI)

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	64	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	64	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Cronbach's Alpha	.789	27