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**GENDER AND FAMILY STRUCTURE AS MODERATORS IN THE  
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLES AND IDENTITY  
DEVELOPMENT AMONG ADOLESCENTS**

**MONIQUE BASSON**

Research submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree  
Master of Social Science with specialisation in Psychology in the

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

of the

FACULTY OF THE HUMANITIES

at the

UNIVERSITY OF THE FREE STATE

January 2018

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## **Declaration**

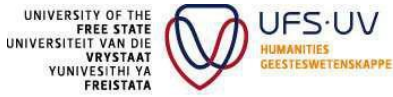
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### **STATEMENT WITH REGARD TO LANGUAGE EDITING OF RESEARCH DISSERTATION**

Hereby I, Jacob Daniël Theunis De Bruyn STEYL (I.D. 5702225041082), a language practitioner accredited with the South African Translators' Institute (SATI), confirm that I have language edited the following research dissertation:

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Yours faithfully



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## **Acknowledgements**

I would like to convey my sincere appreciation and gratitude to the following people:

- To the heavenly Father, granting me the opportunity and courage to complete my study.
- To Professor Luzelle Naudè, my research supervisor, without whom this would not have been possible. Thank you for your constant support, patience and expert guidance.
- To my parents, for continuously encouraging me and never wavering in their support and love.
- To my best friend and partner, carrying me through this journey with encouragement and support.
- To Mr Danie Steyl, my language editor, for the professional manner in which you assisted with the language and technical editing of this research document.
- The University of the Free State and Department of Psychology for giving me the opportunity to further my academic career.
- The Department of Education of the Free State and all the participants who participated in the research.

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## **Abstract**

Adolescence is considered a crucial period for the development of an identity. Various factors affect this development. One of these factors is the perceived parenting styles to which adolescents are exposed: authoritative, authoritarian, or permissive parenting. The focus was specifically on adolescents' perception of the parenting style they are exposed to. Another factor includes the family structure in which adolescents live. The various possible family structures were grouped into either nuclear or non-nuclear family structures. Additionally, the gender of the individual can also be considered a factor, as males and females differ much with regard to the development of an identity. Therefore, the aim of this study was to investigate the moderating role of gender and family structure in the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development among adolescents.

A non-experimental quantitative research approach and a non-probability, convenience sampling method were utilised. A sample of 243 adolescents between the ages of 16 and 20 was recruited from a high school in the Mangaung area of central South Africa. A biographic questionnaire provided information about the participants' age, gender, ethnic group, and family structure. The Ego Identity Process Questionnaire (EIPQ), which is based on Marcia's identity status theory, was utilised to measure adolescents' ego identity development, and the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ), which is based on Baumrind's work, measured perceived parenting style. Data were then analysed by means of various methods, including descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, and standard regression analyses.

Together, the authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles uniquely explained a significant amount of variance in identity. The authoritarian parenting style explained 3.4% of the variance in identity development, and the authoritative parenting style explained 10.7% of the variance in identity development. Gender was found to play a significant moderating role in the forming of identity in the case of the authoritative parenting style, but not in the case of the permissive or authoritarian parenting styles. It was found that family structure did not play a significant moderating role in the three perceived parenting styles. It is evident from this study that various factors influence the development of an adolescents' identity.

*Keywords:* adolescence, family structure, gender, identity development, perceived parenting style

## Opsomming

Adolesensie word beskou as 'n belangrike tydperk vir die ontwikkeling van 'n identiteit. Verskeie faktore beïnvloed hierdie ontwikkeling. Een van hierdie faktore is die waargenome ouerskapstyle waaraan hulle blootgestel word, hetsy gesaghebbende, outoritêre of permissiewe ouerskap. Waarvan "waargenome" verwys word na die ouerskapstyl wat die adolessent glo hulle in hul huishouding aan blootgestel word. Nog 'n faktor is die gesinstruktuur waarin hulle woon, wat 'n kern- of nie-kernstruktuur kan hê. Alhoewel kern- en nie-kernfamiliestrukture nie die enigste strukture is waarvolgens 'n gesin gemeet kan word nie, word hulle in hierdie studie gebruik om die begrip van die familiestrukture waarin die deelnemers hulself bevind, te vereenvoudig. Bykomend kan die geslag van die individu ook as 'n faktor beskou word, aangesien mans en vroue baie verskil ten opsigte van die ontwikkeling van 'n identiteit. Daarom was die doel van hierdie studie om die modereringsrol van geslag- en gesinsstruktuur in die verhouding tussen waargenome ouerskapstyle en identiteitsontwikkeling onder adolessente te ondersoek.

'n Nie-eksperimentele kwantitatiewe navorsingsbenadering is aangewend, met 'n nie-waarskynlikheid, gerieflikheidsteekproefneming-metode. 'n Steekproef van 243 adolessente tussen die ouderdomme van 16 en 20 is van 'n hoërskool in die Mangaung-gebied van sentraal-Suid-Afrika geworf. 'n Biografiese vraelys het inligting oor deelnemers se ouderdom, geslag, etniese groep en gesinsstruktuur verskaf. Die "*Ego Identity Process Questionnaire (EIPQ)*", wat op Marcia se identiteitstatus-teorie gebaseer is, is gebruik om adolessente se ego-identiteitsontwikkeling te meet, en die "*Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ)*", wat op Baumrind se werk gebaseer is, het waargenome ouerskapstyl gemeet. Data is toe met behulp van verskeie metodes, insluitende beskrywende statistiek, inferensiële statistiek en standaard regressie van analise, ontleed.

Beide die outoritêre en gesaghebbende ouerskapstyle het 'n unieke hoeveelheid variansie in identiteit verklaar. Die outoritêre ouerskapstyl verklaar 3,4% van die verskille in identiteitsontwikkeling, en die gesaghebbende ouerskapstyl 10,7% van die verskille. Daar is gevind dat geslag 'n beduidende modereringsrol speel in die vorming van identiteit in die geval van die gesaghebbende ouerskapstyl, maar nie in die geval van die permissiewe of outoritêre ouerskapstyle nie. Daar is bevind dat familiestruktuur geen beduidende modereringsrol in die drie waargenome ouerskapstyle gespeel het nie. Die bydrae van waargenome ouerskapstyle was waardevol aangesien beduidende resultate is gevind ten opsigte van gesaghebbende en

outoritêre ouerskap style en die bedrag van variansie wat hulle bydra. Ander faktore, insluitend geslag en familie struktuur is ook oorweeg, omrede hulle beskou word as faktore wat die ontwikkeling van identiteit tydens adolessensie beïnvloed.

*Sleutelwoorde:* adolessensie, gesinstruktuur, geslag, identiteitsontwikkeling, waargenome ouerskapstyl

## **Chapter 1 – Introduction to this Research Study**

The process of developing an identity is considered to begin with the infant's discovery of the self and continues throughout childhood, where it becomes the focus of adolescence. Identity is a historically and socially created concept, whereby individuals learn about themselves through the interaction with family, peers, organisations, and the media. Whether an adolescent actively explores and commits to an identity can be due to many aspects in their lives, such as perceived parenting styles and family structure. Theorists suggest that males and females address the task of developing an identity differently, particularly in terms of the domains they use to define themselves, as well as the time it takes to form an identity. Therefore, the aim of this study was to determine the moderating role of gender and family structure in the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development among adolescents.

In this chapter, an overview of this research study is provided. The chapter focuses on the theoretical grounding that led the research, the rationale and aim of the study, and the research questions. Emphasis is placed on the concepts of identity development during adolescence, along with factors including perceived parenting styles, various family structures, and gender differences. An overview of the research design and methods is then provided, with the chapter concluding with a delineation of chapters to provide an overview of the study. The final section of this chapter includes a chapter summary.

### **1.1 Theoretical Grounding, Research Rationale, and Aim**

In this research study, the focus was on identity development during adolescence and how the family system affects this process.

Adolescence was conceptualised from a life span development perspective. Although there are various definitions of adolescence, it is defined most commonly as a period between childhood and adulthood when various developmental tasks have to be completed in the physical, cognitive, social/psychosocial, and psychological/emotional domains. Adolescence is regarded as a crucial period for the formation of a stable identity (Luyckx, Goossens, Soenens, Beyers, & Vansteenkiste, 2005).

In this study, identity development was considered from the perspectives of various theorists. The seminal work of Erikson (1968) and Marcia (1966), as well as more contemporary theories such as Berzonsky's identity style model (Berzonsky & Kinney, 2008; Berzonsky &



Kuk, 2000), Waterman's series of six hypotheses (Kroger, Martinussen, & Marcia, 2010), Luyckx, Goossens, and Soenens' dual-cycle models of identity formation (Crocetti, Rubini, & Meeus, 2008; Luyckx, Goossens, & Soenens, 2006), Turner and Tajfel's social identity perspective (Hand & Gresalfi, 2015; Tajfel, 1979; Weiten & McCann, 2012) as well as the integrated narrative approach (McLean, Syed, Yoder, & Greenhoot, 2016) served as theoretical foundation for understanding the complexity of the identity construct. In all these theories, the processes of exploration of and commitment to an identity are highlighted as important to the formation of a stable identity. These processes are affected by the systems and environments in which adolescents live, thus indicating the importance of identifying the influence that perceived parenting styles, family structures, and gender has on the development of one's identity.

In this study, the family system was explored as one of the primary systems of socialisation in which adolescents form an identity (Akinsola, 2011). The family constitutes the first and most important social context in which humans develop (Chong & Chan, 2015). The way in which parents or caregivers approach adolescents is critical for the development of adolescents' ego identity. Baumrind (1965) was first to define parents' interaction with their children and define three types of parenting styles, namely the authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive parenting styles. These parenting styles are built on the foundation of two continua, namely responsiveness/warmth and consistency/behavioural control (Linebarger, 2015). In addition to parenting style, family structures and the changes in these structures play a role in adolescents' development of an identity (Michalek, 2016). Families can be categorised into nuclear and non-nuclear family structures (Lamanna & Riedmann, 2012).

Gender is also considered to play an important role in the development of adolescents' identity (Gardner, 2015). In this study, gender is referred to as the biological gender of either male or female. In previous research studies, various and often contradicting results were reported on the differences in males and females with regard to identity statuses (Crocetti, Sica, Schwartz, Serafini, & Meeus, 2013; Graf, Mullis, & Mullis, 2008; Sandu & Tung, 2006), as well as the parenting styles to which male and female adolescents are exposed (Mahasneh, Bataineh, & Al-Zoubi, 2013; Pizzolato & Hicklen, 2011).

Globally, parenting styles, practices, and associated variables have been well documented in terms of a developmental process. An estimated five decades has been devoted to researching parenting practices and their effects on children and adolescents (Roman, Makwakwa, &

Lacante, 2016). However, in South Africa, research has been very limited to the parental styles, as defined by Baumrind (1965, 1971), and how these styles and practices affect children. More research needs to be conducted on the influence that each parenting style has on the development of identity in the lives of adolescents in the South African context.

Thus, the aim of this study was to determine the moderating role of gender and family structure in the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development among adolescents. To achieve this aim, the following research questions were investigated:

1. Can a significant amount of the variance in identity development be explained by the various perceived parenting styles?
2. Does gender moderate the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development?
3. Does family structure moderate the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development?

## **1.2 Overview of the Research Design and Methods**

For the purpose of this research study, a quantitative research approach was followed. Furthermore, a non-experimental type with a correlation design (Stangor, 2011) was utilised in this research study. The researcher made use of convenience sampling to recruit 243 adolescents from the Mangaung area of central South Africa. The sample included male and female adolescents aged 16 to 20.

To collect the data, a self-report battery was designed. A biographic questionnaire was used to gain personal information, such as participants' age, gender, ethnicity, and family structure. For the purpose of this study, adolescents' family structure was categorised into two main categories, namely nuclear and non-nuclear family structures. The *Ego Identity Process Questionnaire (EIPQ)* by Balistreri, Busch-Rossnagel and Geisinger (1995) was administered to measure adolescents' ego identity development in two subscales, namely Exploration and Commitment. Furthermore, the *Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ)* by Buri (1991) was included to measure the three parenting styles identified by Baumrind (1965), namely the authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive parenting styles.

The reliability of the measures was determined by means of the Cronbach alpha coefficient (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). In addition to basic descriptive statistics, standard and moderated regression analyses (Petrocelli, 2002) were completed to investigate the research questions.

Throughout this research study, ethical principles were adhered to. Permission was obtained from the various parties involved in the research, namely the Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of the Humanities of the University of the Free State, the Free State Department of Education, and the principal of the participating school, to conduct the research. Other ethical considerations were also taken into account, including informed consent, confidentiality, non-maleficence, and beneficence (Allan, 2015).

### **1.3 Delineation of Chapters**

**Chapter 1:** An overview of the research study is provided in Chapter 1. This chapter highlights the necessity of conducting research on identity development during adolescence, perceived parenting styles, various family structures, and gender differences in the South African context. The chapter also includes an overview of the research design and methods that were used to conduct the research.

**Chapter 2:** In this chapter, a review of the existing literature regarding the development of an ego identity during adolescence is provided. Adolescence, as well as the developmental stages and domains, is conceptualised. The construct of identity is described along with the various theories on identity. Gender differences in adolescents' identity development are explained, as well as identity in the South African context.

**Chapter 3:** The family as a significant structure in supporting identity development during adolescence is discussed in this chapter. Various family structures, attachment styles and parenting styles are described in this chapter. Identity development is explained in relation to perceived parenting styles, various family structures, and the role of gender.

**Chapter 4:** In this chapter, a description of the methodology used to conduct the research is provided. The chapter focuses on the research design, sampling, data collection, data analysis, and ethical considerations for the study.

**Chapter 5:** In the first part of Chapter 5, the results pertaining to the two research questions are presented, followed by a discussion of the results in relation to theory.

**Chapter 6:** This research study is concluded in chapter 6. The focus of the chapter is on the key findings of the research, the limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.

#### **1.4 Chapter Summary**

In this chapter, the theoretical grounding, research rationale, and aim were discussed. Key concepts regarding perceived parenting styles, various family structures, and different genders in the identity development of adolescents were highlighted. An outline of the research design and methods that were utilised throughout the study were provided, included the sampling, data gathering and statistical analyses that was done. Finally, the chapter contains a description of the delineation of the chapters in this study.

## **Chapter 2 - Ego Identity Development during Adolescence**

There are periods in each individual's life that are crucial for change to occur. Adolescence is regarded as one of these critical periods. The development of a stable identity is one of the most important developmental tasks for adolescents (Luyckx et al., 2005). For this reason, it is important to establish how identity develops, as well as the factors which contribute to the development of one's identity. The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of the development of ego identity during the phase of adolescence.

### **2.1 Conceptualising Adolescence**

For many years, various researchers have formulated definitions for adolescence. Even though most researchers agree that adolescence is regarded as a transitional period occurring between childhood and adulthood, great variation in perspectives exists. The lack of consensus on the operational definition of adolescence can be ascribed to many different reasons including the recognition of the uniqueness of individuals, appreciation for the continuity of human development, as well as gender, racial, and cultural variability, and the redefined science of human development in an ever-evolving society (Curtis, 2015).

The degree to which present-day adolescents experience the transition is influenced greatly by significant individual and societal changes occurring in the recent years (Bayer, Gilman, Tsui, & Hindin, 2010). It is believed that the time between adolescence and adulthood has expanded based on earlier and healthier entry into puberty, an increased amount of time in high school and higher education, and the postponement of marriage and starting a family. Apart from these factors, changes in the broader environment such as globalisation and urbanisation also influence the period of adolescence (Bayer et al., 2010).

In the Oxford English Dictionary, with its original 1482 definitions of adolescence, adolescence is described as a period ranging from childhood to adulthood that extends between ages 12 and 21 years in females, and 14 and 25 years in males (Curtis, 2015). Hall (1904), the founder of adolescent science, defines adolescence as a process of physical and psychosocial "rebirth". More recently, adolescence is defined and constructed through physiologic, psychosocial, temporal, and cultural lenses and can be understood as the years between the onset of puberty and the formation of social independence (Steinberg, 2014).

**2.1.1 Developmental phases during adolescence.** To understand adolescence as a diverse developmental period, Barrett (2016) emphasises three phases of adolescence, namely early, middle, and late adolescence. Because there is tremendous individual developmental variability during adolescence, theorists differ in their chronologic classification of these sub phases.

Early adolescence is considered to be from age 11 to 13, when puberty begins to play a role. It is also considered as a period of conformity to one's peers. In this period, identity is usually connected to that of one's friends, and the moral reasoning of an early adolescent is in line with the approval from one's parents and peers (Barrett, 2016). Rules and limits are usually tested in this phase, and the capacity for abstract thinking begins to develop (Algozzine et al., 2011). It is also considered the phase when individuals' academic demands begin to increase, resulting in a less trusting student-teacher relationship (Curtis, 2015).

Middle adolescence includes ages 14 to 16 and is associated with the intention to discover interests, abilities, and aptitudes that lead to the development of an identity (Barrett, 2016). Sexual experimentation and interest becomes active in this phase (Curtis, 2015). Close bonded friendships are extremely important, and individuals become more competitive. Another important experience during this phase is the process of falling in love or finding a romantic partner for the first time (Barrett, 2016). During this phase, the development of ideals is evident, as well as a greater capacity to set self-directed goals (Algozzine et al., 2011).

Late adolescence is considered to be between 17 to 19 years of age. Important factors such as having high standards, morality, and integrity become evident. There is a more defined sexual identification and the increased need for intimacy (Curtis, 2015). During this phase, adolescents experience a struggle between personal standards and situational demands due to the pressure to succeed, whether it is academically, socially, or financially (Barrett, 2016). However, during this phase, adolescents are more prone to understand and accept the social institutions and cultural traditions that drive these situational demands. Self-regulation and self-esteem are regarded as important factors during this phase and are measured by how well one lives up to one's expectations and goals (Algozzine et al., 2011).

**2.1.2 Domains of adolescent development.** Adolescents face great stress, as they have to deal with physical maturation, changes in cognitive ability, difficulties in dating, and forming a desired identity. Exposure to these situations, which contribute to the high levels of stress and

the way adolescents confront them, leads to the developmental framework of “storm and stress” (Hollenstein & Loughheed, 2013).

Hall (1904) was the first to introduce the term “storm and stress” as a means of describing the time of difficulty and turmoil that adolescents are believed to face. Storm and stress includes three key factors, namely conflict with parents or authority figures, risky and problematic behaviour, and mood and emotional disruptions (Hollenstein & Loughheed, 2013). Storm is referred to as the decrease in self-control, whereas stress is referred to as the equivalent increase in sensitivity to the specific arousing stimuli. Although the contention that the experience of storm and stress is prominent in all adolescents is criticised often, it is generally accepted that it most likely happens during the adolescent developmental period (Hollenstein & Loughheed, 2013).

Development typically refers to the systematic changes and continuities that occur in each individual in the time between conception and death (Sigelman & Rider, 2012). The term *systematic* is used to describe development as patterned, orderly, and relatively enduring, as opposed to being unpredictable and not momentary. Continuities involve the way in which one remains the same or changes because of one’s past selves. The three domains of development generally include physical development, cognitive development, and psychosocial development (Sigelman & Rider, 2012). For the purpose of this study, it is important to consider these three domains along with social development, emotional development, and psychological development in the lives of adolescents.

**2.1.2.1 Physical domain.** The main physical changes that adolescents undergo include both brain and growth spurts, as well as the realisation of sexual maturity. Coordination and hand-eye skills improve during this stage. In the physical domain is an increased possibility for the development of a body image complex or insecurities (Sigelman & Rider, 2012). During early adolescence, it is most common to experience gains in weight and height, as well as the growth of pubic, underarm, and facial hair. The onset of puberty for boys is considered to be between the ages of 9 and 13.5. For girls, puberty usually occurs during the ages of 7 and 13 (Curtis, 2015).

The skeletal growth spurt usually occurs between the ages of 10 and 12 for girls and between 12 and 14 for boys. This growth spurt usually becomes dormant between the ages of 17 and 19 for girls and 12 and 14 for boys (Curtis, 2015). It is considered that males and females

are physically fully developed during late adolescence. Males often continue gaining height, weight, and muscle mass in the following years (Algozzine et al., 2011).

During the adolescent phase of physical development, the brain demonstrates unique plasticity, which occurs by means of strengthening the neuronal connection, the reduction on unused connections, and an increased sensitivity to environmental influences (Curtis, 2015). During adolescence, the brain is considered to mature in three neuronal systems, namely the reward system, the regulatory system, and the relationship system (Steinberg, 2014). There has been specific evidence of the lack of synchronisation between pubertal acceleration of the limbic system (the reward system) and the later maturation of the pre-frontal cortex (the regulatory system) (Curtis, 2015). Neuronal connectivity in the brain of adolescents continues to develop throughout the adolescent years and the twenties, which might influence reasoning capabilities, affective states, and impulse control (Curtis, 2015).

**2.1.2.2 Cognitive domain.** Theorists describe cognitive development as the transition in individuals' patterns of thinking, including areas such as reasoning, remembering, problem solving, and abstract thinking (Weiten & McCann, 2012). One of the leading influencers regarding cognitive development was Piaget (1983), who proposed that children and adolescents go through four stages of cognitive development. These four stages are characterised by fundamentally different thought processes, including the sensorimotor period (birth to the age of two), the preoperational period (age two to seven), the concrete operational period (age seven to 11), and the formal operational period (age 11 and older). Thus, adolescents fall in the formal operational period (Weiten & McCann, 2012). In this period, adolescents begin applying mental processes into abstract concepts. They are able to think hypothetically about abstractions such as love, identity, and free will. The formal operational period is often characterised as being relatively systematic, logical, and reflective. During this stage, adolescents' form of thinking begins to resemble that of adults (Weiten & McCann, 2012).

Cognitive development can include an adolescent's level of moral development (Weiten & McCann, 2012). Morality is often referred to as the ability to know the difference between right and wrong, as well as being able to behave accordingly. Kohlberg (1976) introduced a stage theory based on the development of moral reasoning (Weiten & McCann, 2012). Kohlberg (1976) found that individuals could evolve through three levels, with each level containing two separate stages, adding up to six possible stages. All six of these six stages



include a different means of thinking about and approaching the notion of right and wrong (Weiten & McCann, 2012).

The first level is referred to as the preconventional level, on which the individual thinks in terms of external authority. On the first level, Stage 1: punishment orientation and Stage 2: naïve reward orientation are found. These stages foster the thinking processes that acts are wrong because they are punished, or right because the acts are rewarded (Weiten & McCann, 2012). The second level is referred to as the conventional level, where individuals consider rules as necessary for maintaining social order, and includes Stage 3: good boy/good girl orientation and Stage 4: authority orientation. Stage 3 is characterised by the concept of right and wrong being governed by the approval or disapproval of others. Stage 4 includes the acceptance of right and wrong based on the rules and laws of society (Weiten & McCann, 2012).

The postconventional level is the third level of Kohlberg's stage theory. This level includes the development of a personal code of ethics and acceptance of rules. It includes Stage 5: social contract orientation and Stage 6: individual principles and conscious orientation. During these two stages, the concept of right and wrong is determined by fallible rules of society, as well as ethical principles that are used to emphasise equity and justice (Weiten & McCann, 2012). Even though the brain does not undergo much development after early adolescence, there seems to be various continuous changes in moral reasoning throughout middle and late adolescence (Weiten & McCann, 2012).

**2.1.2.3 Social and psychosocial domain.** Important changes in behaviour, such as conformity, occurs during adolescence by means of peer involvement. Intimate friendships develop along with the first signs of romantic relationships. The typical parent-child relationship becomes more equal as autonomy in the individual increases (Sigelman & Rider, 2012). During the social development of adolescents, peer relationships play one of the most important roles in establishing an identity and the experience of a true feeling of belonging (Brown, 2004). Adolescents are generally inclined to become friends with peers with whom they identify strongly, following an increase in self-esteem in the accomplishment of obtaining such a friend (Barrett, 2016). Sometimes, these friendships can pose a threat to the parent-child relationship. Parents often become concerned with the influence peers have on each other as it could result in the rejection of family values and beliefs. Parents are also concerned about these friendships because of the possible risk of being exposed to peer pressure and consequently engaging in negative behaviour (Brown, 2004).

Along with intimate, exclusive friendships, the concept of competition also begins to develop. It is argued that the notion to outperform one's peers comes from the desire to be differentiated from others (Barrett, 2016). The concept of falling in love also occurs. It is believed that romantic relationships are considered during this developmental stage, as it is an attempt to have one's identity reflected upon and clarified by one's partner. Through this, the self-image of the adolescent is clarified and accepted (Barrett, 2016). Social consciousness also begins to increase during late adolescence. Social consciousness refers to the increase in awareness and the desire to obtain meaning in life using political or social means. It also includes the increase in knowledge regarding one's rights, freedoms and responsibilities, as well as those of others (Barrett, 2016).

Psychosocial development is generally linked to the theory of Erikson (1968) and his stages of personality development (Weiten & McCann, 2012). During the stage of identity versus confusion, adolescents attempt to define themselves in terms of factors such as possible careers, relationships, religion, and independence. Adolescents are faced with an increased amount of real life intricacies and are expected to find appropriate means of dealing with life's intricacies as they become more independent and self-confident (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton, & Renn, 2010).

**2.1.2.4 Psychological and emotional domain.** The psychological development of adolescents incorporates all the domains already discussed in this section. Adolescents develop psychologically by obtaining a more abstract, differentiated, and integrated self-concept (Sigelman & Rider, 2012). They have the challenge of needing to adjust appropriately regarding their sexuality, as well as their gender roles. With regard to their moral reasoning abilities, they are able to internalise societal rules, as well as deciding what they want to believe. The prominent crisis in their lives includes the struggle between finding a desired identity or remaining in a state of confusion (Sigelman & Rider, 2012).

Typically, the most well-researched, widespread, and problematic behaviours of adolescents are related to emotions (Hollenstein & Loughheed, 2013). Factors such as depression, aggression, risk-taking, interpersonal conflict, and peer relationships all originate from emotional processes. According to Hollenstein and Loughheed (2013), the life of an adolescent is filled with challenging and stressful interpersonal events, which are usually met with regulatory compensation. Regulatory compensation is present during early and middle adolescence, but is more mature and evident during late adolescence. Thus, the process of

identity is believed to develop due to the differences in emotions and behavioural patterns (Hollenstein & Loughheed, 2013).

Thus, it is clear that a great amount of development occurs during adolescence on the physical, cognitive, emotional, and social levels (Michalek, 2016). However, the main task in this development stage is the formation of a successful identity. Despite the many changes mentioned, one's identity development remains prominent (Michalek, 2016).

## **2.2 Identity**

The development of an identity is considered a lifelong process. Individuals are constantly faced with new experiences and challenges that change their sense of identity (Carlsson, Wängqvist, & Frisén, 2015). Thus, reconstruction of one's identity is needed to incorporate new elements into one's identity (Carlsson et al., 2015).

**2.2.1 Defining identity.** Identity can be defined as conscious and unconscious processes of defining oneself by means of intra-psychic, social, relational, and specific contextual domains (Adams, 2014). Multiple definitions of what identity is have arisen during the years. The most widely used definition of identity would be that of Erikson (1968), as he considered adolescence as the critical period during which an identity is formed (Sigelman & Rider, 2012). According to Erikson (1968), identity can be regarded as an important concept that is developing continuously during an individuals' life span. Erikson (1968) used the term *self-sameness* to describe identity as a continuity of interactions with others, as well as the term *uniqueness* to refer to the differentiation between oneself and others. Through these terms, an individual is able to function autonomously from others (Ragelienė, 2016).

According to Marcia (1980), identity can be conceptualised as a self-structure that is an internal, self-constructed, dynamic set of individual beliefs, abilities, and drives. If this structure is well developed, individuals are more likely to be aware of their uniqueness, especially with regard to their strengths and weaknesses, as well as their similarities to others. When these structures are not well developed, individuals seem to be confused regarding their distinctiveness from others and they rely more on external sources to validate their existence (Marcia, 1980).

Another important definition of identity is that of Waterman (1993), who found that identity is the reflection of the individuals' best possible potential, which is generally self-

realising. The self-realising activities used to express the individual's identity are usually energising, fitting, and used to fulfil one's goals and views of the future (Ragelienė, 2016). Berzonsky (1988) created the social-cognitive theory of identity styles, which defines identity as a cognitive model to indicate how individuals process and experience information relevant to identity (Ragelienė, 2016).

Some researchers indicate a preference for a more holistic view of identity, indicating that identity is a combined, integrated construct. Other researchers believe it is more important to focus on specific identity domains (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010). These domains can be either ideological or interpersonal and include occupation, religion, politics, values, friendships, dating, gender roles, recreation, and family (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010; Mahasneh et al., 2016). It is proposed that adolescents engage in identity development in domains that are more important to them.

With maturation, the importance of domains changes (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010). Young adolescents prefer domains such as friendships and recreation as opposed to career identity. Apart from maturation, gender is another factor that might influence the importance of the domains. Women consider interpersonal issues more important, whereas men consider ideological issues more important (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010; Mahasneh et al., 2013). When considering friendship and dating domains, women feel more comfortable than men do, to explore these domains. Along with maturation and gender, family structure can also affect the importance of domains and thus affect the identity outcomes in adolescents.

**2.2.2 Development of identity.** The development of an identity equips individuals with social mechanisms to create awareness regarding aspects of who they are, relative to their social contexts (Adams, 2014). The process of forming a successful identity will expose individuals to experiencing inconsistencies, loss, and crises of meaning whereby they are expected to determine resolutions from themselves and others (Schwartz, Zamboanga, Luyckx, Meca, & Ritchie, 2013). The development of identity during adolescence is important, as it represents the first time in which factors such as physical development, social expectations, and cognitive abilities concur to create a pathway from childhood to adulthood (Marcia, 1980).

Identity development can be understood by considering three propositions. Firstly, identity is an ongoing process. The formation of one's identity can be influenced by other processes such as identification and imitation, and/or when an incongruity exists between the

real self (who one really is) and the ideal self (the self that could possibly be) (Adams & Van de Vijver, 2015; Schwartz et al., 2013). Secondly, it is proposed that identity can be assigned or selected. Identity is considered as based on ones' values of individualisation, social approval from others, the feeling of belonging, and the ability to care about others (Adams & Van de Vijver, 2015; Schwartz et al., 2013). Thirdly, identity formation occurs due to sensitive points in each individual's life cycle based on expectations, institutions, and rituals. Individual choices, self-transformation, and experiences are used to address these social expectations occurring at each sensitive point in the life cycle (Adams & Van de Vijver, 2015).

Apart from the propositions of identity formation, some factors influence the process of identity formation. Firstly, the cognitive development of adolescents can influence the success of resolving the identity crisis. Adolescents are more likely to do so when they have mastered the formal operational stage (Piaget, 1983) and are able to think in ways that are more complex and abstract. This also includes adolescents being able to self-direct and actively seek various solutions to problems (Sigelman & Rider, 2012; Sinkler, 2012). Secondly, personality factors can influence the formation of identity. Those who explore and achieve identity during adolescence are inclined to score low on traits such as neuroticism, and high in conscientiousness and openness to experience. These individuals are indicated to be curious, emotionally stable, and responsible (Sigelman & Rider, 2012; Sinkler, 2012). These personality factors are considered important, as they contribute to the way in which one develops one's identity.

Thirdly, and one of the most crucial factors, is the quality of the relationship adolescents have with their parents. It has been found that adolescents who are considered to be indecisive and drift between various identities are neglected or rejected by their parents, while it has been found that adolescents who have chosen an identity too early based on the views of their parents have fewer opportunities to discover different options and are controlled by the views of their parents (Sigelman & Rider, 2012; Sinkler, 2012). Adolescents who have achieved a successful identity status usually have loving, warm, and democratic parents. These individuals feel free to disagree with the opinion of their parents while experiencing a sense of closeness with their parents (Sigelman & Rider, 2012; Sinkler, 2012).

Fourthly, opportunities for exploration are also essential in the formation of an identity. Adolescents who are exposed to various ways of thinking, as well as the opportunity to explore various solutions to abstract problems, are more inclined to achieve a desired identity status

successfully (Sigelman & Rider, 2012; Sinkler, 2012). Lastly, the cultural context in which individuals find themselves is considered an important factor. In traditional societies, adolescents possibly are discouraged to explore and experiment with various options of identity and instead are expected to take on the identity of their parents or caregivers in their culture (Sigelman & Rider, 2012; Sinkler, 2012).

While there are many factors that affect the development of identity, it is also necessary to consider why it is so important to develop an appropriate identity. Identity fulfils five most commonly found functions in terms of adolescents (Adams & Van de Vijver, 2015; Beyers & Luyckx, 2016). These functions include (1) equipping adolescents with the structure to understand who they are; (2) providing adolescents with meaning and direction through factors such as commitment, goals, and personal values; (3) providing individuals with the ability for personal control and the understanding of free will; (4) striving for and achieving consistency and harmony between personal beliefs, values, and commitments; and (5) enabling adolescents to recognise their potential by means of a sense of future, alternative options, and various possibilities (Adams & Van de Vijver, 2015; Beyers & Luyckx, 2016).

Identity achievement is considered successful when one has solved the identity versus confusion crisis positively. Adolescents' mental health and psychological well-being are usually related to satisfying personal relationships, as well as a formed sense of identity (Ragelienė, 2016). Once an identity crisis has been solved, various self-perception images are incorporated into the accepted identity. There is also an increase in their performance in different societal roles. An achieved identity can also be linked to reduced levels of depression, anxiety, and suicidal tendencies. Identity achievement is associated positively with an individual's psychological well-being, emotional stability, and adjustment (Ragelienė, 2016).

**2.2.3 Identity theories.** Many researchers and theorists have explored the development of identity. The seminal work of Erikson and Marcia serves as a foundation for most of the more contemporary theories (Adams & Van de Vijver, 2015).

**2.2.3.1 Seminal theories on identity development.** Seminal theories in this field of study are indicated as being of central importance to the topic at hand. These theories often contribute a breakthrough, insight, or generative synthesis of ideas (Amiot, De la Sablonnière, Terry, & Smith, 2007). In identity studies, the seminal works of Erikson (1968) and Marcia (1966, 1980) are of main importance.

*2.2.3.1.1 Erikson's psychosocial stages.* Erikson describes identity development among adolescents as a slow ego growth process whereby the identifications they made as children are abandoned in order for their new structures to develop (Kroger et al., 2010). Although Erikson based his theory on the works of Freud, Erikson's focus was more on the psychosocial system and the interconnectedness among these systems (Beyers & Luyckx, 2016). The theory of psychosocial stages is focused more on the association between identity and intimacy, the predictable stage-like relationships between the various identity states, and the validation of each identity type (Beyers & Luyckx, 2016). Each stage is represented by two opposing personality traits that individuals display in varying degrees throughout their lives. According to how these crises are resolved, one is able to progress to the next stage, remain static, or even regress to a previous stage. During adolescence, identity versus confusion occurs as the psychosocial crisis (Weiten & McCann, 2012). Through these various factors, the study of individuality and identity development among adolescents has become a highly interesting and well-researched field with its connections to other factors such as puberty, changes in family dynamics, and conflict-filled energies (Schwartz et al., 2013).

During the stage of identity versus confusion, adolescents attempt to define themselves in terms of factors such as possible careers, relationships, religion, and independence. Along with this, adolescents often change their minds and experiment with different forms of behaviour, clothes, attitudes, and peers (Sigelman & Rider, 2012). In this stage, individuals also develop their own belief systems and goals for the future. Erikson (1968) argues that the identity crisis, or exploration phase, is a vital factor in forming an identity.

Erikson proposes that in the first year of life, the crisis of trust versus mistrust would be most evident. The second stage includes autonomy versus shame and doubt and occurs in the second and third years of life. Thirdly, initiative versus guilt is evident from age four to six. From age six to puberty, the crisis of industry versus inferiority comes to the fore with identity versus confusion occurring during adolescence (Weiten & McCann, 2012). Following this stage is intimacy versus isolation, which occurs in the years of early adulthood. The seventh stage includes generativity versus self-absorption occurring in middle adulthood, followed by the final stage of integrity versus despair in late adulthood (Weiten & McCann, 2012).

*2.2.3.1.2 Marcia's identity status theory.* The work of Erikson influenced the development of Marcia's (1966) theory of identity status paradigms. Marcia used Erikson's psychosocial stages to develop the identity status model in terms of the concepts of commitment

and exploration (Kroger et al., 2010). Adolescents deal with the formation of an identity in various ways, but the key questions based on Marcia's theory is whether the individual has experienced the process of a crisis (followed by exploration) or whether he or she has achieved commitment (Sigelman & Rider, 2012). The experience of a crisis refers to whether the individual has dealt with and questioned serious identity issues, and whether or not they have explored alternative options. Marcia (1966) developed two processes that are central to identity formation. These processes include exploration and commitment. Exploration refers to the search for alternative commitments in various identity domains after the realisation of an identity crisis. Commitment occurs when one has resolved the questions and issues, and has settled on an identity along with accepting certain values and goals (Sigelman & Rider, 2012; Weiten & McCann, 2012). Commitment includes the extent to which adolescents are able to make decisions in various identity domains and are able to commit to these various decisions (Meeus, 2011).

With these processes in mind, Marcia (1980) developed four identity statuses to describe the ways in which adolescents confront and resolve conflicts and crises, as well as define whether they are in the stage of commitment or exploration (Evans et al., 2010). These four statuses include foreclosure, diffusion, moratorium, and identity achievement.

Foreclosure status is characterised by individuals who have made a commitment to an identity without exploring alternative options (Crocetti et al., 2008). These individuals accept and adhere to external structures and do not attempt to challenge the status quo. They accept their parental values without questioning them. However, when there is an absence in authority, they are not equipped with the skills to resolve issues or crises (Evans et al., 2010). Marcia (1980) describes the foreclosure stage as occurring before the other stages, thus indicating that all adolescents are within the foreclosure status at one point during their identity development.

Diffusion occurs when individuals are unable to commit or reject certain types of commitments. These individuals are classified as not being engaged in proactive exploration or searching alternatives, nor have they committed to an identity (Crocetti et al., 2008). Individuals in the state of diffusion are often oblivious to the consequences of their actions or decisions and they are prone to submit to conformity (Evans et al., 2010).

In the moratorium status, individuals question parental values but do not attempt to commit to an identity as they are in the process of exploring different options (Crocetti et al.,



2008). Moratorium is characterised as the point between indecisiveness and authority. This status is usually referred to as the transitional one that eventually leads to identity achievement (Evans et al., 2010).

During the identity achievement status, a commitment regarding a specific identity domain has been made, which usually is based on a period of active exploration (Crocetti et al., 2008). The commitment to an identity is due to a lengthy period of crises in which the adolescent was forced to make decisions. These individuals are characterised as confident individuals and as being able to take risks (Evans et al., 2010).

**2.2.3.2 Contemporary theories on identity development.** The work that Erikson and Marcia have done, has contributed to a large amount of present research. This research includes the view that statuses are differentiated in terms of factors such as psychosocial problems, personality characteristics, and quality of interpersonal relationships (Crocetti et al., 2013; Kroger & Marcia, 2011; Marcia, 1993a.). Since the late 1980s, many researchers have built on the conceptualisation of identity as proposed by Erikson (1950, 1968) and Marcia (1966).

Although there are many contemporary theories of identity, five of these will be discussed as they provide an in-depth understanding of the development of an identity: (1) Berzonsky's identity style model (Berzonsky 1988, 2000, 2008; Crocetti et al., 2013); (2) Waterman's series of six hypotheses; (3) Luyckx, Goossens, and Soenens' dual-cycle models of identity formation (Crocetti et al., 2013; Luyckx et al., 2005; Meeus, Van de Schoot, Keijsers, Schwartz, & Branje, 2010); (4) Turner and Tajfel's social identity perspective (Crocetti et al., 2013; Schwartz et al., 2013; Tajfel, 1979; Willer et al., 1989); and (5) the integrated narrative approach (McAdams, 1993; McLean et al., 2016).

**2.2.3.2.1 Berzonsky's identity style model.** Berzonsky (1988, 1990) suggests that adolescents who are in the process of developing a stable identity and are in the various identity statuses, incorporate various social-cognitive processes by which they solve problems, make decisions, and process personal relevant information. These processes are categorised into three identity styles, namely the informational, normative, and diffuse-avoidant styles (Berzonsky & Kinney, 2008; Berzonsky & Kuk, 2000).

Individuals employing a normative style usually are found in the foreclosure status. These individuals are found to have internalised the standards and expectations of others as their own, as well as having a possible proactive approach when it comes to problem solving (Berzonsky

& Kinney, 2008; Berzonsky & Kuk, 2000). These individuals are characterised as having appropriate self-control and being goal-oriented, but also as having low tolerance for ambiguity and do not consider alternative values and views. They are considered to have a high need for structure and cognitive closure (Berzonsky & Kinney, 2008; Berzonsky & Kuk, 2000). When faced with stressful encounters, those indicated as having a normative style, usually confront these encounters by seeking reassurance from significant others, as well as relying on social support (Berzonsky & Kinney, 2008).

Those in the diffuse-avoidant style are classified as being the identity-confused adolescents who have made very little commitments as in Marcia's (1966) status of diffusion. These individuals avoid conflict and personal problems with which they are faced regularly. When the conflict or problem persists and needs urgent attention, the individuals' behaviour will be controlled by situational demands and inducements (Berzonsky & Kinney, 2008; Berzonsky & Kuk, 2000). The diffused-avoidant style is associated positively with procrastination, negative means of coping, and depressive reactions. On the other hand, this style is associated negatively with self-reflection, commitment, and cognitive persistence (Berzonsky & Kinney, 2008; Berzonsky & Kuk, 2000). Individuals with the diffuse-avoidant style generally are more inclined to focus emotionally with denying the problem or conflict as their main goal. They face the problem of conflict by means of withdrawing, wishful thinking, or engaging in inappropriate behaviour. They experience emotional states such as anxiety, depression, and self-criticism (Berzonsky & Kinney, 2008).

Individuals with the information-oriented style are considered self-exploratory and are found to be associated with adolescents who are currently in the moratorium status. These individuals search for, evaluate, and make use of self-relevant information by means of analytical thinking, experiential openness, and accurate awareness of their internal states (Berzonsky & Kinney, 2008; Berzonsky & Kuk, 2000). These individuals have positive means of coping, cognitive complexity, and are able to make appropriate decisions. When individuals are faced with stressful situations or personal conflicts, those with the informational style are considered to depend on active, problem-focused means of solving the issue at hand. They rely on various options and alternatives to solve their problems (Berzonsky & Kinney, 2008). When they are faced with situations that they cannot change, they are able to reinterpret and restructure events and situations cognitively to find alternative solutions (Berzonsky & Kinney, 2008).

2.2.3.2.2 *Waterman's series of six hypotheses.* Waterman (1999) provides an explanation of the changing processes that occur during the four identity statuses. He arranges his findings into a series of six hypotheses, which ultimately contributes to the various theories regarding identity development (Kroger et al., 2010).

Firstly, a major shift occurs in identity status from adolescence to adulthood. During the transition that occurs from adolescence to adulthood, there is expected to be a change of identity from the diffusion status to identity achievement. When considering the moratorium and foreclosure statuses, progressive shifts in and out of each are expected (Kroger et al., 2010; Waterman, 2015). Secondly, it is assumed that when the transition from adolescence to adulthood occurs, the task of forming an identity is made from the position of diffusion. It is hypothesised that some changes might occur earlier than others, such as the movement from identity diffusion versus the movement from moratorium to identity achievement (Kroger et al., 2010; Waterman, 2015).

Thirdly, Waterman (2015) states that moratorium is considered the least stable status when compared to the others. This is generally due to the anxiety and discomfort associated with this status. During late adolescence, foreclosure, identity achievement, and diffusion are considered relatively stable (Kroger et al., 2010; Waterman, 2015). Fourthly, he mentions that during early and middle adolescence, foreclosure and identity statuses are most likely the least stable due to an increased amount of life situations that are bound to encourage exploration. However, in late adolescence, one's life situation is most likely socially supported and executed to the extent that little change is required (Kroger et al., 2010; Waterman, 2015).

Fifthly, he suggests that there will be no gender differences with regard to identity status distributions when considering a worldwide perspective. However, there will be gender differences when considering an individual identity status perspective (Kroger et al., 2010; Waterman, 2015). In his final hypothesis, Waterman states that some factors exist that can be either beneficial or detrimental to the development of an identity. These factors include parents and parenting styles, options of identity alternatives in the individuals' context, the use of acceptable role models, and the level of success with regard to the solutions and resolving of previous identity-related crises (Kroger et al., 2010; Waterman, 2015).

2.2.3.2.3 *Luyckx, Goossens, and Soenens' dual-cycle models of identity formation.* Luyckx et al. (2006) introduced a dual-cycle model of identity formation with regard to the

exploration of identity. They differentiate between exploration in breadth and exploration in depth as two separate forms. Exploration in breadth consists of two separate segments. Firstly, it consists of the assessment, from the perspective of commitment, based on the eight domains including occupation, religion, political affiliation, values, friends, gender roles, family, and dating relationships. Secondly, exploration in breadth also includes Marcia's concept of exploration by searching for alternative commitments before deciding on an option (Kroger, 2017; Luyckx et al., 2006). Exploration in depth designates the extent to which adolescents maintain the commitments they have already made in an active approach.

Furthermore, Luyckx et al. (2006) distinguish between commitment making and identification with commitment. Commitment making refers to the concept of Marcia's work, which is that adolescents strive to commit to an identity of their choice after they have explored various alternatives. Identification with commitment refers to the way in which adolescents internalise their feelings, emotions, and thoughts regarding certain commitments (Kroger, 2017; Luyckx et al., 2006).

The integration of the concepts of exploration in breadth, exploration in depth, commitment making, and identification with commitment leads to the dual-cycle model of identity formation. The model concludes that identity is formed when adolescents make commitments after exploration in breadth has taken place. The model includes that identity evaluation and maintenance is possible, as exploration in depth allows adolescents to get to know themselves better. As they get to know themselves better, identification with commitment becomes possible (Kroger, 2017; Luyckx et al., 2006).

Crocetti, Rubini and Meeus (2008) introduced a second dual-cycle model of identity formation, based on the information of the first dual-cycle model of Luyckx et al. (2006). The second dual-cycle model indicates that identity formation is a process of continuous interaction between commitment, reconsideration, and in-depth exploration. It is considered that adolescents already have a set of commitments that they are dedicated to that is central to their ideological and interpersonal identity. Thus, it is considered in this second model that individuals do not enter the adolescent phase with a blank slate (Crocetti et al., 2008). It is assumed that adolescents use reconsideration of commitments and in-depth exploration to explore various commitments. Reconsideration of commitment is considered the process of comparing ones' present commitments to alternative ones and then making the choice of

whether or not to change one's present commitments (Crocetti et al., 2008; Crocetti, Schwartz, Fermani, Klimstra, & Meeus, 2012).

As mentioned in the first dual-cycle model, exploration in depth is the process of remaining committed to one's decisions and continuously monitoring the choices one has made. The second dual-cycle model, however, does not differentiate between the various aspects of commitment. One of the main aspects of this model is the consideration and reconsideration of one's current commitments (Crocetti et al., 2010). Another main aspect is considered identity maintenance where adolescents become more familiar with the current commitments they have made. It also includes exploring the various commitments in depth, which assists in the consolidation of their chosen commitments (Crocetti et al., 2010).

In this second dual-cycle model, commitment reflects identity certainty, whereas reconsideration reflects identity uncertainty, in the identity development process (Kroger, 2017). By means of cluster analysis, researchers have continued research on Marcia's identity statuses and have extracted further clusters to match Marcia's theory. Luyckx et al. (2005) describe two types of diffusion, namely troubled and carefree. Troubled diffusion implies a lack of steady identity commitments, as well as a high level of worry and fear regarding the future, whereas carefree diffusion implies the individual being unconcerned about identity decisions (Kroger, 2017). Meeus et al. (2010) identified two types of moratoriums, namely classical moratorium and searching moratorium. The classical type is characterised by the individual exhibiting anxiety and depression while in the identity development process, whereas the searching type is characterised by new commitments being made without disregarding present commitments (Kroger, 2017).

Thus, researchers are considering identity development among adolescents with the refined identity statuses in mind, which could include interesting implications for understanding adaptive and non-adaptive identity development (Kroger, 2017).

*2.2.3.2.4 Turner and Tajfel's social identity perspective.* Social identity can be defined as individuals' pride with regard to their identification with, and membership to, various social groups such as gender, racial, ethnic, religious, and friendship groups (Quiñones-Rosado, 2010; Weiten & McCann, 2012).

Social identity is formed through the interaction between individuals and the interactions they face with cultural norms, social demands, and relationships (Hand & Gresalfi, 2015). To

illustrate how identity develops in terms of a social identity, specific self-components are organised as schemas. Self-schemas are the hierarchical knowledge people have and include the guide on how to process the self-relevant information (Amiot et al., 2007). The manner in which individuals' self-concepts are organised forms their identity (Amiot et al., 2007).

According to the social identity theory (SIT) (Tajfel, 1979) and the self-categorisation theory (SCT) (Willer et al., 1989), social identity is the key element linking individuals to their social groups (Tajfel, 1979). According to the SIT, social identity develops from the categorisation in individuals' social groups and is focussed on the cognitive processes by which individuals organise information about the world around them (Amiot et al., 2007). Group identification is attained through two main components, namely a cognitive and evaluative component (Tajfel, 1979). The cognitive component consists of an understanding by individuals that they are part of a social group. Belonging to a specific group creates expectations of how they should behave, thus guiding the development of their identity. Even though individuals usually belong to a wide variety of groups, the groups that are most important for individuals greatly influence the development of their identity (Trepe, 2005). The evaluative component includes positive and negative factors associated with the experiences in both in-groups and out-groups. In-group comparisons are considered to assist in determining how beneficial it is to be in a certain group, whereas out-group comparisons are focussed on determining which group is superior or inferior (Trepe, 2005). If the experience in one's in-group is positive, it can lead to high levels of self-esteem or in-group favouritism. However, when these experiences are negative, it could possibly lead to out-group discrimination. Membership in a group encourages individuals' self-definition and is either a positive or negative image they hold of themselves (Amiot et al., 2007; Gee, 2001). Thus, identity is expected to arise when there is negotiation in a specific context, with others in their in-group.

The SCT focuses more on the development of a social identity in terms of why individuals associate with a specific group. Thus, the situation and factors in those specific groups create the way in which individuals' identities develop (Amiot et al., 2007). The first stage of the theoretical model is referred to as the anticipatory categorisation stage, which is considered a self-anchoring stage in which individuals project their self-characteristics and attributes onto their chosen social group. The second stage is the categorisation stage, which includes highly differentiated and isolated social identities. There is a predominance of individuals' social identity over others, as well as little or no overlap between individuals' old and new social

identities (Amiot et al., 2007). Following that is the third stage of compartmentalisation in which multiple social identities are considered and possible. It is assumed that there is no conflict among various social identities, although identification is highly context specific (Amiot et al., 2007). The fourth stage is integration, in which there is acknowledgement and decree of the conflict among various important social identities. Interrelation is established between various social identities by finding similarities among them (Amiot et al., 2007).

With these above-mentioned stages, it is evident that individuals belong to a variety of social groups. In turn, these social groups contribute to their various social identities (Amiot et al., 2007).

*2.2.3.2.5 Integrated narrative approach.* While all the theories discussed above can be categorised as status approaches, another perspective, namely the narrative approach, can also give valuable insight into identity development (McAdams, 1993; McLean et al., 2016).

In the narrative approach, the focus is on how ego identity is centred on the personal continuity. The ego identity is said to be found when an individual is able to incorporate the most basic, important, and internal understanding of his or her identity to create a personal sense of sameness across time (McLean et al., 2016). The narrative approach is based on theories that focus on the subjective processes of constructing a personal life story as an important means of developing an identity. These life stories include connecting one's memories of past experiences with one's present experiences, as well as with their imagined future (Carlsson et al., 2015). The narrative approach focuses on the organisation of inevitable personal changes that can be regarded as a possible threat to personal continuity (McLean et al., 2016). The formation of a life story that is able to explain how one has changed and remained the same is important to reserve a sense of personal continuity throughout time (McLean et al., 2016).

McLean, Pasupathi, and Pals (2007) developed a sociocultural model of narrative identity development. According to the model, a narrative identity is developed slowly over time, as individuals tell stories regarding their own experiences to and with others (McAdams & McLean, 2013). By means of repeated interaction with others, stories regarding personal experiences are edited, retold, reinterpreted, and exposed to a range of social and troublesome influences. Through these processes, the storyteller is able to develop a more integrative narrative identity (McAdams & McLean, 2013). An individual must learn how to share stories in accordance with their specific cultural parameters and particular groups such as their

families, peers, and other formal or informal social contexts, before they are able to develop a narrative identity (McAdams & McLean, 2013).

### **2.3 Gender Differences in Adolescents' Identity Development**

Gender is considered one of the central aspects on which an identity is developed throughout one's life span (Gardner, 2015). Varied research results have been reported on gender and identity formation, mostly revolving around the salience of various identity content areas and statuses (Sandu & Tung, 2006).

Schwartz and Montgomery (2002) found that early and middle adolescent females scored higher on achievement scales than males from the same age group did. In contrast to these findings, Bartle-Haring, Brucker, and Hock (2002) found that adolescent females consistently scored higher on moratorium and diffused subscales. Crocetti et al. (2013) propose in their research that adolescent males are more inclined to engage in the diffuse-avoidant identity status, while adolescent females are more inclined to be in the moratorium status of identity.

In terms of other findings, females are believed to be ahead of males in identity development during early to middle adolescence. Crocetti et al. (2013) found that males tend to catch up to females during late adolescence. Theories of cognitive development also suggest that females mature physically and cognitively one to two years earlier than males do (Crocetti et al., 2013). Graf et al. (2008) found that more gender differences had been recorded especially with regard to occupational exploration in adolescent years. Adolescent females usually have trouble assimilating their aspirations for love with their aspirations for careers (Marcia, 1993a).

Differences that adolescent males and females display in relation to identity development, career development, and psychological separation from parents were also researched (Graf et al., 2008; Marcia, 1993b; Vaccaro & Newman, 2016). The findings indicate that adolescent males who were emotionally more independent from their parents were more prone to explore alternative identities freely, whereas those who were emotionally dependent on their parents were less likely to be in the identity achieved status (Graf et al., 2008; Vaccaro & Newman, 2016). It was found that attitudinal independence amongst adolescent females predicted identity commitment negatively. Research often attributes the differences in connectedness and independence among males and females less to their biological gender and more to cultural differences that are evident through gender-role socialisation (Graf et al., 2008).



It is considered that these differences between males and females are due to the various societies and cultures where separateness in men are encouraged and conformity and embeddedness are encouraged for females (Sandu & Tung, 2006). Cramer (2000) found that females perform better than males on identity development and often display higher when considering identity achievement and moratorium. Thus, females are often expected to consider both stereotypical male and female paths of development, concluding that females have a wider range of possibilities when establishing an identity (Cramer, 2000). Graf et al. (2008) found that adolescent females place higher priority on intimacy than on identity development, whereas males place higher priority on identity development than on intimacy. According to Crocetti et al. (2013), adolescent females begin exploring alternative identity options sooner than adolescent males do.

Researchers interested in explaining gender differences in the development of an identity mostly focussed on different domains such as the assumption that an ideological domain is more relevant to males, while females tend to develop their identities based on interpersonal domains and relationships with others (Sandu & Tung, 2006). Noddings (1983) and Gilligan (1988) are of the opinion that females tend to develop their identities based on their relationships with others, whereas males rely more on the “traditional masculine” lines of self-definition. Thus, females are considered to use connected or relationship-oriented self-definitions, whereas males use objective self-characterisation (Sandu & Tung, 2006). It is assumed that males form their identities whilst focussing on issues such as knowledge acquisition, individual competence, and occupational choice. It is assumed that females focus more on their own interpersonal processes and their relations with others (Sandu & Tung, 2006).

It is clear to see that there is a variety of contrasting findings with regard to gender differences and how identities develop. Many factors contribute to these differences, especially culture and societal expectations.

## **2.4 Identity in South Africa**

Identity structure is considered a dynamic and non-static process, and elements are being added and discarded continually (Marcia, 1980). New elements of the evolving world are incorporated into one's identity continuously (Carlsson et al., 2015; Kroger et al., 2010). The society in which individuals develop their identities thus have a great influence on how they form a sense of self.

South Africa is a heterogeneous, but also complex, and segmented society (Bornman, 2010). South Africans of all racial, ethnic, and cultural groups have been, and are continuously being exposed to social and political changes that affect identity structures (Roman et al., 2016). These social and political changes include rearrangements in the composition of groups, revisions of ideologies, disruptions in social environments, and the re-evaluation of characteristics associated with certain social groups (Roman et al., 2016).

It is important to consider the development of an identity in a specific context, to be able to compare findings across various contexts, cultures, or population groups. When viewing identity development from a Western perspective, it is clear that identity mostly involves internal processes where individuals seek meaning about themselves in themselves (Adams, 2014). Individuals from an affluent Western context are considered more individualistic than non-Western or non-affluent equals are (Adams, 2014; Schwartz et al., 2010). Context also plays an important role in how individuals from a non-Western perspective view and define themselves. Here, identity development is considered a more external process where meaning about themselves is found in their social groups (Adams, 2014). Western individualistic and non-Western collectivistic cultures in South Africa have developed under relatively different circumstances throughout the years. Identities have developed differently in ethnocultural group aspects, even though South Africa attempted to promote and develop co-existing structures for Western individualistic cultures and non-Western collectivistic cultures (Adams, 2014). The context of defining different cultural groups in which identity develops is important, as culture plays a great role in individuals' self-definition. The context of culture affects social, moral, and intra-psychic processes of individuals' identity development (Adams, 2014).

South Africa has a relatively complicated history that is centred mainly on the advancement of white nationalism over black traditionalism (Bornman, 2010; Roman et al., 2016). Despite attempts to integrate the diverse South African society, the country still remains overwhelmed through social, political, and economic segregation, where group membership is found to be defined by ethnocultural group membership (Adams, 2014). Some researchers argue that identity formation during the apartheid era was attributed to one's racial classification recognised at birth. Because of this attribution, South Africans feel the need to identify themselves in terms of their social borders, their ethnic classification, and cultural or racial identities (Bornman, 2010; Roman et al., 2016). Social identification and the way in which

South Africans structure their identity can be determined by historical events, as well as current societal and political factors in South Africa and the larger African region.

During and a few years after the apartheid era, a strong ethnic identity was reported among Afrikaans-speaking whites, whereas a strong social identity were reported among English-speaking whites. Despite the overarching racial identity found among blacks, their ethnic identity was considered stronger, whereas coloureds rejected a typical coloured identity (Bornman, 2010). Long after the apartheid era in South Africa, ethnic identities remained important to all groups of individuals, whereas religious identities were found most prominent among coloured and Indian groups. Despite the fluctuations and diversity, the majority of the individuals in South Africa were proud to have the identity label of being South Africans (Roman et al., 2016).

When considering a country as diverse as South Africa and its social-political history, it is important to consider whether international findings based on parenting styles, gender, identity, and ethnicity, would be replicated in a South African context. The outcomes of studies in South Africa could display implications for the practitioners who are working in a South African context, especially when they are adding to an international body of knowledge on parenting styles, gender, identity, and ethnic differences (Roman et al., 2016).

In this study, identity was conceptualised as an ongoing process which can be influenced by other processes such as identification and imitation and can be assigned or selected. Identity is considered to be based on ones' values of individualisation, social approval, and the ability to care about others (Adams & Van de Vijver, 2015). The contributing theorists has a wide range of definitions for identity, but ultimately agreed that identity is a growth process, whereby adolescents use various social-cognitive processes, as well as change the ways in which they solve problems, make decisions, and process personal relevant information (Berzonsky & Kinney, 2008; Kroger et al., 2010; Kroger, 2017; Luyckx et al., 2006; Waterman, 2015).

## **2.5 Chapter Summary**

In this chapter, existing literature related to the development of an ego identity during the phase of adolescence was reviewed. Adolescence was conceptualised in terms of the various definitions supplied across various contexts including physiologic, psychosocial, temporal and cultural lenses, as well as the chronological age at which the individual find themselves. The different phases of adolescence was discussed as well as the most important domains of

adolescent development, including physical, cognitive, social and psychosocial, emotional and psychological domains. Following this, the definitions of identity and the development of identity were discussed by means of the propositions included in identity, the factors which influence the process of identity formation, as well as why it is important to develop an appropriate identity.

The seminal work of Erikson (1968) and Marcia's (1966) model of ego identity, was discussed as they are the forerunners in the discussion of identity development. Other important models contributing to the development of ego identity, such as Berzonsky's identity style model, Waterman's series of six hypotheses, Luyckx, Goossens and Soenens' dual-cycle models of identity formation, Turner and Tajfel's social identity perspective, and the integrated narrative approach were discussed as these are considered to be the most important theoretical approaches to consider when attempting to understand the development of identity. Along with this, was the discussion of gender differences in the development of identity among adolescents. To conclude, the meaning of identity from a South African perspective was discussed.

## **Chapter 3 – Families and Identity**

The family is considered one of the most valued aspects in the lives of all young individuals. Family systems fulfil various functions and support the development of individuals through various life phases. In this chapter, family as a system is conceptualised and the notion that families are changing continuously, is considered. Various family structures, as well as attachment and parenting styles, are discussed, accompanied by the influence these family structures and parenting styles have on identity development. Furthermore, the importance of the relationship between parents and their adolescent children, as well as the challenges they face in the relationship, is discussed. The role of gender in identity development in various families is then discussed. To conclude the chapter, the main points are summarised.

### **3.1 The Family as a System**

Families provide a critical developmental context in which adolescents are able to explore and consider various means of being (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010). As adolescents go through the phases from early to late adolescence, their level of autonomy and need for guidance change continuously. Family systems, as well as the role of parents and caregivers, are also transforming as adolescents develop through the different developmental stages (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010).

**3.1.1 Conceptualising the Family.** Many authors have agreed upon a universal definition of family, which states that “a family is any sexually expressive, parent-child, or other kin relationship in which people – usually related by ancestry, marriage, or adoption (1) form an economic and/or otherwise practical unit and care for any children or other dependants, (2) consider their identity to be significantly attached to the group, and (3) commit to maintaining that group over time” (Lamanna & Riedmann, 2012, 12-13). Another task of a family system is to provide support for the development of its members. This task is important when there is an adolescent in the family, as there must be a willingness by both the adolescent and the parents to renegotiate rules and roles in the system. Families who are unable to change or adjust according to the growing needs of the adolescent might complicate the development of a mature identity (Michalek, 2016).

Duvall (1985, in McGoldrick, Carter, & Garcia-Preto, 2013) outlines the family development theory with various family stages, developmental tasks, and roles. The first stage

consists of the married couple and includes the family developmental tasks of establishing a mutually satisfying marriage, adjusting to pregnancy, and fitting into the kin network. The second stage is considered the child-bearing stage, in which having and adjusting to an infant is expected, as well as establishing a satisfying home for parents and infants (Golijani-Moghaddam, 2014; McGoldrick et al., 2013). The third stage involves preschool-aged children and focuses on adapting to the needs of preschool children and coping with energy depletion and lack of privacy as parents. The fourth stage involves school-aged children and includes the family developmental tasks of fitting into a community and encouraging children's educational achievements. The fifth stage includes adolescent children and involves balancing freedom with responsibility and establishing post-parental interest. The sixth stage is focussed on launching the children into adulthood and maintaining a supportive home base (Golijani-Moghaddam, 2014; McGoldrick et al., 2013). The seventh stage involves middle-aged parents where there is a refocus on the marriage relationship as well as maintaining kin ties with older and younger generations. The final stage involves ageing family members, and the tasks include coping with death and living alone, selling the family home, and adjusting to retirement (Golijani-Moghaddam, 2014; McGoldrick et al., 2013).

During adolescence, the family is a very important concept of socialisation, and the feedback adolescents receive from their parents is the basis for one's initial identity. Even though the family is such an important context, adolescents will incorporate new information and contexts into their identities as they grow through the adolescent phase (Benson & Johnson; 2009). Families assume many pivotal tasks such as raising children and providing family members with affection, intimacy, and companionship (Lamanna & Riedmann, 2012). Families constitute the first and most important social context in which humans develop (Chong & Chan, 2015).

**3.1.2 Various family structures.** Family structure refers to the form a family takes and usually varies according to the society in which it is embedded. The concept of what constitutes a family has been examined widely. The family consists of people who are related by blood, marriage, or adoption. Some definitions of family include the notion that family members must "constitute a household" or reside together, while others include economic dependency and sexual-reproductive relations into the definitions of family (Lamanna & Riedmann, 2012; Manning, 2015). Because of the number of growing alternative family structures, further

knowledge is needed based on domain-specific influence on commitment and exploration of identity (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010).

**3.1.2.1 Nuclear family structure.** The most traditional family structure is the nuclear family. The nuclear family is considered the typical family structure. It includes the mother, father, and the children. The nuclear family model holds that the family consists of the breadwinner husband, homemaker wife, and children living together in an independent household (Lamanna & Riedmann, 2012).

Blackwell (2010) identified the benefits that exist in nuclear families. Individuals in nuclear families are encouraged to be independent from the community and their own family members by seeking self-fulfilment. Children are taught the value of being self-sufficient as they grow up to become adolescents and are thus able to move away from home and into their own living arrangement (Sear, 2016). Adolescents are encouraged to live an independent life from their parents and other family members where they might lose contact with their family members or still continue to rely on their support (Sear, 2016).

There are other advantages of nuclear families, such as financial stability for the households, as it is common to have a dual income from both working parents (Blackwell, 2010; Sear, 2016). Financial stability in a household gives children the opportunity to partake in extracurricular activities, which allow children to flourish socially and develop a higher self-esteem. In nuclear families, children are usually closer to parents and feel free to discuss opinions, which contribute to the development of their personalities. Nuclear families are able to manage their responsibilities and expenses to rear their children (Blackwell, 2010; Sear, 2016). There is little to no shifting in responsibility, as parents are expected to take the most responsibility, especially the head of the family, who is considered to be the father (Sear, 2016).

However, there are also disadvantages to nuclear families. For example, in the event of parents being exposed to a sickness, illness, or an accident, the children then often are neglected, as no one can take care of them (Blackwell, 2010; Sear, 2016). Children can develop feelings of loneliness and emotional insecurity. Another disadvantage could include less conflict-resolution skills. As nuclear families are inclined to develop like-minded ways of thinking, the ability to reason and resolve conflict productively could be minimised (Blackwell, 2010; Sear, 2016). Although a majority of adolescents at some stage during their adolescent phase will live in an alternative family setting, the nuclear family is considered “normative”, whereas those

living in alternative family structures are considered “broken” or “non-normative” (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010).

**3.1.2.2 Non-nuclear family structure.** Contemporary families are characterised by a diverse range of different family and non-family types (Sear, 2016). Non-nuclear family structures include parents, children, grandparents, and other relatives, who are not necessarily related genetically. The disruption of a traditional nuclear family is confirmed by Statistics South Africa (2012): less than a third (32%) of children in South Africa live with both their biological parents, whereas a quarter of children do not live with either of their biological parents. A great number of families have not arranged themselves into the traditional nuclear family structure as characterised by a heterosexual marriage with biological or adoptive children (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010). 70.5% of adolescents who are under 18 indicated that they live with both their parents. However, only 58% of these individuals indicated that their two parents were married, lived with each other, and were their biological or adoptive parents (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010).

Diversity in family structures can be attributed to organisational, cultural, and social class variation, as well as various family life cycles and courses (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1982; Sear, 2016). Firstly, organisational diversity exists due to changing marital trends and different patterns of work. This kind of diversity includes the reconstituted family (because of divorce and remarriage) and dual-career families (where greater democratisation of vocational and domestic labour exists). Secondly, cultural diversity is seen in indigenous and migrant households, whereby they are able to incorporate traditional aspects into their current living conditions. Thirdly, social class diversity relates to the material resources of families. This social class diversity can include aspects such as the relationship between couples in the family, the parent-adolescent relationship, as well as the socialisation and education of the children (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1982; Sear, 2016). Fourthly, life cycle diversity includes members from various generations. Lastly, family life course diversity refers to the stages families go through, such as when a baby is born, when the children reach adolescence, and when the adolescents leave home. In each of these stages, families have different priorities and have the responsibility to organise these priorities accordingly (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1982; Sear, 2016). Non-nuclear families include divorced parent households, stepparent households, single-parent households, same-gender parent households, child-adoptive households, and extended families (Lamanna & Riedmann, 2012).



Divorced parent households are increasing rapidly as the dissolution of marriage is becoming a common notion. It is suggested that marital conflict and unhappiness lead to effects on children that are more adverse, as opposed to marital dissolution or living in single-parent families (Bilge & Kaufman, 2006). In 2014, 21073 children under the age of 18 were affected by divorce (Statistics South Africa, 2014). Divorce increases the risk of adjustment problems, and 25% of adolescents coming from a divorced and/or stepfamily household (as compared to 10% of children from nuclear families) display behavioural, emotional, and other adjustment problems (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010). The negative consequences of divorce also include depression, diminished school performance, and other internal or external behavioural problems.

Single-parent families are becoming more common as various types of single-parent households are arising, such as families headed by mothers, by fathers, or grandparents (Bilge & Kaufman, 2006). As mothers are more likely to receive custody of the children after a divorce, there is an increase in single-mother-headed families (Wen, 2009). Mothers and their children are more likely to experience negative changes such as income loss, less time together as working hours increase and moving to areas with poorer schools and higher crime rates (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010). Single parents are found to make fewer demands, exert less control, support their children less, and assign more responsibilities to their adolescent children as compared to mothers in nuclear families (Bilge & Kaufman, 2006).

A stepfamily consists of at least one parent that is not genetically related to children in that household. Stepfamilies might account for a better quality of life, as both parents might be able to provide an income to provide sufficiently for the children (Bilge & Kaufman, 2006; Manning, 2015). However, negative factors could also be attached to stepfamilies, as older children such as adolescents might find it difficult to adapt to living with a new family. The difficulty in adapting to a new family could provide the children with feelings of jealousy or resentment (Bilge & Kaufman, 2006).

An extended family includes a household in which many other relatives are living in the specific household, such as grandparents, aunts, uncles, and cousins (Bilge & Kaufman, 2006). Reliance in extended families can provide social and financial support, especially when living with single parents (Manning, 2015). There is contradictory research regarding extended families, as some adolescents fare better when also living with grandparents, whereas others fare worse (Blackwell, 2010; Manning, 2015). In 2015, 7% of adolescents lived in a household

with their grandparents, which is remaining relatively steady throughout the years (Manning, 2015).

Same-gender households include parents who are identified as gay, lesbian, or bisexual parents, who have children. Theorists raise the question regarding the number of same-gender couple relationships, the families they are building, as well as the meaning of 'family' in this context, as there is a growing number of self-identified same-gender families (Sear, 2016). Child-adoptive households are considered to cause a permanent change in the family because it consists of legal and religious support, which is the opinion of the new parents (Sear, 2016).

The proportion of child-headed households is relatively small (0.6%), but persists as a problem, as it has been relatively unchanged for the past 8 years in South Africa. According to Statistics South Africa (2014), approximately 3,6 million children are either paternal, maternal, or double orphans. More than half of these children have biological parents alive (Statistics South Africa, 2014). Of the South African population, 38% is between the ages of 15 and 34, whereby more than a quarter of households are headed by persons from this specific age group. It is estimated that a quarter of the child-headed households between the ages of 15 and 34 are living in households where there are no employable members. In 2010, only 8% of child-headed households between the ages of 15 and 18 and 4% of child-headed households between the ages of 19 and 34 received social grants (Statistics South Africa, 2014). These results are significantly lower than the population in general, which is 28%, with 52% being children under the age of 18 (Statistics South Africa, 2014).

From the above, it is evident that diversity in the structure of families exists, each with its own advantages and disadvantages. It is thus important to evaluate and describe the various family structures along with their advantages and disadvantages as they contribute tremendously to various factors such as the development of identities, emotional state of the individuals within the households, as well as the overall well-being of the adolescents.

### **3.2 Attachment and Parenting Styles**

Attachment is a bond that assists children who are in need of care to survive (Mahasneh et al., 2013; Santiago, Bucher-Maluschke Alexandre, & Branco, 2017). Attachment is also considered a major milestone in the development of an adolescent's life. As children grow older and enter the phases of adolescence and young adulthood, attachment represents the strain and stresses with regard to their intimate relationships, especially the parent-adolescent relationship

(Mahasneh et al., 2013; Santiago et al., 2017). Related to attachment and parent-child relationships are parenting styles, which influence the development of individuals' personalities, their social interaction skills, and their ability to form close relationships with others (Mahasneh et al., 2013; Santiago et al., 2017).

**3.2.1 John Bowlby and Mary Ainsworth on attachment.** Bowlby (1973) formulated attachment theory, and later his colleague, Ainsworth, elaborated it (Ainsworth, Behehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). Attachment has been defined as an intimate and affectionate relationship between two people. It is considered an emotional bond that includes safety, comfort, and support. Bowlby (1973) defines the term *attachment* as a disposition to seek proximity and contact with a specific individual, especially in situations in which someone is frightened, tired, or ill. Bowlby explains that, primarily, the mother and infant develop a coordinated relationship in which the mother is able to recognise signs of fear and distress from the baby, enabling her to comfort, protect and provide a secure base from where an infant is able to explore its environment (Mahasneh et al., 2013). It is considered typical for individuals to have more than one attachment figure, which is why a hierarchy of attachments exists, which stems from the primary attachment figure, such as the mother (Ainsworth, 1989).

Attachment behaviour is considered to have its own dynamic. Although there are differences in feeding, as well as sexual behaviour, attachment behaviour is considered of equal significance for all individuals. Therefore, healthy development includes the development of flexible bonds between children and their parents (Mahasneh et al., 2013). Attachment behaviour can be categorised into three affective features, namely proximity seeking, secure base effect, and separation protest (Ainsworth, 1989; Santiago et al., 2017). Proximity seeking includes the degree to which the primary figure is able to support and understand the emotional needs of the attached child. Separation protest incorporates the amount of anxiety and protest the attached child exhibits towards the primary figure. Secure base effect refers to the confidence the attached child shows to explore his or her environment, knowing the primary figure is available to provide support when needed (Ainsworth, 1989; Santiago et al., 2017).

People develop models based on their relationships with others during infancy, adolescence, and adulthood. These mental models are used to unify and organise the individual's experience and beliefs (Mahasneh et al., 2013; Santiago et al., 2017). Attachment theories hold that social development is the centre of explaining socialisation during adolescence. Thus, attachment can be linked to a variety of socialisation outcomes in

adolescence and adulthood. These outcomes include social competence, pro-social behaviour, behavioural problems, and antisocial behaviour (Mahasneh et al., 2013). Bowlby (1973) found that especially young adolescents create “working models” based on their relationship with their parents, which are then used as guidelines for other future close relationships (Nosko, Tieu, Lawford, & Pratt, 2011). These internal working models provide a regulated set of conscious/non-conscious rules to organise all information regarding attachments (Nosko et al., 2011).

Based on the work of Bowlby, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) propose four attachment styles during adolescence. The first is the secure attachment style, which is characterised by positive feelings toward oneself and others (Mahasneh et al., 2013). It includes the ability to develop close relationships with others, being dependent, comfortable, and experiencing no immediate fear of abandonment (Bogart, 2009). Securely attached individuals are considered to have experienced sensitive and responsive figures in their childhood and display communication that is more effective in the parent-adolescent relationship (Nosko et al., 2011).

Secondly, the preoccupied attachment style, also called the anxious-ambivalent attachment style, is characterised by anxiety about the self, and an appreciation of others (Mahasneh et al., 2013; Santiago et al., 2017). There is an inconsistent and unpredictable amount of caregiver response, and anxiously attached adolescents usually exhibit protest or objection behaviour when reunited with their parents (Nosko et al., 2011). Particular parental characteristics can be linked to these outcomes in their children, such as lack of warmth, poor supervision, poor child-rearing practices, and inconsistency (Mahasneh et al., 2013). The style is also characterised by feelings of self-doubt and the need to merge completely with another individual. Through this need to merge with another, individuals usually end up pushing their partners away because of an overwhelming compulsion to combine their lives (Bogart, 2009).

Dismissing attachment style is the third style, also known as the avoidant type (Mahasneh et al., 2013). There is usually a complete lack of caregiver response, and detached or separation behaviour from parents is displayed (Nosko et al., 2011). This style is characterised by the inability to develop intimate relationships or get close to others. These individuals have difficulty trusting or depending on others, although they do wish they could. They tend to be compulsively self-reliant and defend themselves from getting hurt (Bogart, 2009).

The last style is the fearful style, which includes negative feelings about oneself and others. These individuals show signs of high anxiety and high avoidance. They show a confusing, unpredictable mix of neediness and fear of closeness (Mahasneh et al., 2013; Santiago et al., 2017). They have a dim view of themselves, as they doubt themselves and others. They display a lack of coherent strategies for meeting attachment needs during adolescence (Santiago et al., 2017).

**3.2.2 Baumrind's parenting styles.** The term 'parenting' is derived from 'pario', which means 'life' (Bogart, 2009). Parenting styles reflect the attitudes parents have when educating their children in executing rules and regulations, along with warmth, support, and responsiveness toward their children (Kooraneh & Amirsardari, 2015). Parenting styles have many different definitions. Davids and Roman (2014, p. 229) define it as "typology of attitudes and behaviours that characterise how a parent will interact with a child across domains of parenting".

Baumrind's argument on the types of parenting styles is considered to have created considerable clarity regarding the debates on parenting and authority (Buri, 1991). The parent-child relationship is considered to centre on parenting and parental practices. These parental practices focus mostly on discipline and control, as well as warmth and support as a means of strategies used to build socio-emotional and cognitive competence in the lives of the children (Akinsola, 2011). These parental practices are described by means of parenting styles, as developed by Baumrind (1971). These styles include the authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive parenting styles (Akinsola, 2011).

Baumrind's three parenting styles are built on the foundation of two continua, namely responsiveness/warmth and consistency/behavioural control (Linebarger, 2015). Consistency/behavioural control includes qualities such as control, monitoring, and expected mature behaviour on behalf of the adolescents. These parents set strict rules and expect discipline in their households. Responsiveness/warmth includes acceptance of the adolescent, love, and support (Kooraneh & Amirsardari, 2015). These parents display patterns of sensitivity to their child's cues and needs (Linebarger, 2015). Each of the three parenting styles is determined relative to these two continua.

Authoritarian parenting is considered to rate very high on demandingness, as children are monitored and regulated strictly, but very low on responsiveness (Payne, 2013). Parents

portraying this style attempt to control, shape, and govern the behaviour and attitudes of children by means of a strict set of rules and regulations, conducted by a higher level of authority (Baumrind, 1965). Authoritarian parents are extremely restrictive, have strict rules and limits, and expect complete obedience (Akinsola, 2011; Nosko et al., 2011). An authoritarian parent shows little, if any, warmth and acceptance (Davids & Roman, 2014). There is very little or no verbal exchange, a lack of attention to the developmental tasks of the child and low emotional support (Akinsola, 2011; Kooraneh & Amirsardari, 2015). This style of parenting is associated with weak social skills, low self-esteem, hostility, rejection, and aggressiveness in the child, which prevents the child from achieving in areas such as academics and relationships (Mashasneh et al., 2013). Parents who mainly display parental control, monitoring, and limit setting tend to have higher rates of their children displaying substance abuse during their adolescent years, than those showing high levels of warmth and trust (Moyo, 2012). Adolescents display less intimacy, less assertiveness, and lower levels of conflict resolution or communication when exposed to fathers who display overprotective characteristics. On the other hand, when mothers display overprotective characteristics, adolescents are less independent in other relationships, including relationships with friends and romantic relationships (Bomester, 2012).

Permissive parents are considered to be very responsive and supportive, but rate very low on the demandingness scale. These parents attempt to behave in accepting, affirmative, and non-punitive ways toward their children's behaviour, attitudes, and desires (Baumrind, 1965). Permissive parents are often involved in their child's life but provides few, if any, rules, limitations, or boundaries. The parents display nurturance, warmth and love as a substitute for rules or punishment (Davids & Roman, 2014). Children are permitted to make their own choices without punishment or repercussions (Akinsola, 2011; Chong & Chan, 2015). Permissive parenting results in possible social incompetence and a lack of self-control, along with problems of aggression, negligence, and emotional instability (Kooraneh & Amirsardari, 2015). It is assumed that permissiveness frees the adolescent from the presence and authority of the parent. It is assumed generally that unacceptable behaviour by an adolescent is due to non-interference by the parents, which is more likely to continue in the future if no interference from the parent continues (Baumrind, 1965). It has also been found that the permissive parenting style associated with anxious-ambivalent or avoidant attachment styles (Kooraneh & Amirsardari, 2015).

Baumrind's ideal authoritative parenting style is rated as being high on both continua (high responsiveness and demandingness) (Payne, 2013). In an authoritative parenting style, the parents attempt to guide the child's behaviour orderly and rationally (Baumrind, 1965). These parents encourage certain levels of discipline, with reasonable demands (Chong, & Chan, 2015; Kooraneh, & Amirsardari, 2015). They display a fine balance between warmth and strictness (Nosko et al., 2011). Extensive verbal dialogue (including questions and negotiations) is encouraged in the parent-child relationship (Akinsola, 2011; Mahasneh et al., 2013). These parents are sensitive to the needs of their children and are involved in the activities in which they participate (Mahasneh et al., 2013). Adolescents who are raised in an authoritative household that is nurturing, accepting, yet firm and assertive, have higher adjustment levels in various developmental domains (Dumas, Lawford, Tieu, & Pratt, 2009). Authoritative parenting leads to an increase in self-regulation, self-reliance, self-esteem, social and cognitive competence, and academic achievement (Chong & Chan, 2015; Kooraneh & Amirsardari, 2015). There is a positive association between secure attachment style and authoritative parenting.

Thus, parenting styles play a pivotal role in the development of children and adolescents' lives, as well as the quality of the adolescent-parent relationship.

### **3.3 Adolescent-parent Relationship**

Adolescence is marked as a time in which there is an increase in responsibility, as well as an increase in established freedom. Growth and development during adolescence are based on the relationships that adolescents maintain with their parents (Moawad & Ebrahim, 2016). Fine and Schwebel (1983) were some of the first to define the relationship between parents and adolescents as the psychological closeness, trust, and communication that occur between parents and their children (Stanik, Riina, & McHale, 2013). The understanding that adolescents display in terms of a parent's role, perceptions, feelings, and respect is an important factor throughout the adolescent's life (Fine & Schwebel, 1983; Stanik et al., 2013). Aspects to consider in the relationship between parents and adolescents, include conflict, the amount of communication, and the attachment style present in the relationship (Johnsons, Kent, & Leather, 2004; Pizzolato & Hicklen, 2011).

Parent-adolescent relationships are associated with the developmental aspects of adolescents, their adjustment abilities, well-being, and educational attainment (Akinsola, 2011).

These relationships are considered to be at the core of the family, as parents provide the children with (1) social capital for achieving long-term goals and outcomes, (2) global orientations toward interpersonal and social relationships, and (3) social support and understanding in challenging times such as the adolescent stage (Akinsola, 2011). Parenting is an important factor in encouraging positive decision-making abilities, behaviour, and attitudes that contribute to the lifestyle adolescents choose (Davids & Roman, 2014). The parent-adolescent relationship allows adolescents to develop their identities, personalities, and life-sustaining skills, which they are able to incorporate throughout their lives (Akinsola, 2011; Moawad & Ebrahim, 2016). Bernado (2010) also supports these findings by stating that the quality of the parent-adolescent assists in the transformation from childhood to adolescence. Adolescents' cognitive and emotional development can be influenced positively by the support, encouragement, and safe environment for emotional exploration, provided by the parents (Dumas et al., 2009). Problematic development in terms of future depression, low self-esteem, and distorted body image issues is linked to deficits in parent-adolescent relationships (Bell & Bell, 2005; Pizzolato & Hicklen, 2011).

Parents and adolescents have various beliefs regarding parental authority, as parental authority is dependent on factors such as social context, social class, and cultures. It is argued that the amount of control parents assert over their children should vary as they grow older. Maternal authority is considered important in maintaining a well-run family and managing the parent-adolescent relationship (Pizzolato & Hicklen, 2011). One major area of focus in the parent-adolescent relationship is the notion of conflict. There is a noted increase in bickering and squabbling between parents and their children, especially during their early adolescent years. Hall (1904) and Freud (1969) believed that the conflict between parents and adolescents is inevitable and a necessary part of the process in which adolescents separate from their parents. Moderate levels of conflict in the parent-adolescent relationship are associated with more adaptive mental outcomes in comparison with very low or extreme levels of conflict (Hill, Bromell, Tyson, & Flint, 2007). Conflict between parents and their children often occurs due to the negotiation of the relationship, as well as the parents' continuous attempts to socialise their adolescents (Brown, 2004; De Guzman, 2007). The increase in conflict is linked with the decline in closeness, especially when considering the time adolescents and parents spend together. As a reaction to conflict in a family, Baumrind (1965) believes that punishment has inevitable harmful side effects and is an ineffective means of controlling adolescent behaviour.



Baumrind (1965) found that close supervision, high demands, and other manifestations of parental authority provoke rebelliousness in children, particularly during adolescence. Bandura and Walter (1959) indicate that children who are least hostile or delinquent had higher demands from their parents. It has been found that parents who exhibit control and expect household responsibilities from their children provide a compatible surrounding in line with the adolescent's well-being. Adolescents who assume these obligations find the control and responsibilities as reasonable and do not turn out to be rebellious (Baumrind, 1965). When parents are hostile, restrictive, and repressive, the chance that the adolescent may be rebellious increases. When authority is based on rational concern for the well-being of the adolescent, the latter is more likely to accept the authority. If the authority is based on the parents' desire to control and dictate the adolescent's life, the adolescent is more likely to reject it (Baumrind, 1965; Payne, 2013). Piko (1961) terms these arguments as "authoritative control" for the former, and "authoritarian control" for the latter (Piko & Balázs, 2012). His findings also indicate that the adolescent can regard parental discipline as very strict or very permissive and that it is usually associated with a lack of closeness between the parent and adolescent (Baumrind, 1965; Zhang & Ikeda, 2017). Controlling parents are motivated by the authoritarian personality syndrome and therefore are compelled, by fear of loss of control, to restrict the adolescent's self-directed, autonomous efforts (Zhang & Ikeda, 2017).

There are various consequences to punishment in relation to conflict in a parent-adolescent relationship, including hostile, disaffiliated, and self-righteous behaviour by the adolescent. The possible detrimental effects of harsh punishment should not be mistaken for the possible benefits of mild punishment. These benefits include (1) a re-establishment of emotional affection for both the parent and adolescent due to the emotional release; (2) a possibility for resistance towards devious acts by siblings who experience vicarious punishment; (3) imitation of the aggressive parent by the adolescent, possibly resulting in prosocial assertive behaviour; (4) less guilt following the devious or punishable act; and (5) increased ability of the adolescent to endure punishment in the service of a desired end (Baumrind, 1965; Payne, 2013). In controlled settings, punishment is used to suppress unacceptable behaviour, even if the behaviour is not eliminated and thus needs continuous reinforcement (Baumrind, 1965; Mansell, 2013; Zhang & Ikeda, 2017). Baumrind (1965) indicates that parents who display firm control have some of the most self-reliant and approach-oriented adolescents. Gentle and sensitive adolescents might react to high-power directives with

passive, dependant responses, whereas an aggressive, dynamic adolescent might react self-assertively, as they are modelling the behaviour of their parents (Baumrind, 1965; Payne, 2013).

During the stage of adolescence, the relationships between parents and their adolescent children are often more negotiable (De Guzman, 2007). Adolescents and their parents spend much less time together, as adolescents prefer to spend their time with friends and peers. Spending less time with their parents results in increased psychological and emotional distancing from their parents as they attempt to become more independent and autonomous and develop their own ideas and perspectives (Hill et al., 2007). Apart from friends and peers, parents are still important resources for healthy development. Adolescents are found to have similar political and religious views, as well as a general belief system, as those of their parents, indicating the significance of parents in their children's lives (Brown, 2004; Brown & Klute, 2006). It is argued that adolescents who are in peer-like parent-adolescent relationships, are more self-sufficient because they are given more independence and asked to contribute more to the household as compared to those growing up in families that are more hierarchal (Benson & Johnson, 2009). These individuals will be more likely to develop a successful identity when compared to those in hierarchal relationships.

Parents who continue to communicate with their adolescent children, even when there are no conflicts, maintain closer relationships. Adolescents report experiencing a sense of closeness with their parents when there is open communication and discussions. It remains important for parents to have an open line of communication with their adolescent children rather than avoid discussions based on arguments (De Guzman, 2007). In addition to attachment theories, the security that is found in the family context can provide adolescents with a sense of confidence that they use throughout their lives in the development of their social identities (Hill et al., 2007).

When considering parenting in the context of South Africa, research is focussed mainly on parental styles and behaviour (Roman et al., 2016). It has been found that authoritative parenting style is used widely across a various range of racial and ethnic groups (Bomester, 2012; Makwakwa, 2011). An authoritative parenting style is considered to be a factor in the resilience that black and white adolescents display, while emotion-focussed coping strategies are linked to an authoritarian parenting style (Moyo, 2012). Apart from the resilience factor, authoritative parenting is also associated with factors such as decision making, goals, and ambitions during adolescence (Roman et al., 2016).

### **3.4 Identity Development in Family Systems**

The family system plays an important role in shaping individuality and assisting adolescents in forming identities (Michalek, 2016). The styles parents display form the foundation on which adolescents choose to build their identities. The family forms the foundation from which individuals form an identity through exploring and considering alternatives.

**3.4.1 The role of parenting styles in identity development.** Scabini and Manzi (2011) indicate that young people's identities are shaped through the process of differentiation of family members from one another, whilst still maintaining the emotional links among one another.

The relationship between positive parenting practices and the development of an identity during adolescence can be explained best by means of Barber's (1997) theory of the role of the family in adolescent socialisation. It is argued that parents who display characteristics of promoting autonomy, are supportive and warm, and provide a sense of security and independence allow adolescents to feel free and comfortable to explore their own personal identities (Dumas et al., 2005). Families displaying high levels of conflict, high family cohesion, and low emotions between parents and adolescents inhibit the growth of identity (Michalek, 2016). Family patterns of interaction, such as sharing different ideas or viewpoints in a supportive and respectful environment, were found to facilitate identity exploration among adolescents. Sartor and Youniss (2002) also indicate that parental support and involvement are positive indicators of identity achievement in later adolescence. Identity exploration during adolescence is linked to high levels of parental support, nurturing, and open two-way communication in the family structure (Michalek, 2016). Identity achievement is linked to the encouragement provided by parents regarding independence and connectedness (Dumas et al., 2005; Sartor & Youniss, 2002). With these discoveries, it is clear that parental responsiveness is a key factor in the development of an identity during adolescence (Adejuwon, 2005).

Akinsola (2011) found that authoritative parenting was linked positively to restrained sexual attitude and negatively with liberal and loose attitudes. These links indicate the possibility that adolescents are more inclined to commit to identity in terms of their attitudes, as opposed to exploring reckless alternatives. In contrast, authoritarian parenting correlated positively with liberal, permissive, and promiscuous sexual attitudes during adolescence. As

mentioned by Baumrind (1965), characteristics of authoritarian parenting, such as close supervision and high demands, often provoke rebelliousness during adolescence, which could account for the attitudes through which adolescents search for identity.

According to the separation-individuation theory of Blos (1967), in order to achieve individuation, the adolescent has to let go of internalised childhood images of their parents (Blom & Bergman, 2013). Kroger (1985) has elaborated on this theory with regard to identity development. She argues that a connection can be seen between the parent-adolescent relationship and the structure of the ego (Meeus, Iedema, Maassen, & Engels, 2005). During adolescence, the image of one's parents and their level of supremacy that was held as a child is being rejected. Adolescence is a time when one separates from the family, develops new relationships, and begins to develop an individual identity, by means of having the freedom to explore and consider various alternatives before committing to one identity (Barth, 2015; Blom & Bergman, 2013).

During adolescence, individuals define themselves, and their parents are regarded as autonomous people in the relationship. The redefinition of the parent-adolescent relationship allows the adolescent to leave behind his or her child identity and enter into new commitments to form a new identity (Meeus et al., 2005). However, some contemporary adolescents privilege their relationship with their families, even though they do engage in open conflict with their parents, which leads to individuals forming their identities based on the values of their families, instead of exploring their own values (Barth, 2015; Blom & Bergman, 2013). Healthy attachment involves the capacity to be related and individuated. It assumes that the individuation and separation from significant others include healthy connections, especially to those from whom they are separating. Healthy relatedness, such as mature attachment, is key for both the capacity to develop intimate relationships outside ones' family, as well as the ability to develop an independent, functioning sense of self (Barth, 2015). Thus, healthy relatedness is important in identity development, as it allows individuals to explore their own alternative identities, while having the support and understanding of family members and partners (Barth, 2015).

According to previous research, there is a link between a positive parent-adolescent relationship and the ability to develop an autonomous, functional identity. Positive parenting has an important effect on the adolescent's emotional health and well-being, along with the provision of important skills that they carry throughout their lives (Dumas et al., 2005).

Although the contribution of family relationships and its link to identity statuses still needs extensive research, it is clear that there is an existing link between parenting practices and identity development among adolescents (Michalek, 2016).

**3.4.2 The role of family structure in identity development.** Family provides a critical developmental context by which adolescents are able to understand identity. Adolescents can show rebellion or develop a passive attitude when the family structure does not provide for their needs. There is an increase in the number of young adolescents that are raised by single-parent or other alternative family structures, which are caused by the reorganisation of family structures through divorce, or the forming of stepfamilies (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010). Identity development has been linked mostly to family structures in terms of coping strategies (Mullis, Mullis, Schwartz, Pease, & Shriner, 2007), the age of children when parents divorced (Millando, 2005), and parental coalition (Faber, Edwards, Bauer, & Wetchler, 2003). Adolescents who experience less parental partnership after their parents have divorced are more likely to be in the diffused or moratorium status (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010). The younger the adolescent at the age of his or her parent's divorce, the more likely he or she is to be in the achieved status at that point in his or her life (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010).

Some challenges are posed by an alternative family structure when considering identity development among adolescents. The reorganisation of one's family structure threatens the concepts of nurture and care received by an adolescent in such a family. Although adolescents from divorced families are at higher risk for developing behavioural and emotional problems, adolescents from divorced families can also be emotionally healthy and well adjusted (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010; Pearson, Muller, & Frisco, 2006).

Adolescents are more likely to encounter problems in stepfamilies than in nuclear families. The climate in a stepfamily is less warm and supportive than in a nuclear family (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010; Wen, 2009). Adolescents who grow up with stepparents are more likely to become disengaged from their families as they grow older. Owing to the short-term adjustment problems, identity development among adolescents is influenced clearly, as active exploration is less encouraged and accepted. The positive and negative elements linked to divorced or other alternative family structures affect the choices adolescents make (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010).

Authority relations are also considered to mediate identity development in various family structures. Role ambiguity in stepparent or other alternative family structures creates issues regarding the legitimacy and authority of the new parental figure (Benson & Johnson, 2009). Taking responsibility in one's family is an important development task by which adolescents gain a sense of competence and mastery (Benson & Johnson, 2009). Adolescents who received more responsibility in their households define themselves as trustful adults earlier than do those who did not receive many responsibilities. These individuals will be more comfortable to explore alternative identities, as they consider themselves confident and able. Earlier household responsibilities are considered to accelerate early home leaving and might account for some of the differences found between nuclear and non-nuclear family structures (Benson & Johnson, 2009). Sear (2016) indicates that in nuclear families, adolescents are given fewer responsibilities because parents are continuously expected to take most of the responsibility. Thus, non-nuclear families generate more adolescents who are able to take responsibility and feel more confident (Sear, 2016). As mentioned earlier, individuals who leave home earlier in their lives are free to explore identity alternatives, as they consider themselves relatively self-sufficient.

**3.4.3 The role of gender on identity development in families.** When considering parental styles and adolescent's gender, harsh parenting of fathers affects more males than females, whereas the harsh parenting of mothers has equal effects on both genders (Pizzolato & Hicklen, 2011). A fathers' differential treatment of genders is associated with negative parenting and usually inhibits females in showing assertive behaviour and autonomy. Marcia (1993a) found that the absence of a father, or a divorce, was associated more likely with males in a diffused status. Young adolescent females who grow up in single-parent households are more likely to be in the achieved identity status, compared to males in the same situation (Bartoszek & Pittman, 2010). Because post-divorce family structures involve living with a single mother, it is argued that females of single-parent working mothers have a more positive role model, compared to males who often do not have gender-specific role models. The findings from these studies indicate that females from divorced families are less likely to be foreclosed and tend to use strategies that are more emotion-focused.

Baumrind (1965) is of the opinion that similar patterns of child rearing affect males and females differently. Bronfenbrenner (1961) found that, in the absence of rejection and neglect, parental affection from both parents and authority have a very different effect on the

development of responsibility in males and females. When there is an absence in sufficient warmth or discipline for male adolescents, they tend to exhibit traits of impaired dependability, whereas for females, an overdose of either warmth or discipline leads to deleterious effects. Gender differences are often used to explain the difference in antecedents for aggression anxiety, which is found in the dynamic and genetic characteristics of males and females (Baumrind, 1965). Females usually receive more household responsibilities, resulting in earlier home leaving, as well as increase in identity achievement at a younger age than males (Benson & Johnson, 2009).

It is assumed that different cultures, as well as mass media, portray parenting styles of mothers and fathers as distinct. Mothers are usually more likely to assume an authoritative parenting style, although some findings indicate that an authoritarian approach by mothers is more common when dealing with their male children as opposed to their female children, although the effects are considered equal (Pizzolato & Hicklen, 2011). The amount of control that the mother specifically exerts over her children can also greatly influence the parent-adolescent relationship, as an authoritative parenting style is characterised by providing explanation, guidance, and effective communication. Therefore, an authoritative parenting style is associated with a higher tendency for adolescents to feel confident and secure, with a positive parent-adolescent relationship (Pizzolato & Hicklen, 2011).

In females, early maternal authoritarianism predicts more pro-social behaviour towards strangers, and less pro-social behaviour toward peers (Mahasneh et al., 2013). These findings might explain that females, who are dispositionally uncomfortable in social situations, would prefer authoritative parenting to support autonomous pro-social behaviour. Inhibited females display low pro-social behaviour in peer relationships, as they struggle to enact such behaviour spontaneously (Mahasneh et al., 2013).

Male and female adolescents respond differently to the prospects of growing up in an alternative family structure (Pearson et al., 2006). Parental involvement is also considered to affect male and female adolescents differently. Adolescents' relationships with their parents are able to influence decision-making abilities of females more than those of males. Females are more comfortable to discuss sensitive subjects with their parents when they consider the parent-adolescent relationship as positive (Pearson et al., 2006). It is significant that females are influenced more than males are by their relationships with others such as their parents. This could explain the findings by Schwartz and Montgomery (2002), who indicate that females tend

to score higher on achievement scales than males. Thus, it is important to consider the different influences of family structures and parental practices on male and female adolescents respectively (Pearson et al., 2006).

### **3.5 Chapter Summary**

In this chapter, the family as a system was conceptualised by means of the universal definition, as well as in terms of nuclear and non-nuclear family structures. Ainsworth's attachment theory were discussed, as well as how the attachment style which is present within the parent-adolescent relationship can influence adolescents' identity formation. Next, Baumrind's three parenting styles, including permissive, authoritative, and authoritarian parenting style, were discussed. Following this, the importance of the parent-adolescent relationship was explained, along with its influence on the development of identity during adolescence. Thereafter, identity development in family systems were discussed by referring to identity development in terms of different parenting styles, different family structures and gender differences.



## **Chapter 4 – Research Methodology**

In this chapter, the methodology employed in this study is discussed. The chapter begins with the statement of the research aim and questions that led the study. Thereafter, the research design and approach that was utilised is explained, followed by a description of the research participants and sampling procedures. Next, the procedures for the collection of the data are clarified. A detailed description of the data analyses follows. Finally, the ethical considerations applicable to this study are presented. A chapter summary concludes the chapter.

### **4.1 Research Aim and Questions**

The aim of this study was to determine the moderating role of gender and family structure in the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development among adolescents.

To achieve the above-mentioned aim, the following research questions were investigated:

1. Can a significant amount of the variance in identity development be explained by the various perceived parenting styles?
2. Does gender moderate the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development?
3. Does family structure (nuclear or non-nuclear) moderate the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development?

With regard to the first research question, it was hypothesised that each perceived parenting style (authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive) would explain a significant amount of variance in identity development.

With regard to the second and third research questions, it was hypothesised that gender and/or family structure (nuclear or non-nuclear) moderates the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development.

### **4.2 Research Design and Approach**

For the purpose of this study, a quantitative research approach was followed. Quantitative research employs a formal approach, where the outcomes are subject to statistical analysis

(Stangor, 2011). An advantage of using a quantitative research approach is that statistical results can be determined. A disadvantage of this research design is that the data do not provide in-depth understanding regarding the variables (Stangor, 2011). The researcher decided on a quantitative research design because the intent was to answer questions based on the relationship between measurable variables.

The current research study was non-experimental in nature, since it did not include any interventions or experiments. The participants were not exposed to any manipulation and were not assigned randomly. The variables applicable to this study were observed as naturally existing attributes.

This research study was conducted utilising a correlational design, because it ultimately aimed to measure the relationship between variables, such as identity development and perceived parenting styles. These two main variables were investigated in relation to gender and family structure. When using a correlational design, a researcher can determine the strength and direction of relationships between the variables at hand (Springer, 2010). However, a disadvantage is that a correlational design cannot provide reasons for the relationships between the variables (Springer, 2010).

#### **4.3 Research Participants and Sampling Procedures**

The participants of this study were adolescents living in Mangaung. The Mangaung municipal area is situated in the Free State Province of South Africa. Mangaung has a population of 747 431, of which 83.3% are black Africans (Statistics South Africa, 2012). Statistics indicate that adolescent males ranging between the ages of 15 and 19, constitute 4.7% of the population of Mangaung, along with females aged between 15 and 19, constituting 4.8% of the population of the area (Statistics South Africa, 2012).

The population of interest in this study was late adolescents. Late adolescence is considered to include ages 17 to 19 and is characterised by the capability of using insight, being able to focus on individual dignity and self-esteem, and accepting different social and cultural institutions (Algozzine et al., 2011). To allow for flexibility in the application of chronological age, participants aged 16 and 20 were also included in the sample. The researcher recruited participants of all ethnic groups and both genders.

A non-probability convenience sampling method was used. The researcher used a non-probability convenience sample, as it is a less expensive means of sampling and can often be implemented more quickly (Neuman, 2012). Participants were recruited from a school based on their availability. The final sample consisted of 243 adolescents. In Table 1, the biographic details of the participants are summarised.

Table 1

*Distribution of the Sample with regard to Biographic Details*

<b>Biographic characteristic</b>	<b>Descriptor</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<b>Gender</b>	Male	113	46.5
	Female	130	53.5
<b>Age</b>	16	19	7.8
	17	42	17.3
	18	69	28.4
	19	70	28.8
	20	43	17.7
<b>Grade</b>	10	115	47.3
	11	53	21.8
	12	75	30.9
<b>Language</b>	Not answered	3	1.2
	Sesotho	148	60.9
	Setswana	14	5.8
	Xhosa	72	29.6
	Zulu	2	.8
	Other	4	1.6

According to Table 1, it is clear that the sample consisted of slightly more females than males (53.5% vs. 46.5%). Adolescents aged 18 (28.4%) and 19 (28.8%) were the majority, contributing to 57.2% of the sample. The majority of participants were in Grade 10 (47.3%) followed by Grade 12 (30.9%). With only 1.2% of the participants not answering the question of their home language, the vast majority of participants indicated their home language as Sesotho (60.9%).

Table 2 demonstrates the distribution of the participants according to their family structure, family living conditions, and the number of siblings with whom they are living.

Table 2

*Distribution of the Sample with regard to Family Structure, Family Living Conditions and Number of Siblings*

<b>Biographic characteristic</b>	<b>Descriptor</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<b>Family structure</b>	Non-nuclear	127	52.3
	Nuclear	116	47.7
<b>Family living condition</b>	Not both parents	155	63.8
	Both parents	88	36.2
<b>Amount of siblings</b>	0	17	7.0
	1-2	88	36.2
	3-4	91	37.5
	5-6	22	9.1
	7-8	11	4.5
	10	1	.4
	19	1	.4
	Not answered	12	4.9

From Table 2, it can be seen that a slight majority of the participants lived in non-nuclear households (52.3%) and that most of the participants did not live with both of their parents (63.8 %). The majority of participants indicated having three to four siblings (37.5%), with only 7.0% not having any siblings.

#### **4.4 Procedures of Data Collection**

Self-administered questionnaires were used to gather the data. The participants completed the questionnaires early in the morning, during school hours. Respondents could complete the questionnaire at their own pace, which added up to an average of thirty minutes per class. A primary advantage for using a self-administered questionnaire is that it is one of the most direct ways in which one can assess a construct (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). Self-report measures also allow the researcher to ensure confidentiality among the participants, which may lead to

more correct response rates (Stangor, 2011). Some of the disadvantages with using self-administered questionnaires include low response rates in terms of incomplete questionnaires and deception from the participants' side to create a better image. When a participant distorts self-administered responses, the validity of the measurement is weakened (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). The response rates may also be influenced by the presence of the researcher or unclear wording of the self-administered questionnaire, which might cause misunderstanding (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). These possibilities were countered by the researcher sitting quietly in front of the class in order to make the students feel more comfortable, whilst being available if any questions should arise from the participants.

The survey battery administered in this study included a biographic section (Appendix A) consisting of personal questions. These questions included their age, as well as their gender as either biological male or female. The biographic section also included the indication of participants' ethnic group or home language. Family structure was also measured in the questionnaire. Nuclear family structure was measured by means of asking the participants whether they lived with both of their parents, or only one of their parents. Along with this was the question whether their parents were still currently married. On the other hand, non-nuclear family structure was measured by asking the participants if they were living with another primary caregiver, other than their parents, and to indicate whether their parents were divorced or had never been married. In the final question, the participants were asked to indicate the number of siblings with whom they were living.

To operationalise identity and perceived parenting styles, the *Ego Identity Process Questionnaire (EIPQ)* by Balistreri, Busch-Rossnagel, and Geisinger (1995) (Appendix A) and the *Parenting Authority Questionnaire (PAQ)* by Buri (1991) (Appendix A) were administered.

**4.4.1 Ego Identity Process Questionnaire.** The *Ego Identity Process Questionnaire (EIPQ)* by Balistreri et al. (1995) was administered to measure adolescents' ego identity development in two subscales, namely exploration and commitment. The *EIPQ* employs a 6-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). Scoring is reversed for negatively stated items (Berman, You, Schwartz, Teo, & Mochizuki, 2010). The scores in each subscale can range from 16 to 96 (Balistreri et al., 1995). Item scores are summed to obtain total scores for exploration and commitment separately, with a total identity achievement score (two subscales combined) ranging between 32 and 192. Balistreri et al. (1995) obtained alpha coefficients of .76 for the exploration scale and .75 for the commitment scale based on the

results from a group of adolescents. Cronbach coefficients for a sample of university students in the United States of America were found to be .85 for commitment and .82 for exploration (Morsünbül, 2015). For a sample of high school students in Poland, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was indicated as .86 for exploration and .80 for commitment (Oleś & Puchalska-Wasyl, 2012).

In this study, the initial reliability for the *EIPQ* was measured as .493 (based on the 32 items of the questionnaire). By means of item analysis, 14 problematic items that portrayed poor consistency with the other items were deleted, remaining with a final scale of 18 items, with an alpha coefficient of .669.

**4.4.2 Parenting Authority Questionnaire.** To measure the various perceived parenting styles, the *Parenting Authority Questionnaire (PAQ)* by Buri (1991), which is based on Baumrind's (1965) theory, was used. The *PAQ* uses the term *perceived*, as it measures respondents' perceptions of which parenting style they believe to be exposed to (Kooraneh & Amirsardari, 2015). The *PAQ* is a self-report measure consisting of 30 items, measuring the three parenting styles: authoritarian (10 items), authoritative (10 items), and permissive (10 items). The *PAQ* employs a Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). For each parenting style subscale, scores can range from 10 to 50; with higher scores indicating a higher likelihood that one is exposed to that specific parenting style.

A study that was conducted by Buri (1991) with adolescent participants from Saint Paul, Minnesota, yielded high levels of internal consistency with alpha coefficients ranging from .75 to .87 for each subscale. Kooraneh and Amirsardari (2015) reported the reliability scores for an adolescent sample as ranging from .77 and .81 for permissive style, .85 and .86 for authoritarian style, and .78 and .88 for authoritative style. Test-retest reliability coefficients of .69, .77, and .73 for permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative styles respectively, were found among students from the United States (Kooraneh & Amirsardari, 2015).

With regard to this study, the permissive parenting style items had an alpha coefficient of .627, authoritarian parenting style items resulted in an alpha coefficient of .700, and authoritative parenting style items had an alpha coefficient of .689.

## 4.5 Data Analysis

The data analysis in this research study included an investigation of reliability, descriptive statistics, and regression analyses.

Reliability refers to the ability of an instrument to measure a construct consistently (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Cronbach's alpha coefficient is considered as the most widely used objective measure of reliability. The alpha coefficient measures the internal consistency of a scale. Internal consistency is conveyed as a number between zero and one (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Internal consistency can be described as the means by which the items in a scale measure the same concept in the test, thus referring to the interrelatedness of the scale's items (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Descriptive statistics were computed to organise and describe information regarding the categorical data (biographic characteristics of the sample) and the continuous data (scores with regard to the three perceived parenting styles and identity achievement). Descriptive statistics are used to report the frequency and distribution of variables (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010). A frequency distribution was used to display the categorical data such as family structure, living, and the number of siblings. Descriptive statistics were used to illustrate tendencies in the continuous variables (identity development and perceived parenting styles), by way of score ranges, means, and standard deviations.

To answer the first research question, a standard regression analysis was conducted to determine the amount of variance in identity development explained by the various perceived parenting styles. Standard regression includes various techniques for modelling and analysing several variables. Standard regression is used when the focus is on the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables (Stangor, 2011). The standard regression analysis is used to understand how the value of the dependent variable will change when one of the independent variables is altered, considering the other independent variables remain fixed (Stangor, 2011).

The moderating role of gender and family structure in the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development (as stated in the second and third research questions) was determined using moderated regression analyses. Moderated regression analysis is used when one wants to determine the relationship between two variables by using another variable(s) as a moderator(s) (Aguinis, Edwards, & Bradley, 2016). The effect of the

moderating variable is characterised as an interaction effect that is usually categorical, such as gender (Stangor, 2011). Thus, the moderator variable mainly affects the direction and/or strength of relationship between the dependent and independent variables in the study (Aguinis et al., 2016). In this study, the moderating variables were gender (male and female), as well as family structure (nuclear and non-nuclear).

#### **4.6 Ethical Considerations**

Researchers should protect and respect the civil and human rights of participants, as well as the central importance of freedom of inquiry and expression in research (Stangor, 2011). It is the responsibility of the researcher to obtain appropriate approval prior to conducting research by means of using an approved research protocol (Stangor, 2011).

Permission to conduct this study was obtained from the Free State Department of Education (Appendix B) and the Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of the Humanities of the University of the Free State (Appendix C). Authorisation was received by the principal of the school from which the data were collected (Appendix D).

Informed consent was obtained from each individual who participated in this study (Appendix E). Informed consent refers to an agreement made by the participants indicating their willingness to participate in the study after they have been informed about what the research procedure will involve (Neuman, 2012). The informed consent form was provided before the self-administered questionnaire and consisted of an explanation of the purpose of the study, as well as what the results would be used for, following the participants' personal details and signature indicating that they had read the form and understood what it stated.

Confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy are considered some of the most important ethical considerations. An individuals' privacy is invaded once the researcher probes the beliefs, backgrounds, and behaviour of the individual, which reveal their most intimate details (Neuman, 2012). Anonymity refers to keeping the individuals who participate in the research anonymous or nameless (Neuman, 2012). Confidentiality refers to the researcher not including the identity of the individuals who participate in the study in the description or interpretation of the results (Neuman, 2012). In this study, the participants' privacy was protected by not disclosing their identity in any way.



The principles of non-maleficence and beneficence were also taken into consideration. These concepts refer to the duty of the researcher not to harm the participants and not to engage in any type of behaviour in which the risk of harm is possible (Allan, 2015). Along with this is the responsibility of the researcher to minimise harm wherever it might be present. The researcher ensured non-maleficence and beneficence by allowing participants the option to discontinue their participation if they felt uncomfortable, and to freely ask questions regarding the self-administered questionnaires. The specific participants were chosen equitably and without discrimination, as all the learners in the class were allowed to participate without anyone being excluded.

#### **4.7 Chapter Summary**

In this chapter, the methodology pertaining to this research study was discussed. The research aim and questions were explained. To achieve the aim of this study, a non-experimental, quantitative research approach was employed, following a correlational design. The sampling procedure, namely a non-probability, convenience-sampling method that was used to gather data from adolescents in the Mangaung area in the Free State, was stated in this chapter. The data-collection method, namely the biographic questionnaire, the *Ego Identity Process Questionnaire (EIPQ)*, and the *Parenting Authority Questionnaire (PAQ)* were discussed in this chapter. Furthermore, the data-analysis methods that were used to answer the research questions were explained in detail. Lastly, the ethical considerations pertaining to this research study were clarified.

## Chapter 5 – Results and Discussion

In this chapter, the focus is on the results of this study. Firstly, the results in terms of descriptive statistics and inferential statistics are presented. Secondly, the results are discussed in relation to the literature and research findings in the field. A summary concludes the chapter.

### 5.1 Results

In the following sections, the results pertaining to the descriptive and inferential statistical procedures are reported.

**5.1.1 Descriptive statistics.** In Table 3, the results regarding the minimum and maximum scores, means and standard deviations with regard to the three perceived parenting styles and identity development are summarised.

Table 3

*Minimum and Maximum Scores, Means and Standard Deviations for the Three Perceived Parenting Styles and Identity Development*

<b>Descriptor</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>
<b>Permissive parenting style</b> (Score range 10-50)	16	49	32.01	6.189
<b>Authoritarian parenting style</b> (Score range 10-50)	17	49	34.95	6.517
<b>Authoritative parenting style</b> (Score range 10-50)	16	50	35.42	6.150
<b>Identity Development</b> (Score range 18-108)	31	100	76.732	10.348

In each of the three perceived parenting styles, the participants could have obtained a score ranging from 10 to 50. In all three subscales, the scores of the participants had a relatively large range (from a minimum of 16 or 17 to a maximum of 49 or 50). The mean scores of each subscale were relatively average and similar: 32.01 for permissive, 34.95 for authoritarian, and

35.42 for authoritative. The score for the authoritative parenting style was marginally higher than the scores for the other two scales. With regard to identity, with a scale range of 18 to 108, participants obtained a minimum of 31 and a maximum score of 100, with a mean score of 76.732 and a standard deviation of 10.348. The mean identity development score was in the average range, with a slight tendency towards higher scores.

**5.1.2 Inferential Statistics.** In the following section, the results pertaining to the research questions are presented.

**5.1.2.1 Results pertaining to the first research question: Explanation of the variance in identity development.** To investigate whether a significant amount of variance in identity development can be explained by the three perceived parenting styles, a standard multiple regression analysis was completed. When considering the correlation with identity, all three perceived parenting styles portrayed a significant positive correlation ( $p < .01$ ), with the permissive parenting style  $r = .256$ ; the authoritarian parenting style  $r = .282$ ; and the authoritative parenting style  $r = .413$ .

The standard multiple regressions used to assess how much variance in identity development could be explained by the three perceived parenting styles together yielded an  $R$  of .460 and  $R^2$  of .212, which indicates that the variables together explain 21.2% of the variance in identity. This is significant on the 1% level of significance [ $F_{(3, 239)} = 21.401$ ;  $p < .000$ ].

In Table 4, the individual contribution of each of the perceived parenting styles is indicated. The non-standardised ( $B$ ) and standardised ( $\beta$ ) regression coefficients and squared partial correlations ( $sr^2$ ) for each variable in the regression model are reported. Considered individually, two variables explain a significant amount of variance in identity. Authoritarian parenting style uniquely explained 3.4% [ $\beta = .175$ ;  $p = .004$ ], and authoritative parenting style uniquely explained 10.7% [ $\beta = .335$ ;  $p = .000$ ].

Table 4

*Non-standardised (B) and Standardised ( $\beta$ ) Regression Coefficients and Squared Partial Correlations ( $sr^2$ ) for Each Variable in a Regression Model Explaining Variance in Identity Development*

Variable	B	$\beta$	sr	$sr^2$	p
Permissive parenting style	.157	.094	.097	.009	.133
Authoritarian parenting style	.278	.175	.185	.034	.004
Authoritative parenting style	.563	.335	.327	.107	.000

**5.1.2.2 Results pertaining to the second research question: The moderating role of gender.** In the second research question, the moderating role of gender (male and female) in the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development was investigated. For interest's sake, the minimum and maximum scores, means and standard deviations for the three perceived parenting styles and identity development, as they relate to gender differences, are summarised in Table 5.

Table 5

*Minimum and Maximum Scores, Means and Standard Deviations for the Three Perceived Parenting Styles and Identity Development in Relation to Gender Differences*

Descriptor	Gender	N	Mini- mum	Maxi- mum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Permissive parenting style	Male	113	19	49	32.71	6.392
(Score range 10-50)	Female	130	16	47	31.41	5.966
Authoritarian parenting style	Male	113	17	49	34.26	6.337
(Score range 10-50)	Female	130	21	48	35.55	6.636
Authoritative parenting style	Male	113	16	50	35.00	6.236
(Score range 10-50)	Female	130	20	49	35.79	6.074
Identity development	Male	113	31	98	76.64	11.161
(Score range 18-108)	Female	130	50	100	76.82	9.629

Considering all three perceived parenting styles, as well as identity development, males and females obtained very similar scores. No notable differences were observed, indicating that males and females do not differ with regards to perceived parenting styles or identity development.

To determine whether gender significantly moderates the relationship between the three perceived parenting styles and identity, three regression models were tested, using the main effect, as well as the interaction (product term) between gender and each of the three perceived parenting styles.

Table 6

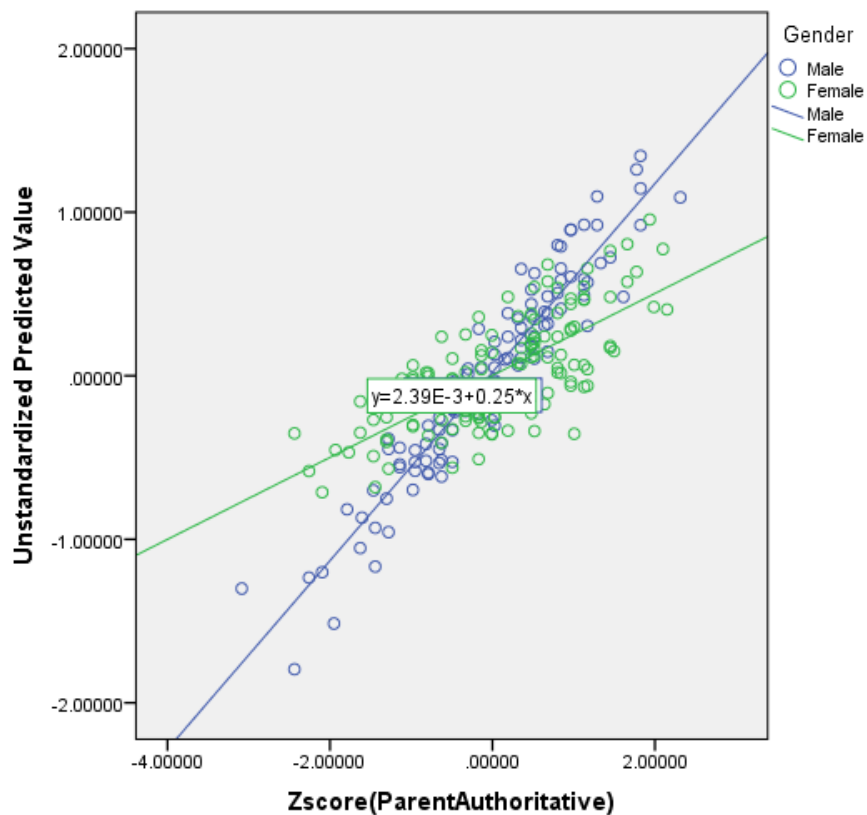
*Model Summary for Gender as a Moderator*

Model	Change Statistics							
	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Std. Error of Estimate	R <sup>2</sup> Change	F Change	df1	df2	p
<b>1.1 Permissive parenting style</b>	.257	.066	.968	.066	8.491	2	240	.000
<b>1.2 Permissive parenting style x Gender</b>	.258	.067	.970	.001	.184	1	239	.668
<b>2.1 Authoritarian parenting style</b>	.297	.088	.957	.088	11.571	2	240	.000
<b>2.2 Authoritarian parenting style x gender</b>	.301	.091	.957	.003	.737	1	239	.391

<b>3.1 Authoritative parenting style</b>	.405	.164	.916	.164	23.570	2	240	.000
<b>3.2 Authoritative parenting style x gender</b>	.436	.191	.903	.026	7.777	1	239	.006

From Table 6, it is clear that, with regard to the relationship between perceived parenting style and identity, gender plays a significant moderating role only in the case of the authoritative parenting style [ $R^2\text{change} = .026$ ,  $F_{(1,239)} = 7.777$ ,  $p = .006$ ]. No significant moderator effects were found for the permissive parenting style [ $R^2\text{change} = .001$ ,  $F_{(1,239)} = .184$ ,  $p = .668$ ] and the authoritarian parenting style [ $R^2\text{change} = .003$ ,  $F_{(1,239)} = .737$ ,  $p = .391$ ].

The significant moderating role of gender in the relationship between the authoritative parenting style and identity development is represented graphically in Figure 1.



\*Non-standardised predictive value = Identity development

\*Zscore(ParentAuthoritative) = Authoritative parenting style (standard score)

Figure 1. *Regression lines for the relationship between the authoritative parenting style and identity development, for males and females separately.*

From Figure 1, it is clear that there is a positive correlation between authoritative parenting style and identity for males and females. As indicated by the higher slope, a stronger correlation exists for males. While the identity development of males is lower than that for females with low perceptions of authoritative parenting, the identity development of males surpasses that of females as perceptions of authoritative parenting increase. Thus, authoritative parenting plays a stronger role in the identity development of males. According to these findings, males are consequently more prone to commit to a well-established identity, as authoritative parenting style grants them the opportunity to actively explore various identities.

**5.1.2.3 Results pertaining to the third research question: The moderating role of family structure.** In the third research question, the moderating role of family structure (nuclear or non-nuclear) in the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development was investigated. The minimum and maximum scores, means, and standard deviations for the three perceived parenting styles and identity development, as they relate to family structures, are summarised in Table 7.

Table 7

*Minimum and Maximum Scores, Means and Standard Deviations for the Identity Development and the Three Perceived Parenting Styles in Relation to Family Structures*

Descriptor	Family Structure	N	Mini-mum	Maxi-mum	Mean	Standard Deviation
<b>Permissive parenting style</b> (Score range 10-50)	Non-nuclear	127	19	46	31.82	6.049
	Nuclear	116	16	49	32.22	6.358
<b>Authoritarian parenting style (Score range 10-50)</b>	Non-nuclear	127	20	48	35.37	5.917
	Nuclear	116	17	49	34.48	7.113
	Non-nuclear	127	16	48	35.05	6.173

<b>Authoritative parenting style (Score range 10-50)</b>	Nuclear	116	22	50	35.84	6.125
<b>Identity development (Score range 18-108)</b>	Non-nuclear	127	31	100	75.73	10.979
	Nuclear	116	53	98	77.83	9.537

Considering all three perceived parenting styles, as well as identity development, participants from nuclear and non-nuclear families obtained very similar scores. No notable differences were observed.

To determine whether family structure significantly moderates the relationship between the three perceived parenting styles and identity, three regression models were tested, using the main effect as well as the interaction (product term) between family structure and each of the three perceived parenting styles.



Table 8

*Model Summary for Family Structure as a Moderator*

Model	Change Statistics							
	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Std. Error of Estimate	R <sup>2</sup> Change	F Change	df1	df2	p
<b>1.1 Permissive parenting style</b>	.253	.064	.969	.064	8.205	2	240	.000
<b>1.2 Permissive parenting style x Family structure</b>	.257	.066	.970	.002	.487	1	239	.486
<b>2.1 Authoritarian parenting style</b>	.296	.088	.957	.088	11.566	2	240	.000
<b>2.2 Authoritarian parenting style x Family structure</b>	.304	.092	.956	.004	1.158	1	239	.238
<b>3.1 Authoritative parenting style</b>	.405	.164	.916	.164	23.558	2	240	.000
<b>3.2 Authoritative parenting style x Family structure</b>	.411	.169	.915	.005	1.481	1	239	.225

From Table 8, it is clear that family structure does not moderate the relationship between perceived parenting style and identity. None of the three models had a statistically significant moderator effect: permissive parenting style [ $R^2\text{change} = .002$ ,  $F_{(1, 239)} = .487$ ,  $p = .486$ ]; authoritarian parenting style [ $R^2\text{change} = .004$ ,  $F_{(1, 239)} = 1.158$ ,  $p = .283$ ]; and authoritative parenting style [ $R^2\text{change} = .005$ ,  $F_{(1, 239)} = 1.481$ ,  $p = .225$ ].

## 5.2 Discussion

In this section, the results are discussed in relation to the theoretical framework of this study, as well as previous research findings in this field. Before commencing with the discussion of the findings pertaining to the three research questions, some interesting aspects regarding the descriptive tendencies in the sample are highlighted.

**5.2.1 Findings with regard to the descriptive aspects of the research sample.** In this section, tendencies in the sample in relation to family structure, perceived parenting styles, and identity development are discussed.

With regard to family structure, 47.7% of the participants in this study reported living in nuclear households, and 52.3% in non-nuclear households. This is in contrast with the general tendency in South Africa that nearly eight out of ten households consist of nuclear family groups, compared with less than one in five households that are occupied by either non-relatives or a single person. The statistics with regard to family structures in South Africa are changing constantly, as the ratio of nuclear and non-nuclear families has begun to change over the past few years (Sewpaul & Pillay, 2014). According to Statistics South Africa (2014), the proportion of single-parent households has increased from 16.29% to 21.05%, along with one in three families now including grandparents. From 2011 to 2013, the number of extended families in South Africa has risen with 4.17%, indicating that non-nuclear families are becoming the norm in the South African context (Sewpaul & Pillay, 2014).

Although the mean scores for all three perceived parenting styles (permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative) were relatively similar, the authoritative parenting style was marginally higher than the other two were. This suggests that black adolescents in this study tend to view their parents as portraying a balance in responsiveness/warmth and consistency/behavioural control towards them. South African researchers have reported that authoritative parenting is most prevalent in South Africa, with black parents having a more traditional, collectivistic approach toward parenting (Bomester, 2012; Makwakwa, 2011).

During adolescence, authoritative parenting explains a variance of resilience in black individuals (Roman et al., 2016). In South Africa, the perceptions of mothers' authoritative parenting styles are more prevalent than any other parenting style, as there is a stronger relationship between mothers and their children than between fathers and their children (Makwakwa, 2011; Moyo, 2012). These findings are similar to those on an international level, as authoritative parenting is found to be predominant in countries such as North America and Europe (Roman et al., 2016).

With regard to the tendencies in identity development, participants reported average scores, with a slight tendency towards higher scores. Thus, the participants were still in the process of developing their identities. They were still considering alternative commitments, and exploring various possible options, and had not reached complete identity achievement. This confirms adolescent development theory, as well as the findings in other research studies regarding the position of adolescents' identity. An achieved identity is reached only when one has solved the identity versus confusion crisis positively. It is expected of adolescents to be in search of an identity to which they can commit (Ragelienė, 2016). Adolescents who have not solved the identity versus confusion crisis are possibly still in the moratorium status, as it eventually leads to identity achievement (Evans et al., 2010). As proposed by Crocetti et al. (2008), adolescents are still in the process of exploring different options.

**5.2.2 Explaining the variance in identity development.** In this study, both the authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles explained a significant amount of variance in identity development. The authoritative parenting style explained 10.6% of the variance in identity, and the authoritarian parenting style explained 3.4%. Both these styles correlated positively with identity development.

The findings of this study, which found that authoritative parenting facilitate identity development, are similar to the findings of Dumas et al. (2005), who argue that adolescents who experience warmth and support by their parents, with a certain level of security and control, are encouraged to develop autonomy, and subsequently feel free to explore their identity. The authoritative parenting style is linked to the process of thoughtful decision making, which also indicates the possibility of identity exploration during adolescence when one is exposed to authoritative parenting (Moyo, 2012). This is confirmed by the argument that identity exploration and development can be linked to parents who provide their children with support, respect, independence, and connectedness (Dumas et al., 2005; Sartor & Youniss, 2002).

Adejuwon (2005) argues that parental responsiveness (characteristic of authoritative parenting) is a key factor in the development of an identity during adolescence.

In this study, the authoritarian parenting style was correlated significantly and positively with identity development (explaining 3.4% of the variance in identity development). This is in contrast with findings of previous researchers that high levels of control, conflict, and low emotional support inhibit identity development among adolescents (Michalek, 2016). A possible reason for this finding could be the notion that adolescents in collectivistic cultures experience pressure from their parents to consider the norms of social groups. Thus, these adolescents are more prone to commit to an identity, as they are given little room to explore alternatives (Adams, 2014). In addition to this, in the South African context, authoritarian parenting is associated with emotion-focused coping strategies in adolescents, whereas international findings associate authoritative parenting with maladaptive behaviour (Moyo, 2012).

**5.2.3 The moderating role of gender.** In this study, gender played a significant moderating role in the relationship between perceived parenting style and identity, only in the case of the authoritative parenting style. According to the regression model (see Figure 1), the identity development of males is lower than that for females with low perceptions of authoritative parenting, but surpass that of females as perceptions of authoritative parenting increase. Thus, authoritative parenting plays a stronger role in the identity development of males. This finding can be explained by gender-role socialisation. For example, separateness and independence are encouraged for males from a young age, allowing them to explore alternatives and make informed decisions when committing to an identity. On the other hand, conformity and embeddedness are encouraged for females, indicating that they are more likely to remain longer in the diffused or moratorium stage of identity than males do (Sandu & Tung, 2006).

This finding is consistent with that of Graf et al. (2008), who found that males who are emotionally more independent from their parents are more likely to engage in behaviour that makes them feel free, confident and secure to explore alternative identities in order to make decisions regarding committing to a specific identity. Some of the outcomes associated with being raised by authoritative parents include independence, self-confidence, and higher self-esteem (Roman et al., 2016). Thus, males who are exposed to the authoritative parenting style

are more likely to reach the identity-achieved status, as they are free to explore various identity alternatives.

Authoritative parental characteristics affect males and females differently (Roman et al., 2016). Females are found to score higher on moratorium and diffused subscales, indicating that they are still in search of an identity (Bartle-Haring et al., 2002). Females often consider authoritative parenting styles as more positive than males do, as their decision-making abilities are more easily influenced than those of males are. Through this, females are affected more by authoritative parenting styles than males are in various areas (Pearson et al., 2006).

In contrast to the findings of Bartle-Haring et al. (2002), studies found that early and middle adolescent females score higher on achievement scales than males do (Schwartz & Montgomery, 2002). However, this was found when males were exposed to authoritarian maternal parenting and females to maternal authoritative parenting, indicating that mothers are inclined to use the authoritative parenting style to treat their female children and the authoritarian parenting style to treat their male children (Pizzolato & Hicklen, 2011). These findings lead to the assumption that females are more advanced in identity development than males are during early to middle adolescence (Crocetti et al., 2013). However, further studies found that males tend to draw level with females during late adolescence, indicating that they are just as likely as females are to achieve identity.

**5.2.4 The moderating role of family structure.** In this study, family structure did not moderate the relationship between perceived parenting style and identity significantly.

These findings are in contrast with most research indicating that family structure does influence the development of one's identity, as well as the relationship identity might have with perceived parenting styles. Various previous researchers suggest that family structures affect the formation of adolescents' identity (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010; Benson & Johnson, 2009; Pearson et al., 2006;).

When considering possible reasons for these findings, one can begin with the negative aspects associated with the reorganisation of a family structure, such as a decrease in maturity and care received by the adolescents in their new structure families when they change from nuclear to non-nuclear family structures (Benson & Johnson, 2009). Along with this, the position that an adolescent holds in his or her family can be a reason, as well as the amount of responsibility the adolescent has in the family, as self-sufficiency and independence is

associated with the ability to develop an identity. Therefore, adolescents who are raised in a family with partner relationships that are more equal will more likely create a successful identity, as they are given responsibilities, compared to those being raised in hierarchical relationships such as nuclear families, whereby the parents often have most of the responsibility (Benson & Johnson, 2009). Although the findings of this study indicate that family structure does not moderate the relationship between identity and perceived parenting styles, research indicates that alternative family structures are able to influence the development of an identity during adolescence.

Other factors, such as social influences, could explain why family structure did not significantly moderate the relationship between perceived parenting style and identity in this study. It is considered that the family system functions in a larger social system and does not exist in isolation (Bronfenbrenner, 1961). In an individual's small and immediate environment are their immediate family, caregivers, or schools. When these relationships or places are not encouraging and nurturing, individual growth and identity exploration can be prohibited (Ashiabi & O'Neal, 2015). Therefore, it can be argued that the development of individuals is influenced by family members, but also by other social structures in their social environment.

Other factors such as Bronfenbrenner's (1961) ecological systems theory could provide a more significant moderation effect (Kail & Cavanaugh, 2013). According to Bronfenbrenner's theory, the micro system helps support families, in order to make them feel strong and able to provide support for their children. Meso systems include more extended family and incorporates means of making individuals function optimally in various family structures. These means assist in creating a sense of belonging in extended families (Santrock, 2012). The economy of the 20th century has created an unpredictability and instability of family life. Currently, children and adolescents do not have constant interaction with important figures such as their parents. According to the ecological systems theory, if these relationships in the micro system break down or deteriorate, the children and adolescents will not be equipped with means of exploring other parts of their environment (Kail & Cavanaugh, 2013; Santrock, 2012). If children and adolescents are unable to explore other parts of their environment, deficiencies might occur, such as anti-social behaviour, lack of self-discipline, and an inability to provide self-direction in terms of achieving an identity (Kail & Cavanaugh, 2013).

According to Bronfenbrenner's theory, it is clear that systems, such as the micro system and meso system, could provide a possible moderating role in the development of an identity, as various that are present in these systems should be considered.

### **5.3 Chapter Summary**

To address the research questions in this study, the results were presented by means of descriptive and inferential statistics. Thereafter, the results in terms of descriptive aspects of the research sample, variance in identity development, and moderating role of gender and family structure were discussed.

## **Chapter 6: Conclusion, Limitations and Recommendations**

In this chapter, the most significant findings of this research study are presented. Thereafter, the limitations of the present study are discussed. To conclude this chapter, recommendations for future research are made, and practical applications are suggested.

### **6.1 Key Findings**

The primary aim of this study was to investigate the moderating role of gender and family structure in the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development among adolescents. The following research questions were investigated:

1. Can a significant amount of the variance in identity development be explained by the various perceived parenting styles?
2. Does gender moderate the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development?
3. Does family structure (nuclear or non-nuclear) moderate the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development?

In terms of the first research question, it was asked whether a significant amount of the variance in identity development could be explained by the various perceived parenting styles. The authoritarian parenting style explained 3.4% of the variance in identity, and the authoritative parenting style 10.6% of the variance (both with positive correlations). In terms of the authoritative parenting style, it is in accordance with what literature and other sources of research indicate, whereas in terms of the authoritarian parenting style, it contradicts previous research. This study contributes to the field of psychology, as it provides an explanation for the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development among adolescents in the South African context, as well as which parenting styles influence identity development the most.

With regard to the second research question, it was found that gender does significantly moderate the relationship between perceived authoritarian parenting and identity development, with a stronger positive correlation between the authoritative parenting style and identity development in males. Gender socialisation is a critical developmental aspect for adolescents, who are often influenced by parental attitudes, peer relationships, siblings, and many others. As



mentioned earlier, males and females are affected differently when exposed to authoritative parenting. Through this, the importance of gender socialisation is emphasised, as the expectations for males and females are vastly different.

Lastly, family structure did not moderate the relationship between perceived parenting styles and identity development significantly. This finding can be understood in the context of Bronfenbrenner's (1961) ecological systems theory. Many other factors, such as school environment and peer connections could be more important than family structure when developing an identity, as adolescents might place more importance on the role of peers than parents in this period of their life (Kail & Cavanaugh, 2013).

## **6.2 Limitations of the Current Study**

Some limitations in this research study should be considered.

In this study, a quantitative research approach was followed, utilising a correlational design and using convenience sampling. While quantitative and correlational research provides information about the strength and direction of relationships, it does not provide the researcher with in-depth understanding of the nature and underlying dynamics regarding the variables and their relations to one another. Furthermore, when considering correlational research designs, only the relationships among the various variables, but not causality, can be explained. Furthermore, when utilising a non-probability, convenience-sampling method, the research sample might not be representative of the population; therefore, the findings of this study cannot be generalised to the general population in South Africa.

Self-report questionnaires were used to gather the data in this study. Although questionnaires with sound psychometric properties were used, the questionnaires might not have provided an accurate representation of identity development or perceived parenting styles. In this study, the reliability for the *EIPQ* was .669, after certain items had been deleted. With regard to the *PAQ*, the alpha coefficients ranged between .627 and .7, which are relatively low. In addition to poor reliability, the accuracy of the data from the self-report measures could have been limited by social desirability. In addition to this, participants might not have known themselves well enough to answer truthfully. Furthermore, the questionnaires were administered only in English, which was not the home language of the majority of the participants. This could have resulted in misinterpretations of the questions, as well as the low Cronbach alpha scores.

Despite the abovementioned limitations, the study still provides insight into the identity development of black adolescents in the South African context.

### **6.3 Recommendations for Future Studies**

To overcome the abovementioned limitations, future studies could employ a more holistic approach, such as using a mixed-method design. The use of self-report questionnaires (quantitative) can be accompanied by the inclusion of semi-structured interviews or focus groups (qualitative). It is also recommended that the questionnaires be translated into various languages to accommodate participants in their home language.

Stratified sampling methods and criterion group designs can be used to compare various groups, for example with regard to age, ethnicity, and region. Furthermore, a longitudinal research study will facilitate the assessment of identity development and perceived parenting styles in a specific period, and also the long-term development of these variables in relation to one another.

Further recommendations include the exploration of other factors that could affect identity development, such as the social context in which adolescents find themselves, peer relationships during the different phases of adolescent development, and socio-economic status. Other factors with regard to parenting practices could be included, such as asking participants' parents to indicate if they follow individualistic or collectivistic parenting goals, explaining that individualistic parenting includes placing emphasis on the individual and his or her needs with regard to developing an identity, and that collectivistic parenting involves the rules and means of achieving an identity based on the views of the society or social group of which he or she is part. Generational differences between parents and children can also be considered, by determining the aspects that have different meanings for the parent and child, such as needs and values of adolescents.

Along with this, emphasis could be put on primary caregivers and the different roles they play in the lives of adolescents. The primary caregiver is not necessarily the mother or father, and could be the grandparents, older siblings, or aunts and uncles. It would be of value to determine how much influence a primary caregiver could have if he or she is not the mother or father of the adolescent and what it means in his or her life, such as relatedness and obedience toward other primary caregiver figures.

Differences in having no siblings, one sibling, or a few siblings, in the development of an individuals' identity development can also be investigated. Other age groups, such as emerging adults, and the amount of influence parents and primary caregivers have during the phase when individuals enter university or the working environment, can also be included in future research studies.

To conclude, research studies on identity development, perceived parenting styles, and family structures can make a positive contribution to theory and the understanding of the development of adolescents' identity and how parenting could promote development of identity in the South African context. This study is also able to provide insight into the field of psychology as one is better able to understand how the identity of adolescents are developed through various factors. The psychological impact of growing up in the various perceived parenting styles is deeply researched and explained in the literature review. Along with this, the psychological impact of being exposed to various family structures is also researched in order to conclude whether or not these factors play a role in how one's identity is developed during the crucial period of adolescence.

#### **6.4 Chapter Summary**

In this chapter, a summary of the key findings was provided as a means of highlighting the outcomes of the research study. The most important key findings were: . The authoritarian parenting style explained 3.4% of the variance in identity development, and the authoritative parenting style explained 10.7% of the variance in identity development. Gender was found to play a significant moderating role in the forming of identity in the case of the authoritative parenting style, but not in the case of the permissive or authoritarian parenting styles. It was found that family structure did not play a significant moderating role in the three perceived parenting styles. Furthermore, limitations regarding various aspects of the study were acknowledged. Finally, recommendations for future research were also mentioned to highlight gaps in this current field of research.

“It is important to realise that a profile of a household at a specific point in time obscures the constant movement of family members in and out of different household patterns over their life course. People went through a series of life transitions which impinged not only on their own lives but also on the structure and membership of their families and households” (Hareven, 1982, p. 154).

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## Appendix A – Questionnaires

### Student Survey

#### BIOGRAPHIC DETAILS

Please answer the following questions by marking the appropriate box with an X

Gender	Male	Female
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Age	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	21+
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Grade	8	9	10	11	12
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What is your home language?	
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What career do you have in mind?	
----------------------------------	--

Do you live with your biological parents?	Both parents	Only one	None
Are your biological parents ....	Never married	Married	Divorced
How many siblings do you have?			
Who is your primary caregiver?			
What is your mother's highest education level?			
What is your father's highest education level?			

Indicate all the people who are currently living in your household:

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## Ego Identity Process Questionnaire

### EGO IDENTITY PROCESS QUESTIONNAIRE (EIPQ)

For each of the following statements, circle the number that best describes how that statement applies to you. There are no right or wrong answers, so don't spend a lot of time on any one item. Be sure not to skip any items.

Question	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Slightly Disagree	4 Slightly Agree	5 Agree	6 Strongly Agree
I have definitely decided on the occupation I want to pursue.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I don't expect to change my political principles and ideals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have considered adopting different kinds of religious beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
There has never been a need to question my values.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I am very confident about what kinds of friends are best for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My ideas about men's and women's roles have never changed as I became older.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I will always vote for the same political party.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have firmly held views concerning my role in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have engaged in several discussions concerning behaviors involved in dating relationships.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have considered different political views thoughtfully.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have never questioned my views concerning what kind of friend is best for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My values are likely to change in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6
When I talk to people about religion, I make sure to voice my opinion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I am not sure about what type of dating relationship is best for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have not felt the need to reflect upon the importance I place on my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Regarding religion, my beliefs are likely to change in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have definite views regarding the ways in which men and women should behave.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have tried to learn about different occupational fields to find the best one for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

I have undergone several experiences that made me change my views on men's and women's roles.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have consistently re-examined many different values in order to find the ones which are best for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Question	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Slightly Disagree	4 Slightly Agree	5 Agree	6 Strongly Agree
I think what I look for in a friend could change in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have questioned what kind of date is right for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I am unlikely to alter my vocational goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have evaluated many ways in which I fit into my family structure.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My ideas about men's and women's roles will never change.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have never questioned my political beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have had many experiences that led me to review the qualities that I would like my friends to have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have discussed religious matters with a number of people who believe differently than I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I am not sure that the values I hold are right for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have never questioned my occupational aspirations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
The extent to which I value my family is likely to change in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My beliefs about dating are firmly held.	1	2	3	4	5	6

## Parental Authority Questionnaire

For each of the following statements, circle the number that best describes how that statement applies to you and your primary caregiver. A primary caregiver is the person who takes responsibility and care of you, provides a home for you and takes the role of a parent in the home. It may be your mother, father, grandmother, grandfather, any other family member or person who you live with.

Question	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
While I was growing up my primary caregiver felt that in a well-run home the children should have their way in the family as often as the parents do.	1	2	3	4	5
Even if the children didn't agree, my primary caregiver felt that it was for our own good if we were forced to conform to what he/she thought was right.	1	2	3	4	5
Whenever my primary caregiver told me to do something as I was growing up, he/she expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions.	1	2	3	4	5
As I was growing up, once family policy had been established, my primary caregiver discussed the reasoning behind the policy with the children in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
My primary caregiver has always encouraged verbal give-and-take whenever I have felt that family rules and restrictions were unreasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
My primary caregiver has always felt that what the children need is to be free to make up their own minds and to do what they want to do, even if this does not agree with what their parents might want.	1	2	3	4	5
As I was growing up my primary caregiver did not allow me to question any decision he/she had made.	1	2	3	4	5
As I was growing up my primary caregiver directed the activities and decisions of the children in the family through reasoning and discipline.	1	2	3	4	5
My primary caregiver has always felt that more force should be used by parents in order to get their children to behave the way they are supposed to.	1	2	3	4	5
As I was growing up my primary caregiver did <i>not</i> feel that I needed to obey rules and regulations of behaviour simply because someone in authority had established them.	1	2	3	4	5

As I was growing up I knew what my primary caregiver expected of me in our family, but I also felt free to discuss those expectations with my primary caregiver when I felt that he/she were unreasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
My primary caregiver felt that wise parents should teach their children early just who is boss in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
As I was growing up, my primary caregiver seldom gave me expectations and guidelines for my behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5
Most of the time as I was growing up my primary caregiver did what the children in the family wanted when making family decisions	1	2	3	4	5

Question	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
As the children in my family were growing up, my primary caregiver consistently gave us direction and guidance in rational and objective ways.	1	2	3	4	5
As I was growing up my primary caregiver would get very upset if I tried to disagree with him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
My primary caregiver feels that most problems in society would be solved if parents would <i>not</i> restrict their children's activities, decisions, and desires as they are growing up.	1	2	3	4	5
As I was growing up my primary caregiver let me know what behaviour he/she expected of me, and if I didn't meet those expectations, he/she punished me.	1	2	3	4	5
As I was growing up my primary caregiver allowed me to decide most things for myself without a lot of direction from him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
As I was growing up my primary caregiver took the children's opinions into consideration when making family decisions, but he/she would not decide for something simply because the children wanted it.	1	2	3	4	5
My primary caregiver did not view himself/herself as responsible for directing and guiding my behaviour as I was growing up.	1	2	3	4	5
My primary caregiver had clear standards of behaviour for the children in our home as I was growing up, but he/she was willing to adjust those standards to the needs of each of the individual children in the family.	1	2	3	4	5



My primary caregiver gave me direction for my behaviour and activities as I was growing up and he/she expected me to follow their direction, but they were always willing to listen to my concerns and to discuss that direction with me.	1	2	3	4	5
As I was growing up my primary caregiver allowed me to form my own point of view on family matters and he/she generally allowed me to decide for myself what I was going to do.	1	2	3	4	5
My primary caregiver has always felt that most problems in society would be solved if we could get parents to strictly and forcibly deal with their children when they don't do what they are supposed to as they are growing up.	1	2	3	4	5
As I was growing up my primary caregiver often told me exactly what he/she wanted me to do and how he/she expected me to do it.	1	2	3	4	5
As I was growing up my primary caregiver gave me clear direction for my behaviours and activities, but he/she also understood when I disagreed with him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
As I was growing up my primary caregiver did not direct the behaviours, activities, and desires of the children in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
As I was growing up I knew what my primary caregiver expected of me in the family and he/she insisted that I conform to those expectations simply out of respect for him/her authority.	1	2	3	4	5
As I was growing up, if my primary caregiver made a decision in the family that hurt me, he/she was willing to discuss that decision with me and to admit it if he/she had made a mistake	1	2	3	4	5

## Appendix B – Authorisation from Department of Education

Enquiries: Dr. MC Liphapang  
Ref: Research Permission L Naude  
Tel. 051 404 9290  
Email: maphokal@edu.fs.gov.za



Professor L Naude  
35 Brebner Road  
Bloemfontein

Dear Professor Naude

### APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

1. This letter serves as an acknowledgement of receipt of your request to conduct research in the Free State Department of Education for the 2015/2016 cycle.

**Research Topic:** Living and learning in Central South Africa.


**Approval is herewith granted to conduct research in the following schools:** Kaelang, Lekhulong, Lereko & Tsosetso

**Target Population:** Learners from Grade 8-12 both male and female

**Period of research:** August to September 2015 and February to September 2016. Please note that the department does not allow any research to be conducted during the fourth term (quarter) of the academic year.

2. Should you fall behind your schedule by three months to complete your research project in the approved period, you will need to apply for an extension.
3. The approval is subject to the following conditions:
  - 3.1 The collection of data should not interfere with the normal tuition time or teaching process.
  - 3.2 A bound copy of the research document should be submitted to the Free State Department of Education, Room 319, 3<sup>rd</sup> Floor, Old CNA Building, Charlotte Maxeke Street, Bloemfontein.
  - 3.3 You will be expected, on completion of your research study to make a presentation to the relevant stakeholders in the Department.
  - 3.4 The attached ethics documents must be adhered to in the discourse of your study in our department.
4. Please note that costs relating to all the conditions mentioned above are your own responsibility.

Yours sincerely

  
DR JEM SEKOLANYANE  
CHIEF FINANCIAL OFFICER

DATE: 17/08/2015

Strategic Planning, Policy & Research Directorate  
Private Bag X20565, Bloemfontein, 9300 - Room 318, Old CNA Building, 3<sup>rd</sup> Floor, Charlotte Maxeke Street, Bloemfontein  
Tel: (051) 404 9283 / 9221 Fax: (086) 6678 678

## Appendix C – Ethical Clearance

25 January 2016

Prof L. Naudé  
Department of Psychology  
UFS

**Application for extension for ethical clearance: Living and learning in Central South Africa (UFS-HUM-2013-30)**

Dear Prof Naudé

With reference to your application for extension for ethical clearance with the Faculty of the Humanities, I am pleased to inform you on behalf of the Research Ethics Committee of the faculty that you have been granted extension with the assumption that there are no major changes with regards to the study.

Thank you for submitting the application for extension. We wish you every success with your research.

Yours sincerely,



Prof LJS Botes  
Dean: Faculty of the Humanities

Copy: Charné Vercueil (Research Co-ordinator: Faculty of the Humanities)



## Appendix D – Consent from Principal

April / May 2016

Dear Principal

We would hereby like to ask your permission to conduct research at your school. We would like to your learnersto complete a surveywhich will take approximately 30 minutes to complete.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary and learners may withdraw from the study at any point without any explanation. The study will be conducted in a confidential manner and all responses will be respected.

Permission from the Free State Department of Education as well as from the Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of the Humanities has already been granted to conduct this research. This research is conducted under the supervision of Prof L. Naudé.

Please feel free to contact us if you require any further information

Thank you in anticipation.

Post graduate students

Prof Luzelle Naudé  
Email: [naudel@ufs.ac.za](mailto:naudel@ufs.ac.za)

### Letter of Permission from the Principal

I, \_\_\_\_\_, hereby provide permission to the Psychology students to continue with the research project discussed with me at \_\_\_\_\_ (name of school).

I acknowledge that I understand that involvement in this research project is voluntary and participants may withdraw at any point.

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: 2016/05/13



## **Appendix E – Participant Informed Consent**

April/ May 2016

Dear Participant

Thank you for your willingness to participate in this research study. The purpose of this research study is to explore your experiences and perceptions regarding being an adolescent in South Africa today. The information will be used by postgraduate Psychology students.

Participation in this study is voluntary and should you feel the need, you may withdraw from the study at any time. All your identifying data will be held in the strictest confidence. While the data will be published, all information will be kept confidential and responses will be kept anonymous.

You will be expected to complete a few biographic questions and some surveys.

If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to talk to the facilitator.

Thank you

Postgraduate student

Prof Luzelle Naudé  
Email: [naudel@ufs.ac.za](mailto:naudel@ufs.ac.za)

### **Informed consent**

I have read and understand the information on the form and I consent to volunteer to be a participant in this study. I understand that my responses are completely confidential and that I have the right to withdraw at any time.

Name and Surname: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix F – Turn It In Report

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