

**INFLUENCE OF PARENTING STYLES ON ADOLESCENT AUTONOMY AND  
SELF-ESTEEM AMONG KENYAN SECONDARY SCHOOL  
STUDENTS IN WARENG DISTRICT,  
UASIN GISHU COUNTY**

**BY**

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UNIVERSITY.**

**NOVEMBER  
2014**



## DECLARATION

### DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for degree award in any other university. No part of this thesis should be reproduced in any manner without prior permission from the author or Moi university.

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## **DEDICATION**

To my beloved husband Haron Nyabuto, my daughters Maureen, Emily, Naomi and my sons Livingstone and Sammy, for their humble time and support accorded to me during the development of this research thesis.

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## ABSTRACT

Parenting styles have been cited to have brought conflict between young people and their parents on values or ethical principles, and morality or religion. This is an element which is present in almost all cultures. Therefore, parenting style may have an influence on adolescent self-esteem, autonomy, independence and openness. This study focused on the influence of parenting styles on adolescent autonomy and self-esteem among students in secondary schools in Wareng district, in Uasin Gishu county – Kenya. It views family parenting styles as the main precursors towards adolescents' decision making, self-reliance and conformity. The objective of the study was to establish the relationship between authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved parenting styles on adolescent autonomy and self-esteem. It targeted a population of 23027 adolescents. A sample size of 394 was drawn from 10 secondary schools through stratified random sampling. The researcher employed causal-comparative research design since the study was meant to examine the relationship between two or more variables. This research was based on Carl Rogers' Self Theory and Adult Attachment Theory by Bowlby, where both theories are used to explain autonomy and self-esteem development. A self-administered questionnaire was used, examining different parenting styles and aspects of autonomy, scored on a five-point Likert scale and a self-esteem questionnaire, scored on a three-point scale. To ensure the validity of the research instruments, the researcher used expert judgment. On obtaining complete data, it was organized, edited, tabulated and coded to facilitate effective analysis. Hypotheses were tested at 5% significance level. Data analysis was done using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS), where both descriptive and inferential statistics were used. The statistical tools used include the mean, standard deviation, correlation analysis, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Pearson Correlation Moment. The findings revealed that, there was a significant positive relationship between authoritative parenting style and adolescent autonomy and self-esteem, while authoritarian parenting showed no significant relationship with adolescent autonomy. Further, the findings revealed that permissive parenting style does not yield autonomous adolescents, while uninvolved parenting has an influence on adolescent autonomy and self-esteem. Considering the students' gender, girls were found to be more autonomous and of high self-esteem than their male counterparts, especially those in forms two and four than those of form three. However, the study generated information on parenting styles, self-esteem and autonomy related aspects, and these might be of value to school stake holders, organizations, and more so the parents who have a direct influence on adolescent autonomy and self-esteem. Among the recommendations put forward by the researcher is that society and learning institutions should establish programs where program administration should be adolescent based, so that the motivation, direction and goals come from the adolescents. Also, with adolescent autonomy, certain parenting practices such as discussions between parents and adolescents, delegation of duties to adolescents among others should be emphasized.

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**LIST OF ACRONYMS**

ANOVA- Analysis Of Variance

BNT - Basic Needs Theory

CET - Cognitive Evaluation Theory

COT - Causality Orientation Theory

OIT - Organic Integration Theory

PAM - Parenting Adolescent Model

SDT - Self Determination Theory

SPSS- Statistical Package for Social Sciences

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY**

#### **1.0 Overview**

This study focused on parenting style and how they influence adolescent autonomy. This chapter discusses background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, research variables, statement of hypotheses, justification of the study, significance of the study, assumptions of the study, limitations and delimitations, theoretical framework and operational definition of terms.

#### **1.1 Background of the Study**

Life starts right from conception, through childhood, pre-adolescence, adolescence (teenage years), adulthood and ends up in old age. Possibly no stage in life is more complex than the teenage years (13-19 years) of adolescence. It is a transition period, where all the human doubts, hesitations and uncertainties appear. If these doubts, are not correctly treated signs of immaturity in the adult person will remain. Adolescence is both the age of idealism and hope, when the young person's energy opens up all the bright paths of life and he/she is ready to commit himself or herself to great and noble projects, "limitless hope is the most precious jewel of youth", a Spanish poet quoted (Gustaro Adolfo, 1836 – 1870). All adults have had to go through adolescence. However, often it is difficult for parents and older people in general to understand the adolescents. The best formula for understanding between adolescents and their parents is based on a well –

known premise; understanding and tolerance as a fruit of genuine love which can result in a balanced life style (Melgosa, 2003).

Technically, adolescence is the period from the beginning of sexual maturity (puberty) to the completion of physical growth. It is a period of “storm and stress’ (Melgosa,2003). Melgosa, describes adolescence period as an upheaval, and a disruption of peaceful growth, so did Anna Freud a prominent theorist, who argued that those adolescents who maintain their psychological balance during adolescence may be abnormal.

In a physical sense the events of puberty mark the transition from childhood to adulthood. These events are triggered by a signal from the region of the brain known as hypothalamus – which stimulates the pituitary glands which sends extra growth hormone throughout the body. This encourage growth spurt accompanied by both primary and secondary sexual characteristics, which affect social, cognitive and moral development of the adolescents. Along with bodily changes for adolescents come major intellectual changes which involve a new preoccupation with cosmic intellectual issues such as the “meaning of life”, injustice in the world” and even what lies beyond the universe Kabiru & Njenga, 2009). This is the stage in which the adolescent try to solve ethical problems by relying more on abstract moral principles.

According to Kabiru & Njenga (2009), the adolescents are in a stage of formal operations – which involve thinking abstractly. At this time thinking becomes quite adult like where most adult capabilities are thought to be in place by about the age of 16 years.

For example when asked about the purpose of laws, children tend to mention concrete examples such as “keeping people from speeding or stealing; but adolescents can see broad abstract purposes such as “keeping us safe and free”, or “helping people live in harmony (Harter, 1999). In addition to abstract thinking several other interlocking capacities are revealed during this stage. With formal operations boys and girls move from the world of the actual to the world of the hypothetical; where they become much more skilled at thinking about how things might be if certain changes took place. Such thinking allows the adolescents to judge the “reasonableness” of a purely hypothetical line of reasoning where the adolescents are able to think through a chain of purely hypothetical events. These includes; deduction and induction, inter-positional logic, reflective thinking and judgement.

Deduction and induction entail hypothetical and abstract thinking in the adolescents which make sophisticated deduction and induction possible. Deduction is reasoning from abstract general principles to specific hypothesis that follow from these principles. Inductive thinking is the complementary process of observing a number of specific events or instances and inferring an abstract general principle to explain those instances. The two processes can be seen in the adolescence about nature, science, and even social problems (Thompson, 2010).

Inter -propositional logic for individuals in adolescence stage have an ability to judge whether propositions are logically connected to one another. Regardless of whether the propositions are logical or not, the concrete – operational child is able to test the factual



truth of a single proposition. This ability to use inter propositional logic really involves judging the formal relationships among propositions (Thompson, 2010).

Reflective thinking is the process of evaluating or testing one's own reasoning. It allows the formal operational person to be his or her own critic, to evaluate process, ideas or solution from the perspective of an outsider and to find errors or weak spot on it. This allows the reflective thinker to sharpen plans, arguments or point of view making them more effective and more powerful. This makes an adolescent an opponent in games or in debates on such social issues as the morality of abortion or the wisdom of a nuclear freeze. It also makes the adolescent a powerful problem solver. This is because it involves the ability to think through a number of possible strategies or "experiments" and to decide which one will yield the most reliable information (Harter, 1999). The wise parent or any other family personality will do well to take the long view of adolescent guidance by being relatively consistent in his/her interaction with the adolescent, but sufficiently flexible to allow for minor changes when indicated; by adopting a critical attitude towards adolescent new discoveries (Thompson, 2010).

The parents should be able to accept some behavioral deviations in adolescents as a natural consequence of growth that is sometimes 'painful', by being calm when personality aberrations threaten, and by systematically varying the environmental conditions in an effort to correct them; and by accepting each adolescent as a unique personality who may never be like the adolescent next door (Harter, 1999). However, the parent should seek help from a reputable psychologist or psychiatrist when an environmental approach to adolescent guidance is not sufficiently effective. Different

researches reveal two broad classifications of parenting: Demandingness and Responsiveness (Baumrind, 1991).

Demandingness refers to the extent to which parents make control, supervision and maturity demands in their parenting. On the other hand responsiveness refers to the extent to which parents show their children warmth and acceptance, give them support and reason with them. Using these two dimensions, four parenting styles have been identified [Dornbusch & Brown, 1992]: Authoritative parenting style, who are high on both demandingness and responsiveness; Indulgent, who are low on demandingness and high on responsiveness; Authoritarian, who are high on demandingness and low on responsiveness and neglectful; who are low on both demandingness and responsiveness. Of all these four classifications no parenting style can bring about a balanced life style in adolescence [Melgosa, 2003].

There is need for autonomy. According to Steinberg [1999], the growth of independency is a sure part of becoming autonomous during adolescence; but autonomy means more than behaving independently. It means thinking, feeling and making moral decisions that are truly one's own, rather than following along with what others believe [Steinberg, 1999]. Development of autonomy helps prepare adolescents to make decisions and take care of themselves. Yet, attempts at autonomy are sometimes blamed for fighting that goes on between parents and adolescents. Family turmoil and rebellion go hand in hand with defective parenting styles (Resnick, Bearman, Blum, Bauman, & Harris, 1997.) A research by Resnick et al. (1997), reveals that most families stay close during the teenage

years. Rather than a process of separation, families may experience a change or transformation in family relationships as adolescents develop a sense of autonomy.

### **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Adolescents in Kenya are faced with a number of issues which include; drug and substance abuse, violence, sexual pressures, communication, rebellion, incest and rape, pregnancy among others (Kinywa, 2007, Changalwa, Ndurumo, Barasa, & Poipoi, 2012). Conflict between young people and their parents on values or ethical principles and morality or religion is an element present in almost all cultures. Although at present it has become more acute, it is not only a contemporary problem but one which has always existed to a certain extent. Possibly it is an inevitable and natural phenomena because the adolescent needs to form his own vision which does not always have to be that of his parents or others. Adolescents are faced with the task of examining different values in order to adopt those which seem convincing to them. They must differentiate between what is morally acceptable and unacceptable. They need to establish some autonomy. Development of autonomy prepares young people to make decisions and take care of themselves both at home and at school. This is because in the current world, many adolescents spend a great deal of time outside of direct supervision by adults (Melgosa, 2003). As parents and communities struggle to meet the demands of work and family, it is critical for adolescents to develop healthy self- governance of their behavior in decision-making, self-reliance and conformity.

Development of autonomy prepares young people to make decisions and take care of themselves. Yet, attempt at autonomy are sometimes blamed for fighting that goes on

between parents and adolescents. For many people, family turmoil and rebellion go hand in hand with adolescence (Steinberg, 1999). He further emphasizes that most families stay close during the teenage years. Rather than a process of separation, most families experience a transformation, in family relationships as adolescents develop a sense of autonomy. Often there are more quarrels because adolescents want more independence and parents want more closeness and communication (Melgosa, 2003).

Young people need answers to fundamental questions; pertaining to religious or spiritual experiences, ethical and moral values which are often a source of personal and social conflict. For instance in conflict resolution, parents may not listen actively to adolescents problems, may lack sensitivity, humility, and patience (Melgosa, 2003). These will precipitate blockages and solving adolescents' problem becomes an uphill task. The adolescent child is left within the options of either, running away from home, committing suicide, staging a strike or burning structures in case of learning institutions. Deppy at high school in Kenya reported a nagging incident from one of her parents as stated below;'' *My mum is so stressing. She judges people without making any effort to know them. Every time I want to go shopping with female friends she denies me permission saying we are going out to meet boys. She complains all the time about everything. She says if I want to go for shopping, I should wait until am 18 years. It hurts me so much when she doubts me and I've never given her reasons to do so. All I want is a little freedom, understanding and trust. Please help me.*'' (Deppy, Daily Nation, February 26,2012, pg 5) ,Young Deppy is questing for autonomy to enable her interact and

socialize with her peers. If this relationship with the parent is not resolved, young Deppy is likely to relate poorly with her mother.

A study on 'parenting behavior on adolescent attachment to parents' In the College of Psychology and Cognitive Science, East China Normal University (Anbo Yang, 2006) revealed that parental positive rearing behaviors have been significantly associated with avoidance to parents. Furthermore, the study emphasizes that, rearing behaviors such as paternal denying and reflecting maternal over-involved and overprotective behavior can predict adolescent avoidance.

Another study for parenting styles on adolescent self-esteem and internalization of values in Spain revealed that, no complete evidence has been found of the positive influence of authoritative parenting (Dornbusch & Brown, 1992). Chao, (2001) has shown that Asian-American adolescents raised on authoritarian households do not do worse at school than adolescents raised in authoritative homes. Parenting research has revealed some difference across culture and ethnic groups (Wahler, William, & Cerezo, 1990). However, the beneficial impact of authoritative parenting is not confirmed in all cultures. Most researches address emotional autonomy, whereas in this study the researcher is addressing three levels of autonomy: emotional, behavioral and value autonomy..

In Kenya, unrest among adolescents in schools and homes reveal that the adolescent child is questing for autonomy and independence. This refers to teens' capacity to act on their own. The growth of independence is part of becoming autonomous during

adolescence; but autonomy means more than behaving independently. According to Steinberg, (1999) autonomy means thinking, feeling and making moral decisions that are truly one's own rather than following along with what others believe. It is quite regretful that implementation of guidance and counseling in learning institutions and other set up like churches and community –based groups have not realized much in helping both the parents and the adolescents to come into terms in their relationships .According to Kimani (2000), parents hardly attend seminars of parenting to assist them know how to handle adolescents. Worse still, any forms of reinforcement in both homes and schools have not yielded much towards adolescents' quest for autonomy.

A study by Ogwari (2008), reveals that authoritative parenting enables adolescents to have a positive self-esteem and self-concept which further correlate to adolescent autonomy. These adolescents under good parenting feel adequate and are likely to handle leadership roles with a lot of confidence. According to Kinywa (2007), authoritative parenting is associated with students' higher academic performance than authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. For the above reasons, the researcher feels that there is an urgent need to investigate parenting styles and adolescent autonomy among secondary school students.

### **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of parenting styles on adolescents' autonomy and self-esteem, and how they are interrelated with adolescents' independence and openness. Most studies on parenting have not focused on these particular constructs, and the researcher found it worthy of study. The researcher further

inquired whether adolescents' gender, age and class level had a bearing on adolescent autonomy and self-esteem.

#### **1.4 Objectives of the Study**

The following were research objectives the researcher focused on;

1. To investigate the influence of parenting styles on adolescents' autonomy.
2. To establish the influence of parenting styles on adolescents' self-esteem.
3. To establish the influence of adolescents' gender on parenting styles, autonomy and self-esteem
4. To establish the influence of adolescents' class level on parenting styles, autonomy and self-esteem
5. To establish the influence of students' age on adolescents' autonomy.
6. To establish the relationship between adolescents' self-esteem and autonomy.

#### **1.5 Research Questions**

To accomplish the above research objectives the researcher employed the following research questions;

1. What is the influence of parenting styles on adolescents' autonomy?
2. What is the influence of parenting styles on adolescents' self-esteem?
3. What is the influence of adolescents' gender on parenting styles, autonomy and self-esteem?
4. What is the influence of adolescents' class level on parenting styles, autonomy and self-esteem?

5. What is the influence of adolescents' age on parenting styles, autonomy and self-esteem?
6. What is the relationship between adolescents' self-esteem and autonomy?

### **1.6 Research Variables**

Three types of research variables were involved in this study: dependent, independent and co-variate variables. The dependent variable was adolescent autonomy and self-esteem; while the independent variables were; authoritative parenting style, authoritarian parenting style, permissive parenting style and uninvolved parenting styles. However, students' gender, age and class level were considered as co-variates.

### **1.7 Null Hypotheses**

This section presents the research hypotheses which were tested at 5% significance level.

H01; There is no significant relationship between parenting styles and adolescents' autonomy.

H02; There is no significant relationship between parenting styles and adolescents' self-esteem.

H03; Adolescents' gender has no significant influence on parenting styles, autonomy and self-esteem.

H04; Adolescents' class level has no influence on parenting styles, autonomy and self-esteem.



H05; Adolescents' age has no significant influence on parenting styles, autonomy and self-esteem.

H06; There is no significant relationship between adolescents' self-esteem and adolescents' autonomy.

### **1.8 Justification of the Study**

Autonomy refers to children's capacity to regulate their own behavior in the absence of parental monitoring. It has a vital component; relying more on oneself and less on parents for support and guidance. It also has an important behavioral component; whereby adolescents make decisions independently by carefully weighing one's own judgment and the suggestions of others to arrive at a well – reasoned course of action (Harter, 1999).

Research shows that adolescents who successfully establish personal meaningful values and life goals are autonomous. They are seen to have given up childish dependence on parents for a more mature and responsible relationship (Frank, Pirsch & Wright, 1991). Autonomy receives support from a variety of changes from within the adolescent. Puberty triggers psychological distancing from parents. These young people look more mature, they are granted more independence and responsibility. Cognitive development also paves the way toward autonomy. Abstract thinking permits teenagers to solve problems in much more mature way and to foresee the consequences of their action more clearly. The previous studies on parenting such as by Chao (2001), Ogwari (2008), and Kinywa (2007), have focused more on other psychological factors such as determination, self-esteem, self concept and little has been done on adolescents autonomy and self-

esteem combined. Instruments used by researchers in these related studies such as Parental Socialization Scale were either adopted, or translations of instruments elaborated by other researchers, whereby in this study the researcher used her own instruments, which were constructed and modified in accordance with research objectives. Besides, the researcher employed different methods of data analysis. For this reason, the study was carried out to help explain how parents and other family member can foster readiness for autonomy, promotion of self-esteem and subsequent psychosocial adjustment in adolescents.

### **1.9 Significance of the Study**

The research study is significant to both parents and other stakeholders in that;

1. Through this study parents and communities will realize their role towards adolescents' socialization, emotional development and independence.
2. The parents, learning institutions and the community will realize that their input is necessary in the autonomy and self-esteem development of adolescents which will further assist them develop their moral values and moral judgement.
3. The study will sensitize parents, communities and education institutions to acquire insight into communication dialogue between them and adolescents, hence enabling the adolescents to have a balanced lifestyle.
4. The study will help the parents to know the adolescent expectations in several areas of life such as in social, and emotional development.
5. It will help the parents to know that they have to be interested in the adolescents' life and should accord them the help they need as they venture into self-esteem development and autonomy search.

### **1.10 Scope of the Study**

The study investigated on the parenting styles and adolescents' autonomy and self-esteem. In addition, it investigated on the intervening variables such as adolescent gender, class level and age in relation to adolescent autonomy and self-esteem. The study variables were explained using a conceptual model derived from the Self-Theory by Carl Rogers and Adult Attachment Theory by Bowlby. The study was conducted in ten selected secondary schools, where most of the youths or adolescents are found. It was carried out in Wareng district, in Uasin Gishu County during the month of January 2013.

### **1.11 Limitations of the Study**

The following were limitations the researcher encountered;

1. Some adolescents were reluctant to expose their families' parenting styles and way of life and these might have affected the reliability of findings. To overcome this limitation the, the researcher over sampled to help compensate any research instrument which could not be returned in time.
2. Adolescents from families involving third parties (such as grand parents) in support of parenting could not respond to research items effectively and these affected the sample size, thus these forced the researcher to repeat data collection in some schools.
3. Adolescents in form one could not take part in this study because data collection was done during the month of January when they had not reported to various schools, or when others were still reporting. However, the researcher sampled

other classes assuming that form one students might not yield much information concerning the variables that were under study.

### **1.12 Assumptions of the Study**

The study was based on the following assumptions.

1. The adolescents co-operated effectively with the researcher in the study and thereby gave factual and relevant information.
2. The adolescents readily exposed and shared their family values and structure with the researcher.
3. The family parenting styles investigated in the study had no third party, such as grand parents as having a direct bearing with the adolescent life.

### **1.13 Theoretical Framework**

In this study, Adult Attachment Theory by Bowlby and Carl Rogers Self Theory were used to show how both dependent and independent variables were interrelated. These theories are anchored on objectives one, two and six which focuses on parenting, autonomy and self-esteem. The theories implicate that love, respect and positive regard is essential for a good relationship between children and their parents/adults. According to Bowlby (1988), children develop an attachment style during the early stages of their lives. As they interact with their caregivers, children develop strategies to adjust their effects and behaviors related to attachment (Belsky & Cassidy, 1994). In their early years, they develop expectations that their parents are available and the world is secure and trustworthy. When the caregiver's response fits their expectations, they acquire a model of self as loved, valued and a model of others as warm and loving. Their initial

expectations form internal working models, including the believe that self is lovable and the caregiver is available. This implies that children develop a secure attachment and this helps children to develop a good self-esteem.

In the contrary, children develop a model of self as unloved and rejected and a model of others as unloving and rejecting, meaning they acquire an insecure attachment style (Morris, Carmis, Carrie & Florance, 1995). The internal working model is important not only for individual's basic psychological orginazation, but also as an important influence on the quality, style and course of later relationships in life (Perris .& Anderson, 2000).

In Carl Rogers Self Theory, he suggests that people have a need for positive regard; which is a universal requirement to be loved and respected. Individuals become dependent on others so that they are able to see and judge themselves through the eyes of other people and hence rely on their values. Consequently, there may be a conflict between people's actual experiences and their self concept (self impression) if the discrepancy is minor, but if great there are serious psychological disturbances in daily functioning, leading to anxiety. To overcome the discrepancy one needs to get unconditional positive regard from another person such as a friend, parent, spouse or therapist. Basic concepts in Rogers' approach include: the self, self-concept, unconditional positive regard, empathy and genuineness.

The Self emerges through the individual's experience with the world. Rogers views the self as a whole consisting of the totality of one's self perceptions and all the values one attaches to these perceptions

Self-concept is a central humanistic theme and it refers to the individual's overall perceptions on one's abilities, behavior and personality. Real self refers to the self which is a result of one's experience and ideal self is the desired self. If there is a great discrepancy between the two perceptions of self, this is likely to lead to maladjustment.

Unconditional Positive Regard, Empathy and Genuineness; a person can develop a more positive self concept through unconditional positive regard, empathy and genuineness. Unconditional positive regard involves accepting, valuing and being positive towards other persons regardless of the others characteristic and short coming. This means accepting the person and not his good or bad behavior. It helps to elevate the self worth and self esteem of both people. Being empathic means being a sensitive listener and understanding another's true feelings, while being genuine means being open and dropping pretences and masks. Unconditional positive regard, empathy and genuineness are key ingredients of good human relations especially between parents and their adolescents. These skills can be used to help other people feel better about themselves and help promote a good relationship with others.

According to Rogers, most human beings are resilient. A fully functioning person is one who is open to experience, is not defensive, is aware of and sensitive to self and external world and has fairly harmonious relationships. People who are resilient to negative feedback are capable of becoming fully functioning persons. Resilient means the ability to survive or cope in a hostile environment, adapt to it, develop and become oneself despite the difficulties one faces in the environment.

Parenting can further be illustrated by filling children's emotional tanks (Campbell's Theory of emotional tanks). Campbell believes that most problems occur between children and their parents because of a child's repressed anger, or parents' failure in expressing their love for their children in ways that the children understand. When a child starts becoming aggressive or uncooperative, Campbell suggests that the child's 'tank' is probably low, and needs to be filled before anything can be done about practical problems. Parents should ensure that their children's emotional tanks do not become low, and this can be done by: spending time together, really listening to each other, giving age-appropriate hugs/ pats on the back and so on. He also focuses on ways that parents can ensure that children learn to express emotions, and particularly anger, in constructive ways. This theory is necessary as it supplements the first two theories and it provides an elaboration of what is emphasized in these theories. In this study a number of aspects are considered crucial towards the development of adolescents' autonomy and self-esteem, which include; parenting by loving guidance and firm boundaries, using natural and logical consequences, using mutual respect and listening to adolescents, taking children serious and, training children with canes.

1.14 Conceptual Framework

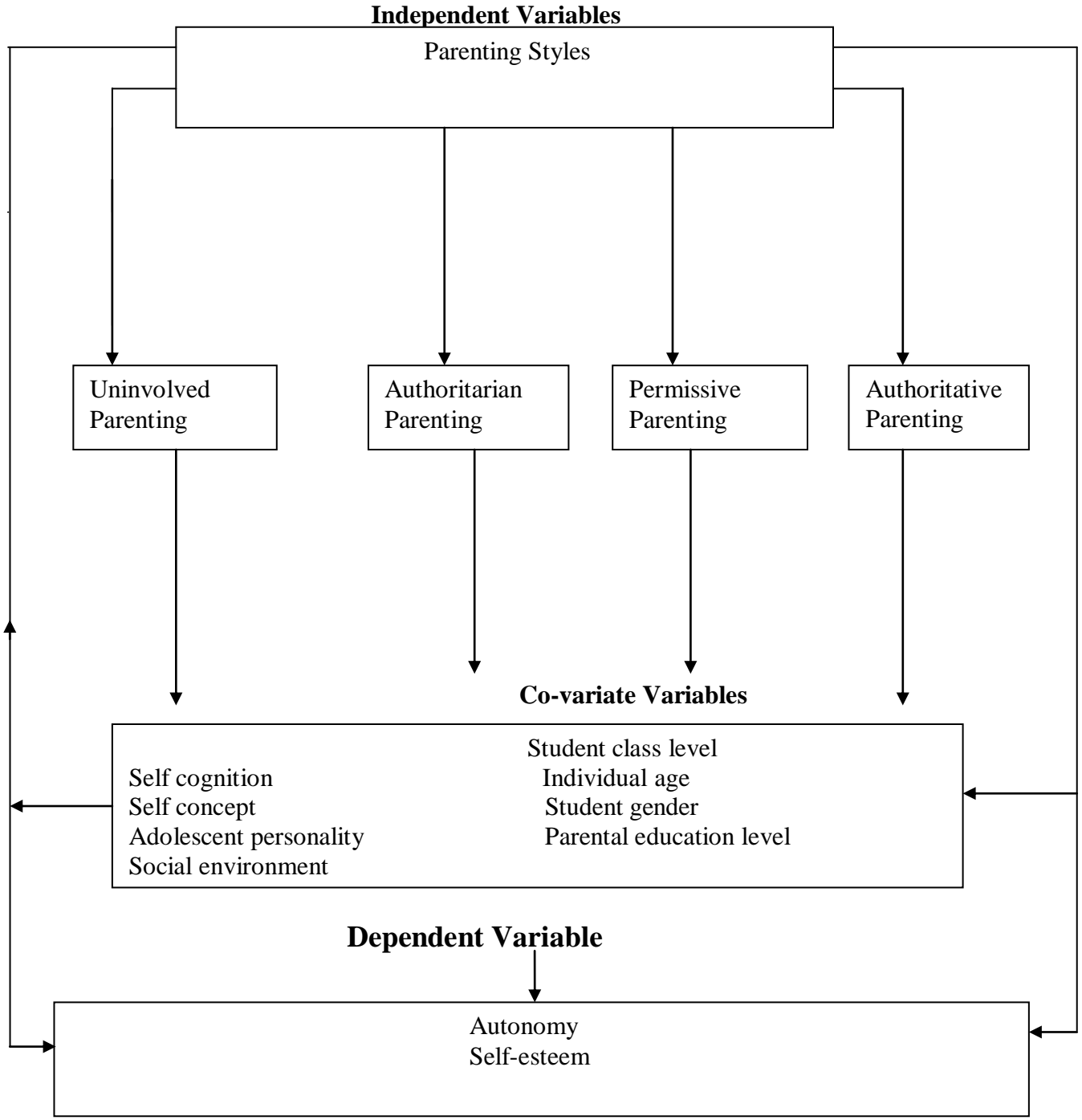


Fig. 1.1 Relationship between Parenting Styles, Adolescents' Autonomy and Self-esteem



In this study a Parenting Adolescent Autonomy (PAA) model was used to explain the interplay of parenting styles and other aspects of adolescents that combine to bring about adolescent autonomy and self-esteem . The PAA model can best be visualized at three levels. The first level represents different parenting styles. The second level represents adolescent self cognition, gender, age, class level and the social environment which is likely to intervene into adolescents' autonomy. The third level includes adolescent autonomy and self-esteem.

From the PAA model, an adolescent gets autonomous and gains independence if he or she integrates both family culture and personal values and operates beyond these values. For instance in Rogers self theory, the constructs organism and self are very important. The organism is the total individual; the phenomenal field is all of the person's experiences; the self which takes shape during development is originally part of the phenomenal field but becomes differentiated from it and can be characterized as the 'I' or 'me' (Kabiru & Njenga, 2009). The self is the conscious portion of experience; it is the person's awareness of his own being and functioning. According to Rogers Self theory, the individual has a natural ability to evaluate his experiences and his behavior; but if he experiences a conflict between his natural evaluations and those of others, he may sacrifice his own evaluations (Kabiru & Njenga, 2009). He will then deny or distort his experience and change his behavior to conform to the wishes of others. It is this denial and distortion of one's experience that leads to anxiety, defensiveness and dependency.

The PAA model can be best explained using the function  $Y = f(x) + \text{error}$ , where;  $Y$  is dependent variable and  $f(x)$  is the independent variable with the intervening variables emerging as constants in the expression. In this study;

Autonomy and Self-esteem are dependent on Parenting, Innate potential, Environment and Error; Where the innate potential includes; the self, self cognition and self-concept and the external factor, environment. Parenting styles interact with the co-variate variables and other innate potentials to promote autonomy and self-esteem development in adolescents.

### 1.15 Operational Definition of Terms

The following were the operational terms that were used in the study:

**Adolescence** –It is a transition period from childhood to adulthood where responsibilities and privileges vary simultaneously. Besides being a transition phase, it is also an expanding phase and hence referred in three stages. This study adopted

Melgosa's(2003) stages and used them in the study. These are as follows:

Early adolescence: 11-15 years

Middle adolescence: 16-18 years

Late adolescence: 18-22 years

**Autonomy** –It is a dependent variable in the study. It refers to a sense of oneself as a separate, self – governing individual. It is an important developmental task of adolescence that is closely related to the quest for identity. It refers to getting free, shake off restraint, or break out of confinement. It means resisting coercion and restriction and to avoid or quit activities prescribed by domineering authorities. In this study, it means being independent and free to act independently and to be unattached, or responsibly to defy convention. It is measured in the study using the adolescent autonomy questionnaire in appendix III.

**Authoritative style** – It is an independent variable in the study. It is a parenting style that is demanding and responsive. It is characterized by a rational, democratic, approach in which both parents and children's rights are respected. Children/adolescents in this style experience satisfactory feelings with respect for themselves and a positive attitude

towards their parents' values. It is measured in the study using the authoritative parenting style questionnaire (appendix I, section B, items 1 to 8).

**Authoritarian style** -It is an independent variable in the study. It is a parenting style, that is highly demanding but low in responsiveness to children's rights and needs. Conformity and obedience are valued over open communication between the parents and the adolescents. There is higher rate of delinquency and aggressiveness in adolescents than in any of the other parenting styles. This variable is measured in the study using the authoritarian parenting style questionnaire (appendix I, section C, items 1 to 8).

**Behavioral autonomy** - It is a dependent variable in the study; which is related to behavior. It refers to ability to make decisions independently and to follow through on these decisions with actions. It is rated using responses to adolescent autonomy questionnaire (appendix III, items 9 to 16).

**Corregulation** -It is a transitional form of supervision in which parents exercise general oversight while permitting children to be in charge of moment by moment decision making.

**Demandingness**- It refers to extent to which parents make control, supervision and maturity demands in parenting. It is a behavioral control which insists on serving one's interest irrespective of others.

**Emotional autonomy** - It is a dependent variable in the study, which refers to emotions, personal feelings and how individuals relate to people around them. In this study it refers to a situation whereby adolescents shift from depending on parents to

getting emotional support from others as peers. In this study it is rated using responses to adolescent autonomy questionnaire (appendix III, items 1 to 8).

**Parenting styles-** It is an independent variable in the study which refers to a psychological construct representing standards and strategies that parents use in their child rearing, and in provision of basic needs. It refers to a child rearing behavior of parents, guardians or caregivers which involves the amount of control over a child's welfare. They were measured using parenting styles questionnaire (appendix I, sections: B, C, D and E).

**Permissive style-** Is an independent variable in this study. It is a parenting style that is responsive but undemanding. It refers to an overly tolerant approach to child rearing. Adolescents in these style tend to be creative, original and insecure. It is measured using the permissive parenting style questionnaire ( appendix I, items 1to 8 of section D).

**.Responsiveness-** It refers to specific ability of a parenting style to develop the associated norms and standards in assessing the adolescents' behavior. It is an extent to which parents show their children warmth and acceptance, including giving them support and reasoning with them.

**Self-esteem-** It is a dependent variable in the study. It is a psychological construct that reflects a person's overall evaluation or appraisal of his or her worth. It is measured using the self-esteem questionnaire (appendix II).

**Socialization-** It refers to a process by which an individual learns how to interact with other people. It involves acquiring the knowledge, language, social skills and values to enable one interact with other people. In this study adolescents undergo the process of socialization with the help of parents and the wider society.

**Uninvolved style-** It is an independent variable in this study. It refers to a parenting style that is both undemanding and unresponsive. It reflects minimal parental commitment to adolescents/child. In this parenting style, the adolescent lacks ability to establish good interpersonal relationships and suffers from poor self-esteem. It is measured using uninvolved parenting style questionnaire (appendix I, items 1 to 8 of section E).

**Value autonomy -** It is a dependent variable in this study; which refers to having independent attitude and beliefs regarding spirituality, politics and morals. It involves making judgement using higher- level thinking. It is measured in the study using adolescent autonomy questionnaire (appendix III, items 17 to 24).

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.0 Introduction**

This section of literature review contains an introductory section to this chapter, child rearing styles which include: authoritative authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved parenting styles. It also contains parenting in adolescence, fostering autonomy in parenting, the family and socialization, theoretical basis of autonomy development, parenting research in Kenyan society, autonomy and human development, and self esteem; all of which the researcher feels that they have a direct bearing in autonomy development during adolescence period.

#### **2.1 The Community and Socialization**

Connections to the community in terms of formal organization such as schools, work place, day care centers and church, as well as informal social networks of relatives, friends and neighbors affect parent - child relationships. For instance, child adjustment problems particularly those which appear early in development have a long time and related to parental conflict, and are more common in urban area than rural settings. Psychological disturbance is highest in inner-city, parks or playgrounds. Community centers providing leisure time activities do not exist and telephones and visits among friends and neighbors are rare. When family ties to the community are strong, family stress and child adjustment problems are reduced (Thompson, 2010). This is due to social

supporting offering interpersonal acceptance. In one study of families experiencing economic strain, social networks influenced parenting indirectly by reducing mothers feelings of depression (Simons, 1993). Second social networks provide parents with opportunities to exchange valuable information, goods and services. Third, links to the community can offer child rearing controls and role models. Friends and relatives may advise and demonstrate effective ways of interacting with children and discourage ineffective practices. As children participate in the social networks of their parents, other adults can influence children directly by providing warm stimulation and exposure to a wider array of competent models (Harter, 1999).

The family introduces children to the physical world through opportunities it offers for play and exploration of objects. It creates bonds between people that are unique. The attachment children form with parents and siblings usually lasts a life time and they serve as models for relationships in the wider world of neighborhood and school. Within the family children experience their first social conflicts. Discipline by parents and arguments with children provide children with important lessons in compliance and cooperation and opportunities to learn how to influence the behavior of others. Finally, the family serves as children's first context for learning the language, cognitive skills, social and moral values of their culture. The human family in its most common form is a lifelong commitment between a man and woman who feed, shelter and nurture their children until they reach maturity, arose ten thousand years ago among hunting and gathering ancestors (Smuts & Gubernicks, 1992).



The economic and social obligations of parents to each other and to their children were so important to the survival of early humans that they could not be trusted to rational thinking alone. The capacity for strong emotional bonds evolved to ensure long term commitment among family members (Harter, 1999). This chapter contains an introduction, child rearing styles which include: authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved parenting styles. It also contains parenting in adolescence, fostering autonomy in parenting, family and adolescent socialization, theoretical basis of autonomy development, factors that influence autonomy development, parenting research in Kenya, self-esteem and summary of the literature.

## 2.2 Child Rearing Styles

In a series of landmark studies, Baumrind (1991) gathered information on child rearing practices by observing parent's interaction with their pre-school children at home and in the laboratory. From observations two broad dimensions of parenting emerged from the observations. These are:

- **Demandingness:** Where parents establish high standards for their children and insist that their youngsters meet those standards. Other parents demand very little and rarely try to influence their child's behavior.
- **Responsiveness:** Some parents are accepting and responsive to their children. They frequently engage in open discussions and verbal give - and- take, while others are reflecting and unresponsive. The various combinations of demandingness and responsiveness yield four styles of parenting. Baumrind's

research focused on four of them; namely: Authoritative, authoritarian, Permissive/indulgent and uninvolved/neglectful styles.

**Table 2:2 A Two- Dimensional Classification of Parenting Styles**

	<b>Responsive</b>	<b>Unresponsive</b>
Demanding	Authoritative parenting	Authoritarian parenting
Undemanding	Permissive /Indulgent Parenting	Uninvolved/Neglectful Parenting

*Melgosa, (2003) Relationship styles*

### **2.2.1 Authoritative Parenting Style**

From table 2.1 above, authoritative parents make reasonable demands for maturity and enforce them by setting limits and insist on obedience. At the same time they express warmth and affection, listen patiently to their child's point of view and encourage participation in family decision – making. It is a rational, democratic approach that recognizes and respects the rights of both parents and children. Children in such kind of families develop well. Rating by psychologists indicates that they are lively and happy in mood, self-confident in their mastery of new tasks and self controlled in their ability to resist engaging in disruptive acts (Baumrind, 1991).

These children also displayed less traditional gender – role behavior. Girls scored high in independence and desire to master new tasks and boys in friendliness and cooperativeness (Frank, Pirsch & Wright 1991). It confirms a positive association between authoritative parenting and emotional and social skills during the pre-school

years (Steinberg & Morris, 2001). Researchers who have examined the correlates of authoritative parenting at early age adolescents and older ages also report that it is linked to many aspects of competence which include high self- esteem, social and moral maturity, high independency, involvement in school learning and academic achievement is high in school (Lamborn, 1991; Steinberg, 1993). Authoritative parenting styles exercise control over their children, but at the same time offer important emotional support which provide a good attitude of dialogue in the family and thus setting adolescents autonomous. A study by Ogwari (2008), revealed that authoritative parenting leads to positive self-concept and self-esteem which correlates to good performance in academics and other areas of life, such as in leadership roles. The final decisions are made by parents, but not without first analyzing other positions and points of view held by family members.

### **2.2.2 Authoritarian Parenting Style**

Authoritarian parenting style (table 2.1), shows that parents are demanding and place such a high value on conformity that they are unresponsive even outright rejecting when children are unwilling to obey. “Do it because I say so”, is the attitude of these parents. As a result they engage in very little give and take with children who are expected to accept adult’s word for what is right in an unquestioning manner. If the child does not, parents resort to force and punishment. This style is clearly biased in favor of parent’s need, children’s self – expression and independence are suppressed and there is lack of autonomy. Children with authoritarian parents are always anxious, withdrawn and unhappy. In their interaction with peers, these children tend to react with hostility when

frustrated. Boys especially display anger and defiance. Girls tend to be dependent and lacking in exploration and they retreat from challenging tasks (Baumrind, 1991).

In adolescence, young people with authoritarian parents continue to be less well adjusted than those exposed to authoritative parenting styles. They suffer from poor self- concept and develop a negative attitude towards their parents ideas and beliefs. Nevertheless, adolescents used to authoritarian child rearing do better in school and are less likely to engage in antisocial behavior/acts than those with undemanding personalities (Baumrind 1991, Lamborn, 1991). It is a parenting style that is demanding but low in responsiveness to children's rights and needs. Conformity and obedience are valued over open communication. Kinywa (2007) asserts that authoritarian parenting is closely connected to poor academic performance, low self-esteem and poor self- concept. Parents offer their children very little emotional support; however they want to control their behavior very closely and imposing very strict rules. These parents hold the absolute control of power.

### **2.2.3 Permissive Parenting Style**

The permissive style of child rearing (table 2.1) is composed of personalities who are nurturing and accepting, but it avoids making demands or imposing controls of any kind. It allows children to make many of their decisions at an age when they are not yet capable of doing so. They can eat meals and go to bed when they feel like and watch as much television as they want. They do not have to learn good manners or do any household chores ( Melgosa, 2003). Children are permitted to interrupt and annoy others without any parental restraints. This normally occurs when parents lack confidence in

their ability to influence their child's behavior and are disorganized and ineffective in running their households.

Baumrind (1991), found that children of permissive parents were very immature. They had difficulty controlling their impulses and were disobedient and rebellious when asked to do something that conflicted with their momentary desires. They were also overly demanding and dependent on adults, and they showed less persistence on tasks at school than children of parents who exerted more control. The link between permissive parenting and dependent, non-achieving behavior was especially strong for boys (Baumrind, 1991). In adolescence, parental indulgence continues to be related to poor self-control. Permissively reared adolescents are less involved in school learning and use drugs more frequently than do teenagers whose parents communicate clear standards for behavior (Baumrind, 1991 ; Lamborn , 1991). Changalwa, Ndurumo, Barasa and Poipoi (2012), emphasize that parenting styles are measured by the level of discipline ( strictness of parents) and love ( supportiveness of the parents).

Parents contribute much emotional support but exhibit very little control. They are ready to listen to their children and talk to them but they set virtually no restrictions for them. On the other hand children of permissive parents are usually creative and original, but tend to feel insecure. They interpret their parents' permissive attitude as a sign of lack of pride and love for them. Although, it may seem strange, many adolescents wish that their parents had banned certain things (Melgosa, 2003).

#### **2.2.4 Uninvolved Parenting Style**

Uninvolved parenting style is also known as negligent parenting style (table 2.2). It is a parenting style in which parents are both undemanding and unresponsive. Uninvolved parents show little commitment to care giving beyond the minimum effort required to feed and clothe their child. These parents are so over whelmed by the many pressures and stresses in their lives that they have little time and energy to spare for children. As a result they cope with demands of parenting by doing what they can do to avoid inconvenience. They may respond to the child's demands for easily accessible objects, but any efforts that involve long – term goals such as establishing and enforcing rules about homework and acceptable social behavior are weak and fleeting (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

It is a form of child maltreatment known as neglect, especially when it begins early it disrupts virtually all aspects of development. Emotionally detached, depressed mothers who show little interest in their babies have children who soon show deficit in many forms including attachment, cognition which play emotional and social skills towards autonomy development (Egeland & Sroufe, 1981 & Radke , 1985). At early ages the low warmth and control that results from parental depressions are consistently related, to aggressive acting –out behavior (Miller,1993). Even when parental disengagement is less pronounced, the development of children's autonomy is impaired. uninvolved parenting also works poorly at older ages. Research in Finland and the United States shows that parents who rarely have conversations with their adolescents take little interest in their life at school and are seldom aware of their where bouts. Their adolescents are low in

tolerance for frustration and emotional control, do poorly in school, lack long term goals and are prone to engage in delinquent acts (Baumrind, 1991; Lamborn, 1991).

Parents who exercise this kind of parenting style display negligence, are extremely lax in the discipline area and do not give their children time, listen to them or encourage them. For them children are a burden or an obstacle which hinders them from living their own lives. On the other hand children of negligent parents do not possess the best emotional inheritance. They are given their freedom too soon and their parents do not care what they do with this freedom. The result is lack of ability to establish good interpersonal relationships and they tendency to suffer from poor self – esteem. There are no apparent positive effects of these styles (Melgosa, 2003). From the above parenting styles, adolescent behavioral patterns generally associated with the corresponding parenting styles have been observed. Children of the democratic (authoritative) parents experience satisfactory feelings with respect to themselves and a positive attitude towards their parents' values. This style is the most desirable and positive according to most of the sociological studies which have been carried out on this subject. Adolescents need first the deep friendship with their parents plus their support and availability.

With authoritarian parenting, there are higher rates of delinquency and aggressiveness than in any of the other parenting styles. An adolescent tend to suffer from poor self-concept and development of a negative attitude towards their parents' ideas and beliefs. Adolescents of negligent parents lack ability to establish good interpersonal relationships and tend to suffer from poor self-esteem. In permissive parenting, adolescents interpret

their parents' permissive attitude as a sign of lack of pride and love for them ( Baumrid, 1991 ). Adolescents need the support of their parents in all sphere's of life to help them get well adjusted in life, and to avoid getting maladjusted. The researcher supports the fact that parents who begin quite early allowing adolescents to make decisions appropriate to their age are less likely to have problems with teenagers who are demanding autonomy (Sharma, 2001). Parents who have tried to control every aspect of adolescent behavior in their earlier years are rightly worried about their children's demands for more freedom in teen years. Chances are these children are unprepared to make decisions for themselves ( Melgosa, 2003 ). According to Chungalwa et.al (2012); 'relationship between parenting styles and alcohol abuse among college students in Kenyan'; showed that children of permissive parenting allow a number of vices to dominate them such as drug use and indiscipline. In this study, the researcher supports the fact that parenting style plays a vital role toward adolescent autonomy development, independence and self-esteem. However, different parenting styles vary in their contribution towards these attributes.

### **2.3 Parenting in Adolescence**

Parenting takes place at family level. A family refer to a group of individuals who are related by blood, through marriage or through adoption (Melgosa, 2003). Family dynamics begin to undergo important changes when children reach puberty. These changes are often received with surprise and without preparation. Disagreement between parents and adolescents tend to become accelerated. The submissive attitude of children disappear and openly confront their parents' opinion (Melgosa, 2003).



### **2.3.1 Fostering Autonomy in Parenting**

During adolescence, young people in complex societies deal with the need to choose from many options by seeking autonomy. These involve establishing themselves as separate, self – governing individuals. Autonomy extends beyond school- age, which includes children’s capacity to regulate their own behavior in the absence of parental monitoring. It has a vital emotional component; relying more on oneself and less on parents for support and guidance. It also has an important behavioral component: that is making decisions independently by carefully weighing one’s judgement and the suggestions of others to arrive at a well-reasoned course of action (Hill & Holmbeck, 1986, Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986).

Autonomy is closely related to the quest for identity. Studies (Melgosa 2003) suggests that adolescents who successfully establish personally meaningful values and life goals are autonomous. They have given up childish dependence on parents for a more mature responsive relationship (Frank, Pirsch & Wright, 1991). Autonomy receives support from a variety of change with the adolescent. Puberty triggers psychological distancing from parents. In addition young people look more mature, they are granted more independence and responsibility. Cognitive development also paves the way toward autonomy. Abstract thinking permits teenagers to solve problems in more mature ways and to foresee the consequences of their actions more clearly.

According to Erickson’s psychosocial theory, like identity, autonomy is a concern that returns at various points during the life cycle. According to psychoanalytic theorists (for

instance Sigmund Freud) adolescence autonomy is promoted by emotional detachment which is characterized by less warmth and closeness, which helps free the young person from a childish view of parents as perfect all – powerful protectors (Bloom, 1980). A study of 2400 adolescents, however, revealed that autonomy can be arrived at in different ways. When young people reported feeling autonomous yet characterized their relationship with parents as unsupportive, they actually showed poor psychological adjustment. But autonomy achieved in the context of warm, supportive parent – child ties carried advantage. It was associated with high self- esteem, self reliance and work orientation as well as academic competence (Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993).

Other authors such as James Dobson and Ross Campell also indicate that mature autonomy is fostered by close, not distant, family ties, whereas tense family relationships signify problems, and not positive adolescent development (Hill & Holmbeck, 1986). These findings suggest that the task for parents and teenagers is not one of just separating. Instead, parents need to gradually relax control in accordance with the adolescents' readiness for more freedom without threatening the parent – child bond. An authoritative style begun in childhood encourages this process. Authoritative parents meet the challenges of adolescence by establishing guidelines that are flexible, open to discussion, and implemented in an atmosphere of concern and fairness. It is not hard for them to explain the basis of their decisions, solicit and consider carefully the adolescents input, and gradually modify their rules as the young person moves closer to adulthood (Steinberg, 1993).

### **2.3.2. The Family and Socialization of Adolescents**

The impact of family relationships on child development and establishing of autonomy becomes even more complicated when it is considered that interaction between any two members is affected by others present in the setting (Baumrind, 1991). The presence of third parties can serve as effective supports for children's development or they can undermine children's well – being. For example, when the parents' marital relationship is warm and considerate, mothers and fathers praise and stimulate their children more and scold them less. In contrast, when marriage is tense and hostile, parents are likely to criticize and punish (Simons, 1992).

Disputes between parents over child-rearing issues seem to be particularly harmful. They are linked to arise in child behavior problems over and above the increase associated with non-child – related marital difficulties (Steinberg, 1993). Yet even when children's adjustment is restrained by arguments between their parents, other family members may help restore effective interaction. Grandparents are a case in point. They can promote children's development in many ways, both directly, by responding warmly to the child and indirectly, by providing parents with child rearing advice, model as of child – rearing skills and even financial assistance (Belsky & Cassidy, 1994). Of course like any indirect influence, grandparents' involvement can sometimes have adverse effects on adolescent autonomy. To make matters even more complicated the social systems perspective, views of interplay of forces within the family as constantly adapting to changes in its members. Individuals continue to develop throughout the lifespan.

As a result the interaction is not static, but shifts across time. For example, as children acquire new skills parents adjust the way they treat their more competent youngsters. Then changes in child rearing pave the way for new achievements and further modifications in family relationships ( Melgosa, 2003). In fact, no other social unit is required to adjust to such vast changes in its members as is the family. However the family is affected by larger social contexts. Connections to the community in terms of social organizations, such as school, workplace, church or synagogue as well as informal social net works of relatives, friends and neighbors affect parent – child relationships and thus affecting adolescent autonomy (Miller, 1993). For example child adjustment problems particularly those that appear early in development last a long time, and are related to parental conflict, are more common in urban than rural settings. Although population density and poverty contributes to these findings, fragmented communication networks are also responsible (Maccoby, 1990).

Psychological disturbance is highest in inner – city areas in which families move often, parks and play grounds are in disarray, community centre providing leisure time activities do not exist, and telephones and visits among friends and neighbors are rare. When family ties to community are strong as indicated by regular church attendance and frequent contact with friends and relatives, family stress and child adjustment problems are reduced (Garbarino & Sherman, 1980, Thompson, 2010).

Community Social Support offers interpersonal acceptance. A neighbor or relative who listens sympathetically and tries to relieve a parents concern enhances autonomy and self

esteem. The parent in turn is likely to behave more sensitively towards her children. In one study of families experiencing economic strain, social networks influenced parenting indirectly by reducing mothers feelings of depression (Simons, 1993). Second, social networks provide parents with opportunities to exchange valuable information, goods and services. Third links to the community can offer child rearing controls and role models. Friends and relatives may advise and demonstrate effective ways of interacting with children and discourage ineffective practices. Finally, as children participate in the social networks of their parents, other adults can influence children directly by providing warmth, stimulation and exposure to a wider array of competent models leading to autonomous individuals (Mitchell & Trikett, 1980).

It would be difficult to overestimate the effects of parental behavior on adolescent autonomy and comfort. Family influences, probably outweighs the effects of all other environmental impacts combined in determining the fundamental organization of autonomy. Optimal child-rearing practices should help the adolescent to develop social needs which are in harmony with the major social values of his culture (Melgosa, 2003). However, the following conditions appear conducive to wholesome adolescent autonomous and self-esteem in most community culture:

- Environmental factors that promote optimal intellectual and social skills. These include abundant learning opportunities, social stimulation to realize his potentialities for further growth, appropriate guidance for his learning efforts, and opportunities to make mistakes and profit from them.

- Parenting styles should provide environment that promote optimal emotional stability: where affection bonds can be permanently established, consistent methods of discipline and socialization opportunities for the release of emotional tension through good communication and parental acceptance of the adolescent as a personality in his own right.
- Parenting styles should provide factors that promote initiative, planfulness, flexibility, self-responsibility, and self understanding; freedom to explore, permissive attitudes in the home, democratic structure in subgroups to which the adolescent belongs, encouragement to examine his needs, purposes and potentialities for further growth (Thompson, 2010).

As the adolescents establish autonomy, parents need to understand that they are the most important influence in the adolescent lives (Kabiru & Njenga, 2009). Adolescents are trying to become adults. One of their greatest difficulties is becoming autonomous while maintaining a loving relationship with parents. The teens' struggle for autonomy becomes a real problem only when it is viewed by adolescent and/ or parents as a struggle for control. These parents experience varying amounts of disappointment and sometime anger because their adolescents fail to live up to the parents' expectations (Steinberg, 1999 ). Parents who reject their adolescents for failing to follow the parents' plans or who reject aspects of their adolescents' life may find themselves painfully alienated from this person who they care about so much ( Melgosa, 2003 ). If becoming autonomous is the task of adolescents, then the task of parents must be to help them attain autonomy by allowing them to walk and fall, talk and make mistakes and slowly take control of their lives. With authoritarian parenting, children's wishes are not consulted and parents

expect them to do as they are told without discussion and this affects autonomy development in adolescents. In authoritative parenting, children and parents listen to each other and parents offer firm boundaries, but with flexibility. In permissive parenting, children do as they like and parents do not take much notice. Authoritative parenting is the most healthy for autonomy development, while at the same time the most unhappy teens come from extremely permissive homes and those from strict authoritarian homes. To this study, the researcher agrees that parenting has an influence on adolescents' autonomy and self-esteem. However, different parenting styles support autonomy and self-esteem development to certain levels.

## **2.4 Theoretical Basis of Autonomy Development**

Self-Determination Theory (SDT): is a broad meta-theory which made prominent the works of Ryan and Deci (2002). This theory was developed in an attempt to reconcile the controversy that some individuals become actively engaged with the world around them seeking out developmental opportunities and growth, while other individuals seem to become more disengaged and have somewhat "conditioned responses" to the external environment (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Within this theory, there are two main components.

First, SDT posits that individuals have three basic psychological needs; these include the need for competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Competence refers to "feelings of effective in one's ongoing interactions with the social environment and experiencing opportunities to exercise and express one's capacities" (Ryan & Deci, 2006). The need for relatedness refers to an individual's need to feel a sense of belonging

and connection with others (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Ryan & Deci, 2006). And, autonomy refers to an individual's perception that they have control and are the origins of their own behavior (Price & Weiss in press; Ryan & Deci, 2006). The second main proposition within SDT is that individuals have an ongoing, interactive relationship with the external environment around them (Ryan & Deci, 2002). To the extent that the environment satisfies individuals' three basic psychological needs; optimal growth, functioning and development, SDT postulates that individuals will experience these three aspects. However, to the extent the environment does not satisfy these needs, SDT predicts that individuals will experience less than optimal well-being and development. Within SDT, however, are four related mini-theories all of which are tied to the underlying assumptions inherent to SDT. The first mini-theory embedded within SDT is cognitive evaluation theory (CET). Originally, CET was identified as a mini-theory in order to explain the impact that rewards, feedback, and other external events had on individuals' intrinsic motivation.

Specifically, these events were thought to change individuals' perceived locus of their perceptions regarding competence, which in turn would either enhance or diminish intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2007). However, Ryan and Deci (2002) indicated that in the 1980s, CET was broadened so that not only were external events predicted to impact individuals' intrinsic motivation, but the "interpersonal climate with which they are administered" were also predicted to influence motivation and autonomy. The second mini-theory within SDT is organismic integration theory (OIT). OIT posits that individuals have an innate tendency to internalize cues within their surroundings;



however, the uniqueness of this mini-theory is its emphasis that internalization can happen through various stages of regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2002). These stages of regulation, from the most non-self-determined to the most self-determined, include non-regulation, external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, integrated regulation, and intrinsic regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2002). In addition, these stages of regulation correspond to specific types of motivation, ranging from amotivation to extrinsic motivation to intrinsic motivation, respectively.

Amotivation, the most non-self-determined form of motivation, has been defined as “the state of lacking the intention to act” (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Individuals who are amotivated are characterized by non-regulation. On the other end of the continuum, however, is intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation has been defined as “the state of doing an activity out of interest and inherent satisfaction” (Ryan & Deci, 2007). This is the most self-determined form of motivation, characterized by intrinsic regulation.

Between these two poles of the continuum lies extrinsic motivation, characterized by four different types of regulation, including external, introjected, identified, and integrated regulation.

External regulation, which is the least self-determined form of extrinsic motivation, has been defined as “being motivated to obtain rewards or avoid punishments” (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Introjected regulation has been defined as “an external regulation being internalized but not, in a much deeper sense, truly accepted as one’s own” (Ryan & Deci, 2002, p. 17). Ryan & Deci (2002) defined identified regulation as “a more self-determined form of extrinsic motivation, for it involves a conscious valuing of a

behavioral goal or regulation, an acceptance of the behavior as personally important”. And, finally, integrated regulation has been operationalized as “when identifications have been evaluated and brought into congruence with the personally endorsed values, goals, and needs that are already part of the self” (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

The third mini-theory within SDT is causality orientations theory (COT). COT is quite different from the other mini-theories in that it suggests a connection between characteristics of an individual’s personality, namely their causality orientation, and their subsequent motivation and behaviors. A causality orientation has been defined as “relatively stable individual differences in one’s motivational orientation towards the world” (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Specifically, three causality orientations have been proposed, including autonomy, control, and impersonal. Autonomy orientation has been defined as “regulating behavior on the bases of interests and endorsed values” (Ryan & Deci, 2006). Control orientation, on the other hand, has been defined as “orienting toward controls and directives concerning how one should behave” (Ryan & Deci, 2006). And, impersonal orientation has been defined as “focusing on indicators of ineffectance and not behaving intentionally” (Ryan & Deci, 2006). Individuals who are more oriented towards autonomy are more likely to be intrinsically motivated, whereas those individuals who are more oriented towards control are more likely to be extrinsically motivated. Impersonal orientation often corresponds to amotivation (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

And, finally, the last identified mini-theory within SDT is basic needs theory (BNT). Although the concept of basic needs is one of the core assumptions associated with the

broader theory, BNT was formalized as a way to highlight the important connection between need satisfaction and outcomes beyond motivation, such as well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2007). Specifically, BNT posits that to the extent if an individual's basic psychological needs are satisfied, they will have enhanced well-being.

In summary, SDT is a broad meta-theory consisting of four mini-theories, including cognitive evaluation theory, organismic integration theory, causality orientations theory, and basic needs theory. Each of these mini-theories, as well as the broader theory have two unifying assumptions. First, there is the assumption that all individuals have three basic psychological needs, including the need to feel autonomous, related and competent. And, secondly, there is the assumption that individuals interact in dynamic ways with their surroundings, and that the environment may either facilitate or inhibit satisfaction of these needs. To the present study, autonomy and self-esteem are viewed as needs whereby parents and guardians have a crucial role to play to assist the adolescents to realize their satisfaction.

## **2.5 Autonomy-Support and Human Development**

Critical to this study is the construct of autonomy-support. As mentioned above, CET posits that environmental events often impact the motivation and well-being of individuals, often through the impact on individuals' psychological needs (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Environmental events may include the provision of rewards or the provision of positive feedback; however, developments with regard to CET suggest that individuals' interpersonal styles may also serve this same purpose (Ryan & Deci, 2002). An

autonomy-supportive interpersonal style refers to as, “when an individual in a position of authority (example, a parent) takes the other’s (example, an adolescent son or daughter) perspective, acknowledges the other’s feelings, and provides the other with pertinent information and opportunities for choice, while minimizing the use of pressure and demands” (Reeve, 2006). Associated with this interpersonal style are a set of several key behaviors which include, high self-esteem, openness, independence autonomy. In contrast, a controlling interpersonal style has been defined as when an individual in an authoritative position uses extrinsic rewards and directive language, with little or no regard for the feelings or perspectives of others, in an attempt to get others follow an already established agenda (Amorose, 2007; Reeve, 1998). To highlight, Reeve (2006) offered the following statement:

“...relatively controlling teachers...ask students to adhere to a teacher constructed instructional agenda that alienates students from their inner motivational resources and instead defines what students should or must do. In doing so, controlling teachers offer extrinsic rewards and pressuring language to shape students into compliance with that agenda” (Reeve, 2006; pg 126).

Considering the sets of behaviors associated with each interpersonal style together, research overwhelmingly has found support for the connection between an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style, need satisfaction, and overall healthier development for children and youths. Parenting style adopted by parents or any other caregiver should provide the adolescent with an opportunity to develop decision making skills, be

assertive, attain competence skills, high self-esteem and thus become autonomous in all aspects of human development.

According to Erik Erikson, the earliest period during which the issue of autonomy surfaces is toddlerhood. Puberty probably serves as the initial trigger for the gradual transformation in family relationships that take place during the individuation process. Following puberty, young people become increasingly concerned with establishing relationships outside of the family (Martinez, Garcia & Yubero, 2007). The intellectual and cognitive changes that accompany adolescence also support the growing trend toward independence and self-governance. The enhanced perspective taking and hypothetical reasoning skills make adolescents better decision makers than children. Finally, the social opportunities and responsibilities that accompany adolescence also require and support the growth of responsible self management (Kabiru & Njenga, 2009).

Psychologists have identified three types of autonomy that emerge during adolescence. The first, emotional autonomy, has to do with the changes that occur in the adolescent's close relationships, most notably with his or her parent. Behavioral autonomy is another important form of autonomy. It has to do with the ability to make independent decisions and carry through with them. Finally, value autonomy involves the development of set of principles about right and wrong that guide one's thinking and behavior. Research in which all these three constructs have been measured reveal some overlap in these three dimensions of autonomy, suggesting that they do not develop independently (Collins & Repinski, 1994).

### **2.5.1 Factors Influencing Autonomy Development**

According to Shil (2012) different cultural backgrounds result in diversity in parental authority and adolescent autonomy. There is need to further understand adolescent's autonomy development from adolescent's own perspective. Among the factors influencing autonomy development include: parent ego-involvement, adolescent self-determination, parent perception of adolescent motivation, adolescent competence, external pressure and stress.

The extent to which a parent is ego-involved in the performance of his/her adolescent is one factor that might influence adoption of an autonomy- supportive interpersonal style. When an individual is ego- involved in an activity his or her self-esteem and self-worth hinges on performance in a particular activity (Amorose, 2007). For instance, how a child dresses might affect how the parents feels, where she or he will be judged as a parent. In this case parents become ego-involved in adolescents' performance, behavior or outcomes and this ego-involvement is likely to influence the way parents interact with their adolescents. Research has shown that the more ego-involved parents are with their adolescents' performance, the less likely they are to interact in autonomy- supportive ways and the more likely they are to adopt more controlling strategies (Grolnick, Gurtand, Jacob, & Decoorcey, 2002).

In the context of this study, self-determination refers to an individual's perception that others have a choice regarding the behaviors in which they engage ( Ryan & Deci 2002). At the levels of personality functioning, people can be distinguished by individual

differences in their tendencies towards their autonomous functioning. Thus, this will be regarded as a personality trait of parents. Research by Aldyn & Iachini, (2008) revealed that individuals who have higher trait level of self-determination are more likely to interact with others in autonomy –supportive ways. Based on the above statement, this construct seems valuable to include in this research.

Parents' perceptions regarding their adolescents' motivation may serve a pivotal role in the extent to which they are autonomy supportive ( Amorose, 2007 ). The self fulfilling prophesy suggests that individuals act and behave in a manner consistent with their perceptions, regardless of whether these perceptions are correct (Ryan & Deci, 2007). Specific to this study is that, the more intrinsically motivated adolescents are perceived by their parents, the more likely the parent is to interact in a non-controlling, autonomy supportive manner. For instance within the realm of education, Barber (1996) found that the intrinsically engaged students were in the classroom, the more likely teachers were to continue to cultivate this motivation through autonomy supportive interactions with their students. Conversely, the less engaged students were perceived to be by their teachers, the more controlling teachers were found to be with their students.

Parents' perceptions of adolescent competence might influence whether a parent is autonomy-supportive versus controlling in the extent to which they perceive their adolescents' competence, with regard to their skills and abilities in various activities. Parents who perceive their adolescents, as being highly competent in their daily activities, might be more likely to interact in ways that are more autonomy supportive, whereas

parents who perceive their adolescents to have less skills might be more controlling as they try to improve their adolescents' performance. Research on parenting conducted by Grolnick (2002 ) indicated that mothers of more academically competent adolescents were more likely to engage in autonomy supportive ways when helping them to complete their academic tasks. Similarly, mothers of adolescents with lower grades in schools were found to be more controlling.

Within the parenting realm on autonomy support, research by Grolnick, et. al. (2002) experimentally induced both a high and low pressure conditions for parents who were asked to complete tasks with their children. Parents in the high pressure conditions were given the role of ensuring that children learn to write a poem. The researcher found that parents in this pressured condition working on poem task with their children were more likely to verbally controlling towards their children. In another study, Ryan & Deci (2007) experimentally induced both an evaluation and non-evaluation condition for working with their adolescents to complete the form about the adolescent. Findings indicated that mothers in the evaluation condition were more controlling as evidenced by the fact that they spent more time providing more answers for their adolescents to put on the form. Thus evidence suggests that external pressure in the form of evaluation or performance standard, may be an important factor for whether adults engage in autonomy –supportive behaviors with their adolescents.

Price and Weiss (2000) suggested that parents often take on many roles, placing them in unusually high situations that may relate to feelings of burnout or stress. Stress means



being subjected to external forces or pressures, while burnout refers to as lack of enthusiasm in daily activities. A study by Melgosa (2003) explored whether parents were more controlling with their children when placed in a stressful condition. The more stressful condition was experimentally induced by giving parents a mental task to complete while being in a room with their children, where toys and some hazardous objects were present. The results showed that parents exhibited more controlling behaviors under the stressful condition towards their children. On the contrary, if parents feel they are under minimal stress, logic could follow that they may be more autonomy-supportive in their interactions. The above mentioned factors: parental ego, adolescent self-determination, adolescent motivation, adolescent competency, parental stress level and external pressure play a very vital role in adolescent autonomy development. However, adolescent self-determination and motivation could be having a direct bearing on adolescent autonomy. The gap of focus in the present study is that, parental ego, stress level and external pressure may have an influence on adolescents' autonomy support and subsequent autonomy development.

## **2.6 Self-esteem And the Adolescents**

Self-esteem is a person's overall evaluation of himself or herself, including feelings of general happiness and satisfaction (Harter, 1999). He further asserts that, it is a person's feelings of self-worth, liking, and acceptance. According to the idea of implicit or nonconscious self-esteem, one's explicit, conscious self-esteem may or may not be congruent with one's implicit esteem. As the incongruence between these two levels increases, defensive and self-serving actions become more likely (Manning, Bear &

Minke, 2006). The notion of contingent self-esteem prevails during adolescence; it refers to the extent to which one's feelings of self-worth are tied to the outcomes of everyday activities. Such self-esteem needs continual validation by self and others (Harter, 1999). He asserts that, as contingency increases, self-esteem levels decrease and anger proneness increases. This raises questions about how contingent self-facets for early adolescents, especially social acceptance and physical appearance, relate to their feelings of self-worth and to their responses to threats and negative feedback.

According to Lipka and Brinthaupt (2006), self-esteem stability has received a good deal of recent attention. They further assert that unstable self-esteem is a relatively high levels of day-to-day fluctuations in one's feelings of self-worth. Compared to stable self-esteem, unstable self-esteem is associated with numerous negative outcomes, greater overall self-esteem fragility, increased vulnerability to depressive symptoms, lower intrinsic motivation, and poorer adjustment and well-being.

A study by Hoyle, Kernis, Leary, & Baldwin, (1999), points out that compared to stable self-esteem, unstable self-esteem is associated with several negative outcomes. Further, they describe an intriguing study of parent-early adolescent communication patterns and their relation to self-esteem stability. Self-esteem instability is more likely to be shown by children who perceive their parents ( especially fathers) as being insulting or critical, using guilt-inducing control tactics and employing negative problem-solving styles. To this study, it shows how relationships at home and school contribute to the development of self-esteem. Parents who may employ unhealthy problem solving tactics, may

adversely contribute to low self-esteem in their adolescents. In conclusion, there is a real danger that interventions designed to promote positive self-esteem may be inadvertently promoting unstable or contingent self-esteem among early adolescents.

## **2.7 Parenting Research in Kenya**

Research on parenting in Kenya do recognize and embrace the parenting classification as given by Baumrind (1991). This implies that parenting in Kenya is not unique, rather it is spread across the two broad categories; that is demandingness and responsiveness. A study by Ogwari (2008) , entitled, “Students Perception on the Influence of Parenting Styles on Girls’ Self-concept and Academic Performance” revealed that authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved parenting styles do influence academic performance of learners (adolescents) in one way or the other. It further reveals that authoritative and authoritarian parenting style enables the adolescents to have a positive self- concept and self-esteem which further correlates to good academic achievements. These adolescents feel adequate and are likely to take leadership roles, contribute good ideas and provide stimulation and guidance to the groups they lead. Adolescents with negative self-concept feel shy and inadequate when given chances to speak out in a group and these affect their overall performance in life.

In a similar study by Kinywa (2007), entitled, ‘Influence of Pupils’ Perception of Parenting Styles on their academic performance’, reveals that democratic (authoritative) parenting is associated with pupils’ higher academic performance than authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. It also showed that the mode of parenting seems to be

determined by the mother whereby the father only enhances the parenting styles. In another study by Changalwa (2010), entitled, ‘‘Relationship Between Parenting Styles and Alcohol Abuse Among College Students’’, reveals that parenting styles are measured by the level of discipline (strictness of parents) and love (supportiveness of the parent).

Authoritarian parents establish firm rules and expect them to be obeyed without question, thus they are high in discipline but low in responsiveness. They punish disobedience but are not supportive and democratic. Such parents do not expect their children to express disagreement with their decisions, hence misbehavior is strictly punished (Melgosa, 2003). These types of parents are thus strict, but less supportive. They acknowledge the use of physical punishment such as canning but do not discuss rules hence are not democratic. With permissive parents, they allow a number of vices to dominate the adolescents such as drug use (Thompson, 2010). The focus of the present study in parenting in the Kenyan context is that, parents/ guardians play a vital role in the development and support of both adolescents’ autonomy and self-esteem. However, each parenting style would be having its’ own measure of adolescents’ autonomy and self-esteem.

## **2. Summary**

In this section, a number of factors have been focused on, as having a direct or indirect relationship with both autonomy and self esteem of adolescents, hence the is particularly anchored on objectives, one, two and six. Among these factors include parenting styles and how parents involve themselves in bringing up their adolescent children. Certain parenting practices have been found to be associated with healthy development of autonomy. Parenting that emphasizes both independence and emotional closeness tends

to be linked with autonomous functioning in young people. Adolescents whose parents use more enabling behaviors than constraining behaviors are more psychosocially healthy than adolescents whose parents are highly constraining. The authoritative parenting style has been positively linked with autonomous functioning in adolescence. Authoritarian parenting, on the other hand, has been associated excessively dependent behavior or highly rebellious responses in adolescence. Finally, permissively and indifferently reared young people have been found to become psychologically dependent on their peers.

However, paving way for autonomy development will determine whether the adolescent will emerge as a self-governing individual or a totally dependent person. These same factors are also believed to influence adolescent self-esteem which is also a major component of an autonomous individual. This study focuses on parenting styles and its influence on adolescent autonomy and self-esteem. The gap in these literature indicates that none of the parenting styles can bring forth autonomous individuals with stable self-esteem, since other innate qualities have a direct influence on adolescent autonomy and self-esteem development. However, the researcher does not agree to this, because parenting styles may determine adolescents' ability to make independent decision, and live by them. Further, it is the parenting styles that will inculcate a certain level of self-esteem in an individual. The previous studies focuses on parental self-esteem, parenting and academic achievements, parenting and drug abuse, parenting and internalization of values among others. The current study focuses on parenting styles and adolescents' autonomy and self-esteem among adolescents, which specifically has not been brought out well.

## CHAPTER THREE

### RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

#### 3.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the research design the researcher used, the location of the study, the research population, sample size and sampling procedures used by the researcher. It also explains how the research instruments were developed, how they were tested and used, their validity and reliability. This chapter also gives an account on data collection procedures, scoring of research instruments and how data was analyzed and presented.

#### 3.1 Study Site

The study was carried out in Wareng District, in Uasin Gishu County in Kenya. The estimated district population for the year 2008 was 239,362, with a population growth rate of 3.3 % which is slightly higher than the regional rate of 2.5 % and the national rate of 2.9 %. This is mainly due to natural increase and migration from the Western, Nyanza and Central Province. It is also characterized by good road network and availability of agricultural land and favorable weather. The researcher opted to use Wareng District in the study because adolescents come from varied cultural backgrounds. She also felt that the research variables; adolescent autonomy and parenting styles could be well catered for, since Wareng district is a cosmopolitan district and is information rich context. Wareng District is one of the thirty three Districts in the North Rift Region of Rift Valley Province as shown in Wareng District map, (appendices Vi and Vii). It extends between longitudes  $34^{\circ} 50'$  and  $35^{\circ} 37'$  East and  $00^{\circ} 03'$  and  $00^{\circ} 55'$  North. The district shares common borders with Eldoret West District to the North, Eldoret East District to the East,

Koibatek District to the South East, Kipkelion District to the South, Nandi South District to the South West and Nandi North District to the West. The district has a total area of 989.1 Km<sup>2</sup>. Administratively the district is divided into two divisions; namely Kapseret and Kesses. It is further divided into fourteen locations and twenty three sub-location ; as shown in table 3.1 below. Some researches have been carried out in the same district touching on various aspects of human life, but little has been done concerning this particular study. The researcher felt that the district could yield good information pertaining the subject at hand.

**Table 3.1 Area and Administrative Units of Wareng District**

<b>Division</b>	<b>Area (Km2)</b>	<b>Locations</b>	<b>Sun-location</b>
Kesses	692.1	10	17
Kapseret	297	4	6
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>989.1</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>23</b>

**Source: District Statistic Office, 2008.**

### **3.2 Research Design.**

The researcher embraces a positivism paradigm which is a scientific method of research. This paradigm is deterministic in that cause probably determines outcome. It is also reductionistic, in that the intention is to reduce ideas into a small discrete set of ideas to test variables that comprise hypotheses and research questions. It is relevant in that it challenges the traditional notion of the absolute truth of knowledge and recognizes that humans cannot be "positive" about their claims of knowledge when studying the behavior and actions of other humans.

A research design is the structure of a research. Kombo and Tromp, (2006 ) views research design as the scheme, outline or plan that is used to generate answers to research problems. It can be regarded as an arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims at combining relevance with the research purpose. It is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted. It constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data (Kothari, 2005). Research design is vital because it facilitates the smooth sailing of the various research operations, thereby yielding maximal information, with minimal expenditure of effort, time and money. It stands for advance planning of the methods to be adopted for collecting the relevant data and the techniques to be used in their analysis keeping in view the objectives of the research, availability of resources, availability and skills of the researcher and the nature of the problem to be studied. The research approach was purely quantitative.

A causal-comparative research design was used to study the level of adolescent autonomy and self-esteem based on different parenting styles. This design was found relevant because it is a quantitative method of research in which the researcher was able to examine two or more quantitative variables from the same respondents. These helped the researcher to determine if there was a relationship or co-variation between the variables under study. Besides these, the researcher had no room or chance to manipulate the independent variables and was able to score on the variables from the same participants. The design was found to be flexible, appropriate, efficient and economical (Kothari, 2005). It also involved collecting data at one time from a single group of subjects and recording scores. The researcher focused on identifying variables that predicted



outcomes. The researcher used predictor variables followed with criterion variables and these helped in prediction of future occurrence.

### 3.3 Research Population

The study targeted a total population of 23027 students in 33 secondary schools (Wareng District Development Plan 2008-2012). This covered a population which ranged on average between 14 to 18 years. This is because different psychologists give different age range for adolescence period. For instance, according to Sharma ( 2001 ), adolescence begins from 12 years and continues until the age of 20. The population distribution is as shown in table 3.2 below.

**Table 3 .2 Population Distribution According to gender**

Age-group in Secondary schools	Gender	Population
14-18 years	Male	11,684
14-18 years	Female	11,343
Total		23,027

**Source: Wareng District Development Plan, 2008-2012**

### 3.4 Sample and Sampling Techniques

A sample is a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole (Kothari, 2005). Sampling is a process of selecting a number of individuals or objects from a population such that the selected group contains elements representative of the characteristics found in the entire group (Kombo & Tromp, 2006 ).

In any study design, research objectives, method of data collection, techniques of analysis and sample size determination are interrelated features of a study that influence the detection of significant differences, relationships or interactions (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). A researcher benefits from a real-life primer on the tools needed to properly conduct a research including but not limited to sample size selection. The researcher used 30% (Kothari, 2005) of the 33 schools (10 schools) which were selected by stratified random sampling; there after the researcher adapted Cochran's formula of 1977 for obtaining the sample size. The formula involves two key factors:

- i) The risk researcher was willing to accept in the study, known as margin of error, that is, the error the researcher was willing to accept.
- ii) The alpha level, which is the level of acceptable risk the researcher was willing to accept that the true margin of error exceeds the acceptable margin of error. This is the probability that differences to be revealed by statistical analyses do not exist; this is known as type 1 error. The alpha ( $\alpha$ ) level used in determining sample size in most educational research studies is either 0.05 or 0.01 (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1996). In Cochran's formula, the Alpha level is incorporated into the formula by utilizing the t-value for alpha level selected. For instance, t-value for alpha level of 0.05 is 1.96 for sample above 120. However an alpha level of 0.05 is acceptable for most research.

With  $\alpha = 0.10$  or lower may be used if the researcher is more interested in identifying marginal relationships, differences or other statistical phenomena as a precursor to further studies. Since the researcher used continuous data from high schools, Cochran's sample size formula was used:

$$n_o = \frac{(t)^2 \times (s)^2}{(d)^2}$$

t = value for selected alpha where level of 0.025 in each tail = 1.96

(-the alpha level of 0.05 indicates the level of risk the researcher is willing to take that true margin of error may exceed the acceptable margin of error).

S = estimate of the standard deviation in the population. Estimate of variance deviation for 5 point scale calculated by using 5 of the standard deviations that include almost all the possible values in the range.

d = acceptable margin of error for mean being estimated = 0.15 that is (5x 0.03). Number of points on primary scale acceptable margin of error; point = 5; acceptable margin of error = 0.03 (error researcher is willing to accept). For a population of 23027 the required sample size is 394

$$\begin{aligned} n_o &= \frac{t^2 \times s^2}{d^2} \\ &= \frac{1.96^2 \times 1.25^2}{0.15^2} \\ &= \frac{3.842 \times 1.563}{0.15^2} \\ &= \frac{3842 \times 1563}{25200} \quad n_o = 394 \end{aligned}$$

This is further defined as follows:

$$n_1 = \frac{n_o}{(1 + \% \text{ population})}$$

$n_o$  = required return sample size according to Cochran's formula

$n_1$  = required return sample size because sample > 5% of population

From research population 394 adolescents were selected and these constituted the sample which participated in the study. A balanced sampling design was adopted in this study

whereby both males and females involved in the study were chosen proportional to their school and class population respectively. The sample distribution according to gender and class level is as table 3.3 below:

**Table 3.3 :Sample Distribution According To Gender and Class Level.**  
**Class Level**

<b>Gender</b>	Form Two	Form Three	Form Four	Total
Female	42	23	141	206
Male	20	78	90	188
Total	62	101	231	394

### **3.5 Instrumentation.**

Adolescent questionnaires in appendix I measuring parenting styles and appendix II measuring self esteem in relation to adolescents autonomy were used. Appendix III dealt with measuring adolescent autonomy. The appendices I, II and III were developed by the researcher based on study objectives. The items in appendices I and III were scored on a Likert five-point scale, while items in appendix II were scored on a three point scale. Items in appendix I were examining different parenting styles and how they influenced adolescents' autonomy. In appendix II the self-esteem questionnaire sort to examine if the adolescents were to exhibit independence and openness. These items were structured accordingly to suit the relevance of the study. Any items that were not clear were eliminated. Other tools of data collection such as document analysis could not be used because they were unavailable. The researcher could not use interview schedules because the research was purely quantitative and therefore could not cater for respondents' feelings and opinion.

### 3.5.1 Validity and Reliability of Instruments

Reliability is the ability of an instrument to give consistent scores. The type of the reliability evidence that was established was internal consistency and stability over time. Internal consistency is the extent to which all parts of an instrument are measuring the same thing, while the second meaning of reliability is stability over time, which refers to the extent to which the instrument is likely to change over time. Internal consistency is important for all measures in psychology, particularly important in the sort of test which use a series of items or statements such as personality, ability or aptitude tests. Reliability of the research instruments was estimated by using the split half method of correlation. These procedure was done by taking a test of a number of items and then dividing them into two equal sized sets. The result of the two halves of the test was correlated (i.e. a measure of agreement of the two sets of scores). With high correlation coefficient of 0.84, and 0.78 in both the five-point and three-point scales respectively, it meant that respondents who scored high on one set of items also scored high on the other set of items; meaning that the scores were internally consistent. Coefficient alpha is the average of correlations of all the possible ways of dividing the test into two sets. The value of the results of the calculation should range in value from 0 to 1. Values of 0.7 and above are usually considered adequate values of coefficient alpha.

To find out if the instrument was stable over time, the researcher presented a group of participants with the instrument, waited for some period of two weeks and then presented them with the same instrument. Using the Pearson Product Moment for the scales as 0.84, and 0.78, the researcher was able to estimate the variation of participant's scores. This is

known as Test- retest method. However, changes in scores might mean unreliable measures or it is/was reliably recording a change in attitude. For this reason two weeks was considered a reasonable amount of time to wait between tests.

Reliability was improved by the researcher in two ways;

- i) By standardizing the items and conditions under which the measurement took place, that is subjecting all the respondents to closed type of items. The researcher further ensured that external sources of variation such as boredom, fatigue and so on were minimized to the extent possible. This was also minimized by constructing items which were short, clear and simple.
- ii) By carefully designing directions for measurement with no variation from one group to another. This was done by using trained and motivated persons to assist in the research and also by broadening the sample of items used.

Validity of an instrument is the extent to which it measures what it is supposed to measure. There are three types of validity; Construct validity, criterion-related validity and Content validity. To measure construct validity, the researcher used knowledge of the construct, and compared scores with other aspects of the construct; such as identity and self cognition in relation to adolescent autonomy. For criterion-related validity, the researcher consulted with her supervisors and assessed how well measures related to some external criterion, which was a measure taken early or considerably later.

To establish the content validity evidence of the data collection instrument the researcher consulted with her supervisors and other members of Psychology Department of Moi University. Content validity is based on the adequacy with which the items in an

instruments measure the attributes of the study (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2006). Pre-testing research instrument on a small sample of respondents was a preparatory exercise which was vital. Thus the researcher carried out a pilot study in one school within the same district, whereby instruments were pre-tested on a sample of at least ten respondents, who were not part of the representative sample in the participating schools.

### **3.5.2 Scoring the Instruments**

In this study, a Likert scale was used where each response to the items was given a numerical score on 5–point scale, indicating its favorableness or unfavorableness and the scores were totaled to measure the participants responses. The instrument yielded a total score for each respondent which measured the responses. The score for any individual ranged between 32 and 160, and divisions were as follows basing on demandingness and responsiveness.

64 and below ,were categorized as having uninvolved/neglectful parenting

65–96 were classified as experiencing authoritarian parenting

97-128 were classified as having indulgent/permissive parenting, and

129 – 160 were grouped as experiencing authoritative parenting.

Other subscales used for authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved parenting, were as follows :

21 and below: low

22-27: optimum and

28-40: high.

With the self esteem scale, items were scored on a three point scale, whereby the scores for any respondent ranged between 16 and 48 and it was used as follows:

27 and below was rated as low,

28-37 was rated as optimum, and

38– 48 was rated as high

These ranges were adopted for three – point scale.

With the adolescent autonomy scale, items were scored on a five-point scale.

The score for any respondent ranged between 24 and 120 and was used as follows:

62 and below was rated as low,

63-82 was rated as semi-autonomous

83-120 was rated as high.

### **3.6 Piloting**

To ensure the reliability of the research instruments, a half-split method of correlation was used. The researcher administered the instruments in one pilot school within Eldoret East District bordering Wareng District to the East, which was not sampled for the actual study. This was done at an interval of 2 weeks. The resulting test scores were correlated and these correlation coefficients (0.84 and 0.78) provided a measure of stability over the given period of time. For a perfect positive relationship the coefficient is equal to 1:00, while a zero relationship is given by 0.00. A reliability coefficient of 0.5 or higher is said to be an acceptable degree of stability of data collection instrument (Kothari, 2005). With a reliability of less than 0.5 the items would be reconstructed for improvement. The instrument were pre-tested again before the actual administration in the actual study. This was meant to ensure the stability of instrument. Stability evidence was important



because if not checked, items could elicit different response patterns which might affect the reliability and validity of the research findings.

### **3.7 Data Collection Procedure**

The researcher structured informed consent letter which contained a brief introduction of the research, and the significance of the respondents' co-operation in responding to the research items. It also contained information that all the research information to be received from respondents were to be used for the sole purpose of the research and were to be kept confidential as per appendix I. The letters were delivered to the respective schools which were to participate in the research earlier before the actual research period. Before actual data collection process, the researcher went to the Ministry of Education, with a reference letter from Moi University seeking for a research permit (Appendix VII). The researcher proceeded to verify the number of high schools in Wareng District. The researcher wrote an introduction letter; as in appendix I to all target respondents informing them about the objectives of the study and requested them to participate in the study. The research instruments were administered to the participants by the researcher herself.

### **3.8 Data Analysis**

Data analysis refers to the process of computing certain indices or measures along with searching for patterns of relationships that exist among data groups. The researcher used SPSS package in analysis where, both descriptive and inferential statistics were used. With descriptive statistics, the mean and standard deviation were used. A Correlation Analysis and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were also used because the study variables

required comparison. Pearson coefficient of correlation (or simple correlation) was used to measure the degree of relationship between the variables, self-esteem and autonomy. The findings were presented in form of tables for easier interpretation. Coefficient of Correlation was also used because it assumes a linear relationship between variables; that two variables are casually related, one being dependent and the other independent. Hypotheses were tested at 5% level of significance.

### **3.9 Ethical Considerations**

The researcher obtained an introductory letter from Moi University and a research permit from the Ministry of Education. The permit was presented to the District Education Officer to enable the researcher to conduct the study. The head teachers of the schools were contacted before the actual data collection. The purpose of the research was explained thoroughly to the head teachers and other respondents. The consent of the respondents was sought before they were engaged in the study. Subjects for this study were protected from both physical and psychological harm, accorded their respect, as well as assured confidentiality of the research results.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA ANALYSES, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

#### 4.0 Introduction

This section is a combination of three vital components: data analysis, presentation and interpretation. These three interrelated components have been discussed based on the way objectives were stated and the way data was collected. Objectives 1 and 2 were analyzed using correlation analysis whereby Pearson' correlation moments were obtained and results tabulated. For objective number 2 Analysis of Variance was conducted and results tabulated. For objective number 3, 4 and 5 mean, standard deviation and Analysis Of Variance (ANOVA) were used and results presented in table form. Objective number six was analyzed using Pearson Correlation Moment.

#### 4.1 Demographic Descriptions

In this study both adolescent boys and girls were the main respondents. Total sample used was 394 students, where 188 were males and 206 were females as shown in the table 4.1 below. In reference to Appendix I of Section A of the research instruments, the demographic features addressed were, gender, age bracket and class level. Form ones students could not participate in the study because data collection was carried out when they had not reported to their respective schools. The distribution of the participants according to gender, class level and age are presented are in table 4.1 and 4.2 below.

**Table 4.1 Demographic Descriptions Of Respondents**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Class Level</b>			<b>Total</b>
	<b>Form Two</b>	<b>Form Three</b>	<b>Form Four</b>	
Female	42	23	141	206
Male	20	78	90	188
Total	62	101	231	394

**Table 4.2 Students Age Bracket**

<b>Age</b>		<b>Frequenc</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Valid</b>	<b>Cumulative</b>
		<b>y</b>		<b>Percent</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Valid	12 - 14 Years	1	.3	.3	.3
	15 - 18 Years	332	84.3	84.3	84.5
	19 - 22 Years	55	14.0	14.0	98.5
	23 and Above Years	6	1.5	1.5	100.0
	Total	394	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.2 shows age brackets and their frequency, percentage, valid percentage and cumulative percentage. For the smooth sailing of the research, data analysis was carried out basing on research objectives. These objectives were analysed using correlational analysis and Pearson Correlation moment was obtained as given in the table below.

#### **4.2 Parenting Styles and Adolescent Autonomy.**

This section addresses the first objective of the study, which was meant to investigate the influence of parenting styles on adolescents' autonomy. The mean level of parenting styles in relation to autonomy were as follows: authoritative parenting had a mean of 31.310, authoritarian parenting a mean of 22.084, permissive parenting a mean of 16.162 and uninvolved parenting had a mean of 18.195.

**Table 4.3 Correlations Among Parenting Styles and Adolescent Autonomy**

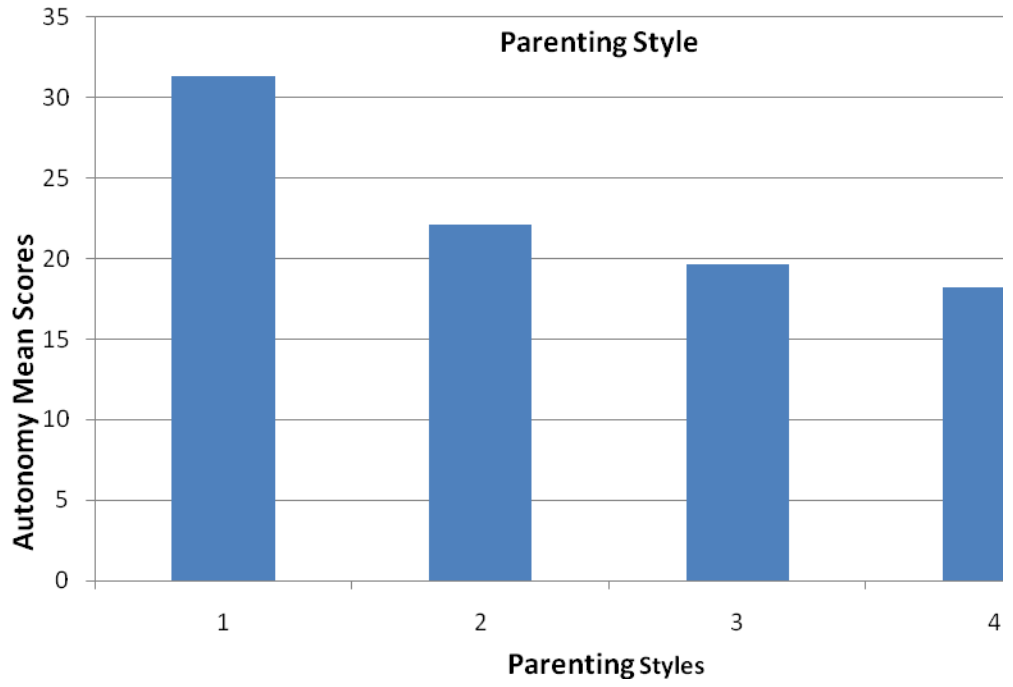
		Authoritative	Authoritarian	Permissive	Uninvolved	Autonomy
Authoritative	Pearson	1	-.296**	-.056	-.368**	.399**
	Correlation					
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.265	.000	.000
	N	394	394	394	394	394
Authoritarian	Pearson	-.296**	1	.077	.443**	-.065
	Correlation					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.128	.000	.195
	N	394	394	394	394	394
Permissive	Pearson	-.056	.077	1	.287**	.084
	Correlation					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.265	.128		.000	.096
	N	394	394	394	394	394
Uninvolved	Pearson	-.368**	.443**	.287**	1	-.136**
	Correlation					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.007
	N	394	394	394	394	394
Autonomy	Pearson	.399**	-.065	.084	-.136**	1
	Correlation					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.195	.096	.007	
	N	394	394	394	394	394

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The table 4.3 above shows that authoritative parenting has a weak positive influence on adolescents' autonomy, with a  $P(r) = 0.399$ , and a coefficient of determination of  $r^2 = 0.159$ . With authoritarian parenting,  $P(r) = -0.065$ , and a coefficient of determination,  $r^2 = 0.004$ , showing that authoritarian parenting weakly, but negatively influences adolescents' autonomy. Permissive parenting and adolescent autonomy shows a positive relationship, giving a  $P(r) = 0.084$ , and a coefficient of determination,  $r^2 = 0.007$  which further means that permissive parenting has a significant influence on adolescents'

autonomy. Uninvolved parenting and adolescent autonomy gave a  $P(r) = -0.136$ , and a coefficient of determination of  $r^2 = 0.018$ , which further translates to a weak, but significant relationship between the two. This further shows that parenting styles influence adolescents' autonomy either positively or negatively.

**Figure 4.1; Parenting Styles Indices and Adolescent Autonomy**



**Key: Horizontal axis**

- 1 .Authoritative parenting
- 2. Authoritarian parenting
- 3.Permissive parenting
- 4.Uninvolved parenting

Figure 4.1 above shows that authoritarian parenting has autonomy mean score of 31.00, followed by authoritative parenting with a mean score of 22.00. Permissive and uninvolved parenting closely follow each other with autonomy mean scores of 19.50 and 18.00 respectively. This implies that authoritarian parenting is more prevalent in Wareng district.

### 4.3 Parenting Styles And Adolescent Self-Esteem

This section addresses the second objective which was meant to establish the influence of parenting styles on adolescents' self-esteem.

**Table 4.4 Parenting Styles and Adolescent Self-Esteem**  
Count

		Parenting Styles				Total
		Authoritative	Authoritarian	Permissive	Uninvolved	
Self-Esteem	Low	0	4	1	0	5
	Optimum	1	38	24	0	63
	High	3	201	118	2	324
Total		4	243	143	2	392

Table 4.4 shows the number of adolescents count per given parenting style tabulated against the level of self-esteem.

**Table 4.5 Influence of Adolescents' Self-esteem on Parenting Styles**

Self-Esteem	Parenting Styles Mean Scores				Total
	Authoritative	Authoritarian	Permissive	Uninvolved	
Low	26.62	22.85	16.71	18.15	21.08
Optimum	36.07	31.33	28.66	28.17	31.06
High	47.09	39.35	42.66	38.23	41.83
Total	36.59	30.98	29.34	28.18	31.31

Table 4.5 shows the interaction between parenting styles and adolescents' level of self-esteem.

**Table 4.6; ANOVA Source Table for the Interaction Between Parenting Styles and Adolescent Self-esteem.**

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean		
			Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1236.16	3	412.05	1.164	F(3,6), 4.76
Within Groups	708.02	2	354.01	1.000	
Total	1944.18	5			

Table 4.6 revealed that self-esteem of adolescents is not influenced by parenting styles  $F(2,389) = .1106, P > .05$ . The null hypothesis is accepted. This implies that adolescents develop some self-esteem irrespective of the parenting styles subjected to them.

#### 4.4 Adolescents' Gender, Parenting Styles, Autonomy and Self-esteem

This section addresses the third objective of the study, which was to establish the influence of adolescents' gender on parenting styles, autonomy and adolescents' self-esteem.

**Table 4.7; Parenting Styles and Adolescents' Gender Count**

	Parenting Style				Total
	Authoritative	Authoritarian	Permissive	Uninvolved	
Gender; Female	1	126	78	1	206
Male	3	118	66	1	188
Total	4	244	144	2	394

Table 4.7 shows gender count per parenting style. The table shows that most of the adolescents come from authoritarian parenting style.



**Table 4.8 Parenting Styles Mean Scores With Adolescent Gender**

Gender	Authoritative	Authoritarian	Permissive	Uninvolved	Totals
Female	31.621	22.854	12.709	18.141	21.331
Male	30.968	21.240	19.947	18.255	22.603
Total	31.295	22.047	16.328	18.198	21.967

From table 4.8, the mean scores reveal that most students come from authoritative families with parents being more authoritative on female students ( $\bar{x}=31.621$ ) than male students ( $\bar{x}=30.968$ ).

**Table 4.9 ANOVA Source Table for the Influence of Gender on Parenting Styles.**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	284.074	1	284.074	1.844	.175
Within Groups	60374.943	392	154.018		
Total	60659.018	393			

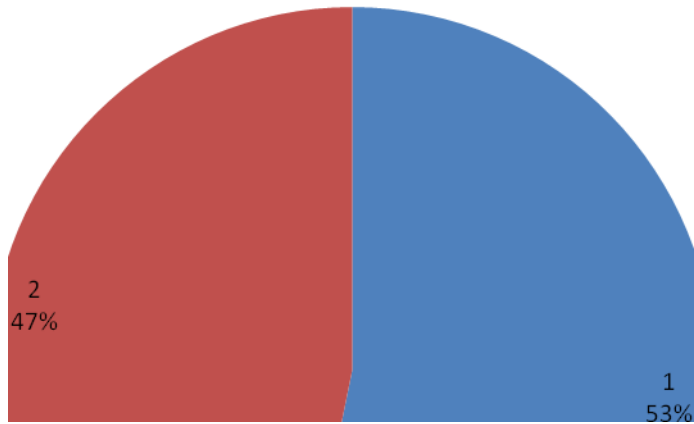
From table 4.9, Analysis Of Variance indicates that parenting style is not significantly influenced by gender  $F(1,392) = 1.844$ ,  $P > .05$ . The null hypothesis is accepted. This shows parent are either authoritative, authoritarian, permissive or uninvolved.

**Table 4.10 Influence of Students' Gender on Adolescent Autonomy**

Gender	Autonomy		
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Female	79.34	206	9.29
Male	76.65	188	10.56
Total	78.06	394	9.10

Table 4.10 shows that both male and female students were autonomous. To test whether the two mean scores were significantly different, independent sample t-test was conducted. The results indicated that there was a statistical significant difference between male and female secondary school students' autonomy,  $t(392)=2.680$ ,  $p < .05$ . The null hypothesis is rejected. The implication is that female students were found to be more autonomous as compared to their male counterparts.

**Gender and Adolescent Self Esteem**



**Figure 4.2 Gender and Adolescents' Self-Esteem**

- Key
- 1. Male
  - 2. Female

Figure 4.2 above reveals that more male students have higher self-esteem as compared to female students.

**Table 4.11 Gender and Self-Esteem Counts**

Count

		Self-Esteem			Total
		Low	Optimum	High	
Gender	Female	0	24	180	204
	Male	5	39	144	188
	Total	5	63	324	392

Table 4.11 shows that 324 adolescents have a high self-esteem, while 63 have an optimum self-esteem. As low as 5 ( male only ) have low self-esteem.

**Table 4.12 Students' Self-esteem Scores According to Gender**

Gender	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Female	42.602	206	4.055
Male	41.059	188	5.361
Total	41.866	394	4.780

Table 4.12 shows that Female students have a more positive self-esteem ( $\bar{x}=42.602$ ) compared to male students ( $\bar{x}=41.059$ ). However, all students have a high positive self-esteem.

**Table 4.13: ANOVA Source Table for Influence of Gender on Self-esteem.**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	234.155	1	234.155	10.495	.001
Within Groups	8745.716	392	22.310		
Total	8979.871	393			

From table 4.13, Analysis of variance revealed that gender has significant effect on the self-esteem of students in secondary schools  $F(1,392) = 10.495$   $P < .05$ . The null hypothesis is rejected. This further shows that self-esteem of male and female differ depending on the parenting style. The hypothesis has been tested three times because the variable, adolescent gender has been investigated with parenting styles, autonomy and self-esteem.

#### 4.5 Adolescents' Class level, Parenting Styles, Autonomy and Self-esteem

This section addresses the fourth objective which was to establish the influence of adolescents' class level on parenting styles, autonomy and self-esteem.

**Table 4.14 Parenting Style and Adolescents' Class Level**

Counts	Parenting Styles				Total
	Authoritative	Authoritarian	Permissive	Uninvolved	
Class Form Two	1	21	19	1	42
Level Form Three	3	80	37	0	120
Form Four	0	143	88	1	232
Total	4	244	144	2	394

Table 4.14 shows that most adolescents come from authoritarian and permissive families.

**Table 4.15: Influence of Adolescents' Class Level on Parenting Styles**

Class level	Authoritative	Authoritarian	Permissive	Uninvolved	Total
Form Two	31.762	23.500	19.190	18.952	23.251
Form Three	30.892	21.067	19.442	17.767	22.292
Form Four	31.552	23.224	19.806	18.280	23.216
Total	31.402	22.597	19.479	18.333	22.937

Table 4.15 analysis indicates that parents of form two students are more authoritative ( $\bar{x}=31.762$ ). This is followed by parents of Form four students ( $\bar{x}=31.552$ ) and lastly parents of Form Three students ( $\bar{x}=30.892$ ). Regardless of the class level, parents of secondary school students are authoritative

**Table 4.16 ANOVA Source Table for Parenting Styles and Adolescent Class Level Totals**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	693.34	3	231.1	1.31	F(3,6) 4.76
Within Groups	351.72	2	175.9	1.00	
Total	1045.06	5			

Table 4.16, Analysis of variance revealed that class level has no significant effect on parenting style  $F(3,6) = 4.76$  and this is greater F- calculated (1.31).  $P > .05$ . The null hypothesis is accepted. This shows that adolescents at different class levels experience similar parenting styles.

**Table 4.17: Class Level and Self-Esteem Cross tabulation Count**

		Self-Esteem			Total
		Low	Optimum	High	
Class Level	Form Two	0	5	37	42
	Form Three	4	26	90	120
	Form Four	1	32	197	230
Total		5	63	324	392

**Table 4.18: Influence of Class Level on Adolescents' Self-esteem**

Class level	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Form Two	43.095	42	3.721
Form Three	40.683	120	5.764
Form Four	42.254	232	4.260
Total	41.866	394	4.780

Table 4.17 and 4.18 shows that self-esteem of students across all classes is high. However Form Two students have higher self-esteem ( $\bar{x}=43.095$ ). This is followed by Form Four students ( $\bar{x}=42.2543$ ) and Form Three students ( $\bar{x}=40.683$ ).

**Table 4.19 ANOVA Source Table for Influence of Class Level on Self-esteem Esteem**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	266.289	2	133.145	5.975	.003
Within Groups	8713.581	391	22.285		
Total	8979.871	393			

Table 4.19 analysis revealed that class level affects self-esteem of students  $F(2,391) = 5.975, P < .05$ . The null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that adolescents at various class levels exhibit different levels of self-esteem.

**Table 4.20; Adolescents' Autonomy Scores According to Class Level**

Class Level	Autonomy		
	Mean	N	Std. Dev.
Form Two	79.64	42	9.88
Form Three	76.64	120	9.83
Form Four	78.50	232	10.06
Total	78.06	394	9.10

Table 4.20 indicates that form two students were more autonomous than the form three and form four students. To test whether the three mean scores were significantly different, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The results of the analysis are presented in the table 4.21 given below.

**Table 4.21 ANOVA Source for Class Level and Adolescent Autonomy.**

<b>Autonomy</b>					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	391.537	2	195.769	1.969	.141
Within Groups	38869.235	391	99.410		
Total	39260.772	393			

Table 4.21 results indicate that there was no significant difference between students' class level and their autonomy,  $F(2,91) = 1.969$ ,  $P > .05$ . The null hypothesis is accepted, implying that class level has no significant influence on adolescent autonomy. Thus the students were autonomous. The hypothesis has been tested with the variables, parenting styles, autonomy and self-esteem.

#### **4.6 Adolescent Age, Parenting Styles, Autonomy and Self-esteem**

This section addresses the fifth objective of the study which was to establish the influence of adolescents' age on parenting styles, autonomy and self-esteem.

**Table 4.22 Parenting Styles and Adolescent Age**

Counts		Parenting Style				Total
		Authoritative	Authoritarian	Permissive	Uninvolved	
Age	12 - 14 Years	0	1	0	0	1
	15 - 18 Years	4	206	120	2	332
	19 - 22 Years	0	34	21	0	55
	23 and Above	0	3	3	0	6
Total		4	244	144	2	394

Table 4.22 shows that most adolescents of age bracket 15-18 years come from both authoritarian and permissive families.

**Table 4.23 Influence of Age on Parenting Styles**

Age	Authoritative	Authoritarian	Permissive	Uninvolved	Total
12 - 14 Years	11.000	32.000	16.000	18.000	19.250
15 - 18 Years	22.310	32.003	15.365	18.208	21.972
19 - 22 Years	21.127	31.109	20.309	17.746	22.573
23 and Above Years	20.167	26.667	22.333	21.667	22.709
Total	18.651	30.445	18.501	18.905	21.658

The results in table 4.23 indicates that at all age brackets, parents of the adolescents are authoritarian. However, it is revealed that parents are more authoritarian on students aged between 15-18 years ( $\bar{x} = 32.003$ ). This is followed by students aged between 12-14 Years, ( $\bar{x}=32.000$ ). The parents are less authoritarian on students aged 23 and above years, ( $\bar{x}=26.667$ ).

**Table 4.24 ANOVA Source Table for Parenting Styles And Adolescent Age**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	463.9	3	154.6	1.05	F(3,9) 3.86
Within Groups	441.2	3	147.0	1.00	
Total	8057.8	6			

Table 4.24 reveals that age does not significantly affect parenting style  $F(3,9) = 3.86$ , which is greater the calculated value.  $P>.05$ .The null hypothesis is accepted. This implies that parents use the same parenting style across all the age brackets.



**Table 4.25 Influence of Age on Autonomy**

Autonomy			
Age	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
12 - 14 Years	72.000	1	.
15 - 18 Years	78.377	332	9.776
19 - 22 Years	76.400	55	11.492
23 and Above Years	76.500	6	7.176
Total	78.056	394	9.995

Table 4.25 results indicates that regardless of students' age adolescent autonomy is high. However, it is revealed that the adolescent autonomy of students aged 15 – 18 years is higher, ( $\bar{x}=78.377$ ). This is followed by students whose age is 23 years and over, ( $\bar{x}=76.500$ ). Students aged between 12 – 14 years had the lowest autonomy ( $\bar{x}=72.000$ ).

**Table 4. 26 ANOVA Source Table for Age And Adolescents' Autonomy**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	236.135	3	78.712	.787	.502
Within Groups	39024.637	390	100.063		
Total	39260.772	393			

Table 4.26 analysis revealed that age does not significantly influence adolescents' autonomy  $F(3,390) = 0.787, P>.05$ . This implies that the null hypothesis is accepted. This implies that an adolescent can be autonomous at any age if the parenting style administered nurtures autonomy development.

**Table 4.27 Age and Adolescents' Self-Esteem Cross Tabulation**

Count		Self-Esteem			Total
		Low	Optimum	High	
Age	12 - 14 Years	0	0	1	1
	15 - 18 Years	5	51	276	332
	19 - 22 Years	2	9	44	55
	23 and Above	0	3	3	6
Total		5	63	324	394

From table 4.27 above students ( 276) of age bracket 15-18 years of age have a high self-esteem, followed by students (44) of age bracket 19-22 years of age. However, those of age 23 and above are averagely of both optimum and high self-esteem.

**Table 4.28 Age And Adolescents' Self-esteem Using Descriptive Statistics**

Esteem			
Age	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
12 - 14 Years	46.000	1	.
15 - 18 Years	41.952	332	4.660
19 - 22 Years	41.636	55	5.272
23 and Above Years	38.500	6	6.348
Total	41.866	394	4.780

It is revealed from table 4.28 above that all students, regardless of the age, have high self-esteem. However, it is indicated that one student aged between 12 – 14 years have a higher self-esteem ( $\bar{x} = 46.000$ ). This is followed by students aged between 15 – 18 years ( $\bar{x} = 41.9518$ ). Students of age 23 and above years have the lowest self-esteem ( $\bar{x} = 38.5000$ ).

**Table 4.29 ANOVA Source Table for Age And Adolescents' Self-esteem**

Esteem					
	Sum	of	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Squares	df			
Between Groups	90.414	3	30.138	1.322	.267
Within Groups	8889.456	390	22.793		
Total	8979.871	393			

It is revealed from table 4.29 that age has no significant influence on the self-esteem of secondary school students  $F(3,390) = 1.322, P > .005$ . Thus null hypothesis is accepted. This implies that adolescents can have an optimum self-esteem at any age, right from early to late adolescence. The hypothesis has been tested three times because the variable, adolescent age has been investigated with parenting styles, autonomy and self-esteem.

#### **4.7 Relationship Between Adolescents' Self –esteem and Autonomy**

This section addresses the sixth objective of the study, whereby the objective was analyzed and statistically computed and tabulated as shown in table 4.30. Both self-esteem and autonomy levels are considerably low as reflected in the table 4.30 below.

**Table 4.30 Self-esteem and Adolescents' Autonomy.**

Self - Esteem	Correlation	
	Self – Esteem	Autonomy
Pearson Correlation	1	.352
Sig (2-tailed)	-	.000
N	394	394

Table 2.30 results shows that there was a statistical significant relationship between self-esteem and adolescents' autonomy.  $P(r) = .352$ ,  $P < .05$ . The null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that there is a significant relationship between adolescent self-esteem and adolescents' autonomy. The coefficient of determination ( $r^2 = .1239$ ).

#### **4.8 Summary**

The findings revealed that parenting styles have both positive and negative influence on adolescents' autonomy and self-esteem. Authoritative parenting has a weak positive influence on adolescent autonomy, while authoritarian parenting weakly but negatively influence adolescents' autonomy. Permissive parenting and autonomy have a positive relationship, whereas uninvolved parenting and autonomy give a weak but significant relationship. Authoritarian parenting was found to be the most prevalent in Wareng district. Further, adolescents with optimum self-esteem come from authoritarian homes, followed by adolescents from permissive parenting styles.

Since all adolescents have some level of self-esteem for instance, female students with a mean ( $\bar{x}$ )=42.602 and male students with a mean ( $\bar{x}$ )=41.059, it shows that parenting does not significantly influence adolescents' self-esteem. The study shows that most adolescents come from authoritarian families, more so the female adolescents. The unique finding is that parenting style is not influenced by adolescents' gender. The female students were found to have more positive self-esteem and were more autonomous than their male counterparts. This was true for students in form two class as compared to forms, three and four. Authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were

reflected across all class levels, but most of the form two students come from authoritarian homes.

Owing to the fact that most adolescents come from authoritarian and permissive homes, adolescents' age does not influence parenting style. Adolescents of age bracket 12-14 and 15-18 years were found to be more autonomous and of highest self-esteem. In conclusion, it is unique that age and class level of the adolescents do not significantly influence the parenting style administered by a given family. However, adolescents' self-esteem and autonomy, do influence each other.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

#### 5.0 Introduction

This section contains a discussion of the analysed data in chapter four, based on the research objectives. It also contains a summary of the chapter, conclusion and recommendations for further research. This chapter has focused on four parenting styles each discussed in relation to the variables, autonomy and self-esteem. Parenting has also been discussed in relation to adolescents' gender, class level and adolescents' age. Further, self-esteem and autonomy have been discussed basing on, adolescents' gender, class level and age bracket. The last section of the discussion shows how self-esteem and autonomy influence each other, thereafter a conclusion and a recommendation is given.

This study comprises of five chapters. Chapter one is the introduction to the study and it comprises of the purpose, statement of the problem and objectives of the study. It also covers the research questions, and shows how research variables are interrelated, through theoretical and conceptual framework. The second chapter comprises of the literature review, focusing on parenting, autonomy support and human development as the main literature gap in the study.

The third chapter focuses on causal-comparative research design, where population and sampling are explained. It also focuses on how instruments for the research were constructed, and how their validity and reliability were confirmed. The fourth chapter focuses on data analysis according to the study objectives, data presentation and means of

interpretation. These has been done using both descriptive and inferential statistics, and data has been presented in both graph and table form. The fifth chapter comprises of the summary, discussions based on study objectives as analyzed in the previous chapter, conclusion, recommendations and recommendations for further research.

### **5.1 Parenting Styles and Adolescents' Autonomy**

Authoritative parenting gave a mean index of thirty two (32), ( Figure 4.1) implying that students were semi-autonomous. The first objective sort to find out the relationship between parenting styles and adolescents' autonomy, further given in form of hypothesis which stated that; 'there is no significant relationship between parenting styles and adolescents' autonomy.' Findings revealed that there was no significant relationship with reference to authoritarian and permissive parenting, while authoritative parenting had a significant relationship with autonomy (Table 4.3). The null hypothesis was rejected. For instance, adolescents brought up in authoritative parenting style pass through reasonable demands, which have limits and emphasize on obedience. Authoritative parenting allows democracy for both parents and the adolescent and these enables the children to develop well.

According to Baumrind (1991), these adolescents are found to be relatively happy and lively, self-confident in a number of tasks and self-controlled and can resist destructive behaviors. A similar research by Steinberg (1993), revealed that at an early age of adolescent, authoritative parenting is linked to many aspects of competence, such as high self-esteem, social and moral maturity, high independency and openness, and high achievement in various tasks. Besides, adolescents in this parenting styles experience

emotional stability and good dialogue with their parents and other family members. Melgosa, (2003) believed that authoritative parenting is where there is discussion, parents and children listen to each other, and the parents offer firm guidelines and boundaries, but with flexibility. She proposes that it is the most healthy, and parents should offer unconditional love, and that it is probably the most important factor in children's lives. Parents must tell children repeatedly how important they are to them, never compare them negatively to others, avoid offensive names and all kinds of negative sentiments. Authoritative parenting styles prepares the adolescents for an autonomous life, helps them to attain a high self-esteem, whereby adolescents are capable of making independent decisions and acting on them.

The mean level of authoritarian parenting was found to have a mean score of twenty two (22) (Figure 4). In this parenting style, the adolescent is not given room to participate in decision making and thereafter act on them. Hence the adolescent does not become autonomous. The study revealed that authoritarian parenting has no significant relationship with adolescent autonomy (Table 4.3). This parenting style demands too much from their children and is unresponsive. Normally, parents resort to force and punishment. The children brought forth through this type of parenting are full of anxiety and are unhappy (Melgosa, 2003). Baumrind (1991), argues that such children, especially girls become dependent on others, lack exploration and they retreat from challenging tasks. One author, James Dobson, in 1980s expressed that in authoritarian parenting children's wishes are not consulted and parents expect them to do as they are told without discussion. This precipitates blockages in an adolescent's life hindering autonomy



development. Children of authoritarian parenting do well in school and do not engage in antisocial behavior (Melgosa, 2003).

Melgosa (2003) stresses on discipline rather than punishment. Behaviors that constrain or limit the development of autonomy typically are described as exerting psychological control, a phenomenon increasingly studied in the field today (Barber, 1996). Further, studies by Chao (2001) showed that adolescents raised in authoritarian households do not do worse at school and other aspects of life in general, as compared to authoritative homes. In general autonomy and self-esteem have been traditional measures of adolescent adjustment in life.

The index of permissive parenting style was found to have a mean score of nineteen (19) (Figure 4.1). Permissive parenting style releases children too early into the world of decision making without parental support. This study revealed that permissive parenting style does not give forth autonomous adolescents (Table 4.3). In this parenting style, children do as they like and the parents do not take much notice. In the early 80s' James Dobson proposed that, the most unhappy teenagers and adults come from extremely permissive homes. Parents do not make demands out of their children, and this allows them to make decisions at an early age. Baumrind (1991) found these adolescents to be very immature and very rebellious. They were also found to be too dependent on adults and showed less persistence on school tasks, and these was especially strong among boys. However, they are creative and original.

The index of uninvolved parenting was found to be a mean score of eighteen (18) (Figure 4.1). The analysis indicated that there was a significant negative relationship between uninvolved parenting style and adolescent autonomy (Table 4.3). In this parenting style, children get the minimum in terms of basic needs from their parents. Parents do little as pertains enforcement of rules in areas of school work and social life (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Parents get less concerned with their children, who later show deficits in several areas, such as in parental attachment, acting –out behavior and cognitive area which play a vital role in autonomy development (Larmon, 1991).

Further research has shown that, adolescents who are brought up by neglectful parents cannot withstand frustrations, lack long term goals, do poorly in academic work and are susceptible to delinquent acts (Baumrind, 1991) . Adolescents from neglectful parenting style attain their freedom too early in life, yet care little about these freedom. These leads to poor interpersonal relationships and they tend to suffer from poor self-esteem ( Melgosa, 2003). In most cases, the adolescents are not sure about how to relate to the world, perhaps with inflated views of their own abilities, likely to be discontented as teenagers, and with a feeling that if their parents loved them they would make and enforce boundaries which are flexible.

## **5.2 Parenting Styles and Adolescent Self-esteem**

This section addresses the second objective, which was meant to find out if parenting styles influence adolescent self-esteem. Authoritative parenting was the leading with a mean of 31.310, while least mean index was registered in uninvolved parenting of

16.1600 ( ref. Table 4.5). Parenting styles have an influence on adolescents' self-esteem. The null hypothesis is rejected. To analyse the association of parenting styles with adolescents self-esteem, two orthogonal constructs of parenting have been considered; Demandingness and responsiveness (Baumrind, 1991). Demandingness refers to the extent to which parents make control, supervision and maturity demands in their parenting, whereas responsiveness refers to the extent to which parents show their children warmth and acceptance, give them support and reason with them. In this study the association of parenting styles with adolescents self-esteem was examined; self-esteem has been one of the traditional measures of adolescent adjustment in parenting studies (Amato & Fowler, 2002).

This study shows that adolescents of authoritarian parents have high self-esteem than those of authoritative, permissive and neglectful parent (Table 4.5). With inferential statistics it showed that adolescents self-esteem is not influenced by parenting styles. According to Martinez and Garcia (2007), parents–adolescents relationship has consistently reported that adolescents raised in authoritative families have higher psychosocial competence and lower psychological and behavioral dysfunctions than adolescents from authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful homes (Steinberg, 1999).

Further, the results of these researches have confirmed that high levels of parental warmth, responsiveness and involvement combined with high levels of strictness, foster optimal adjustment in children offering emotional support by means of responsiveness, and establishing adequate guidelines and limits to control children's behavior by means of demandingness. However, parenting research has revealed some differences across

cultures and ethnic group (Chao, 2001). This correlates with the current study, further showing that parenting in Wareng District is not unique as compared to other parts of the world. Finally in Italy and Brazil, studies measuring the impact of parenting on self-esteem have illustrated that adolescents from indulgent homes have similar or higher self-esteem than adolescents from authoritative and authoritarian households (Martinez, Garcia & Yubero, 2007). This contradicts the current study.

### **5.3 Adolescents' Gender, Parenting Styles, Autonomy and Self-esteem**

This section addresses the third objective which sort to find out if gender of adolescents influences parenting style, autonomy and self-esteem. The analysis showed that most adolescents come from authoritative families, with female adolescents having a mean of 31.621 and that of male being 30.968 (Table 4.8). This study further showed that parenting style is not influenced by adolescent gender implying that both male and female adolescents are subjected to the same parenting style within the same social settings (Table 4.9). During adolescence autonomy development typically accelerates because of rapid physical and cognitive changes, expanding social relationships and additional rights and responsibilities (Ryan, Deci & Grolnik, 1995). Self-reliance and personal decision-making increases, where the self and identity are gradually consolidated affecting behavior, and cognition is increasingly regulated (Silverberg & Gondoli, 1996). The researcher agrees that adolescents in Wareng district do undergo the same, where additional roles, responsibilities and social relationship prevails.

This section also sort to find out if gender had an influence on adolescent autonomy. The analysis indicated that female students were more autonomous with a mean of 79.34, than

their male counterparts (Table 4.10). To test whether the two mean scores were significant, independent sample t-test was conducted. The results indicated that gender had a statistical influence on adolescents' autonomy. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Gender differences in autonomy may be due to the distinction between agency and communion. Agency refers to self-assertive and independent behaviors, which reflect an individual orientation toward self; while communion refers to an interpersonal concern, caring, and co-operation, and it reflects an orientation towards others ( Saragovi, Koestner, Dio, & Aube, 1997). Both agency and communion relate to aspects of behavioural, value, cognitive and emotional autonomy. Agency is considered more characteristic of males than females, whereas communion is considered more typical of females than males. Research findings show that females are more likely to report personality characteristics of communion and relatedness to others, while males are likely to have agentic and assertive personality characteristics (Helgeson, 1994). Some observers believe gender differences in autonomy expectations partly reflect gender differences in agency and communion. Gilligan (1982) and Pipher (1995), further link gender differences in autonomy to what they call a "loss of voice" that young women experience as they start adolescence period. Loss of voice has been defined as loss of opinions, emotions, thoughts or behaviours of the authentic self. These concepts also overlap with conceptualizations of behavioral, emotional, value and cognitive autonomy. In this study, it is possible that female adolescents in Wareng district do experience "loss of voice" just like any other adolescent elsewhere, since the adolescents go through the same developmental changes.

Research findings raise doubts, however that females and males manifest these phenomena differently during adolescence period. Harter, Waters, Whitesell, & Kastelic (1998) have shown that recognition of false-self behavior escalates during adolescence for both genders. An average levels of voice for both males and females were similar among middle-school and high-school students. They further showed that adolescents feel more or less authentic when interacting with social partners such as close friends, parents, romantic partners and teachers. Among both genders, elevation of either agency or communality may be hard to adjustment (Helgeson, 1994). Higher levels of agency and communion are associated with greater physical and psychological well-being, but that agency not tempered by communion, known as unmitigated agency, can be physically, socially and psychologically damaging.

Helgeson (1994) showed evidence supporting the detrimental correlates of unmitigated agency and unmitigated communion. These two aspects are both quantitatively and qualitatively different from agency and communion. For instance, (Saragovi, Koestner, Dio, & Aube, 1997) describe someone who had markers of unmitigated agency, which include arrogance, as being qualitatively different from someone who is high in agency in terms of self-assertiveness or self-confidence. An individual who is high in unmitigated communion is subservient to another by withstanding insults, accepting verbal abuse and repeatedly apologizing. This individual is qualitatively different from someone who is interpersonally sensitive. In Wareng district, female adolescents were found to having high self- esteem than their male counter parts, implying that the female students would be high in agency and communion in terms of self-assertiveness and self-confidence.

According to Helgeson (1994) unmitigated agency and unmitigated communion do exist among adults and are associated with differing physical and mental health functioning of both genders. Further, he correlated agency with improved psychological well-being, and communion was associated with more positive social relationships and social support. Also, agency was associated with poor health care and behavioral problems, while communion was associated with greater psychological distress. Although information on agency and communion among adults provides insight into the possible life course directions of autonomy development among both genders, information is still limited on gender similarities or differences in autonomy development during adolescence period.

Girls generally have later expectations for autonomy than boys (Fuligni, 1998). Yet, gender differences in expectations for autonomy appear to be less pronounced and gender differences may be greater in some cultures than in others (Feldman & Rosenthal, 1990). Autonomy development depends both on the active human organism and the environment. Theories differ by either proposing that all adolescents experience autonomy in similar ways or that the development of autonomy is context specific. Most theoretical perspectives tend, however, to link adolescent autonomy to the development of self and changing conceptions of relationships with others. Research findings by Harter (1999), shows the relevance of all these observations to adolescent autonomy development and challenge researchers to have a better understanding of the links among them.

This section also was meant to find out if adolescents' gender influences adolescents' self-esteem. The findings revealed that female students have more positive self-esteem with a mean of 42.602, as compared to male students who had a mean of 41.059 (Table 4.12). It further revealed that gender has a significant influence on adolescents' self-esteem (Table 4.13). Gender differences in self-esteem during the teenage years are widely featured in popular stereotypes; and sometimes accepted without actual support from empirical evidence. The most common stereotype is that boys have higher self-esteem than girls (Wilgenbusch & Merrell, 1999). The main feature is how adolescents view themselves. Girls are seen as weak and insecure easily swayed by mass media as well as their peers. Self-esteem include evaluations that are, both positive and negative, and it can also incorporate specific aspects of the self as well as global sense of self (Quatman & Watson, 2001).

Further, boys tend to have higher physical and emotional self-esteem than girls (Zimmer-Gembeck & Locke, 2007), resulting from a higher preference of emotional and physical image problems in women (Rothenberg, 1997). However, academic self-esteem tend to be higher in girls, consistent with women's current higher academic achievement (Zimmer-Gembeck & Locke, 2007). Historically, higher levels of self-esteem have been associated with better coping skills, positive effects, emotional stability, and increased improvement in quality of life perception. On the other hand, lower levels of self esteem have been known to encourage emotional and behavioral disorders such as anxiety, depression and criminal behavior (Quantman, & Watson, 2001).



A study by Scandinavian Journal of Psychology by Espnes (2012); Entitled self-esteem and emotional health in adolescents, where gender and age were potential moderates, showed that adolescents of age 13-18 years from public elementary and secondary schools in Mid Norway, revealed that girls scored highly on state anxiety and state depression, whereas boys consistently scored higher on self-esteem in all age groups. Self-esteem was found to be strongly and inversely associated with both state depression and state anxiety. The associations found give support for the positive role of self-esteem in relation to adolescents emotional health and well-being.

Longitudinal research has shown that feelings of self-esteem tend to decrease somewhat as girls become adolescents with different patterns emerging for different ethnic groups (Brown, McMahon, Biro, Grawford & Simlloet, 1998). Particularly in early adolescence boys tend to have higher global self-esteem than girls ( Chubb, Fertman & Ross, 1997)

#### **5.4 Adolescents' Class Level, Parenting styles, Autonomy and Self-esteem**

This section addresses the fourth objective, which was meant to find out if students' class level had an influence on parenting style, adolescent autonomy and self-esteem. The analysis (Table 4.15) showed that parents of form two students were more authoritative with a mean of 31.761 followed by that of form four students with a mean 31.551 and last were the form three with a mean of 30.891. This study further shows that class level had a significant effect on parenting style. This correlates with the adolescent age bracket which further determines the roles and responsibilities the adolescent child is expected to accomplish. In a study of children of elementary school age, Ryan and Deci (2000) found that more internalized reasons for behaviors in the achievement domain were associated

with mastery motivation, internal control, positive coping, effort and enjoyment in school work, empathy and positive relatedness to mother and teacher.

Harter (1999) states that, “adolescents who do not move to the stage of internal standards, but continue to rely on external social standards and feedback, will be at risk, because they have not developed an internalized relatively stable sense of self that will form the basis for subsequent identity development”(pg 188). Researchers evaluating teen outreach, a program designed to reduce teen pregnancy and school-dropout by increasing participation in volunteer activities and providing structured discussions of future life options, report that youth programs are more beneficial when adolescents can select the work they will do within limits, providing an environment within which young people feel safe to discuss their views, listened to, and respected and adults, especially parents assist adolescents to make choices that result in their feelings of competence and relatedness to others (Larson, 2000).

At different class levels, Larson (2000), adds that programs should have the following features;

- program administration that is youth based so that the motivation, direction and goals come from the youths,
- Adults, especially parents should provide the structure in form of specifying rules and constrains, while emphasizing the importance of the youth based aspects of the organization

-structuring organizations around a period of activities followed by the completion of a project or a goal.

Collins and Luebker (1994), reported that the expectancies of parents and adolescents gradually converge between early and late adolescence. In addition, emotional strains are most prominent during early adolescence, but adolescents' emotional experience when interacting with family members become increasingly positive starting in early to late high school. To the current study it is true that parental involvement in adolescents' lives is vital in all adolescent class levels, to assist the adolescent child to develop autonomy. However, it is important for parents to set rules and limits to help guide the adolescent child.

This section also was meant to determine if students' class level had an influence on adolescents' autonomy. The analysis indicated that form two students were more autonomous with a mean of 79.64, followed by the form four students with a mean of 78.50 and last were form three students with a mean of 76.64 (Table 4.20). To test whether the two mean scores were significantly different, Analysis Of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted (Table 4.21). The results indicated that class level had no influence on secondary school students' autonomy.

In this study, the researcher agrees that students in forms, two, three and form four adolescents are subjected to similar programs in the school setting and their school cultures are more or less the same. According to Larson (2000), most school programs provide structured discussions of future life options, and they are beneficial when adolescents can select the work they can do within limits. These also provide an environment within which young people feel safe to discuss their views, get listened to

and feel respected. Within the same realm, adults such as the teachers and the parents assist the adolescents to make choices that result in their feelings of competence and relatedness to others.

Larson (2000) summarizes three features of adolescent/ youth organizations that are most likely to facilitate urgency and initiate autonomy. These include; program administration that is youth based so that the motivation, direction and goals come from the youths/adolescents. Also the adults, specifically the teachers and the parents should provide structures in the form of specifying rules and constraints, while emphasizing the importance of the youth based organizations. Lastly, the adults can structure organizations around a period of activity followed by the completion of a project or a goal. These three aspects mentioned above contribute greatly to the adolescents ability towards independent decision making and assists in autonomy development.

Further research work has shown that a single adolescent's autonomous functioning may vary across contexts (Herter, Waters, Whitesell, and Kastelic, 1998). They have further shown that adolescent's level of voice, that is , saying what one is thinking, or expressing opinions, varies depending on the support for voice provided within the context, such as by the teacher, parents, male classmate or female classmate. In addition, levels of voice is systematically higher in some contexts than others. For instance, voice is highest with close friends and lowest with classmates of the opposite gender, parents and teachers.

Other researchers have investigated the transformation within families as adolescents become more capable of self-regulation and desire more autonomy. These view is emphasized by Maccoby (1984). She observed that autonomy appears to follow a three-phase developmental sequence, beginning with parental regulation of children, to gradually increasing co-regulation between children and parents, to eventual self-regulation. The middle childhood and early adolescence were depicted as the period during which co-regulatory processes are especially important to the eventual achievement of responsible autonomy. In this study, the researcher found out that class level has no significant influence on autonomy. This is further supported by Harter (1999), who emphasizes that adolescents' emotional experiences become increasingly positive, especially when interacting with other members in the family and in their environment, starting in early to late adolescence.

This section was also meant to find out if students' class level had an influence on adolescents' self-esteem. The analysis revealed that adolescents' self-esteem was high across all class levels; with the form two students leading with the highest mean of 43.095, followed by form four students with a mean of 42.254 and last were the form three students with a mean of 40.683 (Table 4.18). Further analysis showed that students' class level influences adolescents' self-esteem (Table 4.19). The null hypothesis was rejected. Schools are most likely to support students' positive self-esteem by implementing strategies that promote their self-concept and to participate in activities in which they are competent, and increased perspective taking abilities enable them to garner more support from others by behaving in more socially acceptable ways. As

students transition from middle level to high school, self-esteem gradually grows (Harter,1999).

Students may feel incompetent in domains valued by others without necessarily feeling bad about themselves. Self-esteem may be protected if students feel competent in areas that they value and discount the importance of the domain others value. Self-esteem significance is exaggerated to the extent that low self-esteem is viewed as the cause of all evil and high self-esteem as the cause of all good (Manning, Bear & Minke, 2006). For instance, self-perceived physical appearance has the strongest relationship to overall self-esteem, whereas self-perceived athletic competence has the weakest relationship (Harter, 1999). To this study the researcher feels that support from peers and parents is particularly important to adolescents' self-esteem. When students are young, parental approval is more predictive of self-esteem than approval from peers. The influence of peers increase over the course of development , but the influence of parents does not decline (Manning, Bear & Minke, 2006).

### **5.5 Adolescents' Age, Parenting Styles, Autonomy and Self-esteem**

This section addresses the fifth objective which was meant to find out if adolescents' age had an influence on parenting style, autonomy and self-esteem. The analysis showed that parent are more authoritative on adolescents of age bracket 15-18 years, with a mean of 32.003 followed by that of adolescents of age bracket 12-14 years, with a mean of 32.000 (Table 4.23). This study shows that authoritarian parenting is more significant during late adolescence stage, though inferential statistics shows that adolescent age does not influence the type of parenting exercised (Table 4.24). The null hypothesis is accepted.

According to Steinberg and Silverberg (1986), seeking and receiving greater independence from parental control increase as the adolescent grows older. Adolescents also increasingly report feeling more autonomous, more individuated, less likely to idealize parents and less likely to express childish dependency on them.

As autonomy increases, during middle and late adolescence, parents and peers have less influence on adolescents' opinions and decisions, despite generally increasing peer pressure during these period (Fuligni & Eccles, 1993). Even in early adolescence those adolescents whose parents gradually increasingly, involve them in decisions that affect them are less likely to be heavily oriented to peer opinions and peer acceptance than those adolescents, whose parents allow less involvement in decision making (Helgeson, 1994). In this study the researcher supports the fact that parent are more authoritarian at late adolescence as compared to early adolescence. This is because parents increase their control as the adolescent advances in age.

This section also was meant to find out if adolescent age had an influence on their autonomy. The analysis revealed that adolescents within age bracket 15-18 years were more autonomous with a mean of 78.377, followed with those above 23 years with a mean of 76.500 (Table 4.25). Further analysis showed that age had no significant influence on adolescents' autonomy (Table 4.26). The null hypothesis was accepted. Children with greater attachment to parents were found to have higher autonomy, and those children who drink or use drugs alone were found to have lower autonomy irrespective of their age. Attachments to peers was associated with higher autonomy

(Rothenberg, 1997). Further findings indicated that those children who had taken on more responsibilities, because of parents inability such as illnesses showed better autonomy development at early (12-14) years and middle age (15-16) years adolescents. Therefore “parentification” of young children with a parent having illness may not negatively affect later autonomy development (Zimmer-Gembeck & Locke, 2007).

Behaviors associated with early and middle adolescents include, realization that parents are not perfect and identification with their faults, the search for new people to love in addition to parents, frequently changing relationships, peer group influence, development of ideals and selection of role models, experimentation with drugs and their bodies (Pruitt, 2000). Behaviors associated with movements towards independence in these period include; a focus on self-esteem and self-direction, refinement of gender role expectations, integration of sexual behavior and intimacy, and changes in dependency on adults (Steinberg & Morris, 2001, Auslander, Rosenthal & Blythe, 2006).

In early and middle adolescence the adolescent’s primary task is to form a personal identity and separate from their nuclear family (Conger, 1991). Throughout life autonomy advances and declines as individuals develop new competencies and changing conditions require alterations in new behavior (Baltes & Silverberg, 1994). However, while progression towards autonomy is considered a component of development over most stages of the life span, it is considered of central importance during the adolescent period when development of capabilities that allow for self-direction and a sense of responsibility for the self are critical for successful transition to adulthood.



During adolescence the development of autonomy is typically accelerated because of rapid and cognitive changes, expanding social relationships and additional responsibilities (Zimmer-Gembeck & Collins, 2003). Therefore, developmentally, adolescence is identified uniquely by the autonomy process; moreover developmental theorists consider the movement towards greater autonomy and self-initiation to be hallmark of healthy development (Zimmer-Gimbeck & Locke, 2007). To the present study, the researcher agrees that changes within the adolescent and within the adolescent environment, may lead to conflict that initiates or facilitates developmental tasks, and when this conflict occurs within parent-adolescent relationships that are warm and emotionally accepting healthy autonomous development is promoted.

This section also sort to find out if adolescents' age influence adolescents' self-esteem. The analysis showed that adolescents of age bracket 15-18 years had high self-esteem, with a mean of 41.952 ( Table 4.28). However, students from all age brackets were found to have high self-esteem with students of age above 23 years having low self-esteem. This further showed that adolescent age had no significant influence on secondary school students' self- esteem (Table 4.29). Further research by Harter (1999), showed that as students transition from middle level to high school, self-esteem gradually grows. However, the transition from junior high school (12-16 years) is associated with drops in self-esteem, perceived competence and academic performance. In addition, researchers (Zimmer-Gimbeck & Locke, 2007, Conger, 1991), have found that this transition is

associated with decreased feelings of personal autonomy, less support from teachers and greater competition and school-related anxiety (Rothenberg, 1997).

Adolescents of younger age (12-16 years) range who perceive their parents as indulgent would show higher or equal levels of self-esteem than would adolescents who perceive their parents as authoritative. Taking into account that low self-esteem has been linked to interfere with internalization of values, this is taken to be an indicator of adolescent adjustment and wellbeing (Feldman & Rosenthal, 1991). The researcher therefore anticipates that adolescents in Wareng district have given higher or similar results, especially in areas of their autonomy and personal self-esteem.

### **5.6 Self –esteem and Adolescents’ Autonomy**

This section addresses the sixth objective which was meant to determine if adolescents’ self-esteem had an influence on their autonomy. The p value  $< .05$  and coefficient of determination  $(r^2) = .352^2 = .124$  or (12.4%) (Table 4.30). However, this results shows that there was a statistical significant relationship between self-esteem and adolescents’ autonomy. The null hypothesis was rejected. Self-esteem has been one of the traditional measures of adolescent adjustment in parenting studies (Amato & Fowler, 2002). Self-esteem refers to the feeling of worth and acceptance of oneself (Kabiru & Njenga, 2009). They argue that self-esteem is a multifaceted construct, involving much more than the typical high or low levels of self-esteem considered by researchers and the lay public alike. Defining self-esteem as a person’s feelings of self-worth, liking and acceptance (Lipka & Brinthaup, 2006) , review three areas of research that illustrate the multiple facets of the construct, that is the low, optimum and high self-esteem..

According to the idea of implicit or nonconscious self-esteem, one's explicit, conscious self-esteem may or may not be congruent with one's implicit esteem. As the incongruence between these two levels increase, defensive and self-serving actions become more likely. The notion of contingent self-esteem refers to the extent to which one's feelings of self-worth are tied to the outcomes of every day activities. Such self-esteem needs continual validation by self and others. As contingency increases, self-esteem levels decrease and anger proneness increases. However, a good self-esteem propels autonomy development in that it enables the adolescent to make informed decisions and thereafter acts on them with confidence.

Lerner(1993) observes that adolescent self-esteem stability has received a good deal of attention. Unstable self-esteem refers to the relatively high levels of day-to-day fluctuations in one's feelings of self-worth. Lerner points out that compared to stable self-esteem, unstable self-esteem is associated with numerous negative outcomes, lower intrinsic motivation, and poorer adjustment and well-being. In another study of parent-early adolescent communication patterns and their relation to self-esteem stability (Lerner, 1993), discovered that self-esteem stability was more likely to be shown by adolescents who perceived their parents as being insulting or critical, using guilt-inducing control tactics, and employing negative problem-solving styles. He observed that there was a real danger in interventions designed to promote positive self-esteem and that they, may be promoting unstable or contingent self-esteem among adolescents and these may interfere with autonomy development of adolescents.

Self-esteem is an important issue for parents, given that they have a central role to play in the socialization and development of adolescents. Existing evidence indicate that high self-esteem individuals are more capable and competent (Owens, 1993). They are more aware of and sensitive to the cues of others, and these enables them to be more responsive and sensitive to those with whom they interact. In a family parents with higher self-esteem would be expected to present more positive interactions with their children and perform their parental roles more effectively.

Small (1988), in his findings indicated that there is a relationship between a parent's sense of self-worth and the behavior s/he employs when interacting with adolescents. He found a significant relationship between parental self-esteem and parent-child interaction variable, and this relationship was true only for mothers. He also found a strong positive relationship between parental self-esteem and parent-child communication. Parents with higher self-esteem were more likely to have friendly and open discussions with their children (Small, 1988). For this study, it is important to note that both autonomy and self-esteem development can only take place if both the adolescent and the parent cooperate and provide a health environment for these two aspects to thrive. However, parental self-esteem is also important, as the adolescent strives for autonomy and self-esteem.

## **5.7 Conclusion**

In parenting, there are three broad types of parents: those who have never really thought about parenting at all, those who have been convinced that one theory is supreme, and those who are confused about parenting (Lipka & Brinthaupt, 2006). However, as per this study, parenting can be classified as either demandingness or responsiveness. Across all

these, there are some children who are in good relationships with their parents and some who are not. Parents who do not believe in enforcing discipline or boundaries might assume that children from stricter households will rebel as teenagers, but these does not always happen. In any parenting children need lots of loving guidance, firm boundaries with plenty of age-appropriate discussions about them to promote self-esteem ,independence and openness. This study shows that parenting, adolescents' age, gender, and class-level do influence the development of both autonomy and self-esteem. From this study, it is true that no parenting style can bring about autonomy and self-esteem development. With adolescents' autonomy, certain parenting practices such as discussions between parents and adolescents, delegation of duties to adolescents among others, have been found to be associated with the healthy development of autonomy and self-esteem. Autonomy involves the ability to arrive at an independent decision and carry through on it. While, with high self-esteem individuals are more capable and competent. In a family, individuals with higher self-esteem would be expected to present more positive interactions with others and perform their role more effectively.

## **5.8 Recommendations**

1. Adolescents should be given motivation techniques to help them see the advantages of cooperating with parents, especially the male adolescent for better autonomy and self-esteem development.
2. The society or learning institutions should establish programs where program administration should be youth based, so that the motivation, direction and goals comes from the youths/ adolescents.
3. Adults, specifically parents should provide the structure (s) in form of specifying rules

and constrains, while emphasizing the importance of the youth based aspects in organizations.

4. With adolescent autonomy, certain parenting practices such as discussions between parents and adolescents, delegation of duties to adolescents among others, should be adopted to bring about healthy development of autonomy and self-esteem of the adolescents.

### **5.9 Recommendations for Further Research**

In this study, the recommendations are as follows:

1. This study focused on adolescent autonomy and self-esteem, however the researcher recommends that further research be conducted on parents' autonomy and parents self-esteem, for these seem to be closely connected to children's autonomy development.
2. Further research should also be carried out in higher institution of learning where most of the adolescents congregate, because some of the students in colleges and universities are still in the adolescent stage.
3. This study focused on parenting styles and adolescents' autonomy and self-esteem. There is need for other researchers to further investigate on the different types of autonomy and self-esteem, and how they are related to parenting styles.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRES FOR RESPONDENTS MEASURING PARENTING STYLES.

#### Instructions

You are requested to respond to this questionnaire as honestly as possible. Your responses will be treated as confidential. These questionnaires consist of items aimed at identifying forms of parenting styles in relation to adolescents' autonomy. Your responses will be used strictly for the purposes of this research. Do not indicate your name anywhere in this questionnaire.

#### Section A

##### Demographic data.

- i) Indicate your gender: Male  Female
- ii) What is your age bracket?
- 12 - 14 years
- 15 - 18 years
- 19 - 22 years
- 23 and above years
- iii) What is your level of education?
- Form I  Form II  Form III  Form IV

### Section B: Students' Questionnaire on Authoritative Parenting Styles

Read each statement carefully and tick (√) the alternative that best describe your feelings in the spaces provided.

Key:

SA= Strongly Agree

A= Agree

U=Undecided

D= Disagree

SD= Strongly Disagree

NO.		SA	A	U	D	SD
1	My parents make reasonable demand in every day activity.					
2	My parents always set limits in all that I do and insist on obedience.					
3	My parents express warmth and affection towards me in every day life.					
4	My parents listen patiently to my point of view and involve me in family decision making.					
5	My parents deal with issues affecting our family members in a rational and democratic way.					
6	I am always lively, happy and self-confident in taking new tasks which come on my way.					
7	I am always self controlled and I have the ability to resist in engaging in disruptive acts.					
8	I value life as an adolescent.					



### Section C: Students Questionnaire on Authoritarian Parenting Style

NO.		SA	A	U	D	SD
1	My parents demand too much in all that am expected to do in every day life.					
2	Sometimes my parents' reactions do push me into unwillingness to obey.					
3	Sometimes I do take decisions of which I am not willing to.	SA	A	U	D	SD
4	In some incidents my parents resort to force and punishment in issues I am not able to avoid.					
5	In some circumstances I cannot express my feelings.					
6	I am not free to perform some tasks independently.					
7	My parents offer little or no emotional support to me.					
8	Life has no meaning to me as an adolescent.					

### Section D: Questionnaire on Permissive Parenting Style

NO.		SA	A	U	D	SD
1	My parents are quite accepting in whatever I do.					
2	My parents cannot impose demands on me in whatever situation.					
3	My parents show no control in whatever I engage in everyday life though they give emotional support.					
4	I m allowed / free to make decision at my own pleasure.					
5	I can eat and sleep at any time I feel like.					

6	I do not need to follow a given routine.					
7	I suppose my parent feel I am above them, and they cannot control me.					
8	Sometimes I find it difficult to control my impulses/emotions.					

### Section E: Questionnaire on Uninvolved Parenting Style

NO.		SA	A	U	D	SD
1	I find my parents undemanding and un responsive.					
2	My parents show little commitment to care and minimum effort required to feed and clothe me.					
3	My parents have little time to spare for me.					
4	My parents can do what they can for me to avoid inconveniences.					
5	My parents do respond to my demands for easy accessible objects, but show no efforts that involves long – term goals.					
6	My relationship with my parent displays low warmth and control.					
7	There is no conversation between my parents and me, and they take little interest in my life at school and are seldom aware of my whereabouts.					
8	Hardly do my parents listen to me or give any encouragement.					

## APPENDIX II: ADOLESCENT SELF ESTEEM QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire items below are either **TRUE, FALSE OR UNDECIDED**. Choose the relevant answer that describes your feelings.

NO		TRUE	FALSE	UNDECIDED
1	Other people are not better off or more fortunate than me.			
2	I accept myself as I am and am happy with myself.			
3	I enjoy socializing.			
4	I deserve love and respect.			
5	I feel valued and needed.			
6	I don't need others to tell me I have done a good job.			
7	Being myself is important.			
8	I make friends easily.			
9	I can accept criticism without feeling embarrassed.			
10	I admit my mistakes openly.			
11	I never hide my true feelings.			
12	I always speak for myself and put my views across.			
13	I am happy, careful person.			
14	I don't worry what others think of my views.			
15	I don't need others approval to feel good.			
16	I don't feel guilty about doing or saying what I want.			

**APPENDIX III: QUESTIONNAIRE MEASURING ADOLESCENT AUTONOMY**

Choose the relevant answer that best describes your feelings.

NO.		SA	A	U	D	SD
1	I enjoy being self reliant					
2	Other people deserve respect more than me					
3	Find it hard to socialize with my peers or other people					
4	I never hide my true feelings before others					
5	I occasionally get hot tempered when not satisfied with issues					
6	I love criticism without feeling embarrassed.					
7	I am always patient when things do not work well in my favour.					
8	Besides my school work, I am involved in simple projects to generate some little income for myself.					
9	I can carry out simple activities using my finances without involving my parents.					
10	I get full financial support from my parents.					
11	I cannot get involved in any project to generate my own income.					
12	I don't worry what others think of my everyday decisions.					
13	I don't need others approval in decision making.					
14	Being morally upright and open is important to me.					
15	Being independent has no meaning in my life.					
16	I appreciate my decisions than those of others.					
17	Cleanliness and organization of my room is my sole responsibility.					

18	Clothing selection and purchasing is my parents' responsibility.					
19	After school activities are delegated by my parents.	SA	A	U	D	SD
20	My parents watch closely on how I receive and spend my pocket money.					
21	My parents always know my whereabouts whenever am out of school.					
22	I take part in organizing family celebrations.					
23	I always participate in organizing family holidays.					
24	I participate in planning family meals.					

Thank you for sacrificing your time towards answering this questionnaire. God bless you.