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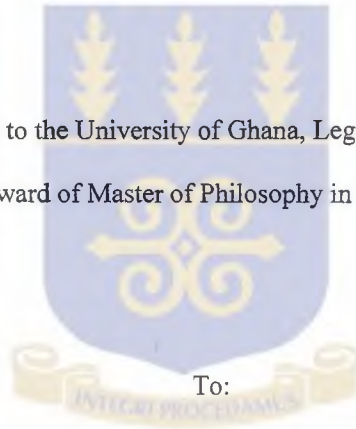
**RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLES,
ADOLESCENTS SELF-ESTEEM, EMOTIONAL STATE AND
ASSERTIVENESS**



BY

ESTHER SANKAH

This Thesis is submitted to the University of Ghana, Legon, in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirement for the Award of Master of Philosophy in Clinical Psychology Degree.



To:

The Department of Psychology

University of Ghana

Legon

August, 2007



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DECLARATION

I, Esther Sankah, do hereby declare that except for references to other people's works which I had cause to cite and duly acknowledge, this work is the result of my own research, and that this study has neither in part nor in whole been presented for another degree elsewhere. I also declare that neither my supervisors nor any other person but the author alone is responsible for all errors of commission and omission that may be found in this work.

Esther Sankah



(Student)

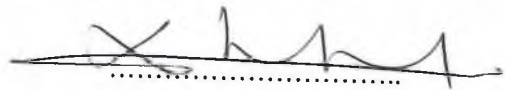
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DEDICATION

To my parents, Mr and Mrs S. K. Sankah, who are the world's best parents and have done a wonderful job of successfully parenting eight lovely children.

To “The Two J’s” in my life, James and Jim who happen to be my Joy and Inspiration.



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To my parents-in-laws, His Excellency J. Y. A. Kwofie and Mrs. Elizabeth Kwofie for taking care of their grandson, James, so that I could finish the thesis, I must admit I truly appreciate your help.

Finally, I owe the reality of this book to my wonderful husband, James, who provided me with all that I needed; finance, laptop computer, internet, peace and a positive stress to go with it, by calling me “Attempted ‘M’ Phil” just so that I could finish this book. I say thank you so much for the love and support.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the relationship between parenting styles, adolescents self esteem, assertiveness and emotions (Depression, Anxiety and Stress) of adolescents. Two hundred adolescents between ages 12 and 19 were sampled randomly from five senior secondary schools in the Greater Accra Region. Participants responded to the parental Authority Questionnaire, the Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale, The Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale and The Assertiveness Inventory. Two major parenting styles namely: Authoritative and Authoritarian, emerged from the data analysis. It was found that adolescents were more likely to have low self-esteem when their parents used the authoritarian style. On the other hand, adolescents were more likely to have high self esteem when their parents used authoritative style. There was no effect of parenting on assertiveness of adolescents. The study however, revealed that male adolescents were more assertive than females. With respect to emotions, the study found that adolescents' emotions were negatively affected as parents used more of the authoritarian parenting style, resulting in depression, anxiety and stress. These findings were consistent with other studies. Contrary to other studies, adolescents who received authoritative parenting reported high levels of depression, anxiety and stress.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Parenting is a complex activity that includes many specific behaviors that work individually and together to influence child outcomes (Darling, 1999). It has been defined as all the tasks involved in raising a child into an independent adult. A child, as defined by the Children's Act, 1998, is a person below eighteen (18) years of age. The activities of parenting, which is a responsibility of a parent does not occur independent of a child. That is to say, there can be no parenting without a child. To capture normal variations in parents' attempt to control and socialize their children, the term "Parenting Styles" is used (Baumrind, 1991).

Parenting style has been defined as a global set of parental attitudes, goals, and patterns of parenting practices. According to the classic work of Baumrind, (1980) on parenting styles, there are three forms of parenting style; these are Authoritative, Authoritarian and Permissive parenting styles. However, uninvolved parenting style is another type of parenting style that has been added to the three (Gray & Steinberg, 1999). These parenting styles adopted by different parents contribute to the psychological development of their children either in a positive or negative way.

In other to achieve this important aim of parenting, many different styles or methods are adopted by different parents. For instance, there are some who will punish their children seriously for disobeying them; others will not tolerate the opinion of children, others will

not be bothered by whatever the child does and so on. Due to these different approaches adopted by different parents, parenting tends to impart differently on the development of children.

Development, according to Santrock, (2002) is defined as the pattern of change or movement that begins at conception and continues through the life span. Pattern of change is complex because it is the product of several processes - biological, cognitive, and socioemotional. Biological processes involve changes in the individual's physical nature. Cognitive processes involve changes in the individual's thought, intelligence and language. Whereas socioemotional processes involve changes in the individual's relationships with other people, changes in emotions and changes in personality.

As parents strive to ensure that they mould their children, there is no doubt that the psychological development of the children is affected. As far back as the 16th century, philosophers such as John Locke and Jean-Jacques Rousseau emphasized the role parents' play in the psychological development of their children. They argued that childhood is a period of importance and early development sets the stage for what one becomes later in life. This view was shared by Freud, (1938) in his psychoanalytic theory, which has its basic tenet that, parents are mainly responsible for the child's psychological development (Thomas, 1996). This study was conducted as an assessment of the different styles of parenting and its effect on the psychological state of adolescents (self-esteem, emotions and assertiveness).

Parenting in Ghana

To understand the context of this current study, it is worth explaining what parenting means in Ghana. A parent, in the Ghanaian context, may not always be the biological parent of a child. Uncles, aunties or other extended family members may sometimes take the parenting role. Among the Akans (an ethnic group in Ghana) for example, it is the uncle's responsibility to care for his sister's children due to the matrilineal system of inheritance, although this practice is gradually changing. Such children may go and live with their uncles at a very early age. In other instances, biological parents may send their children to live with relatives due to financial constraints. Therefore, it appears that children may experience different parenting styles at different stages of their life.

Another important fact in relation to parenting in Ghana is the relationship that exists between parents and their children. In matters of communication, it is believed that children are not supposed to be heard but only seen. This presupposes that a child can not talk when the parents or any elderly person do so; simply, the child is expected to comply and not share his or her opinion even when he or she disagrees with the parents or elderly persons. Parents or the elderly are therefore believed to be right at all times. However, with the passage of certain laws such as the right of opinion, which states that "No person shall deprive a child capable of forming views the right to express an opinion, to be listened to and to participate in decisions which affect his well-being, the opinion of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child" (Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs, Children's Act, 1998-Act 560), this will hopefully change with time. In addition, exposure to other cultures where children are

heard has altered views about children such that children's opinions are gradually being attended to.

Another aspect to consider in the parent child relationship is discipline. Some parents believe that to get their children to behave appropriately, they must be punished (beaten) whenever they go wrong, this way, they will always do what is expected of them. Others think that the best way to bring up their children is to talk to them only; others are too lax while others are firm but will not tolerate disobedience. This therefore, rings a bell as to what are the components of parenting that promote psychological development within the study context.

Problem statement

In Ghana, following tradition, it is quite clear that children and adolescents must be seen and not heard; also physical punishment is still being used by some parents. It was reported that a parent beat his child until she passed away, the reason being that she behaved immorally (Daily Graphic, Monday, February 18, 2002:7). It is common to hear and see parents beat their children for failing to obey them, making mistakes, not performing well in school and so on. Other parents simply do not bother about their children in any way and just leave them to do whatever they (children/adolescents) want, such that they care for themselves by looking for their own food to eat and clothing themselves. It is obvious that these children will develop differently as they are not receiving the same kind of parental care and treatment. As parents try to bring up their children in ways that seems best to them, how does their chosen parenting style influence their children's feeling about themselves (self-esteem) and how do they relate to the outside world (assertiveness) as well as their psychological well-being (emotions). Will

using a particular parenting style bring about different levels of these psychological outcomes of adolescents in Ghana?

Aims

This study aimed at finding out the relationship among parenting styles and adolescents' self esteem, emotional state and assertiveness. In this regard, the following objectives were explored. They are:

- To find out how the different parenting styles affects emotions (Depression, Anxiety and Stress) of adolescents, be it positive or negative.
- To find out which parenting style(s) contribute to adolescent self-esteem building.
- To find out if the assertiveness of adolescents' receiving permissive parenting style will differ in terms of gender.
- To establish whether a particular parenting style fosters adolescent assertiveness.

Rationale/Relevance of the study

Developmental psychologists have long studied parenting; however, most of those studies were on children concerning parenting and aggression or attachment. This current study took a different dimension by focusing on the relationship between parenting styles and psychological development. This study contributes to understanding how parenting behaviors relate to adolescents' emotions, self esteem and assertiveness.

It also serves as a source of empirical evidence for both parents and prospective parents to know the psychological effects (positive or negative) the kinds of parenting style they

adopt affect their adolescents. In so doing, it helps parents decide if their choice of style is appropriate or not and inform them to modify it if necessary. In addition, this current study adds to the literature of parenting styles and its impact on adolescents' psychological development, most especially in Ghana.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Since this current study was concerned with the role of parenting styles in adolescent's psychological development, it was important to explore the nature of child development as a whole, and some psychological theories that are related to parenting.

Child Development

Child development involves changes in physical, social, emotional, and intellectual functioning over time from conception through adolescence (Fabes & Martin, 1999). According to Fabes & Martin, (1999), in each stage of development, developmental domains provide a basis for focusing on specific areas of development. These domains are Physical (growth and changes in a person's body and bodily functions), Cognitive (development of mental processes used to process information, become aware, solve problems and gain knowledge) and Socio-emotional (development of processes related to one's interactions with others).

However, developmental changes are brought about by a variety of different mechanisms which may include maturation and environmental factors. Maturation is said to be a series of preprogrammed transformation in the form, structure or function of an individual, e.g. puberty. Because humans live in an environment, environmental factors also influence human development (Harris, 1995). The potential of environment influencing development is great since environmental stimuli bombard children every moment of everyday.

The extent to which biological/genetic and environmental factors influence development has been, and continues to be, hotly debated in the field of child development and is referred to as the nature versus nurture debate.

This current study was interested in how environmental factors (nurture) influence development. From the explanation of child development so far, it can thus be understood that development manifests itself in the biological, psychological and social aspects of an individual. This study was therefore conducted on the premise that if environmental factors greatly influence development, then parents, who are the first social/environmental contact of children, play a very significant role in contributing to their children's psychological development.

Just like a building, the foundation one lays goes a long way to determine the future of the building, so it is with child development. In that, parent's role as primary caregivers as well as the first social contact of the children, is very important in shaping the child's future. If a parent takes very good care of his or her child, for example, by showing him or her love, warmth and correcting them where necessary, then the child is more likely to become a better adult. Whereas if a child is not well taken care of and is left to be on his or her own, to do what ever he or she so wishes, not being shown love or support, then such a child is more likely to become a problem child.

In view of this, developmentalists propounded two main theories in relation to parent-child relationships and how these affect the child's future relationships. These are the Continuity and Discontinuity views.

Developmentalists who hold the continuity view, according to Santrock (2000), emphasize the role that early parent-child relationships play in constructing a basic way of relating to people throughout the lifespan. They argued that these early relationships are carried forward to later points in development to influence all subsequent relationships (with peers, friends or other romantic partners) (Ainsworth, 1979; Bowlby, 1989, Ostoja et al, 1995; Sroufe, 1985; Waters et al, 1995). In other words the nature of earlier relationships with parents (listening to the children, discussing issues with them and so on.) will go a long way to affect other relationships; this in turn may make them assertive and develop positive self-esteem.

Those of the discontinuity view, on the contrary, emphasize change and growth in relationships over time. According to Santrock (2000), those of this view believe that as people grow, they develop many different types of relationships (with parents, peers for example), which are structurally different. To them, with each new type of relationship, individuals encounter new modes of relating of relating (Buhrmester & Furman, 1987; Piaget, 1932; Sullivan, 1953; Youniss, 1980). Piaget, (1932) is of the view that parents have a unilateral authority over the children in parent-child relationships, whereas in relation to peers, children relate to each other on a more equal basis. So parent-child relationship reflects in child authority relationships (such as can be seen with teachers

and people in authority) while peer relationships reflect in those with whom they (children) are at par with, such as friends and co-workers.

Others however see development as both consisting of discrete stages and smooth trajectories, that is, the Dynamic View or the Midway View. That is to them, even though early relationships have some effect on later ones, every new type of relationship requires the construction of even more sophisticated modes of relating to others (Thelen & Smith, 1998).

Contextual Theories of Child Development

Contextual theories emphasize the interaction between the biological and environmental forces that influence behavior and development in particular contexts. Contextual theorists view development as when a child acts within the environment to produce change (Fabes & Martin, 1999). Of interest here, is the Ecological Theory by Urie Bronfenbrenner, he used a concept from earth science – ecology - to outline the interplay between the child and his or her immediate social and physical environment.

Bronfenbrenner came up with an ecological model with the inner most circles, which is the *microsystem*, representing the child's immediate environment and includes influences such as roles and relationships among family members and the structure of the environment (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998). This immediate environment has important effects on development, as was found in studies such as that by Brooks-Gunn, 1995. The middle sphere of the ecological model is the *mesosystem*, which encompasses

the connections among settings including the child and how these connections influence the child. The *exosystem* is next in the circle, and represents the linkages among settings, one of which does not include the child, and how these influence development. Parents' world's such as their employment, church attendance and friends and the physical environment beyond the immediate setting, such as neighborhood conditions, make up the external settings. And lastly, the *macrosystem*, represents larger societal values, historical changes and social policies (Bronfenbrenner, 1986).

Early Philosophical Roots of Childhood

The issues of the role parents' play in the psychological development of their children have been in existence for a long time. Two philosophers, John Locke and Jean-Jacques Rousseau, addressed this. They argued that childhood is a period of importance and early development sets the stage for what one becomes later in life.

John Locke (1632-1704) proposed that a child is like a blank slate: or a *tabula rasa*, upon which experience in life write their story. Each child develops his or her uniqueness (in character and abilities) through interactions with people and objects. Locke therefore emphasized the long-term impact of early experiences and the responsibility parents bear for their children's character formation. Locke's belief that the environment is the driving force in development is emphasized when he stated that:

"The great mistake I have observed in people's breeding their children...is that the mind



has not been made obedient to discipline and pliant to reason when it was most tender, most easy to be bowed". Locke (1690/1964).

Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778) on the other hand emphasized innate morality. He also challenged the notion that children are merely miniature and inferior adults. In contrast to Locke, however, Rousseau emphasized the importance of internal, or innate, forces. For Rousseau, from the time children are born, they possess an intrinsic character that is perfect and good. Parents' role therefore is to let natural positive forces in children emerge without restraint. This belief is reflected in his statement:

"God makes all things good; man meddles with them and they become evil". Rousseau (1762/1911).

Both philosophers emphasize the role parents play in the development of children. However, Rousseau, in emphasizing the inborn, natural qualities of development, placed greater importance on internal (nature) rather than external (nurture) processes (Synnott, 1998).

In relation to parenting style therefore, Rousseau, was humorously referred to as the "grandfather of permissive parenting" because of his emphasis on letting the natural qualities of the child dictate his or her development (Fabes & Martin, 1999). That is to say, to him, parents should leave their children to do whatever they want to, whereas, Locke believes that parents should guide their children in whichever way they (parents)

think is the best way to enhance their development, by adopting the authoritative or authoritarian parenting style.

Psychosocial Development

It has been mentioned earlier that child development is not only biological but takes into account social and psychological factors. Erick Erikson (1959) emphasized this when he argued that during development children go through a series of eight psychosocial crises that reflect a struggle between two conflicting personality characteristics. These crises represent critical periods in personality development. The first four stages are; Trust versus Mistrust (0-1 year), Autonomy versus Shame/Doubt (2-3 years), Initiative versus Guilt (3-6 years) and Industry versus Inferiority (7-12 years). The remaining stages are; Identity versus Identity Diffusion (12-18 years), Intimacy versus Isolation (20s), Generativity versus Stagnation (20s-50s) and Integrity versus Stagnation (50s onwards).

Erikson emphasized that the need for affectional relationship contributes largely to the resolution of the crises at each stage. For instance, at the Identity versus Diffusion stage, which starts around 12 to around 18 years, the adolescent adopts new expectations in relation to himself, peers and adults around him or her. This view has guided general child rearing and influenced early childhood education. (Thomas, 1996)

Affect Theories on Child Development

Affects or emotions (most writers use the terms interchangeably) are a normal and universal part of human biological inheritance. Like thought (or cognition), they are a

basic, primary component of human psychological development. They differ from cognition in having a palpable drive component and are thus more quantifiable (one speaks of the strength of the emotions). There is a continuous interrelationship between affect and cognition, such that either can influence the other, altering it in different ways (Fischer and Lamborn, 1989). Although not all analysts will agree, emotions can exist at both the conscious and unconscious levels (Brenner, 1982). It is also generally accepted that when normal affective development is disrupted during childhood, unless it is subsequently adjusted by corrective emotional experiences, the impact will be felt throughout the life of the individual.

Emotions involve a variety of feelings that, in the normal situation, enrich a person's life. Optimally, in the adult, the full range of human emotion is available and is experienced with different intensity, depending in part on the strength of the stimulus. In addition to being experienced internally, affect will commonly find outward expression, both verbally and nonverbally, although this can vary greatly with the stage of development of the child.

In the abnormal situation, which can result from inborn error or an unfavorable environment, emotions may be globally or selectively suppressed, repressed, overstimulated, or altered. Negative emotions may predominate, giving an angry, depressed, or maladaptive cast to a child's life. This can make them feel sad, stressed, timid, anxious or not of worth. These negative emotions when experienced over a period of time tends to make children clinically depressed, stressed anxious or even have low self esteem.

Whereas when a parent is affectionate, supportive, caring, it affects the child's emotions in a more positive way, making him or her happy, bold and feels of worth.

Parenting

A parent is either a biological father or mother or "a person who has not produced the offspring but has the legal status of a father or mother, as by adoption" (The World Book Dictionary, 1974:1498). A biological parent is one who through the act of procreation brought the child or children in question into this world. Non-biological or foster parent is one whom a child has been passed on to, to care for and take responsibility for his or her development (Ardayfio-Schandorf & Amissah, 1994).

What then is parenting? The term parenting has been defined differently according to the aspect of parenting being looked at. However, for the purpose of this research, that of Darling, (2004) was employed. According to Darling, (2004), parenting is a complex activity that includes many specific behaviors that work individually and together to influence child outcomes. She noted that specific parenting practices (such as spanking, reading aloud) are less important in predicting child well-being instead; the broad pattern of parenting should be examined. That is to say, parenting should not be looked at in terms of specific practices by a parent but rather, as a whole. For instance, if a parent has ever beaten his or her child, it will be wrong to conclude that the parent's style of raising his or her child is punitive based on that act (beat) alone, rather considering his or her approach in general as a parenting style is more appropriate. Thus, an overall assessment

of how the parent treats the child is more important in describing the parenting practice, which in turn helps in predicting child well-being.

Parenting is therefore part of the relationship within a family and for that matter an important part of the social network of a child. There are many aspects to parenting and these may include physical care (e.g. providing shelter, medical care and safety), social development and emotional support (e.g. love, social skills, and entertainment) and moral and spiritual development (e.g. norms and religion – in the case of religious parents). What seem to be important are the components of any given parenting style.

Components of Parenting

The ingredients of parenting that promote competent socioemotional development (Demo & Cox 2000) have long been of interest to developmentalists. For example, prominent psychologist John Watson argued that parents are too affectionate with their children. In the 1950's, a distinction was made between physical and psychological discipline. In the 1970s and beyond, the dimensions of competent parenting have become more precise (Santrock, 2000).

Harptup, (2000) is also of the view that experience is necessary both in “vertical relationships” (those with people of greater social power and knowledge such as parents) and in “horizontal relationships” (those with people who have the same knowledge and social power, e.g. peers).

Baumrind, (1971, 1989, and 1991) did the most extensive work on the ingredients of parenting and its effects on the development of children. She believed that parents should neither be punitive nor aloof. Instead, they should develop rules for their children and be affectionate with them. Based on this, she emphasized four types of parenting styles that are associated with different aspects of the child's socioemotional development: authoritative, authoritarian, neglectful, and indulgent. Where authoritative parents equally combine establishing rules for their children with being affectionate with them, authoritarian parents are more into establishing rules and not being affectionate, neglectful parents neither establish rules nor show affection and lastly indulgent parents only show affection but establish no rules.

Parenting 'style' is a general pattern of care giving that provides a context for episodes of parental childrearing behaviors; but it does not refer to a specific act or set of acts of parenting. This is different from parenting 'practices' or 'behaviors' which are conceptualized as specific kinds of parental interactions with children in specific situations (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Maccoby, 1992). For example, a self-report item that assesses an accepting parenting style might be, 'My parent understands how I feel,' whereas an item assessing specific parenting behaviors might be, 'Today before school, my parent let me know s/he understood how I was feeling.' (e.g., Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

Therefore parenting style and parenting behaviors can be differentiated in terms of ways of assessment. For example, the former is traditionally assessed with paper-and-pencil measures that require the respondent to evaluate global patterns of parenting style over long or unspecified periods of time (Holden & Edwards, 1989). The latter is generally measured with observational approaches or time-delimited self report measures of parenting behaviors in particular situations (such as daily diaries; e.g., Repetti, 1996). It is worth noting that it is possible to use both self-report and observational methods to measure either parenting style or parenting behaviors.

The construct parenting style is used to capture normal variations in parents' attempts to control and socialize their children (Baumrind, 1991), and it captures two important elements of parenting: Parental responsiveness and Parental demandingness (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Parental responsiveness (parental warmth or supportiveness) refers to "the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality, self-regulation, and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive and acquiescent to children's special needs and demands"(Baumrind, 1991). Parental responsiveness put in another way refers to the extent to which parents respond to the child's needs in an accepting, supportive manner.

Parental demandingness (behavioral control) refers to "the claims parents make on children to become integrated into the family whole, by their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child who

disobeys”(Baumrind, 1991). In other words, parental demandingness refers to the extent a parent expects and demands mature, responsible behavior from the child.

Parents vary on these dimensions. Some parents are warm and accepting while others are unresponsive or rejecting. Some parents are demanding and expect a great deal of their child, while others are permissive and demand very little. The four parenting styles created by the interface of high and low parental responsiveness and demandingness are (Gray & Steinberg, 1999):

		Demandingness (control)	
		High	Low
Responsiveness (warmth)	High	<i>Authoritative</i>	<i>Permissive</i>
	Low	<i>Autocratic</i>	<i>Unengaged</i>

- Parents who are *responsive* but not at all *demanding* are **permissive/indulgent**.
- Parents who are equally *responsive* and *demanding* are **authoritative**.
- Parents who are *demanding* but not very *responsive* are **autocratic/authoritarian**.
- Parents who are neither *demanding* nor *responsive* are **unengaged/neglectful**.

The issue of demandingness and responsiveness seem to be constant across different periods in children's development, there is one dimension that is important to assess

when dealing with adolescents, that is the extent to which parents encourage and permit their adolescents to develop their own opinions and beliefs. This is called “psychological autonomy granting” (Steinberg, 1990). Its converse, “Psychological Control” refers to “attempts that intrude into the psychological and emotional development of the child” (Barber, 1996) through the use of parental practices such as guilt induction, withdrawal of love, or shaming. For example one key difference between authoritarian and authoritative parenting style is the issue of psychological control. Whereas both are high on demandingness/control or behavioral control, the former is high on psychological control whereas the latter is low on psychological control. Psychological control is therefore the third dimension under which parenting differs.

CHALLENGES OF ADOLESCENTS

Adolescence is the developmental period of transition from childhood to early adulthood, entered at approximately 10 to 12 years of age and ending at 18 to 22 years of age (Santrock, 2000).

This stage like any other developmental stage comes with its own challenges and demands that adolescents have to deal with. Some adolescents can deal with the challenges and demands of developmental tasks with no significant psychological disturbance; others may experience a profound alteration of their psychological well-being. This could emerge because the adaptation efforts the new tasks demands, provoke a probable exhaustion of their emotional, cognitive and social resources (Bizarro, 1991, 1992; Compas, et al, 1993). The unfavorable consequences that this process may lead are



that the changes in psychological well-being could be the precursors of more severe psychological disorders (Dryfoos, 1997). In fact, some authors point that the changes of psychological well-being could be the first signs of more severe emotional or behavioral problems (Crockett & Petersen, 1993; Geldard & Geldard, 1999; Weissberg & Kuster, 1997).

Parents play a vital role in trying to ensure that their adolescents go through this stage to become successful and responsible adults without severe psychological disturbance. How will an adolescent tolerate a parent who is always making him or her feel guilty and not of any worth? How will he or she also take a parent who is always deciding what he or she has to do and how to even socialize? The parenting style adopted by a parent will therefore go a long way to have certain consequences on the development of the adolescent. For example, research based on the consequences of parenting styles on children found that children and adolescents whose parents are authoritative rate themselves and are rated by objective measures as more socially and instrumentally competent than those whose parents are non-authoritative (Baumrind, 1991; Weiss & Schwarz, 1996; Miller et al., 1993).

There is a question of whether it is possible to have two different parenting styles being used on a particular child. For example, the father may be employing the authoritarian parenting style and the mother permissive parenting style. Studies done in this area found that mothers and fathers are often in agreement 75% of the time as to which style of parenting to adopt (e.g. Baumrind, 1991). This was so because, it is believed that

individuals with similar values are more likely to marry, parents influence each other over time, and those parents who experience serious disagreements may be more likely to be divorced (Fletcher, Steingberg & Seller, 1999). The parenting style that parents use will therefore affect a child throughout life. It is very important then for parents to realize that how they raise their children go a long way to affect their cognitive development in the future.

FACTORS AFFECTING PARENTING

The parent's uses of parenting styles are affected by several factors. This may include the mood of the parent, the child's temperament and cultural differences in parenting styles. "Parents are human beings who react differently in various situations, depending on their mood and the circumstances", (Martin & Colbert, 1997). When a parent is in a bad mood, they tend to use authoritarian style of parenting. However there seem to be a consistent pattern of parenting style.

A child's temperament can also influence the parenting style a parent uses. According to Baumrind (1980, 1991), children's temperaments influence parenting styles. If a child has a difficult temperament, it is more likely the parent may use the authoritarian parenting style (Cole & Cole, 1993).

The literature also indicates cultural differences in parenting styles. According to Julian, McKenry & McKelvy (1994), many Latino families use authoritarian parenting style because they feel that giving children too much freedom may lead to promiscuity. They

do not want their children to fall into the immoralities of society. They feel that by being strict their children may grow up to be responsible adults. To some children, coming from authoritarian families makes them feel that there is a right way and a wrong way to do things. Another group that believes in using authoritarian parenting style is African-American parents. According to Taylor, Chatters, Tucker, & Lewis (1990), "African-American parents may be stricter because they are trying to prepare their children for coping with the realities of racism and discrimination".

Review of Other Related Studies and Statement of Hypotheses

There have been studies conducted on the psychological development of children and adolescents, some of which have been cited below because of its bearing on this current study.

First of these is a cross-sectional study of 1,359 preadolescents and adolescents entitled "Parenting behavior and adolescent behavioral and emotional problems: The role of self-control" by Finkenauer, Engels & Baumeister, (2005). They investigated whether parenting behaviors are directly or indirectly (through building self-control) associated with emotional (depression, stress, low self-esteem) and behavioral (delinquency, aggression) problems among adolescents. Replicating existing findings, both types of problems were directly, negatively related to adaptive parenting behavior (high parental acceptance, strict control and monitoring, and little use of manipulative psychological control).

In their study, emotional problems comprised of three indicators namely: depression, stress and self-esteem. However, this current study treated adolescents' emotions with the use of three indicators namely: depression, stress and anxiety. The study by Finkenauer, et al, 2005, has been cited because of its bearing on adolescents' stress, depression and self-esteem which are important components to this current study. With respect to self esteem, it was realized during the regression analysis that parental acceptance was positively related to self-esteem and psychological control was negatively related to self-esteem. This indicates that adolescents who reported having highly supportive parents (in this present study, Authoritative parenting style) had high self-esteem, while adolescents who perceived their parents to exert psychological, restrictive control (Authoritarian parenting style) had low self-esteem. It was also established that parental acceptance was negatively associated with depressive mood, while psychological control was positively associated with depressive mood. Parental strict control was unrelated to depressive mood in that study.

Finkenauer, et al (2005), measured parenting behaviors with the parenting style index of Steinberg and colleagues (Steinberg et al., 1994). However this current study used the Parental Authority Questionnaire scale by Buri, (1991). Common to both scales is the fact that they were designed to measure adolescents' perception of the ways their parents raise them.

Finkenauer, et al (2005) also established gender differences in their study with respect to emotional problems. Girls reported higher levels of depressive mood and lower levels of

self-esteem compared to boys. Also a marginal effect for perceived stress indicated that girls tended to report more stress than boys.

The relation between parental rearing practices and coping dispositions was examined among 65 males and 75 females with an average age of 19.0 (SD=1.25 years). It was conducted by McIntyre & Dusek, 1995 entitled "Perceived parental rearing practices and styles of coping". The findings in general showed a difference in coping between children under authoritative parenting and authoritarian parenting. Children who reported that their parents had an authoritative rearing style (warmth and nurturance coupled with close monitoring and age-appropriate demandingness) used more social support and problem-focused coping. On the other hand children who reported that their parents used other rearing styles used different coping strategies. The findings do not only demonstrate clear relations between perceived parenting practices and coping but substantially extend those of other investigators linking authoritative parenting techniques with generally more optimal outcomes in children. For instance, authoritative parenting has been shown to promote self-esteem, identity development and the exploration of competencies (Pike, 1996). For this reason, McIntyre & Dusek's study partially relates to the current study in that, they explored the various parenting rearing practices in relation to coping styles of the adolescents.

The current study also explores the various parenting practices in relation to the psychological development of adolescents. It differs from McIntyre & Dusek's study in terms of the scale used in assessing the perceived parental practices. McIntyre & Dusek,

1995, used the 56-item version (Margolies & Weintraub, 1997) of Schaefer's (1965) Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI). All the items were completed once for each parent. That is to say each parent was assessed separately on all the 56 items. This current study used the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) by Buri. In Buri's questionnaire, each of the 30 questions was assessed for both parents at the same time.

In a digest by Darling, (2005) she reported that conclusions from various authors indicate adolescents raised in authoritative homes continue to show the same advantages in psychosocial development and mental health over their non-authoritatively raised peers. These advantages in psychosocial development and mental health include self-esteem (Lamborn et al., 1991).

In a paper by Marisol, 1997 entitled "The effects parenting styles have on a child's cognitive development", the researcher examined the different parenting styles impacts on the child's cognitive development. He reported that, parents play an important role in the cognitive development of their children and that, the parenting style they choose may depend on their culture or the temperament of the child. It was reported that Authoritative parenting style, builds self-esteem, self-motivation, teaches a child to think, assertiveness, learns from experience, and make responsible decisions (Critzler, 1996).

"The Relationship between Self-Esteem and Parenting Style: A Cross-Cultural Comparison of Australian and Vietnamese Australian Adolescents" was conducted by

Herz, & Gullone, (1999). 118 Vietnamese Australian and 120 Anglo-Australian adolescents, aged 11 to 18 years, were recruited for this study. They responded to Coppersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory; the Parental Bonding Instrument, an acculturation measure; and two subscales of Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire. The study revealed that parenting characterized by high levels of overprotection and low levels of acceptance related negatively with self-esteem for both samples of adolescents. In this current study the parenting style with such characteristics is best considered as the Authoritarian parenting style, which implies that authoritarian parenting style relates negatively with self-esteem.

Contrary to the above findings however, studies done in Ghana has consistently shown no significant difference between authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles on adolescents' self-esteem (Agyepong, 2003; Kwakye, 2003; Owusu-Mireku, 2003). In the study by Kwaakye (2003), one hundred and eighty students who are between ages 13 to 16 completed the parenting style inventory by C. Drew Edwards and the Rosenberg self esteem inventory. The findings of that study indicated that there was no significant effect between self-esteem of children from authoritative home and those from authoritarian homes.

Based on the literature reviewed above, the following hypotheses were derived:

H1: There will be a significant negative correlation between authoritarian parenting style and self-esteem.

H2: There will be a significant positive correlation between authoritative parenting style and self-esteem.

Win, (1996) conducted a research entitled "Parenting Styles and Assertiveness of Selected Students at Assumption University". This research examined the dominant parenting style received by the students of Assumption University. It assessed their levels of assertiveness and the correlation between parenting styles and assertiveness. A questionnaire was employed to collect the data. The subjects were distributed into three groups of parenting styles; authoritative, authoritarian and uninvolved, with the use of a parenting style test. The assertiveness of the students was measured with "College Self-Expression Scale". The findings indicated that the dominant parenting style among those students was "Authoritarian". The results established a significant relationship between negative and total assertiveness with parenting styles. This suggests that students with warm and nurturing parents are more capable of expressing their feelings and standing up for their rights.

Other studies based on parent interviews, child reports and parent observations aimed at finding whether parenting style predicts child well-being in the domains of social competence, psychosocial development, and problem behavior came up with consistent findings. The papers reported that children and adolescents whose parents are authoritative rate themselves and are rated by objective measures as more socially and instrumentally competent than those whose parents are non-authoritative (Baumrind,

1991, Weiss & Schwarz, 1996; Miller et al., 1993). Among the variables measuring socially competence was assertiveness.

Radziszewska, Richardson, Dent & Flay, (1996) conducted a study regarding parenting styles and several demographic factors, such as gender and ethnicity. In that study involving 3,993 ninth-grade students, the researchers found a significant relation between gender and parenting styles. Boys were more likely than girls to have more permissive parents. In addition, they found significant ethnic differences among parenting styles. For instance Caucasian parents were more likely to utilize an authoritative parenting style than were African-American, Asian and Latino parents.

H3: Adolescents receiving authoritative parenting styles will be more assertive than their counterparts who receive authoritarian parenting styles.

H4: Male adolescents will report more assertiveness than their female counterparts.

In most studies reviewed, it was reported that adolescents raised in authoritative homes (that is, receiving the authoritative parenting style) continue to show the same advantages in psychosocial development and mental health over their non-authoritatively raised peers (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Steinberg, Darling, Mounts, Dornbusch & Lamborn, 1994). Precisely, it revealed that adolescents from authoritative homes achieve more in school, report less depression and anxiety and score high on self esteem.

In addition, other researchers report that (McLeod & Shanahan 1993) “authoritarian” parenting style is linked with negative child and adolescent outcomes whereas in contrast an “authoritative” parenting style, has links to positive outcomes among children and adolescents (Amato & Booth 1997; Baumrind 1971; Maccoby & Martin 1983; McLeod et al., 1994). For the purpose of this study, negative child outcomes will be related to emotions which show that adolescents are Depressed, Anxious or Stressed.

In another study “Optimism as a Mediator of the Relation between Perceived Parental Authoritativeness and Adjustment among Adolescents: Finding the Sunny Side of the Street”, Jackson et al. (2005), conducted two longitudinal studies. They examined the hypothesis “the relation between authoritative parenting and adolescents’ adjustment as mediated by adolescents’ level of dispositional optimism”. In Study 1, university students’ perceptions that their parents were authoritative predicted higher self-esteem, lower depression, and better university adjustment during the students’ transition into, and throughout, university. In Study 2, high school students’ perception that their parents were authoritative predicted higher self-esteem and lower depression six years later when they were young adults, and in both studies these relations were mediated by students’ level of dispositional optimism.

However, Steinberg, et al. (2006) revealed that Adolescents’ reports of internalized distress differed significantly by parenting style. This was from their study “the Patterns of Competence and Adjustment among Adolescents from Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, and Neglectful Homes: A Replication in a Sample of Serious Juvenile

Offenders”. Adolescents with authoritative or authoritarian parents reported significantly less anxiety than those with neglectful parents; no other pair wise comparisons were significant. The groups did not differ with respect to reports of clinical symptoms of depression. Steinberg et al’s results provide mixed support for the contention that adolescents raised in disadvantaged neighborhoods may not be as harmed by authoritarian parenting as are those who grew up under more advantaged circumstances. In contrast to findings from studies of community samples, which typically show that adolescents from authoritarian homes report more internalized distress than adolescents from authoritative homes, they did not find evidence favoring adolescents from authoritative homes in this domain. However, they predicted advantages for adolescents from authoritative homes with respect to psychosocial maturity. In no instance did adolescents from authoritarian homes significantly outperform those from authoritative homes.

According to Paikoff, Brooks-Gunn, & Warren, 1991, the onset of puberty and associated hormonal changes may influence adolescents’ emotional states. Depression is therefore common when adolescents are experiencing stressful transitions example, changing schools or facing disruptions in family relationships.

Based on these related literature it was be hypothesized that:

H5: Authoritarian parenting style will correlate positively with adolescents’ Depression, Anxiety and Stress.

H6: Authoritative parenting style will correlate negatively with adolescents' Depression, Anxiety and Stress.

Summary of Hypotheses

H1: There will be a significant negative correlation between authoritarian parenting style and self-esteem.

H2: There will be a significant positive correlation between authoritative parenting style and self-esteem.

H3: Adolescents receiving authoritative parenting styles will be more assertive than their counterparts who receive authoritarian parenting styles.

H4: Male adolescents will report more assertiveness than their female counterparts.

H5: Authoritarian parenting style will correlate positively with adolescents' Depression, Anxiety and Stress.

H6: Authoritative parenting style will correlate negatively with adolescents' Depression, Anxiety and Stress.

Operational Definition of Terms

1. **Parent:** A parent is the person under whose guidance a child is being brought up. This may either be a biological parent, one who has legal or social obligation to do so.
2. **Parenting style** refers to the general pattern of care giving that provides a context for specific episodes of parental childrearing behaviors. With respect to this study

the following main parenting styles were used: authoritative, authoritarian and permissive.

3. **Permissive/Indulgent parenting style:** Parents who adopt this style are warm and accepting, but make no demands or set limits on their children. Since they are non-controlling, these parents allow their children to regulate their own behavior. They allow their children to make their own decisions at any age. "This parent makes few demands, administers little punishment, sets no guidelines, has little structure and avoids asserting authority" (Pike, 1996)
4. **Authoritative parenting style:** Authoritative parents provide their child with warmth, attention, and autonomy, yet they set limits and are demanding. They encourage their child to be independent and individualistic. They also engage in discussion and explanations over matters of discipline and family decision making, thus parents listen patiently to a child's point of view as well as provide sensitive guidance.
5. **Authoritarian/Autocratic parenting style:** This is the parenting style in which parents set high standards, place a high value on conformity, and expect obedience without any questions or comments. They are demanding and unresponsive to a child's needs. They feel that children should obey their parents and not talk back.

6. **Assertiveness** is the ability to act in one's own best interests, or the ability to express yourself and your rights without violating the rights of others.
7. **Self-esteem** is a positive or negative orientation toward oneself; an overall evaluation of one's worth or value.
8. **Emotions:** Emotions involve a variety of feelings that, in the normal situation, enrich a person's life. But this study concentrates on the emotions; Depression, Stress and Anxiety which will be assessed with the use of the Depression, Anxiety and Stress scale by Lovibond, S.H. & Lovibond, P.F. (1995).
9. **Child:** Any person below the age of 19 years. (Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs. 1998)
10. **Adolescents:** All those who have attained the age of 12 to the age of 19 years old.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Design

This study used the survey design research in obtaining information from participants. The variables measured included parenting styles, self-esteem, assertiveness, emotions and gender. The following were measured:

- The effect of parenting styles on self-esteem
- The effect of parenting styles on assertiveness
- The effect of gender on assertiveness
- The effect of parenting styles on emotions

Setting

A population of adolescents (between the ages of 12 and 19 years) in Senior Secondary Schools within the Greater Accra Region was involved in the study.

Participants

From the population, two hundred adolescents were sampled based on Tabachnick & Fidell (1996)'s recommendation. They suggested that for a social science research to have a significant result, $N > 50 + 8m$ (where m = number of independent variables). Based on this, a sample size above 58 should help achieve a significant result. Two hundred (200) adolescents for the study were therefore justified.

From this sample, the systematic sampling technique was used to select five (5) schools from the list of all Senior Secondary Schools in the Greater Accra Region. These schools comprised of public and private schools, single sex schools (both boys and girls schools) as well as mixed schools.

Forty (40) students were then selected from each of the five (5) selected schools. With the use of a simple random technique students were selected from forms one, two and three.

Instruments

PARENTING STYLES

The Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) developed by Buri, (1991) specifically for an adolescent was used in tapping the various parenting styles namely, Authoritarian, Authoritative and Permissive Parenting Styles. The PAQ consisted of 30 statements about parents, scored on a five (5) point likert scale and ranged from 1=strongly disagree to five (5) strongly agree. Ten statements describe behaviors representative of authoritative parenting, ten of authoritarian parenting, and ten of permissive parenting. Test-retest reliability estimates were $r = .78$ for mother's authoritativeness, $r = .86$ for mother's authoritarianism, $r = .81$ for mother's permissiveness, $r = .92$ for father's authoritativeness, $r = .85$ for father's authoritarianism, and $r = .77$ for father's permissiveness (Buri, 1991).

SELF-ESTEEM

The Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale was used to assess adolescent self esteem. The scale consisted of 10 items which were scored on a 4 point likert scale. The scale generally has high reliability: test-retest correlations are typically in the range of .82 to .88, and Cronbach's alpha for various samples are in the range of .77 to .88 (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1993 and Rosenberg, 1986). It has also been used in Ghana by MacGodswill, (2003) who reported a Cronbach's alpha of .86

EMOTIONS

To assess the emotions of adolescents, three indicators namely; Depression, Stress and Anxiety were measured. The Depression Anxiety and Stress Scale (DASS) by Lovibond, S.H. & Lovibond, P.F. (1995) was used to assess all these emotional indicators. This is a 42 item self-report inventory that measured three emotional states; Depression, Anxiety and Stress. Each question was rated on a 4 point likert scale, from 0 (Did not apply to me) to 3 (Applied to me very much or most of the time). Gamma coefficients that represent the loading of each scale on the overall factor (total score) are: .71 for depression, .86 for anxiety and .88 for stress. Reliability of the three scales is considered adequate and test-retest reliability is likewise considered adequate with .71 for depression, .79 for anxiety and .81 for stress (Brown et al., 1997). Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses have sustained the proposition of the three factors ($p < .05$; Brown et al, 1997). The DASS anxiety scale correlates .81 with the Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI), and the DASS Depression scale correlates .74 with the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI).

ASSERTIVENESS

The assertiveness inventory developed by Alberti & Emmons, (1978) was used to assess assertiveness. The scale consisted of 35 self report questions with response ranging from 0 (no or never) to 4 (practically always or entirely). It is reported to have a high validity of .93 and a test retest reliability of .77.

PROCEDURE

A pilot study was first conducted which confirmed that indeed the instruments used were valid and reliable. Its pretest helped the researcher to reframe some questions which came along as problematic for the adolescents.

A letter of introduction from the Department of Psychology, University of Ghana was sent to the various schools. This was aimed at identifying the researcher as a postgraduate student and to seek permission to engage their students. When permission was given, a date and time was fixed for the actual study to be carried out. The study followed the same design and procedure for each of the 5 schools sampled.

On the day and time fixed, students were randomly selected from the population of students in the school with the help of a teacher or school prefect. When the students were settled, the researcher first, introduced herself and then informed the participants about the purpose of the study. After that, permission was sort again for those who want to partake in the study. They were notified of their free will to participate or decline from the study at any point in time. The students were also instructed not to write their names on the questionnaires and they were assured of confidentiality. After they had agreed to participate, each participant was given the questionnaire and pencil to use in completing the questionnaire. Lastly they were asked to fill it out as honestly as possible and also to call the researcher if there is any statement or word that they did not understand. After each participant had finished with his or her questionnaire, the researcher thanked the

participants and gave a little token to show appreciation for the time spent in completing the questions.

SCORING

In scoring the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ), each question reflected a particular kind of parenting style, and for each style, there are 10 questions. Questions 1, 6, 10, 13, 14, 17, 19, 21, 24 and 28 are those reflecting the permissive parenting style. 2, 3, 7, 9, 12, 16, 18, 25, 26 and 29 are those for the authoritarian parenting style and questions 4, 5, 8, 11, 15, 20, 22, 27 and 30 are questions for authoritative parenting style (see Appendix I). Each response was also on a 5 point likert type of scale with 5 being the strongest. So, all the answers for each style were added together to get the total score for each parenting style. The highest number represented the parenting style of parent of the particular adolescent.

To score the Rosenberg SES values were assigned to each of the 10 items as follows:

- For items 1 2 4 6 7: Strongly Agree=3, Agree=2, Disagree=1 and Strongly Disagree=0
- For items 3,5,8,9,10 (which are reversed in valence): Strongly Agree=1 Agree=2 Disagree=3 and Strongly Disagree=4

Total scores ranged from 10 to 40 with 40 being the highest. Therefore, low self esteem reflected in scores between 10 and 25 and high self esteem scores were from 26 to 40.

In scoring the DASS, a sum of scores for each of the seven questions completed by each participant in each of the sub-scales, was evaluated as per the severity-rating index, given on a range of Normal, Mild, Moderate, Severe and Extremely Severe.

The assertivness scale was scored on a 5 point likert scale with 0=no or never; 1=somewhat or sometimes; 2=average; 3=usually or a good deal; and 4=practically always or entirely. Assertiveness was reflected on point 4; however, questions 2, 5, 9, 11, 15 and 17 were scored in the reverse, such that a score of 0 reflected assertiveness.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) was used in analyzing the data. First a descriptive analysis was done to calculate the means and standard deviations for the various variables.

The Pearson product moment correlation was used to analyze hypotheses 1, 2, 5 and 6; whereas hypotheses 3 and 4 were assessed with a Two-Way Analysis of Variance.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The study investigated relationship between parenting style, assertiveness and emotions (Depression, Anxiety and Stress). This chapter presents results obtained from the analysis of the data.

The first hypothesis states that “There will be a significant negative correlation between authoritarian parenting style and self-esteem”. Relevant information on this hypothesis is shown in the table below. It would be recalled that although the researcher set out to investigate three parenting styles, the result established only two parenting styles, as such these two forms the basis of the analysis presented in the results.

Table 4.1 Summary table of Pearson product moment correlation coefficient showing the relationship between authoritarian parenting style and self-esteem.

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Df	R	P
Authoritarian parenting style	64	37.69	3.44	62	-0.18	>.05
Self Esteem	64	21.34	2.89			
R(62)=-0.18, P>.05						

As shown in Table 4.1, the mean score obtained on authoritarian parenting style (by those who score high) was 37.69 with a standard deviation of 3.44. The mean self-esteem on the other hand was 21.36 with a standard deviation of 2.89. These means were correlated and the results are presented. Results in the table revealed that a negative correlation exists between authoritarian parenting style and self-esteem. However, this correlation was not significant [$r(62) = -0.175, p = n.s.$]. This implies that hypothesis one was not supported by the data.

The second hypothesis was stated as “There will be a significant positive correlation between authoritative parenting style and self-esteem”. Information on this hypothesis is presented in the table below.

Table 4.2. Summary table of Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient showing the relationship between Authoritative Parenting style and Self-Esteem.

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Df	R	P
Authoritative Parenting style	136	38.38	4.33	134	0.092	ns
Self Esteem	136	22.13	6.20			
R(134)-0.092, P=ns						

As shown in the table, the mean score of authoritative parenting style was 38.38 with a standard deviation of 4.33. Recorded self-esteem mean score for these respondents was 22.18 with a standard deviation of 6.20. The two variables were correlated using the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient Statistics. Results obtained from the

analysis revealed that a positive correlation exists between authoritative parenting style and self-esteem as hypothesized. Meanwhile this correlation was not significant [$r(134) = 0.092, p = n.s$].

Further, the impact of parenting style and gender on assertiveness was examined and this was stated in hypotheses 3 and 4 as “Adolescents receiving authoritative parenting styles will be more assertive than their counterparts who receive authoritarian parenting styles” and “Male adolescents will report more assertiveness than their female counterparts” respectively. Relevant information on these two hypotheses is presented in the table below.

Table 4.3: Two-Way Analysis of Variance Summary Table on Assertiveness among Participants Categorized by Parenting Style and Gender

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Parenting Style	386.519	1	386.519	2.864	n.s
Sex	561.341	1	561.341	4.159	<0.05
Parentals * Sex	13.937	1	13.937	.103	n.s
Error	26454.281	196	134.971	-	-
Total	27416.078	199	-	-	-

As shown in the table, mean assertiveness reported by adolescents who received authoritarian parenting style was 84.94 with a standard deviation of 12.47. Adolescents who received authoritative parenting style had a mean of 87.35 with a standard deviation of 11.36. Male adolescents had mean assertiveness of 88.28 with a standard deviation of 10.95. Their female counterparts had a mean of 84.88 with a standard deviation of 12.32. These means were subjected to Two-Way Analysis of Variance.

Table 4.3.1: Mean and Standard Deviation of Assertiveness among Participants Categorized by Parenting Style and Gender

Parenting Style Category	Sex	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Authoritarian	Male	86.1000	11.39005	40
	Female	83.0000	14.13599	24
	Total	84.9375	12.47203	64
Authoritative	Male	89.7333	10.48626	60
	Female	85.4737	11.72516	76
	Total	87.3529	11.35523	136
Total	Male	88.2800	10.94715	100
	Female	84.8800	12.31676	100
	Total	86.5800	11.74707	200

Results in Table 4.3, indicates that parenting had no significant effect on the assertiveness of the adolescents [$F(1,196) = 2.864, p = n.s.$]. This means that the third hypothesis that “Adolescents receiving authoritative parenting styles will be more assertive than their counterparts who receive authoritarian parenting styles” was not supported by the data.

Table 4.3 further revealed that sex had a significant effect on the assertiveness of the adolescents [$F(1,196) = 4.159, p < 0.05$]. Mean assertiveness obtained by the male adolescents was 88.28 whilst that of their female counterparts was 84.88 (ref. Table 4.3.1). Meanwhile, the higher the mean the more the assertiveness. This indicates that the male adolescents reported more assertiveness than the female adolescents. This was stated in hypothesis four and therefore implies that it was supported.

It was also hypothesized that “Authoritative parenting style will correlate negatively with adolescents’ Depression, Anxiety and Stress”. Relevant information on this hypothesis is presented in the table below.

Table 4.4: Summay table of Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient showing the relationship between Authoritative Parenting Style and Emotions

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Df	R	P
Emotions (DAS)	136	86.64	23.82	134	0.13	ns
Authoritative Parenting Style	136	38.38	4.33			
R(134)0.13, P=ns						

Results in Table 4.4 shows that mean authoritative parenting style was 38.38 with a standard deviation of 4.33. Mean emotions reported however, was 86.74 with a standard deviation of 23.82. Results in the table revealed that positive correlation exists between authoritative parenting style and emotions. This correlation was not significant [$r(62) = 0.132, p = n.s.$]. This implies that the fifth hypothesis was not supported.

The final hypothesis states that “Authoritarian parenting style will correlate positively with adolescent’s Depression, Anxiety and Stress”. Relevant information is shown is presented in the table below.

Table 4.5: Summay table of Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient showing the relationship between Authoritarian Parenting Style and Emotions

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Df	R	P
Emotions (DAS)	64	87.20	21.36	62	0.04	ns
Authoritarian Parenting Style	64	37.69	3.44			
R(62)=0.04, P=ns						



As revealed in Table 4.5, mean authoritarian parenting style was 37.69 with a standard deviation of 3.44. Mean emotions on the other hand was 87.20 with a standard deviation of 21.36. Results in Table 4.5 indicate that positive correlation exists between authoritarian parenting style and emotions. However, this correlation was not significant [$r(62) = 0.044, p = n.s.$]. This implies that the final hypothesis was also not supported.

MISCELLANEOUS FINDINGS

Findings of the study further revealed that the sample was made up of 100 male and 100 female adolescents. Out of this, 64 (32%) reported of receiving authoritarian parenting style whilst the rest 136 (68%) claimed they received authoritative parenting style. This indicates that none of the participants received permissive parenting style. It was also observed that 118 (59%) of the participants were staying with both parents. Those staying with their mothers only were 54 (27%) whilst the rest 28(14%) claimed they were staying with their father only. The mean age of the respondents was 16.43 with a standard deviation of 1.26.

On whether the respondents are likely to treat their children the same way their parents treats them, 100 (50%) responded in the affirmative. Eighty respondents (40%) mentioned they would not treat their children the same way their parents treat them. The rest 20 (10%) were neutral (did not say yes or no) but gave reasons.

Those who claimed they would treat their children the same way their parents treat them were of the following opinions

-I like my parent's treatment-disciplinarian

- My parent's style of treatment will help my children
- My parent's treatment was good/they taught me the right things
- My parents gave me good advice which I would use for my children
- My parents helped me which I would repeat for my children
- My parents gave me love, care and affection and I would do the same to my children.

Those who reported that they would not treat their children the same way their parents treated them also provided the following reasons

- I believe I can treat my children in a better way
- I do not like the way my parents treat me
- I would like to allow my children to bring their opinions first
- My parents do not meet all my needs and I would not do this to my children
- My parents are not educated which is reflected in their training style which I would not use on my children
- My parents do not have time for me and I would not do the same for my children

Those who were neutral on the other hand indicated that they would use the good aspects of their parents treatment and leave the bad ones and that they would also improve upon their parents treatment in treating their children

Table 4.6 Descriptive Statistics on Miscellaneous Findings

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	200	14.00	19.00	16.4300	1.26217
Valid N (listwise)	200				

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

The study examined the relationship between parenting styles, adolescents self-esteem, emotional state and assertiveness. The aim was to find out whether the various parenting styles affect the self-esteem, emotions or assertiveness of adolescents. Questionnaire measuring parenting style received by adolescents and their self-esteem, emotions (Depression, Anxiety and Stress) and assertiveness was presented to the participants. Data analysis using inferential statistics partially supported the hypotheses of the study. These hypotheses and their outcomes have been discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

Hypothesis one stated that, there will be a significant negative correlation between authoritarian parenting style and self-esteem. The results indicated a negative correlation existed between authoritarian parenting style and self-esteem. However this correlation was statistically not significant. This finding is in line with Darling's, (2005) which indicated that children and adolescents from authoritarian families have poorer self-esteem. The explanation behind this hypothesis is that, parents who utilize authoritarian parenting styles tend to control the child's behavior such that it discourages discussion. In addition, parents who use this method tend to rely upon punishments which stifle the child's inclination to free expression. This in turn plays down on the child's overall evaluation of himself. According to Pike, (1996), children who are consistently treated under authoritarian parenting styles tend to be withdrawn, rebellious, and unhappy. Such children also have low self-esteem, lack intellectual curiosity, and react to others with hostility when frustrated.

Following the evidence in the literature review, the second hypothesis of the study stated that there will be a significant positive correlation between authoritative parenting style and self-esteem. The analysis revealed a positive correlation between authoritative parenting style and self-esteem as was hypothesized. However, the results did not reach statistical significance. This result supports the findings by Marisol, (1997) which reported that Authoritative parenting style builds self-esteem. It is explained that Authoritative parenting teaches a child to think and behave assertively. For instance, if a child knows what the parents require from him or her, parental demands become a goal in itself such that the attainment of the demands becomes fulfilling and allows the child to develop a sense of self worth. It should be recalled that self esteem is defined as an overall evaluation of one's worth or value. The above explanation is in line with that offered by Darling (2005) who indicates that authoritative parents have the ability to balance their conformity demands with their respect for their children's individuality, so the children from authoritative homes are able to balance the claims of external conformity and achievement demands with their need for individuation and autonomy.

It is further noted that authoritative parenting, which balances clear, high parental demands with emotional responsiveness and recognition of child autonomy contributes to child competence from early childhood through adolescence. The relationship between parenting style and self esteem is therefore indirect: Authoritative parental practices seem to enhance the child's sense of personal control which in turn enhances the child's self esteem.

The third hypothesis indicated that “Adolescents receiving authoritative parenting styles will be more assertive than their counterparts who receive authoritarian parenting styles”. The results indicated that parenting had no significant effect on the assertiveness of adolescents in this study. This finding does not support the report from Win, (1996) and others such as Baumrind, (1991) and Weiss & Schwarz (1996) who suggested that children who are brought up under authoritative styles are more capable of expressing their feelings and standing for their rights.

A general explanation which can be offered for the current findings is based on cultural underpinnings. It is commonly known that Ghanaians are by nature not ‘assertive’. This is because the social and cultural norms do not encourage the spirit of competition or self importance because of the collectivistic nature of the society. The various evidences in the current literature (Win, (1996); Weiss & Schwarz 1996; and Baumrind, 1991), which found an association between parenting styles and assertiveness, had been conducted in Western cultures which encourage individualism and as such the importance of the child to act in his or her own interest rather than that of the group. Thus assertiveness may have to be culturally defined because it might mean different things in different cultures. Is it possible to consider a child who thinks of his/her parental or societal well-being as assertive in the Ghanaian context?

The fourth hypothesis indicated that Male adolescents will report more assertiveness than their female counterparts.

The analysis revealed a statistical significance for assertiveness and gender. The results indicated that males reported more assertiveness than females. This finding supports such studies as ones by Radziszewska et al (1996). The result finds explanation in the different ways boys and girls are brought up. Kremen & Block, (1998) suggest that some parents socialize girls and boys differently. In their longitudinal study, parents treated their sons and daughters differently in early childhood. Such treatment differential appears to influence assertive behaviors among boys and girls.

In addition, the wording on the questions on assertiveness scale seemed to lean towards behaviors which are considered male-oriented in the Ghanaian context. For example assertiveness measures such as *“openly critical of others ideas, opinions or behavior”* and *“speaking up in public”* are often thought of as being exhibited by boys in our study context. Thus, the social desirability of such measure could have influenced the response of the female participants.

Hypothesis five stated that Authoritarian parenting style will correlate positively with adolescents' Depression, Anxiety and Stress. This implies that children will experience high levels of depression, anxiety and stress as their parents use more of the authoritarian parenting style. As a replication of results obtained in other studies, (Armato & Booth 1997; McLeod et al. 1994) the findings of this study supported the hypothesis. A positive correlation was observed between authoritarian parenting style and emotions. It is noted that authoritarian style tends to make children withdrawn, lacking spontaneity and social initiative despites its good intention of making children strong and better able to function

socially. The outcome is attributable to the fact that, Authoritarian parents stress limits and rules which cover overt expressions of love. This style of parenting places value on obedience and respect, they do not negotiate rules and chores. Additionally, this style of parenting places emphasis on family hierarchy, with parents at the top and children last, which demoralize the child to such an extent that they become emotionally withdrawn (Darling, 1999). Baumrind, (1991) notes that getting children to follow strict rules through punitive enforcement, such as seen in Authoritarian parenting, makes children dependent on the moral opinion of others. Authoritarian parents thus are good at control but lack in their emotional sensitivity and availability for the child. This may be one of the possible explanations for the positive correlation between Authoritarian parenting and adolescents emotions. Another explanation could be that, the controlling nature of Authoritarian parenting may seem overbearing especially as children reach adolescence. It is noted that the period of adolescence is one marked by influx of emotions and any over controlling from parents only serves to aggravate the adolescents ability to address emotional ups and down at this crucial stage of development resulting in depression, stress and anxiety (Santrock, 2002).

The sixth hypothesis postulated that Authoritative parenting style will correlate negatively with adolescents' Depression, Anxiety and Stress. This implies that the more a parent employs the authoritative parenting style, the more likelihood that a child who receives this style will report less depression, anxiety and stress. The result did not support the hypothesis; it showed that a positive correlation exists between authoritative parenting style and emotions. This result does not support the numerous evidences in the

current literature which suggest the opposite. For instance, Steinberg, Darling, Mounts, Dorbusch & Lamborn, (1994) reports that adolescents from authoritative homes report less depression and anxiety.

As has been discussed earlier on in the literature review, adolescence is a transitory process where adolescents may experience both physical and emotional changes (Paikoff, Brooks-Gunn, & Warren, 1991; Santrock, 2002). For this reason, research has shown that negative emotional outcomes such as depression are more likely to occur in adolescence than in childhood. Identified predisposing factors vary and therefore parental styles may be just one of them as there are no one single pathways to depression, anxiety and stress. The findings of this current study which reveals a positive correlation between authoritative parenting and emotions comes as no surprise. This is because, depression or anxiety for that matter have more than one attributing factors. It is possible that the participants of the study may be expressing their negative emotional outcomes through the parenting outlet.

Miscellaneous Findings

Although Baumrind, identified three parenting typology namely authoritative, authoritarian and permissive. The participants of this study did not respond to reflect the permissive parenting style. It will be recalled that permissive parenting style has been described as the kind in which parents set no demand or limit for their children. The parents tend to be non-controlling and allow their children to regulate their own behavior (Pike, 1996). Reflecting on parenting in the Ghanaian context mentioned in the

introduction, the upbringing of a child is not the sole responsibility of parents. Almost everyone in the society has a part to play. Such that in cases where parents might want to employ the permissive parenting style, social pressure will not allow. It follows then that parenting in Ghana is much influenced by society.

Implications of the Study

Following the discussions so far, the following paragraphs are going to give consideration to implications of the findings for parenting styles in Ghana and adolescents self-esteem, emotional state and assertiveness,

Implications for Parenting in Ghana

This current study revealed that there are two types of parenting in Ghana. These are the authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles. This shows that parenting in Ghana, largely emphasizes control. However, the level to which control is exercised varies such that authoritarian is high on control and authoritative is low.

The study showed that Authoritarian parenting discourages discussions between parent and child. This implies that it will be difficult for parents to know what is on the minds of their children and this makes it difficult to help them when there is the need to. The explanation for this finding is that, parents who utilize authoritarian parenting styles tend to control the child's behavior such that it discourages discussion. In addition, parents who use this method tend to rely upon punishments which stifle the child's inclination to free expression. This in turn plays down on the child's overall evaluation of himself.

Also such punitiveness, be it verbal or physical may lead their children to develop hostility toward them (parents) and may resist or reject their authority. A cycle of punitive responses can be created as children may respond to their parents' punitive behavior with their own punitive behaviors (such as yelling or insulting parents) (Patterson, Reid & Dishion, 1998).

On the other hand, authoritative parents provide their children with warmth, attention, and autonomy, yet they set limits and are demanding. They encourage their children to be independent and individualistic. When parents adopt such behaviors, it fosters the development of social competence of their adolescents. Another characteristic of authoritative parents is that they engage in discussion and explanations over matters of discipline and family decision making, thus parents listen patiently to a child's point of view as well as provide sensitive guidance. By spending such time with their children, such parents foster close ties and communicate confidence in their adolescents' abilities. Warm supportive parenting also prepares adolescents for intimate peer relation (Laursen & Williams, 1997; Peterson & Leigh, 1990). Such parents are also likely to have their children select peers who reinforce rather than contradict parental values (Fabes & Martin, 2000).

Implications for adolescents' self esteem, emotional state and assertiveness

Adolescents tend to have an overall sense of worth that is low when their parents tend to be authoritarian. Such adolescents are more likely to have problems in school, use drugs and develop problem behavior than their peers (Patterson, Reid & Dishion, 1998).

In the discussion of the findings, it was said that the relationship between parenting style and self-esteem is indirect. This is because parental demandingness which is coupled with warmth encourages in children the desire to achieve. When parental demands are reasonable and attainable, children can personalize them and this may in turn enhance their self-esteem. Parents would therefore want to consider how their demands on their children are going to affect them in the long-term (Finkenauer et al 2005). With this in mind, parents may desist from setting demands which may be unreachably high for their children. This is because, doing so will only contribute to their children developing negative image of themselves in their inability to please their parents and thus contribute to a low self-esteem. After all, the desire of parents is to raise well-behaved, well-adjusted children.

This study also documented a relationship between parenting style and emotions among adolescents, at least, a positive correlation was observed between authoritarian parenting and emotions. It revealed that children who view their parents as authoritarian report more stress, anxiety and depression. The study also noted that children under authoritative parenting also experienced high levels of stress, anxiety and depression. This finding is an indication that there is more at stake than parenting style. It is noted that adolescence brings a surge of emotions (Santrock, 2002); however other factors may aggravate this experience and result in clinical stress, anxiety and depression. It will therefore be appropriate to do an extensive study on adolescents' emotions. This is with the view to unearthing other factors affecting adolescents' emotion in Ghana.

Limitations of the Study

Some participants sort the help of the researcher to clarify some questions. This might have influenced their response. In that, it is possible some participants did not understand some questions too but did not have the courage to seek clarification.

The time given to engage participants were during their break periods or just before classes begun. This might have caused participants to respond in a rush either to enjoy their lunch break or go to their classrooms for their lessons.

The correlation design of this research prevented us from excluding the influence of third variables that might have influenced some results. For example, that observed in hypothesis six (6) which has been discussed that it is possible that the emotional ups and downs that comes with the adolescent age might be a factor as to why authoritative parenting style correlated positively to adolescent emotions instead of a negative correlation.

This current study consisted of adolescents' self-reports including that reflecting the kind of parenting style they receive. It was assumed there is some resemblance between the adolescents' perception and actual parental behavior. There must have been some discrepancies and the extent of this is unknown. It would have been a better option to have both parents and adolescents response in the same study, but, one can not conclude that the parents are more accurate reporters than their children. However, adolescent self report was preferred in this study because of the importance of subjective experience.

This is because the most substantial reality for adolescent is the version they construct for themselves (Finkenauer, C. et al, 2005).

Recommendations

It should be established whether those who are receiving authoritative parenting style will treat their children the same way they have been treated or whether those who were treated with the authoritarian parenting style will do the same or not.

Participants should be engaged to fill the questionnaire at a time where that is their main focus with minimal distractions.

It is also being recommended that authoritative child rearing approach using warmth, attention, autonomy and setting limits must be used by parents to enhance healthy emotional development in adolescents rather than authoritarian parenting using physical punishment and “obey before complain tactics” which increase unhealthy emotional states in adolescents.

An extensive research should be conducted to capture what really reflects assertiveness in the Ghanaian context. This should then be used in subsequent studies that measures assertiveness.

Summary and Conclusion

What are the different parenting styles and do they have effects of the self-esteem, assertiveness and emotions of adolescents? The research offered no definitive conclusions although some consistent patterns emerged.

The study investigated the relationship between parenting styles and adolescents self esteem, emotional state, and assertiveness. It was aimed at determining whether the different parenting styles adopted by parents in raising their children affect the self-esteem, emotions and assertiveness of the children. Two hundred children from both private and public secondary schools within the Greater Accra Region participated in the study by completing questionnaires. Data analysis with the use of SPSS revealed two forms of parenting styles namely; authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles. The results indicated that self esteem of adolescents increased when their parents used the authoritative parenting style whereas self esteem decreased when parents used the authoritarian parenting style. In relation to effects of parenting style on assertiveness, there was no effect established with respect to the various forms of parenting, however it did establish that males were more assertive than females in this study. And in the area of emotions, it established that as parents use authoritarian parenting style, their adolescents become more depressed, anxious and or stressed but surprisingly revealed that this was also the case when parents use authoritative parenting style. Even though it has been discussed that the study encountered certain problems; it is believed that these might not have affected the results in anyway. In light of this, the suggestions given for future research should be taken into account in later studies.

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

I am Esther Sankah, a student of the University of Ghana, Legon, pursuing a study leading to the award of an M.Phil degree in Clinical Psychology. I will be grateful if you will spend some time to complete this questionnaire for me. The aim of this study is to find out the relationship between parenting styles and development of adolescents. You are not to write your names on the questionnaire, you therefore have nothing to be afraid of. **THIS IS NOT A TEST.** Please give honest answers and do not spend so much time on a question. Information obtained will be treated as confidential. Thank you.

PART I

For each of the following statements, circle the number that best describes how that statement applies to you and your parents. Try to read and think about each statement as it applies to you and your parents during your years of growing up. The rating scale is as follows:

- 1 Strongly disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Sometimes agree and disagree
- 4 Agree
- 5 Strongly agree

1. While I was growing up my parents felt that in a well run home the children should have their way in the family as often as parents do.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Even if their children didn't agree with them, my parents felt that it was for our own good if we were forced to conform to what they thought was right.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Whenever my parents told me to do something as I was growing up, they expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions.	1	2	3	4	5
4. As I was growing up once family policy had been established, my parents discussed the reasoning behind the policy with the children in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
5. My parents have always encouraged verbal give-and-take whenever I have felt that family rules and restrictions were unreasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My parents always felt that what children need is to be free to make up their own minds and to do what they want to do, even if this does not agree with what their parents might want.	1	2	3	4	5
7. As I was growing up my parents did not allow me to question any decision they had made.	1	2	3	4	5
8. As I was growing up my parents directed the activities and decisions	1	2	3	4	5

of the children in the family through reasoning and discipline.					
9. My parents have always felt that more force should be used by parents in order to get their children to behave the way they are supposed to.	1	2	3	4	5
10. As I was growing up my parents did not feel that I needed to obey rules and regulations of behavior simply because someone in authority had established them	1	2	3	4	5
11. As I was growing up I knew what my parents expected of me in my family, but I also felt free to discuss those expectations with my mother/father when I felt that they were unreasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My parents felt that wise parents should teach their children early just who is boss in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
13. As I was growing up, my parents seldom gave me expectations and guidelines for my behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Most of the time as I was growing up my parents did what the children in the family wanted when making family decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
15. As the children in my family were growing up, my parents constantly gave us direction and guidance in rational and objective ways.	1	2	3	4	5
16. As I was growing up my parents would get very upset if I tried to disagree with them.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My parents feel that most problems in society would be solved if parents would not restrict their children's activities, decisions, and desires as they are growing up.	1	2	3	4	5
18. As I was growing up my parents let me know what behaviors they expected of me, and if I didn't meet those expectations they punished me.	1	2	3	4	5
19. As I was growing up my parents allowed me to decide most things for myself without a lot of direction from them.	1	2	3	4	5
20. As I was growing up my parents took the children's opinions into consideration when making family decisions, but they would not decide for something simply because the children wanted it.	1	2	3	4	5
21. My parents did not view themselves as responsible for directing and guiding my behavior as I was growing up.	1	2	3	4	5
22. My parents had clear standards of behavior for the children in our homes as I was growing up, but they were willing to adjust those standards to the needs of each individual child in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
23. My parents gave me direction for my behavior and activities as I was growing up and expected me to follow their direction, but they were willing to listen to my concerns and to discuss that direction with me.	1	2	3	4	5
24. As I was growing up my parents allowed me to form my own point of view on family matters and they generally allowed me to decide for myself what I was going to do.	1	2	3	4	5
25. My parents have always felt that most problems in society would be solved if we could get parents to strictly and forcibly deal with their	1	2	3	4	5

children when they don't do what they are supposed to as they are growing up.					
26. As I was growing up my parents often told me exactly what they wanted me to do and how they expected me to do it.	1	2	3	4	5
27. As I was growing up my parents gave me clear directions for my behavior and activities, but they also understood when I disagreed with them.	1	2	3	4	5
28. As I was growing up my parents did not direct the behaviors, activities, and desires of the children in my family.	1	2	3	4	5
29. As I was growing up I knew what my parents expected of me in the family and they insisted that I conform to those expectations simply out of respect for their authority.	1	2	3	4	5
30. As I was growing up, if my parents made a decision in the family that hurt me, they were willing to discuss that decision with me and to admit it if they had made a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5

PART II

Please read each statement and circle a number 0, 1, 2 or 3 which indicates how much the statement applied to you. The rating scale is as follows:

- 0 Did not apply to me at all
- 1 Applied to me to some degree, or some of the time
- 2 Applied to me a considerable degree or a good part of time
- 3 Applied to me very much, or most of the time

1	I found myself getting upset by quite trivial things	0	1	2	3
2	I was aware of dryness of my mouth	0	1	2	3
3	I couldn't seem to experience any positive feeling at all	0	1	2	3
4	I experienced breathing difficulty (e.g. excessively rapid breathing, breathlessness in the absence of physical exertion)	0	1	2	3
5	I just couldn't seem to get going	0	1	2	3
6	I tended to over-react to situations	0	1	2	3
7	I had a feeling of shakiness (e.g. legs going to give away)	0	1	2	3
8	I found it difficult to relax	0	1	2	3
9	I found myself in situations that made me so anxious I was most relieved when they ended	0	1	2	3
10	I felt that I had nothing to look forward to	0	1	2	3
11	I found myself getting upset rather easily	0	1	2	3
12	I felt that I was using a lot of nervous energy	0	1	2	3
13	I felt sad and depressed	0	1	2	3
14	I found myself getting impatient when I was delayed in any way (e.g. traffic lights, being kept waiting)	0	1	2	3
15	I had a feeling of faintness	0	1	2	3

16	I felt that I had lost interest in just about everything	0	1	2	3
17	I felt I wasn't worth much as a person	0	1	2	3
18	I felt that I was rather touchy	0	1	2	3
19	I perspired noticeably (e.g. hands sweaty) in the absence of high temperatures or physical exertion	0	1	2	3
20	I felt scared without any good reason	0	1	2	3
21	I felt that life wasn't worthwhile	0	1	2	3
22	I found it hard to wind down	0	1	2	3
23	I had difficulty in swallowing	0	1	2	3
24	I couldn't seem to get any enjoyment out of the things I did	0	1	2	3
25	I was aware of the action of my heart in the absence of physical exertion (e.g. sense of heart rate increased, heart missing a beat)	0	1	2	3
26	I felt down-hearted and blue	0	1	2	3
27	I found that I was very irritable	0	1	2	3
28	I felt I was close to panic	0	1	2	3
29	I found it hard to calm down after something upset me	0	1	2	3
30	I feared that I would be "thrown" by some trivial but unfamiliar task	0	1	2	3
31	I was unable to become enthusiastic about anything	0	1	2	3
32	I found it difficult to tolerate interruptions to what I was doing	0	1	2	3
33	I was in a state of nervous tension	0	1	2	3
34	I felt I was pretty worthless	0	1	2	3
35	I was intolerant of anything that kept me from getting on with what I was doing	0	1	2	3
36	I felt terrified	0	1	2	3
37	I could see nothing in the future to be hopeful about	0	1	2	3
38	I felt that life was meaningless	0	1	2	3
39	I found myself getting agitated	0	1	2	3
40	I was worried about situations in which I might panic and make a fool of myself	0	1	2	3
41	I experienced trembling (e.g. in the hands)	0	1	2	3
42	I found it difficult to work up the initiative to do things	0	1	2	3

PART III

Below is a list dealing with your general feelings about yourself. If you Strongly Agree circle SA, if you Agree circle A, if you Disagree circle D and if you Strongly Disagree, circle SD.

		1. STRONGLY AGREE	2 AGREE	3. DISAGREE	4. STRONGLY DISAGREE
1.	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	SA	A	D	SD
2.	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	SA	A	D	SD
3.	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	SA	A	D	SD
4.	I am able to do things as well as most other people.	SA	A	D	SD
5.	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	SA	A	D	SD
6.	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	SA	A	D	SD
7.	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	SA	A	D	SD
8.	I wish I could have more respect for myself.	SA	A	D	SD
9.	I certainly feel useless at times.	SA	A	D	SD
10.	At times I think I am no good at all.	SA	A	D	SD

PART IV

For each statement circle the number that best describes you. The scoring scale is as follows:

0 means no or never

1 means somewhat or sometimes

2 means average

3 means usually or a good deal

4 means practically always or entirely

1. When a person is highly unfair, do you call it to attention? 0 1 2 3 4
2. Do you find it difficult to make decisions? 0 1 2 3 4
3. Are you openly critical of others ideas, opinions, behavior? 0 1 2 3 4
4. Do you challenge someone who takes your place in line? 0 1 2 3 4
5. Do you often avoid people or situations for fear of them making you feel bad?
0 1 2 3 4
6. Do you usually have confidence in your own judgment? 0 1 2 3 4
7. Do you insist that your brothers and sisters take on a fair share of household chores? 0 1 2 3 4
8. Do you easily get upset? 0 1 2 3 4
9. Can you say "No" to a salesman no matter how hard they try when what they are selling is not what you want? 0 1 2 3 4
10. When a latecomer is served before you are, do you call attention to the situation? 0 1 2 3 4
11. Are you uncomfortable to speak up in a discussion or debate? 0 1 2 3 4
12. If a person has borrowed money (or book or thing of value) and is over due in returning it, do you mention it? 0 1 2 3 4
13. Do you continue to argue after the other person has stopped arguing? 0 1 2 3 4
14. Do you generally express what you feel? 0 1 2 3 4
15. Are you disturbed if someone watches you at school? 0 1 2 3 4

Reminder of rating scale:

0 means no or never

1 means somewhat or sometimes

2 means average

3 means usually or a good deal

4 means practically always or entirely

16. If someone keeps kicking or bumping your chair in a movie or in class, do you ask the person to stop? 0 1 2 3 4
17. Do you find it difficult to keep eye contact when talking to another person? 0 1 2 3 4
18. Do you show your anger by name-calling or offensive words? 0 1 2 3 4
19. Do you often step in and make decisions for others? 0 1 2 3 4
20. Are you able openly to express love and affection? 0 1 2 3 4
21. Are you able to ask your friends for small favors or help? 0 1 2 3 4
22. Do you think you always have the right answer? 0 1 2 3 4
23. When you disagree with a person you respect, are you able to speak up for your own viewpoint? 0 1 2 3 4
24. Are you able to refuse unreasonable requests made by friends? 0 1 2 3 4
25. Do you have difficulty complimenting or praising others? 0 1 2 3 4
26. If you are disturbed by someone smoking near you, can you say so? 0 1 2 3 4
27. Do you shout or use bullying tactics to get others to do as you wish? 0 1 2 3 4
28. Do you finish other people's sentences for them? 0 1 2 3 4
29. Do you get into physical fights with others, especially with strangers? 0 1 2 3 4
30. Do you get involved in conversations during family meals? 0 1 2 3 4
31. When you meet a stranger, are you the first to introduce yourself and begin a conversation? 0 1 2 3 4

PART V**BIOGRAPHIC DATA**

1. Name of School.....

2. Form.....

3. Age.....

4. Sex: Male () Female ()

5. Which of the following do you live with at home?

Both parents () Mother only () Father only () Other

(specify).....

6. Are you likely to treat your children the same way your parents have treated you in future? YES () NO () OTHER

(Specify).....

7. Explain your choice of answer to question 6 above.

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