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A STUDY OF ADOLESCENTS' VIEWS ON THE NATURE OF PARENTS-ADOLESCENTS, AND ADOLESCENTS – PEER RELATIONSHIP IN NAIROBI PROVINCE

By

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A research project submitted to the department of Guidance and Counselling in partial fulfillment of the requirements for Masters in Education degree in Kenyatta University

2004

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this project is my original work and has not been presented for degree in any other University.

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18/10/2004
DATE

This project has been submitted to the faculty of Education, Kenyatta University with my approval as the University Supervisor

DR. SAMMY TUMUTI

19/10/2004
DATE

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I would sincerely like to express my gratitude to all those who assisted me in one way or the other during this tedious duration of research work.

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I am greatly indebted to Luisa and Esther for typing my work. Thanks a lot.

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my sons Sam, Martin, Eric and all secondary school adolescents.

ABSTRACT

This study was designed to establish the nature of parent-adolescent and adolescent peers relationship according to adolescents' views. The researcher further intended to find out whether adolescents' gender, age, peer involvement and school type had any significant influence over the nature of parent-adolescent relationship as well as identify their areas of disagreement.

The study had the following objectives:

1. To establish the nature of parent-adolescent relationship as viewed by the adolescents.

2. To determine whether there are differences in the nature of parent-adolescent relationship according to the gender and age of the adolescent.

3. To investigate the nature of adolescent-peer relationship and determine whether parent-adolescent relationship is influenced by the adolescent's level of involvement with peers and school type.

4. To identify the most common areas of disagreement, as perceived by the adolescents.

To get the required data, a random sample of 189 teenagers from six secondary schools in Nairobi Province were selected and questionnaires administered. Data were analysed by use of frequencies, percentages and means.

One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), t-and chi-square tests were used to test the hypotheses.

Study findings revealed that majority (78.3%) of the adolescents had good or very good relationship with their mothers as compared to 42.9% with the fathers and 60.6% with both parents. Only a small percentage (9.0% and 10.6%) with mother and father respectively described their relationship with their parents as not good. Generally, the results show that most adolescents enjoy good relationship with their parents. But a higher percentage of teenagers (56.6%) enjoyed a good relationship with the mother as compared to those who enjoyed a good relationship with the father (26.6%). However, the adolescent-peer relationship was weaker (19.5575) as compared to that of adolescent-father (31.6270) and adolescent-mother (35.2767). Therefore, adolescents relate differently with their peers as compared to the way they relate with parents

The adolescent's gender and age did not significantly influence the nature of parent-adolescent relationship. But the teenager's level of involvement with peers significantly influenced the nature of parent-adolescent relationship. As per the school type the adolescent attended, there was a significant difference on the nature of relationship with the father, but neither with the mother, nor with both parents. Adolescent's choice of friends was the most common and serious area of parent-adolescent disagreement. This was followed by academic performance and coming home late respectively. Results also revealed that if adolescents were honest and free with their parents they would discuss the areas of disagreement between them and their parents.

Therefore, it is recommended that, both parents and adolescents should ensure that there is good communication between them so as to solve any arising disagreement. At the same time, the parents should learn to relinquish power and control over their adolescents gradually as they progress in development. Consequently, adolescents should be involved in decision-making in all areas that concern them in an adult-to-adult atmosphere. This way, it is assumed that the adolescents will feel appreciated, part of the rules, and have a responsibility to honour and respect the decisions reached.

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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Adolescence

The word adolescence comes from Latin verb "adolescere", which means "to grow into adulthood".

Adolescence is described as a period of growing up, of moving from the immaturity of childhood into the maturity of adulthood. It is a critical period of human development characterized by various changes and rapid growth in physical, cognitive, moral, social and emotional development (Rice, 1984). These developmental changes lead to expanded logical reasoning, increased idealized and egocentric, peer friendship, dating and movement towards independence (Ankerman, 1983; Gibson, 1983, Santrock, 1990).

But there is a general disagreement about when adolescence begins and ends. For most people, adolescence is only an intermediate state between being a child and being an adult. The time span is not the same for every person. Society determines the time span (Newman & Newman, 1986).

Sieg in Rice (1984), believes that adolescence is the period of development in human beings that begins when the individual feels that adult privileges are due to him/her which are not yet accorded to him/her, and ends when full power and social status are accorded to the individual by his/her society.

Consequently, social scientists Kagan & Coles, (1972); Keniston, (1970); Lipsitz, (1977) have subdivided adolescence into three stages, namely;

1. Early adolescence – Age 11 to 14 years

2. Middle adolescence – Age 15 to 17 years

3. Late adolescence – Age 18 to 21 years -

Adolescence is often painted as a time of great difficulty and confusion. Adults tend to view adolescence with a mixture of fear and fascination. Adolescents are seen as exciting, enthusiastic and fun to be with, or as frightening mob of unruly creatures headed for ruin (Ankerman, 1983; Ingersoll, 1989). Adolescents are further described as a lost generation. "A generation of Frankenstein monsters, 'pyschotic', 'angry', 'psychopathic', 'malicious' and 'irreparably damaged'" (Straker, 1989, p.20–22).

According to Shertzer and Stone (1971), the adolescent youth are in an age marked by disruption, particularly in the eyes of the adults. Adults descriptions emphasize such factors as resistance of family authority, hypercriticalness towards parents and other adults, over sensitivity to adult suggestions regarding hours, friends and appropriate use of time. Particularly disruptive at this age is an almost infantile selfishness regarding use of family possessions such as radio, telephone, television and bathrooms.

Adults tend to become particularly alarmed about the adolescent's compelling drive to conform to the mannerism, speech and dress of his age group, and his fierce loyalties in retaining and defending his friends. These are partly their way to conform to the standards of the peers so as to feel secure and accepted, or a way to defy parents, neighbours or school. Hence deliberately trying to provoke and outrage adults as a challenge to these authorities (Spock, 1976).

However, at this time of adolescence parents still see the need to exert control over their children, whom they regard as dependent and immature. But, adolescents on the other hand think of themselves as adults worthy of adult trust and

responsibilities (Ingersoll, 1989). This results in a struggle which in some cases causes parent-adolescent conflict and in others a greater appreciation and understanding of each other (Ankerman, 1983; Gibson, 1983; Santrock, 1990).

According to McMahon, McMahon, and Romano, (1990), Smetana's research (1988, 1989), a major contributor to parent-adolescent conflict or arguments is the fact that teenagers and their parents define issues of contention very differently. Parents are likely to see these issues as issues of "right and wrong", not in moral sense, but as matters of custom or convention. Adolescents in contrast, are likely to define these same issues as matters of personal choice – for instance choice of friends, dress and hair styles.

Smetana (1988) believes that teenagers and their parents often clash over the definition of the issue, that is, a matter of custom versus a matter of personal choice than over specific details.

The struggle then is over who has the authority and whose jurisdiction the issue falls into. For example, adolescents feel that they have the upper hand in sexual matters and clothing styles, but can comply with their parents decisions in areas of hard work, educational and occupational ambitions.

Also, tension and misunderstanding in the family during adolescence sometimes result from unfulfilled expectations of parents and teenagers. For instance, a child may enter adolescence expecting that it will be a time of great freedom whereas his or her parents may view the same period as one in which tighter reins are necessary or a child may imagine that adolescence will be a time of increased closeness and shared activities in the family, only to be disappointed to find that her/his parents have been looking forward to having time to themselves (Steinberg, 1990).

Adolescence period is at times described as a time of "storm and stress" (Hall, 1969). According to Hall,

> Adolescence is a stressful time because the adolescent is experiencing a new birth: - undergoing dramatic physical and sexual growth changes, finding his cognitive abilities increasing and his personality less cohesive. Thus, the adolescent passes through a period of disruptive inner turmoil before his entrance into maturity. According to Hall (1969), puberty is a time of great upset, emotional maladjustment and instability in which adolescent's moods oscillate between energy and indifference, gaiety and depression, or egotism and bushfulness (Rice, 1984, p.53).

This view has been widely supported by many psychologists like Freud (1965) who saw adolescence as "A period of internal conflict, psychic disequilibrium, and erratic behaviour ..., egoistic, ... oscillate between blind submission to and rebellion against authority, light-hearted optimism and blackest pessimism, indefatigable enthusiasm and sluggish and apathy" (Rice, 1984, p.58).

Also lay people have supported this view. For example, such erratic behaviour has been observed by teachers, parents and the public at large, and reported by media in Kenyan secondary schools where adolescents have gone on strikes and engaged in unjustifiable behaviour like the rape instance at St. Kizito Secondary School (1991), burning of prefects in Nyeri High School (1999), burning of dormitories and fellow students at Kyanguli Secondary School, (2001) and frequent road barricading and vehicle stoning by University and College students in Nairobi.

However, according to Newman (1986), psychologist, Margaret Mead (1969, 1971 and 1979) gives an opposing view to the "storm and stress" theory. After doing research in Samoa and New Guinea, Mead discovered that the typical woman

undergoes the most peaceful tranquil and pleasant phase of her life during adolescence. Her proponents therefore believe that, depending on culture, stereotypes and expectations, adolescence can be an enjoyable phase of life.

Similarly, according to Mark Twain in McMahon, (1990), the issue of conflicts or generation gap between adolescents and their parents has been grossly exaggerated. Majority of teenagers accept their parents' religious, political, educational, vocational and social values (Bachman, Johnston and O'Malley, 1986; Hill, 1987; Offer, Ostrov and Howard, 1981; Youniss and Smollar, 1985). Only a small percentage of adolescents are openly critical of the older generation. The existence of generation gap is reinforced by the fact that most adolescents and their parents do disagree on issues related to their day-to-day habits and tastes such as type of music and clothes that are acceptable, curfews, household chores, table manners, dating rules and such like issues. These disagreements, which are often the subject of adult conversations, understandably contribute to the general impression that adolescents and their elders do not see eye-to-eye on anything (McMahon, 1990). In fact, Bandura (1964) argued that the view that parents and adolescents are in turmoil is the result of such biases as mass media sensationalism, an over interpretation of superficial signs of non-conformity and inappropriate generalization from samples of deviant adolescents.

According to Nielsen (1991),

> Whether we are 15 or 50, most of us will experience some degree of conflict and stress with our parents. So, the question is not so much whether adolescents and their parents argue and create stress for one another as to how the conflicts between them differ from those of older or younger children and their parents. Conflict is part of any relationship. But the ability to

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satisfactorily resolve differences is a key element to the continuation of a relationship (p.291).

Consequently, some researchers now agree that most adolescents and their parents do experience serious conflicts (Hill, 1987; Montemayor, 1986; Offer, Ostrov & Howard, 1981; Steinberg, 1987). So, adolescence is not conflict-free period for children and their parents. But as adolescents age and their parents grant them more control over their personal matters, the family's conflicts subside (Smetana, 1988). Even though conflicts arise between adolescents and their parents, a strong bond remains between them. Adolescents can display an amazing sensitivity towards their parents. (Grotevant & Cooper, 1983; Youniss and Smollar, 1985).

Adolescence is the time of life when teenagers separate themselves more from their parents. Adolescents become less physically affectionate with their parents. They spend more time away from home with friends, fall in love and plan a future away from the family nest. Unfortunately, these natural and healthy moves towards independence can be misconstrued as signs of widening gap between adolescents and their parents. Even though adolescents spend less time with their parents, but with peers, those teenage friends typically reflect the values and behaviours of their parents, who are their parents' friends and neighbours. (Hartup, 1983; Rubin & Sloman, 1984).

Researchers agree that most adolescents care deeply about their parents' opinions, and maintain a loving relationship while forming an identity of their own. For example, a review of literature shows that adolescents usually name their parents, not their peers, as the most influential people in their lives (Galbo, 1984). Hence, adolescent becomes disobedient and rebellious not so much to defy his parents, but in order to experience his identity and autonomy. He/She is afraid of

being an imitation of an image, chip off the old block (Ginott, 1969). As a result, adolescents are bound to be rivalrous and rebellious whether or not the parent is being reasonable. This is attributed to the inner emotional storms they are experiencing and new adjustments they have to make between new selves and new life they are being called to live (Spock, 1976). The teenager finds himself/herself suspended in time since he/she has not yet earned the freedom of adulthood and has lost the privileges of childhood. He/She feels as though everything that he/she finds appealing is prohibited. For instance, he cannot marry, borrow money on his own, make his own decisions or drive. But he must go to school whether he/she wants it or not. All these don'ts put a strain on relationships between adults and adolescents as long as they are financially dependent on their parents. (Van Pelt, 1984).

In order for the adolescent to adjust well during this period of development, he/she needs guidance and rules from his/her parents no matter how much he/she argues against them. Trusted school teachers and child guidance workers have all heard adolescents say, "I wish my parents would make definite rules for me like my friend's parents do" (Spock, 1976, p.470). This is one aspect of parents' love to want to keep their children from misunderstandings and embarrassing situations out in the world; from giving the wrong impression or gaining an unfortunate reputation, from getting into trouble through inexperience.

Experts believe that it is important for parents and teenagers to begin by trying to understand each others point of view and attempting to jointly define the disagreement as a problem that both sides are eager to resolve. That is, discuss the issues on an adult to adult basis. But the parent's experience should give him/her an upper hand, and make decisions and judgements. Parents owe their adolescents clarity and definiteness (Steinberg and Lavine, 1990).

It is the duty of parents, guardians or society at large to socialize and help adolescents adjust well through this transition period. This can be successively done by adjusting to the child's developmental stages in terms of freedom or power giving, listening to and being patient with them, not criticizing but guiding them, talking with but not to them, being loving and tolerant.

This socialization process to teenagers is important because they are the future parents and leaders who will incarnate others and ensure continuity of society's norms, values and beliefs for future generations.

In Kenya, in earlier days, the traditional extended family provided a large number of people for guidance and counseling activities. Responsibility and accountability were demanded. Certain social and cultural norms were compulsory. As such, the transition from childhood to adulthood was relatively smooth since it was enforced and marked by some initiational rites.

The 20th to 21st century, however, has seen a dramatic change in cultural and social practices in the family and the community at large – (Mutie and Ndumbuki, 1999). The extended family set up has broken down giving way to nuclear family. Similarly, informal education has been replaced by formal schooling, which is basically western (colonial) in origin. This in effect has disrupted the traditional way of socializing children. Likewise, urbanization has taken place leading to breakdown of traditions due to the inter-tribal or even racial interactions in the urban schools and social centers. Also, the rising cost of living has forced parents to spend a lot of time away from home and their children in pursuit of earning a livelihood.

But, above all, the media has had a major role in influencing the adolescents in terms of role models to emulate and premature exposure to sexual and other prohibited behaviours like drug use.

These changes have ushered in the abdication of parental or societal role of socializing children to schools (teachers), church and the media (especially the television) particularly the target urban students in this study.

Consequently, "adolescents have developed their own culture and values" (Shertzer and Stone, 1971, p.12). These are sometimes contrary to what parents expect of them, therefore leading to parent-adolescent conflict.

Very little research on the Kenyan parent-adolescent relationship has been done. But a lot of complaints by both parents and teenagers, school teachers and the society at large have been aired verbally in conversations in parents-teachers meetings and on the local media through various television and radio programmes as well as the print media. This state of affairs raises a critical question for investigation into the nature of parent-adolescent relationships.

Some American researchers, namely; Montemayor, (1982); Ullman, (1982); and Steinberg, (1987) do agree that a high degree of conflict is, characteristic of parent-adolescent relationships. As a result, there exists a very poor type of relationship (Ingersoll, 1989). But other families experience conflicts in everyday events such as the manner of dressing, hair style, curfews and performing household chores. Such conflicts rarely threaten the parent-adolescent relationship, and therefore most of them enjoy a good relationship (Santrock, 1990).

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study aimed at investigating the nature of parent-adolescent relationship.

The study targeted secondary school teenagers in Nairobi, who form heterogeneous urban groups.

Having interacted with adolescents as a teacher for the last twenty years, and now as a parent to teenagers, the researcher observed that there were a number of

issues between parents and their adolescent children which made their relationship sour. Parents complain of their rebellious unruly teenage child who questions their authority, and even argues with them over parental decisions. At the same time the teenage child asserts that his/her parents do not understand him/her, treat him/her as a child. The teenagers accuse their parents of being too restrictive , having dictatorial attitudes, being old fashioned and interfering a lot with their freedom of choosing friends, hair and dress styles and above all, being very critical about them. (Rice, 1984).

Further still, despite the scarcity of literature on the Kenyan parent-adolescent relationship, a lot of complaints by both parents and teenagers have been reported on the local media concerning differences in their relationship.

These complaints from both parents and adolescents is evidence that there are misunderstandings between parents and their adolescent children.

According to Rice (1984), each generation is absorbed with its own problems, and therefore tend to overlook, misinterpret, and misunderstand the problems of the other. One of the chief complaints of both parents and adolescents about each other is: "They don't seem interested or try to understand my problems" (p.381).

The researcher therefore intended to establish some of the issues that influence parent-adolescent relationship according to the adolescents.

According to Santrock (1990), among the adolescent changes that influence parent-adolescent relationships are puberty, expanded reasoning, increased idealistic and egocentric thought, violated expectations, changes in schooling, peers, friendship, dating and movement toward independence. These changes are counteracted by parents' reactions to teens with criticism and rejection, with anger and hurt since they feel that the teenagers are lazy, reckless and naïve, too

inexperienced even to recognize that they are foolish to take chances. Parents hate to lose authority and control. Yet adolescents strive for independence, right to govern their own lives and make their own decisions. Hence the conflicts. As a result, "parents and youth view each other from prejudiced positions that do not help them to understand how to live with the other generations" (Rice, 1984, p.383).

1.3(a) RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1. To establish the nature of parent-adolescent relationship as viewed by the adolescents.
2. To determine whether there are differences in the nature of parent-adolescent relationship according to the gender and age of the adolescent.
3. To investigate the nature of adolescent-peer relationship; and determine whether parent-adolescent relationship is influenced by the adolescents' level of involvement with peers and school type.
4. To identify the most common areas or issues of disagreements between parents and adolescents, as perceived by the teenagers.

1.3(b) RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What are the adolescents' views on the nature of parent-adolescent relationship?
2. How is the nature of relationship between mothers and their adolescents according to the adolescents?
3. How is the nature of relationship between fathers and their adolescents according to the adolescents?
4. Are there differences in the nature of relationship between mother-daughter/son, and father-son/daughter according to the teenagers gender?

5. How does age of the adolescent (early and later adolescence) influence parent-adolescent relationship?

6. What is the nature of relationship between adolescents and their peers?

7. Does adolescents' level of involvement with peers influence parent-adolescent relationship?

8. Does the type of school the adolescent attends influence the nature of parent-adolescent relationship?

9. What are some of the areas that bring disagreements between parent and their adolescents?

10. Are there differences in the areas of disagreements between parents and adolescents according to gender and school type?

1.3(c) RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

1. There is no significant difference between mother-adolescent and father-adolescent in the nature of their relationship.

2. There are no significant differences in the nature of relationship between parent-adolescent relationship according to the teenager's gender.

3. There are no significant differences between the nature of parent-adolescent relationship and to the teenager's age (phase of adolescence: early or late).

4. There is no significant difference between the nature of adolescent-peer relationship and adolescent parent relationship according to teenager's level of involvement with peers.

5. There is no significant difference between the nature of parent-adolescent relationship and to the teenager's school type.

6. There are no significant gender and school type differences in the areas of disagreements between adolescents and their parents.

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Owing to the hue and cry of parents, teachers and the society at large about the conduct (behaviour) of today's adolescents, there is great need for research to identify and understand some adolescent issues that bring about parent-adolescent conflicts. Then, consequently, give insight as to how the differences or misunderstandings could be reduced. The study gives insights to parents, teachers and all custodians of adolescents on the issues that are likely to cause misunderstandings in the endeavours to socialize adolescents.

Since there is little documented information about parent-adolescent relationship in Kenya, the information generated by this study may be used as a basis for organizing workshops and seminars for both teenagers and adults with the aim of improving parent-adolescent relationship. Similarly, counselors and family therapists may use the findings to guide their focus on issues to deal with in counseling both teenagers and/or their parents. Teachers too may use the findings to guide them in their capacity as roles models and advisers for teenagers in order to encourage or enhance good or healthy parent-adolescent relationship.

The study results may shed light on some of the content to be included in the school curriculum by curriculum developers to assist adolescents in their social adjustment.

Generally, the findings may provide information and strategies that will help create smooth transition of adolescents from childhood to adulthood since their custodians will be better equipped to understand and handle adolescents in order to avoid the conventional misunderstandings. This will in turn create healthy parent-adolescent relationship.

1.5 SCOPE AND DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The study was confined to Nairobi Province urban adolescents in secondary schools. The results therefore can only be generalized to teenagers in major urban centers in Kenya which have heterogeneous urban group.

The sample was chosen on the assumption that most of the urban adolescents have exposure to various culture due to their inter-tribal or racial interactions in schools and other social settings so have little or no traditional norms or value ties.

Also, the study was carried out only on teenagers attending formal schooling in secondary schools. Therefore, teenagers not in formal schooling were thus not included in this study. Similarly, the data was collected in the later part of the year, hence teenagers in early adolescence were captured towards the end of that phase.

This study has been done with guidelines from American and British researchers due to the limited documented information on adolescent situation in Kenya by local researchers.

Finally, due to the limited time and expense involved in research work, Nairobi urban adolescents in conveniently sampled secondary schools were chosen as convenient location to the researcher who resides in the city; and also the fact that Nairobi is the capital city of Kenya with more heterogeneous adolescent population concentration in secondary school.

1.6 DEFINATIONS OF TERMS

Early adolescence: In this study, form ones (1) aged between 13 – 15 years were regarded as early adolescents.

Late adolescence: In this study, form fours (4) aged between 17 – 20 years were regarded as late adolescents.

Conflict: Clash of opposed principles, wishes or needs or form of clash, strife or struggle that causes change of harmony between any two persons either positively or negatively.

Peers: Adolescents who are about the same age or maturity level.

Family: Any group of people living together and are related by either birth, marriage or adoption.

Conformity: Act of agreeing with the expressed group opinion especially when pressed to do so.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter deals with what other researchers have done in relation to the topic under study. It shows the current knowledge in the area of research and helps define certain terms as per other researchers.

The Literature reviewed relates to some issues influencing parent-adolescent relationship.

The review is organized under five topics, namely:-

1. Middle age and adolescent identity crisis.
2. Sex differences.
3. The age of the adolescent and peer group.
4. Adolescents and school.
5. Parenting techniques and adolescent's autonomy.

Although it is incorrect to characterize adolescence as a time of conflict in most families, it is important to bear in mind that adolescence is a period of change and re-organization in family relationships. Adolescence is a time of renegotiation in family relationships, with adolescents gaining increasingly more power and becoming more assertive. Many of these changes in family relations affect the psychological well-being of adolescent's middle-aged parents as well as the teenager (Steinberg, 1993). Some of the issues influencing parent-adolescent relationships are outlined and discussed below.

2.1 MIDDLE AGE AND ADOLESCENT IDENTITY CRISIS

According to Farrel & Rosenberg, 1981; Levinson, 1978, today, the typical parent is between 35 and 45 years when his/her first child enters early adolescence.

The same period of time above is potentially difficult time for many adults, it is a time of "midlife crisis". It is a time when many adults are reappraising their own lives and trying to come to terms with some painful realities: an unhappy marriage, deterioration of physical beauty, loss of athletic prowess or sexuality, an unfulfilling career (Steinberg, 1987).

Thus, the developmental concerns of parents and adolescents at this time are complementary (Steinberg, 1986). The adolescents are entering into a period of rapid physical growth, sexual maturation and ultimately, the period of life span that society has labeled as one of the most physically attractive. On the other hand, the parents are beginning to feel increased concern about their own bodies, about their physical attractiveness and about their sexual appeal (Gould, 1972). For example, bodily changes for the female at menopause requires that she readjusts to her new infertile sexual identity, decline in sexual attractiveness and responsiveness, rapid weight gain and general loss of her personal beauty. This may make her especially sensitive to her teenage daughter when she sees her with beautiful figure, skin and hair at the full bloom of youth. The mother may react by pushing her daughter into popularity and intimate relationships to live her own life through that of her daughter or she may react by sheltering, protecting and repressing her daughter by denying her full womanhood out of anxiety and panic. Likewise, a father too has a crisis of sexual identity. He becomes supersensitive about his growing paunch, increasing baldness and grey hair. Some men fear loss of potency and physical charm. Hence start chasing other women (younger) or others encourage their teenage sons to do so. Yet others become hostile, defensive and resentful whenever their sons reach manhood and want increased contact with girls, an expanding social life or adult sexual experiences. Some fathers become fearful and protective of their daughters

when they start going out with boys (Rice, 1984). These parental reactions to their teenagers cause confusion until each generation resolves its own identity crisis, hence the tense and stressful parent-adolescent relationship at this period.

Also, according to Steinberg (1993), during this parent and adolescent developmental stage, there is overlap of crisis in the perception of time and the future. The adolescents are beginning to develop the capacity to think systematically about the future and do infact, begin to look ahead; but their parents are beginning to feel that the possibilities for change are limited – since after midlife, adults see things in terms of how much longer they have to live (Neugarten, 1975).

Again, adolescence is the time when individuals are on the threshold of gaining a great deal of status (power). Their careers and marriages lie ahead of them, and choices seem limitless. For their parents in contrast, life is half over. Many choices have already been made – some successfully, others perhaps less so. Most adults have reached their occupational plateau ... (Gould, 1972). The pitfall here is that some parents start pressurizing their adolescents to assume roles they really wanted for themselves, for example certain careers, but never were able to fulfil (Rice, 1984).

In sum, for adolescents, this phase in the family cycle is a time of boundless horizons; for their parents, it is a time of coming to terms with choices made when they were young. So, in some ways, parents and adolescents are alike: both are experiencing an identity crisis relating to sexual life, roles, authority, emotional adjustment and values (Rice, 1984).

According to psychoanalytic developmental perspective, the adolescents perceive their parents for the first time as:

> People with their own particular flaws, such as, being impatient, yelling too easily, embarrassing you in public, having closed mind, changing their minds a lot, being obnoxious in public, nagging, using old fashioned words, talking loudly, pretending to listen to you, letting people push them around, picking fights over nothing, being stubborn, never being at home, making arrangements with kids then breaking them ... (Fayerweather Street School, 1984, p.23).

As a result, parents might react to adolescents with a certain defensiveness and hypersensitivity emanating from their own feelings of insecurity or dissatisfaction with their own adult lives (Steinberg, 1987). At the same time, parent-adolescent misunderstanding arises from their personality differences. Parents feel that youths are lazy, reckless and naïve, too inexperienced even to recognize that they are foolish to take chances. But, on the contrary, the youth feel they have good ideas too and know more about some things than their parents do. Hence, they may scoff at parental suggestions or ideas. Some youths become very arrogant and contemptuous of adults, usually if they are insecure and envious of adult status. Parents hate to lose authority and now adolescents strive for right to govern their own lives and make their own decisions. Consequently, parents react with criticism and rejection, with anger and hurt to today's youth. This is because middle aged parents tend to compare today's youth and lifestyles to the way things were when they were growing up. Parents suffer from a perennial "cultural lag", a situation which renders them helpless, relatively poorly informed and places them against "experts" who have a sizeable proportion of socialization process (through the media, schools, etc) so that teenagers show a tendency to question parents efficiency as instructors and reliable educators in general (Rice, 1984).

However, studies indicate that parents who have high self-esteem have better relationship with their adolescents than do parents who think poorly of themselves (Small, 1988).

2.2 SEX DIFFERENCES

According to Steinberg, (1993), researchers do ask whether there are sex differences in adolescents' family relationships. Findings to this research question indicate that differences between family relations of sons and daughters are minimal. Although there are occasional exceptions to the rule, sons and daughters report similar degrees of closeness to their parents, similar amounts of conflict, similar types of rules and disagreements about those rules and similar patterns of activity (Hill & Holmbeck, 1987; Montemayor & Browhlee, 1987; Youniss & Ketterlinus, 1987). Sons and daughters interact with their parents in remarkably similar ways (Cooper & Grotevant, 1987; Hauser et al; 1987).

However, "girls report a greater number of family problems than do boys, which is an indication of sex differences in the extent of difficulty" (Rice, 1984, p.385).

In fact, sex of the adolescent's parent may be a more important influence on family relationships than the sex of the adolescent. Studies show that parents may be somewhat adversely affected by the transition of their child into adolescence especially if the child is of the same sex. Mothers of daughters and fathers of sons, for example, show more psychological distress, report less satisfaction with their marriage and experience more intense midlife identity concerns as their children begin to mature physically, get involved in dating relationships and distance themselves from parents emotionally (Silverberg & Steinberg, 1987; 1990 and Steinberg and Silverberg, 1987).

Research has shown that when children become teenagers, their parents especially their mothers experience greater stress, unhappiness and dissatisfaction than any other time (Emery, 1982; Degler, 1980). Both sons and daughters tend to experience more conflict with their mothers than with their fathers (Montemayor, 1986; Steinberg, 1987), According to Neilsen (1991), this could be attributed to the fact that mothers tend to base more of their self-esteem on family roles than do fathers (Baruch, Barnett, & Rivers, 1983; Steinberg, 1987). Also, women are generally more involved in household matters and day-to-day care of children. Therefore, mothers and teenagers hassle over such routine matters as doing household chores, obeying curfews, playing music loudly and keeping rooms clean. Consequently, according to Santrock (1990) statistics show most conflicts are between mothers and daughters, and that mothers are less satisfied with their sons participation in family activities during the apex of pubertal change (Hill, Holmbeck, Marlow, Green and Lynch, 1985). The father retains his influence over family decision making throughout the pubertal transition and asserts his authority by requiring the son to be obedient. Hence, the sour relationship between sons and fathers during adolescence.

Although adolescents are said to 'fight' more often with their mothers than their fathers, the high level of conflict does not appear to jeopardize the closeness of the mother-adolescent relationship. Most adolescents say that they feel closer to their mothers than their fathers, and that their mothers understand them better than do their fathers. That is, mothers generally, have more intimate relationships with their children (Grotevant and Cooper, 1986). Adolescents are more comfortable talking to their mothers about problems and other emotional matters than to their fathers. Fathers are more likely to be perceived as relatively distant authority figures who

may be consulted for "objective" information such as homework, but not support and guidance as in boyfriend or girlfriend issues (Youniss & Smallar, 1985). Thus, relationships between mothers and adolescents are more emotionally intense in general and this intensity has both positive and negative manifestations (Apter, 1990).

According to Steinberg (1993), investigations show that there is increased conflict between adolescents and their parents – especially between adolescents and their mothers during puberty, and closeness between parents and their adolescents diminishing somewhat (Hill et al; 1985a, 1985b; Holmbeck & Hill; Steinberg, 1981, 1987, 1988; Susman, Inhoff-Germain, Loriaux, Cutler, and Chrouso, 1987). But this conflict between adolescents and their parents is not associated with Hall's familial "Storm and Stress". The conflict is more likely to take the form of bickering over day-to-day issues such as household chores than outright fighting. Similarly, diminished closeness is more likely to be manifested in increased privacy on part of adolescents, and diminished physical affection between teenagers and parents rather than any serious loss of love and respect between parents and adolescents (Montemayor, 1983, 1986).

2.3 THE AGE OF THE ADOLESCENT AND PEER GROUP

According to social learning developmental theorists perspective, early adolescence is the time when parent-child conflict escalates beyond parent-child conflict (Montemayor & Hanson, 1985; Steinberg, 1987). Shertzer and Stone (1971) states that,

> With the advent of puberty the sleeping lion awakens, stretches, and as though fortified and rejuvenated by his long rest proceeds to tear apart the elaborate structure, which has apparently kept him so satisfactorily under

control in the preceding years. This new strength of instincts, as we know, derives from the enormous accession of energy as the gonads begin to function at puberty. The former peace no longer prevails (p.5).

It is a more stressful and strained time for the family than earlier or later adolescence. This is because of the maturation of both the adolescent and the parent. That is, the adolescent's biological changes of puberty, cognitive changes involving increased idealism and logical reasoning, social changes focused on independence and identity, violated expectations and physical, cognitive and social changes in parents associated with middle adulthood.

At this stage, both parents and children are establishing new rules regarding acceptable and unacceptable behaviour. The parents are experiencing value conflict within themselves just as the adolescents are. Adolescents question the values with which they have grown up. They are getting acquainted with new and different friends, some of whom have completely different values than they do. So, adolescents start rethinking their values. Sometimes the new thoughts are shocking to their parents, and never reassuring because they remind the parents of their own confusion. This makes the adults feel even more uncertain. As a result, they may react with dogmatism and authoritarianism to convince both their adolescents and themselves that they are right. At times parents capitulate at the slightest challenge, leaving the adolescent insecure, with some loss of respect for their parents, but still groping through their own moral confusion (Rice, 1984).

All in all, early adolescence brings about changes in the ways adolescents view family rules and regulations. For example, what was acceptable for a child to do is no longer acceptable. This is in terms of choosing of clothes, friends, music, food, movies and what is accepted as reasonable adult supervision (Nielsen, 1991).

This may contribute to the increased conflicts between them and their parents (Smetana, 1988, 1989).

Santrock (1990), for instance, states that, as the children enter adolescence, they begin to question or seek rationales for parental demands, unlike in preadolescence where children are compliant and easy to manage (Maccoby, 1984). Parents may perceive this behaviour as resistant and oppositional because it departs from the child's usual compliant behaviour. As a result, parent respond to this lack of compliance with increased pressure for compliance as they hate to lose control over their children. In this situation, expectations that were stabilized during a period of relatively slow developmental change are lagging behind the behaviour of the adolescent during the period of rapid pubertal change. Parents have difficulties changing the pattern of child guidance developed over years with a dependent child so that they can relate to their adolescents as growing adults. Adolescents have to fight for freedom, and sometimes, the ensuring battle of wills is heated (Rice, 1984). As a result, the adolescent becomes non-compliant, oppositional and resistant to parental standards.

Also, research indicates that early adolescence is a time of changes in the youngster's view of family's relationships and in family members expectations of teach other (Steinberg, 1993). For instance, during early adolescence, peer group becomes the setting in which close ties are formed. The high school is the major setting besides the family where adolescents are being socialized (Newman, 1986).

According to McMahon et al; (1990), young people become increasingly involved in differentiated, active and complex peer group. At this time, the youngster is extremely sensitive to peer approval. As such, he has a compulsive conformity in appearance, dress, hairstyles, language (Sheng) and 'approved'

activities. This behaviour gives him a sense of belonging and helps separate adolescents from adults (Landsbaum & Willis, 1971). Adolescents strive to become emotionally independent and turn to their peers, especially a friend of opposite sex. Parents feel hurt and rejected and may resent this transfer of affection to someone else (Rice, 1984). Therefore, families may have a tough time adjusting to the adolescent's increasing interest in forging family activities for peer activities. Parents may have arguments about teenager's reluctance to give up time with his or her friends for family outings.

The adolescent is therefore dependent on peer relations which has new ideas of socially appropriate behaviour (Mussen et al; 1990; Jensen, 1985). Secrecy protects teenagers from adult sanctions especially in matters in which adolescent behaviour violates adult norms. The conspiracy of silence or secrecy that separates teens from adults leads to a significant lack of communication between them (Shertzer and Stone, 1971).

This makes it difficult for the teenager to share many areas of his/her inner life and outward behaviour with parents.

As a result, peers may sometimes provide physical and psychological support from difficult situations. They often serve as a source of understanding and support especially if parents are neglecting or hostile (Mussen et al; 1990). Generally, peer friendship aid the adolescent in learning to handle their complex feelings as well as those of others. They serve as a kind of therapy because they allow honest expression of suppressed emotions such as anger and anxiety. They also reveal that other teenagers go through the same doubts, fears and aspirations (Steinberg et al; 1991; Mussen et al; 1990). It is therefore not surprising that teenagers sometimes spend as much as the time they spend with their parents, with their peers (Santrock,

1981). This may be due to the fact that close friends provide a loyal, trustworthy and reliable source of support in any emotional crisis. They therefore play a very crucial role in helping young people develop a sense of their own identity.

Therefore, research has shown that when children become teenagers, their parents, especially their mothers experience greater stress, unhappiness and dissatisfaction than at any other time due to the sudden change and alienation from their children (Emery, 1982; Degler, 1980). The increased conflicts – arguing, nagging, squabbling and bickering is at its worst in early adolescence (11 to 14 years). "The distress is real even when teenagers and parents love each other and get along most of the time" (McMahon et al; 1990, p.289).

Actually, some researchers see conflicts between parents and their teenagers as both unavoidable and necessary. May be puberty in some ways triggers conflicts in order to make separation between adolescents and their parents easier.

"If teenagers did not argue with their parents, they might never leave home at all" (Steinberg, 1987, p.39).

However, while conflict between parents and teenagers does increase in early adolescence, it does not reach the tumultuous proportions envisioned by Hall at the beginning of the twentieth century. Rather, much of the conflict involves the everyday events of family life such as keeping a bedroom clean, dressing neatly, getting home by certain time, not talking on the telephone forever and use of decent language. The conflicts rarely involve major dilemmas like drugs and delinquency. At the same time, the distancing effect of puberty is temporary, and relationships may become less conflicted and more intimate during late adolescence. Studies indicate that parents who have high self-esteem grant their adolescents more autonomy and communicate more effectively. This in turn contributes to greater

satisfaction on the part of the teenager. Hence, adolescence are less likely to challenge their parents, and their parents report less stress at home (Steinberg, 1993).

2.4 ADOLESCENTS AND SCHOOL

The social group with which the adolescent most closely associates determines to a considerable extent the sort of individual into which he/she will develop. The greatest influence comes from primary groups such as the family, close friends and the like.

According to Newman (1986), high school is the major setting besides the family where adolescents are being socialized. A large part of the adolescent's social life is built around school related activities. Friendships are built and nurtured in school. Adolescents also experiment with social roles and develop new aspects to their sense of self in school (Ingersoll, 1989).

Coleman, an American researcher, found out that in the sixties, school assumed a more important role in the socialization of adolescents than what occurred previously (Jensen, 1985). The same case applies to Kenya presently. School has usurped the parental and to a large extent, societal role of socializing adolescents. Adolescents spend more time in school than with their parents. Therefore, schools have increasingly become important social environment for youth and have largely displaced families and other traditional set-ups as the basic environment of adolescent upbringing.

Consequently, Coleman in Steinberg (1993) believes that the youth have developed their own culture, and function according to their own rules rather than those given by other socializing agents like the family. Therefore, the adolescents' socialization value system, behavior, interests as well as the activities they indulge in are shaped to a greater extent by the youth culture developed in school. This in turn

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influences the nature of parent-adolescent relationship (Jensen, 1985). Also, the school structure influences, to some extent the youth culture, and subsequently the nature of parent-adolescent relationship.

Kenyan secondary schools are categorized as either public or private. These are further sub-divided into:-

Boys only secondary school

Boys only boarding secondary school

Girls only day secondary school

Girls only boarding secondary school

Mixed day secondary school

Mixed boarding secondary school

2.5 PARENTING STYLES AND ADOLESCENT'S AUTONOMY

Regardless of family configuration, certain parental functions are exercised in almost all families where children are present. These include providing care and protection, acting as models for imitation and identification, and serving as socializing agents (Newman & Newman, 1978). Each of these functions and the balance among them changes as children mature and as parents develop new areas of competence.

Parents want their adolescents to grow into socially mature individuals. They do this by attempting to put adolescent's behaviour into line with what they perceive as socially accepted norms and values (Newman & Newman, 1986), Baumrind recent investigations on parenting styles and social competence through observations and interviews of parents and their adolescents concluded that responsiveness (considerateness and supportiveness) more than any other factor, was related to the adolescent's social competence. And when parents, as models, had

problem behaviours themselves (alcohol problems and marital conflicts, for example), adolescents were more likely to have problems and show decreased social competence (Sanstrock; 1990).

Research findings indicate that, the following areas influence most of the parent-adolescent conflict in the process of socialization:

(a) Social life and customs

(b) Responsibility

(c) Schools

(d) Family relations

(e) Values and morals

Social life and customs probably create more parent-adolescent conflict than any other area. The common sources of frictions are: choice of friends and dating partners, age allowed to date, how often they are allowed to go out on dates, where they are allowed to go, curfew hours and choice of clothes and hairstyles.

Other areas of conflict are:

Responsibility in performance of family chores, earning and spending money, care of personal belongings, clothes and room, use of telephone, use of family property or belongings like furniture, tools and doing work for others outside the house;

Schools: performance, behaviour at school, general attitude toward school studies and teachers, study habits and homework and regularity of attendance;

Family relationships – in the areas of immature behaviour, general attitude and level of respect shown to parents, quarreling with siblings and relationships with relatives, and values and morals especially in language and speech, basic honesty, sexual behaviour, drinking, smoking and use of drugs, going to church and overall obedience to law, staying out of trouble (Rice, 1984).

One goal of every normal adolescent is to be accepted as an autonomous individual. Adolescents desire autonomy from parental control inorder to express themselves as individuals who have their own needs and feelings, are capable of making their own decisions and take responsibility for the outcome of those decisions (Mussen et al; 1990). This adolescents' quest for autonomy and a sense of responsibility creates puzzlement and conflict for many parents. Parents begin to see their teenagers slipping away from their grasp. This results to the urge to take stronger control as the adolescent seeks autonomy and responsibility to him/herself. Hence heated emotional exchange may ensue, with either side calling names, making threats, and doing whatever seems necessary to gain control. Parents can become frustrated because they expected their teenager to heed their advice, to want to spend time with the family, and grow up to do what is right (Sanstrock, 1990). This is evidence that parents and adolescents view each other from prejudiced positions that do not help them to understand how to live with one another (Rice, 1984).

It is important to bear in mind that, although our tendency is to see child behaviour as the result of parent behaviour, socialization is actually reciprocal, a two-way, not one-way street (Bell, 1968). It is believed that parents who employ physical punishment (spanking, hitting, etc) are more likely to have aggressive adolescents (Bandura and Walters, 1959). But we cannot be sure whether; physical punishment lead to aggression or adolescent's aggression leads to parent using physical punishment or some other factor is correlated with parents using physical punishment and with adolescent aggression (a genetic predisposition to behave aggressively that adolescents inherit from their parents) or a combination of these casual and co-relational factors at work. Therefore, just as parents affect their

adolescents' behaviour, so do adolescents affect their parents behaviour (Steingberg, 1993).

Again, the nature of parent-adolescent relationships does not depend just on what happens in the relationships during adolescence. "Relationships over the long course of childhood are carried forward to influence, at least to some degree, the nature of parent-adolescent relationships" (Santrock, 1990, p.207).

According to Baumrind (1978) work in parents' behaviour towards adolescent has the approach of parental responsiveness and parental demandingness (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Parents vary on these dimensions. Some are warm and accepting while others are unresponsive and rejecting. Some are demanding and expect a great deal of their child, while other are permissive and expect very little.

Baumrind in (Steinberg, 1993) has suggested four parental styles employed by parents in socializing their children, and the effects of each style. There are:

- Authoritative
- Authoritarian
- Indulgent and
- Indifferent

- Democratic/Authoritative is where the parent is both responsive and demanding; warm but firm. Parents set standards for their children's conduct, but form expectations that are consistent with child's developing needs and capabilities. Decisions are made jointly by parents and adolescents. Parents deal with their child in a rational, issue-oriented manner, frequently engaging in discussion and explanation with their children over matters of discipline. As a result, one study found out that young people raised in authoritative households are more

psychologically competent than peers from authoritarian, permissive indulgent or permissive indifferent homes (Steinberg et al; 1989). Parents involve their children in verbal give-and-take.

A child raised warmly by parents who value self-direction will imitate his/her mother and father and display similar preference for independence (Hill, 1980).

- Autocratic/Authoritarian parenting style.

  Here, the parent is very demanding but not responsive. Parents place high value on obedience and conformity. Parents tend to favour punitive, absolute and forceful disciplinary measures. There is no verbal give-and-take; child should accept without question the rules and standards established by the parents. This parenting style restricts child's autonomy, hence produces are combination of rebellion and dependency. Adolescents become more hostile to their parents, resent parents' control and domination, and less often identify with them. Thus the meeker adolescent are cowed; the stronger ones are rebellious, and may run away from home or become delinquent (Steinberg; 1993; Rice, 1984).

- Permissive indulgent parenting.

  Here the parent is very responsive but not at all demanding. Adolescent has more influence than parent in decision-making. Parents behave in an accepting, benign and somewhat more passive way in matters of discipline. They give the child high degree of freedom to act as he or she wishes and do not control negative behaviour. As a result, children are spoiled, ill prepared to accept frustrations or responsibility or proper regard for others with whom they associate.

  Adolescents are domineering, self-centred and selfish; no limit on their behaviour and interpret parents lack of control as disinterest or rejection. This parenting style may lead to delinquency due to lack of guidance.

- Permissive Indifferent/Erratic parenting.

  Here, parents are neither demanding nor responsive. Parents try to minimize the time and energy that they must devote to interacting with their child. Parents may be neglectful. They know little about their child's activities and whereabouts; show little interest in their child's experiences at school or with friends, rarely consider their child's opinion when making decisions. They are parent-centred, do not raise their child according to set beliefs about what is good for child's development. Consequently, children lack clear, definite guidelines, hence confused and insecure; Lack self-control and may become anti-social, delinquents.

Baumrind (1971, 1989) believes that parents should be neither punitive nor aloof from their adolescents, but rather should develop rules and be affectionate with them.

However, there is not much consistency in pinpointing the parenting styles that increase adolescent's autonomy. Many parents use a combination of techniques although one technique may be dominant. But some investigations have found that a permissive parenting strategy allows the adolescent to become more independent (Elder, 1968). Others suggest that democratic parenting strategy is best (Kandel & Lesser, 1969).

As adolescents push for autonomy the wise adult will relinquish control in areas where the adolescent can make mature decisions and will help them make reasonable decisions in areas where their knowledge is more limited (Santrock, 1990). Adolescents want and need parents who will grant them autonomy in slow increasing amounts as they learn to use it, rather than all at once. "Too much freedom too quickly granted may be interpreted as rejection" (Rice, 1984, p.390).

Parents hate to loose authority, and now adolescents strive for independence for right to govern their lives and make their own decisions. Parents have difficulties changing the pattern of child guidance developed over years with a dependent child so that they can relate to their adolescents as growing adults. Hence, adolescents have to fight for freedom and sometimes the ensuing battle of wills is heated. Anthony writes, with every artifice at their command, certain parents will attempt to close doors and raise the draw bridges and dig deep moats to keep their offspring in for they cannot bring themselves to realize that the loss entailed is almost as inevitable as death and almost as irreversible (Rice, 1984, p.319). But according to Ginnot, (1969), the key to peaceful co-existence between parents and adolescents is for parents to let go. Also, Shostrum, (1967) believes that to help teenagers become competent adults, parents have to "let go" when they most want to hold on. Shostrum goes on to say that teenagers are not as bad as many parents think they are. If parents stayed out of the picture, most teenagers would run into mature, competent young adults (Steinberg, 1993).

Otherwise, parents domination and encouragement of over dependency results to prolonged adolescence. For example some adolescents may prefer to live with parents after marriage ..., never achieve mature hero-sexual relationships, establish a vocational, identity of their own choosing or develop a positive self-image as separate, independent people (Rice, 1984).

Adolescents appear to do their best when they grow in a family atmosphere that permits the development of individuality against a backdrop of close ties, where verbal give-and-take is the norm. That is, adolescent achievement of independence is clearly linked to the parents' ability to involve adolescents in decision-making, to

explain rules, and to emphasize independent judgement rather than conformity with rules (Baumrind, 1975).

A compilation of research findings show that adolescents want and need parents who show interest and concern in them, who will listen, talk with them and try to understand them and their problems, who love and accept them as they are, faults and all, who trust and expect the best of them, who are willing to grant autonomy and emotional independence, who discipline them democratically and consistently, who strive to maintain a happy climate within the home and who set a good example for them to follow.

Obviously, parents are not as perfect as their adolescents would like them to be; nor do most young people live up to all the expectations of parents. This results in some tension and conflict. Gradually, conflict and tension subside if parents are willing to change their relationship with their children from a parent-dependent child orientation to an adult-growing adult relationship (Rice, 1984).

2.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

According to Muuss and Porton (1998), most adolescent theorists, many parents of adolescents, and adolescents themselves agree that the stage of adolescence is inherently stressful. It is during this period that parent-adolescent relations are likely to be more conflictual than parent-child relations. For instance, in one study of the difficulty of parenting children of various ages, mothers reported more problems with their adolescents than with any other age group, especially in regard to adolescent's moodiness, independence and discipline (Ballenski & Cook, 1982).

But there is a disagreement about what produces the stress. Explanations of parent-adolescent stress can be divided into two broad classes, those that emphasize individual characteristics and those that focus on family relations.

Traditionally, parent-adolescent stress has been viewed as a result of changes in adolescents brought about by puberty. But a variety of adolescent factors have been proposed to account for stress with parents, such as biological changes in levels of aggression (Hall, 1969), the appearance of adult sexuality (Blos, 1963; Freud, 1905/1953), the need for independence (Ausubel, Montemayor & Svajian, 1977), and the search for identity (Erikson, 1968). More recently, the cause of this stress has been laid on the parent's doorstep, and it has been suggested that many parents of adolescents experience a midlife disillusionment with career and marriage which could lead to increases in parenting stress (Hill, 1980; Prosen, Towers & Martin, 1981).

Also mothers have been regarded as at least partly responsible for some mother-adolescent difficulties. Specifically, it has been claimed that many mothers are reluctant to relinquish control over their adolescents. Hence much of mother-adolescent interaction revolves around her effort to keep her adolescent within the family circle, while the adolescent attempts to break free (Turner, 1970).

Similarly, more recent attempts to explain parent-adolescent conflict have emphasized on transformations of family patterns of interaction which are known and acceptable to all. The physical, psychological and social changes that occur during adolescence period are thought to disrupt this smoothly functioning system. It is then argued that a readjustment of the parent-child system must occur in order to achieve a new homesstasis (Morton, Alexander & Altman, 1976).

This relearning is regarded as stressful for the participants and, until new relationships are established, conflicts due to poor communication and unmet expectations are supposed to be common (Boszormenyi – Nagy, 1973).

This study is based on Lerner's theory (1991), referred to as Developmental Contextualism Model. This theory focuses on the multiplicity of interrelated influences that contribute to growing up. That is, the theory provides a conceptual tool for understanding the reciprocal relationships between diverse contexts (illustrated in the diagram below) and for explaining how an individual's behaviour (cooperative versus uncooperative) or appearance (attractive versus unattractive) influences others' behaviour toward him/her. For example, Richards et al; (1993) on studies on effects of hormones on adolescents concluded that, it appears that it is not increasing or fluctuating hormone levels alone that affect the emotional states of adolescents. Instead, the interaction of hormones with a more socially based aspect of change, such as pubertal stage or chronological age may contribute to teenagers' behaviour problems. For instance, if one is advanced in physical development, adults may expect greater maturity than would be expected on one's agemate who are less physically developed. So, the specific nature of their influence is determined less by the biochemical changes within the adolescent than by the social-cultural environment in which the adolescent lives. The interaction between physical changes in the adolescents body and the perception of those changes by others, and the congruence or incongruence of these perceptions is especially important (Adams, Day, Dyk, Frede & Rogers, 1992; Adams, Gullota & Markstron – Adams, 1994).

Therefore, when studying adolescents, neither internal variables (biological or psychological) nor external variables (peers, parents or school) are seen as primary

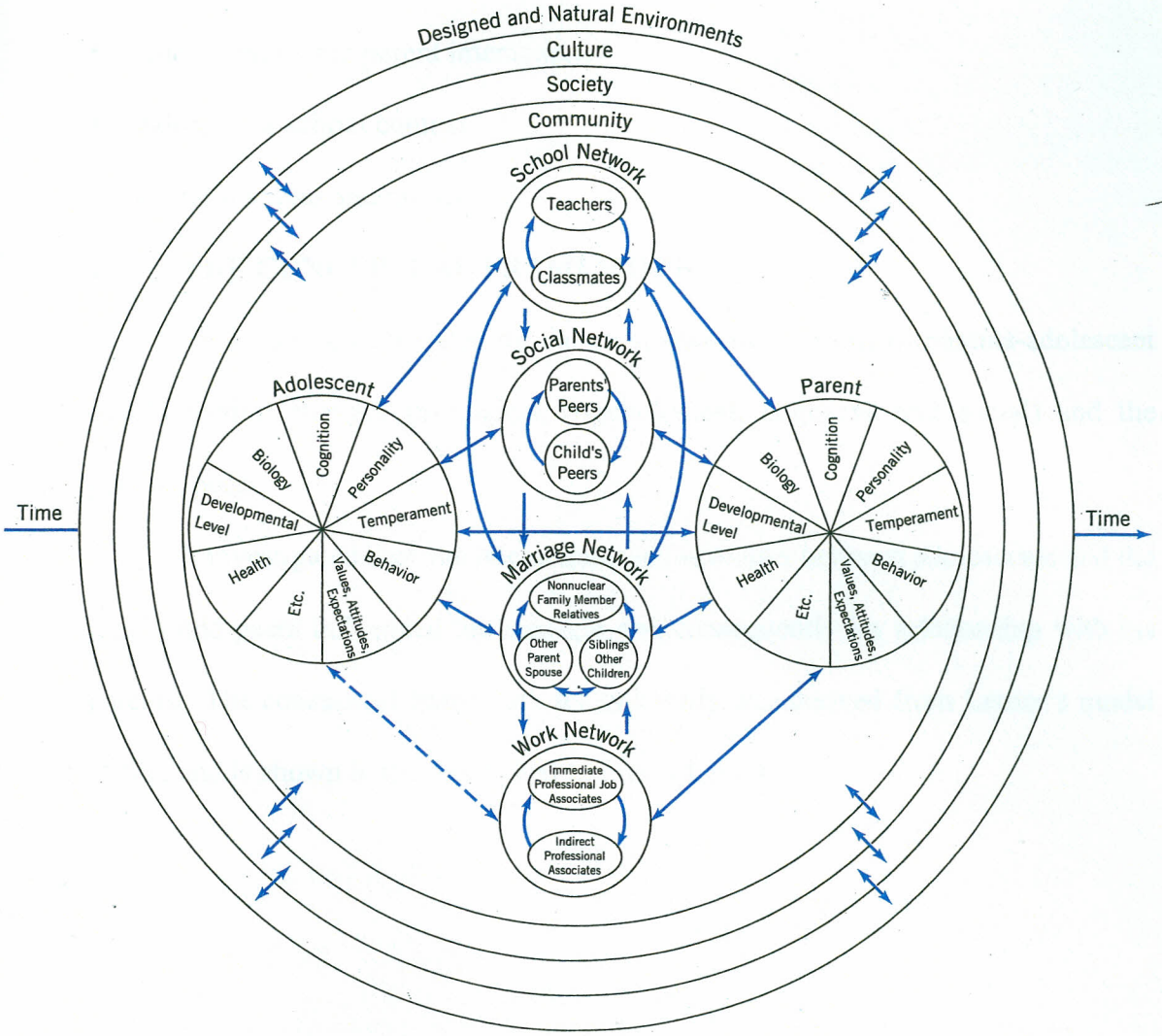
forces for change; rather, growth is the result of the dynamics of relationships which affect each other.

Consequently, the adolescent is not studied in isolation from his or her environment. The socio-cultural context affects the meaning of physical development, expectations of oneself and important themes in life.

- The physical environment, for example differences between life in urban/rural community, day/boarding School, national/provincial/district schools, boys/girls/mixed schools and economic status plays a part in the adolescents' lives.

  Each of these aspects interacts with the others in the adolescents pattern of development.

Figure (i): **Lerner's Developmental Contextual Model of adolescent-context relations.**



Source: R. M. Lerner, 1991:30. Changing organism – context relations as the basic process of development: A Developmental contextual perspective. Developmental Psychology, 27. p.30 © American Psychological Associations.

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Lerner's model illustrates the relationship between individual adolescents and the social institutions within their unique ecological setting. This is clearly reflected in this study as outlined:

- Interactions of adolescents with parents reciprocally in their developmental stages (adolescence versus middle adulthood crises).
- Sex differences and their interactions.
- Adolescents-peer-parent interactions.
- Adolescent-school context.
- Cultural values and norms.

2.7 THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This study concentrated on the contextual interactions of parents-adolescent developmental changes (biological, psychological, cognitive and social) and the parents, peers.

It investigated how the interactions and activities between adolescents and the family and peers influenced the teenager and consequently his relationship with his parents. The conceptual framework for this study was derived from Lerner's model (1991) and is shown in the theoretical framework p.39.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter deals with research design and methodology, description of the procedures, sample and strategies used in this study.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

This research adopted a survey design to collect descriptive data. This was taken with the purpose of describing the characteristics of the sample of the target population, to identify differences among particular subgroups and assess interrelationships within the sample.

3.2 THE TARGET POPULATION

The target population for this study were teenage students attending secondary school in Nairobi Province.

3.3 DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

The sample was drawn from secondary schools in Nairobi Province. The population sample consisted of heterogeneous urban community in terms of tribe (or race) and sex since it was composed of teenagers from different ethnic background, and also, they were boys and girls.

The sample frame was provided by a list of all secondary schools in Nairobi Province obtained from the Provincial Education Office.

3.4 SAMPLING PROCEDURES

The research used non-probability sampling in selecting the secondary schools to participate in the study. This was because the schools were easy to reach and also willing to take part in the study (Ogula, 1998).

The target population was therefore stratified into six groups:

1. Boys only day public secondary school.
2. Boys only boarding public secondary school.
3. Girls only day public secondary school.
4. Girls only boarding public secondary school.
5. Mixed day public secondary school.
6. Mixed day private secondary school.

Using the multi-stage random sampling, one school was chosen out of each group. As a result, the whole sample consisted of six schools.

From each school, a sample of form one (1) and form four (4) students were selected. This was because the study targeted early adolescents (13-15 years) and late adolescents (17-20). The target age was likely to be found in these two forms.

One stream of each form was randomly selected in schools with more than one stream, out of which 15 students were randomly selected to respond to the questionnaire. The study thus targeted 180 teenagers, (90 boys and 90 girls)

But more teenagers in mixed schools wished to participate in the study. As a result, the total number of participants were 189, (96 boys and 93 girls.)

3.5 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

Data was collected by use of self-administered questionnaire. The questionnaire was constructed with the help of information gathered on the nature of parent-adolescent relationship. Options were then constructed on a 5-point Likert scale, namely:

Response	Score
▪ Strongly agree	5
▪ Agree	4

- Undecided 0
- Disagree 2
- Strongly disagree 1

The questionnaire consisted of questions and a Likert scale from which the teenagers responded to. A few open-ended questions were included for further probing of attitude toward parent-adolescent relationship. The questionnaire was divided into four sections.

Section A dealt with demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Section B contained questions on the respondent's relationship with the mother.

Section C had questions on the respondent's relationship with the father and finally,

Section D had questions on the respondent's relationship with peers.

3.6 PILOT TESTING

Pilot testing was done in order to test whether there were any items that respondents would have difficulty in understanding or that might not ask exactly what the researcher intended to find out.

The instrument was tested on a sample of 30 students, 15 boys and 15 girls from a school which was not part of the sample for the research.

The researcher interacted with the respondents and encouraged them to ask any questions they might have had about each item. They were also asked to critique the format of the questionnaire.

The data was then analyzed to determine the validity of the instrument in achieving the research objectives. Any communication problems that were highlighted by the pretest sample was adjusted in the final questionnaire.

3.7 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Permission to conduct the research was sought from the following:

(i) The Office of the President.

(ii) Ministry of Education, Nairobi Province Headquarter.

(iii) Principals of the sample as well as pretest schools.

(iv) Individual respondents.

The questionnaire was administered by a research assistant (a teacher from the school) after being briefed by the researcher. This as found convenient so as not to interfere so much with the school routine. The research assistant administered the questionnaires to the respondents, supervised as they were filled in and collected them. This ensured high completion and return rates. The research assistant later handed in the questionnaires to the researcher.

3.8 DATA ANALYSIS

The data collected was subjected to both descriptive and inferential statistics.

Frequencies, percentages and means were used to describe the sample characteristics of the various variables under study as well as analyze the qualitative responses. One-way ANOVA (analysis of variance), t-tests and chi-square tests were used in testing the hypotheses generated for the study. The data was analyzed by use of a computer using the SPSS program.

The study had six (6) main statistical hypotheses, which generated eighteen (18) sub-hypotheses as stated below.

Hypothesis 1. There is no significant difference between parent-adolescent relationship according to the adolescents' views.

Hypothesis 2: There are no significant differences in the nature of relationship between parent-adolescent relationship according to the teenager's gender.

(a) There is no significant difference in the nature of relationship between mother-adolescent and the teenagers gender

(b) There are no significant differences in the nature of relationship between father-adolescent and the teenager's gender.

(c) There are no significant differences between the nature of parent-adolescent relationship and the teenager's gender.

Hypothesis 3: There were no significant differences between the nature of mother-adolescent relationship and the teenager's age.

(a) There are no significant differences between the nature of mother-adolescent relationship according to the teenager's age.

(b) There are no significant differences between the nature of parent-adolescent relationship and to the age of the teenager (Phase of adolescence: early or late).

(c) There are no significant differences between the nature of parent-adolescent relationship and to the age of the teenager (Phase of adolescence: early or late

Hypothesis 4: There are no significant differences between the nature of mother-adolescent relationship and the teenager's age.

(a) There is no significant difference between the nature of adolescent–peer and parent-adolescent relationship according to the teenager's level of involvement with peers.

(b) There are no significant differences between the nature of mother-adolescent relationship according to the teenager's level of involvement with peers.

(c) There are no differences between the nature of father-adolescent relationship according to the adolescent's level of involvement with peers.

(d) There are no differences between the nature of parent-adolescent relationship according to the level of involvement with peers.

Hypothesis 5: There are no significant differences between the nature of mother-adolescent relationship and the teenager's age.

(a) There are no differences between the nature of mother-adolescent relationship according to the teenager's type of school.

(b) There are no significant differences between the nature of father-adolescent relationship according to the teenager's school type.

(c) There is no significant difference between the nature of parent-teen relationship according to the adolescents' type of school.

(d) There is no significant difference in the nature of adolescent-peers relationship according to the type of school.

Hypothesis 6: There are no significant differences between the nature of mother-adolescent relationship and the teenager's age.

(a) There are no significant gender differences in the areas of disagreement between adolescents and their mother.

(b) There are no significant gender differences in the areas of disagreement between adolescents and their father.

(c) There are no significant differences in the areas of disagreement between adolescents and their mother according to school type.

(d) There are no significant school type differences in the areas of disagreement between adolescents and their father.

These hypotheses were tested and results presented in chapter four. Hypotheses one (1) and four (4) were tested by the t-test, while hypotheses two (2), three (3) and five (5) used F-test (ANOVA). Hypotheses six (6) was tested by use of Chi-square test (X^2-test).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter, data analysis and research findings are presented.

To analyze the data; frequencies, percentages and means were used. One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) Chi-square and t-tests were used to test the hypotheses generated for the study.

The hypothesis is either rejected or retained depending on the significance level of 0.05 after data is analyzed. The results are presented in this chapter under the respective objectives and hypotheses.

The presentations therefore follow the sequence below:

(i) The demographic data of the subjects of the study.

(ii) The nature of relationship between parents and their adolescent children as viewed by the teenagers.

(iii) To determine whether there are differences in the nature of parent-adolescent relationship according to the gender and age of the adolescent.

(iv) To investigate the nature of adolescent-peer relationship; and determine whether parent-adolescent relationship is influenced by the adolescent's level of involvement with peers and school type.

(v) To identify the most common areas or issues of disagreement between parents and adolescent, as perceived by the teenagers.

4.1 Demographic data of the subjects of study

This section describes the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The results are presented in Tables 4.1(a) and 4.1(b).

Table 4.1(a) – Demographic Data of the subjects of the study.

Nos.	NAME OF SCHOOL	TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS (FREQUENCY)	GENDER		AGE (FORM) 1 - 4		SCHOOL TYPE		
			M	F	E	L	BOARDING	DAY	MIXED
1.	Highway Sec. School	30	30	-	15	15		x	
2.	Lenana High School	30	30	-	15	15	x		
3.	O.L.O.M. Sec. School	30	-	30	15	15		x	
4.	M.N.G. Sec. School	30	-	30	15	15	x		
5.	Makini School (Private)	33	19	14	12	21			x
6.	Kangemi High School	36	17	19	15	21			x
	TOTAL = 6	189	96	93	87	102	60	60	69
	Percentage %	100	50.8	49.2	46.0	54.0	31.7	31.7	36.5

KEY

M = MALES E – Early Adolescents O.L.O.M. – Our Lady of Mercy
F = FEMALES L – Late Adolescents M.N.G. – Moi Nairobi Girls
1 - FORM ONES Sec – Secondary

4 – FORM FOURS

The demographic data on Table 4:1a shows that:

i) A total number of 189 students participated in the study.

ii) There was a total of 96 (50.8%) boys and 93 (49.2%) girls. Thus boys were slightly more (96) than girls (93).

iii) There were more form four (Late adolescents) participants – 102 (54.0%) than form ones (Early adolescents) – 87 (46.0%).

iv) Boarders consisted of 30 (15.9%) girls and 30 (15.9%) boys, a total of 60 (31.7%) students. Similarly, day scholars had a total of 60 (31.7%) students with 30 (15.9%) boys and girls each. They were all from public schools. But from mixed schools, one was public (Low cost) with a total of 36 (19.0%) students; 19 girls and 17 boys while the other was a private (high cost) school with 33 (17.5%) participants; 14 girls and 17.

It was necessary to establish whom the adolescent lived with (family set up), age of both adolescents and their parents, number of siblings, birth rank and permanent place of residence. This is presented in table 4.1b – below:

Table 4.1(b) - Family Set-up, Siblings, Age, Birth Rank, Residence, Parent Age

Family set-up Whom do you live with?	**Frequency**	**%**
With mother all the time.	20	10.6
My father all the time.	08	4.2
Both my parents all the time.	131	69.3
Occasionally with only one of them.	16	8.5
Others – Uncle/Aunt/Grand parents/Brother	08	4.2
Sister	04	2.1
Total	187	98.9
No response	2	7.1
Total	**189**	**100.0**
Adolescent's Age in years		
15 - 15	67	35.4
17 - 20	105	55.6
Total	172	91.0
16	09	4.8
No response	08	4.2
Total	**189**	**100.0**
Birth Rank		
First born	49	25.9
Last born	54	28.6
Only child	7	3.7
Others	77	40.7
Total	187	98.9
No response	2	1.1
Total	**189**	**100.0**
Permanent residence		
Urban	165	87.3
Rural	21	11.1
Total	186	98.4
No response	3	1.6
Total	**189**	**100.0**

Siblings	**Frequency**	**%**
Brothers		
1	60	31
2	45	23.8
3	27	14.3
4	10	5.3
5	09	4.8
6	03	1.6
7	01	0.5
Total	155	82.0
No response	34	18.0
Total	**189**	**100.0**
Sisters		
1	54	28.6
2	35	18.5
3	31	16.4
4	19	10.1
5	06	3.2
6	03	1.6
9	01	0.5
Total	149	78.8
No response	40	21.2
Total	**189**	**100.0**
Parents Age in years		
Mothers		
35-39	48	25.4
39-50	116	61.4
Under 35	07	3.7
Over 50	16	8.5
Total	187	98.9
No response	02	1.1
Total	**189**	**100.0**
Fathers		
35-39	05	2.6
39-50	118	62..4
Under 35	01	0.5
Over 50	50	26.5
Total	174	92.1
No response	15	7.9
Total	**189**	**100.0**

The results in Table 4.1(b) show that:

- Majority of the teens (69.3%) lived with both of their parents, while 10.6% lived with their mothers only, 4.2 with their fathers only and 6.3 with other relatives.
- Most of them (82%) had siblings. Only 18.0% did not have a sibling.
- A total of 35.4% of adolescents were in early adolescence (13 – 15 years), while 55.6% were in late adolescence (17 – 20 years). There was a small percentage (4.8%) in middle adolescence (16 years) and about 4.2% did not indicate their age. The modal age was early (13 – 15 years) and late (17 – 20 years) adolescence, in which 91.0% of the teenagers fell. Hence those in middle adolescence were ignored.
- In the results of birth rank of the teens 25.9% were last borns. Only children accounted for 3.7%. But others mainly middle borns accounted for the highest total of 40.7%. A minimal percentage of respondents (1.1%) did not respond to this question.
- Table 4.1(b) also revealed that most of the respondents lived in urban (87.3%) centers permanently. Only 11.1% of them indicated that their permanent residence was in the rural areas. A slight percentage of respondents (1.6%) did not respond to this question.
- According to table 4.1b, most parents were in their middle age (35 – 50 years). 86.8% of them mothers and 65% of them fathers. A slight percentage of the respondents' parents were above 50 years - 8.5% mothers and only 26.5% fathers. 1.1% of the respondents did not indicate the age of their mother, while 7.9% too did not respond to this question concerning the age of their father. This is consistent with Steinberg (1987) that, today, the typical parent is between

35 and 45 years when his or her first child enters early adolescence. This period is viewed as difficult for both parents and their adolescents (Farrel & Rosenberg, 1981; Levinson, 1978).

The following section is a presentation and analysis of the results of the study as per the objectives and respective hypothesis.

4.2 Objective 1: To establish the nature of parent – adolescent relationship as viewed by the adolescents.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between parent – adolescent relationship according to the adolescents' views.

($t = 4.459$, $df = 126$, $p = .000$). Therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. The results indicate that there is a significant difference as revealed by t – test at 0.05 level of significant in the adolescent – mother, and adolescent – father relationship.

Table 4.2a Adolescent – Mother/Father relationship

	Number	Mean
Relationship with mother	127	35.6772
Relationship with father	127	32.5669

The mother – adolescent relationship had a mean of 35.6772, while father – adolescent relationship had a mean of 32.5669. The higher the mean, the closer the relationship.

Adolescents were asked to describe their relationship with the mother and the father.

Table 4.2(b) Nature of relationship between parents and their adolescents

	Mother		Father		Both	
Nature of Relationship	**Frequency**	**%**	**Frequency**	**%**	**Frequency**	**%**
Very good	41	21,7	27	14.4	34	18.5
Good	107	56.6	54	28.6	81	42.6
Not good	17	9.0	20	10.6	18	9.8
Total	165	87.3	101	53.4	133	70.4
No response	24	12.7	88	46.6	56	29.65
Total	**189**	**100.0**	**189**	**100.0**	**189**	**100.0**

A total of 56.6% of the teenagers described their relationship with their mother as good, or close. About 21.7% of the respondents described it as very good. Only a small percentage of 9.0% described it as not good. But 12.7% of the participants did not respond to this question. Therefore, a majority of the adolescents (78.3%) perceived their relationship with the mother as harmonious.

The results also revealed that a total of 28.6% of the adolescents experienced good relationship with their father. Only about 14.3% of the teenagers described the relationship as very good. But 10.6% of the respondents described it as not good. A large number of the participants (46.6%) did not respond to this question with the father. Again, majority of the participants (42.9%) described their relationship with the father as okay or pleasant.

A higher percentage of adolescents (78.3%) described a positive relationship with the mother as compared to those who described a positive relationship with the father (46.6%). But a slightly higher percentage of the respondents (10.6%) described a negative relationship with the father as compared to those who described a negative relationship with the mother (9.0%). More teenagers, 88 (46.6%) did not

respond to the question on father – adolescent relationship as compared to only 24 (12.7%) who did not respond to the question on the mother – adolescent relationship.

4.3 Objective 2

To determine whether there are differences in the nature of parent-adolescent relationship according to gender and age.

This objective was tested by hypothesis 2(a-c) to 3(a-c), which follow:

Hypothesis 2(a) There is no difference in the nature of relationship between mother-adolescent according to the teenager's gender. (F = .541, df = 1, P=.463). Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. F test is not significant. So there is no significant difference in the nature of relationship between mother-son and mother-daughter. This is revealed by the Likert scale mean on Table 4.3 below;

Table 4.3 – Gender relationships

Gender of participant		Mothers relationship	Relationship with father
MALE	Mean	34.9625	31.3684
	Number	80	76
	% of total Number	53.3%	52.8%
FEMALE	Mean	35.9429	33.2794
	Number	70	68
	% of total Number	46.7%	47.2%
Total	Mean	35.4200	32.2708
	Number	150	144
	% of total Number	100.0%	100.0%

Table 4.3 reveals that son-mother relationship had a mean of 34.9625 while mother-daughter relationship had a mean of 35.9429. Thus, mother-daughter had slightly better relationship than that of mother-son. But the difference is not significant. Therefore, mothers enjoy closer relationship with their teenagers irrespective of the adolescent's gender.

Hypothesis 2(b): **There is no difference in the nature of relationship between father-adolescents according to the teenager's gender.** (F=1.481, df=1, P=.226).

F test is not significant. Therefore the null hypothesis is retained. There is no significant difference in the relationship of father-son and father-daughter. According to Table 4.3, son-father relationship had a mean of 31.3684, while daughter-father relationship had a mean of 33.2794. Again, daughters enjoy slightly better relationship with their fathers as compared to son-father relationship.

Hypothesis 2(c): **There are no significant differences between the nature of parent-adolescent relationship and the teenager's gender.** (F=2.756, df=1, P=.099). Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The adolescent's gender does not significantly influence the nature of parent – teen relationship.

Hypothesis 3(a): **There are no significant differences between the nature of mother-adolescent relationship according to the teenager's age.** (Phase of adolescence: early or late) (F=1.069, df=1, P=.303). F is not significant. Therefore the null hypothesis is retained.

According to Table 4.4, below, the mean difference between early and late teen in their relationship with the mother is not great. Early teens posted a mean of 34.7500 while late teens had a mean of 36.1705.

Table 4.4: Relationship according to teenager's age

		Number	Mean
Relationship with father.	Early teen	54	31.8148
	Late teen	87	32.7011
	Total	141	32.3617
Relationship with mother.	Early teen	56	34.7500
	Late teen	88	36.1705
	Total	144	35.6181
Relationship with peers.	Early teen	64	18.6250
	Late teen	85	20.8588
	Total	149	19.8993

Hypothesis 3(b): There are no differences between the nature of father-adolescent relationship according to the teenager's age (that is, the Phase of adolescence: early or late). (F=.292, df=1, P=0.51). F is not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Table 4.4 above shows that there is minimal difference between the means posted by early and late teens in their relationship with their father. Early teens showed a means of 31.8148, while late teens had a mean of 32.7011 in their nature of relationship with the father.

Hypothesis 3(c): There are no significant differences between the nature of parent-adolescent relationship according to the age of the teenager (Phase of adolescence: early or late). (F=.192, df=1, P=.662). F is not significant. Therefore the null hypothesis was not rejected. Teenager's age does not significantly influence the nature of parent-adolescent relationship.

4.4 Objective 3

To investigate the nature of adolescent–peer relationship; and determine whether parent-adolescent relationship is influenced by the adolescent's level of involvement with peers and school type.

This objective was tested by hypothesis 4(a-d) to 5(a-d).

Hypothesis 4(a): There is no significant difference between the nature of adolescent–peer and parent-adolescent relationship according to the teenager's level of involvement with peers. (t= -13.820, df=112, P=.000). t is significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. Adolescents-peers relate differently from parents-adolescents. This is reflected in Table 4.5(a) below.

4.5(a) Adolescent – peer, and Adolescent – parent relationship

	Number	Mean
Relationship with father	126	31.6270
Relationship with peers	126	19.5079
Relationship with mother	130	35.2769
Relationship with peers	130	19.7769
Relationship with parents	113	33.6903
Relationship with peers	113	19.5575

The lower the mean, the weak the relationship.

Table 4.5 reveals that adolescents have a weaker relationship with peers, as compared to that with parents. The mother has a stronger relationship (35.2769) with adolescents than either the father (31.6270) or the adolescent (19.5575) with the peers.

Hypothesis 4(b): There are no significant differences between the nature of mother-adolescent relationship according to the teenager's level of involvement with peers. (t=15.945, df=129, P=.000). Therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. The results indicate a significant difference in the nature of mother-adolescent relationship according to the teenager's level of involvement with peers as reflected in Table 4.5(a). The mother had a mean of 35.2769, while adolescent-peer had a mean of 19.7769. Therefore, the mother had a stronger relationship with the adolescents as compared to that of adolescents with their peers.

Hypothesis 4(c): There are no differences between the nature of father-adolescent relationship according to the adolescent's level of involvement with peers. (t=11.705, df=125, P=.000). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. There is a significant difference in the way fathers relate to their adolescents compared to the level of involvements with peers. The higher the level of adolescents' involvement with peers, the weaker the relationship with the father.

Table 4.5(a) shows that father-adolescent relationship had a mean of 31.6270 as compared to adolescent-peer relationship mean of 19.5079.

Hypothesis 4(d): There are no differences between the nature of parent-adolescent relationship according to the level of involvement with peers. (t= -13.820, df=112, P=0.000). t is significant. Therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. Adolescents relate differently to their parents as compared to the way they relate with their peers.

To further get the influence of adolescent-peer relationship, the teenagers were asked to mention areas their friends affected their relationships with their parents.

The responses to this question is portrayed in Table 4.5(b)

Table 4.5(b): Friends' influence on parent-adolescent relationship

Area of influence	Frequency	%
Social relationships	21	11.1
On academic work	13	6.9
Manner of dressing and speech	22	11.6
Time schedule	27	14.3
Outings/drugs	43	22.8

Results in Table 4.5(b) show that peer relations do have negative influence on the nature of parent-adolescent relationship since most teenagers reported disagreements with their parents on these issues.

Hypothesis 5(a): There are no differences between the nature of mother-adolescent relationship according to the teenager's type of school. (F=.364, df=4, P=.834). Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Boys day (33.9259), girls' day

(35.0000) and mixed day (35.6071) schools revealed a weaker relationship with their mother (as reflected in Table 4.6) as compared to boys boarding (36.3913) and girls boarding (36.0833).

Table 4.6: Relationship according to school type

		Number	Mean
Relationship with mother	Mixed day	56	35.6071
	Boys Boarding	23	36.3913
	Girls Board	24	36.0833
	Girls Day	20	35.0000
	Boys Day	27	33.9259
	Total	150	35.4200
Relationship with father	Mixed day	51	33.3922
	Boys Boarding	22	35.6818
	Girls Board	22	35.0455
	Girls Day	23	28.1739
	Boys Day	26	28.4615
	Total	144	32.2708
Relationship with peer	Mixed day	54	21.7778
	Boys Boarding	25	20.3600
	Girls Board	22	17.0909
	Girls Day	26	19.6538
	Boys Day	27	18.6296
	Total	154	19.9675

Hypothesis 5(b): There are no significant differences between the nature of father-adolescent relationship according to the teenager's school type. (F=3.803, df=4, P=.006). Relationship is significant. Therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. Table 4.5 reveals that the father's relationship with teenagers in day schools is weaker compared with those in boarding schools. Boys day posted a mean of 28.4615, girls day had a mean of 28.1739 as compared to boys boarding with 35.6818 and girls boarding with 35.0455.

Hypothesis 5(c): There is no significant difference between the nature of parent-teen relationship according to the adolescents' type of school. (F=1.589, df=4, P=.182). F is not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Generally, the type of school does not influence the nature of parent-adolescent relationship.

Hypothesis 5(d): There is no significant difference in the nature of adolescent-peers relationship according to the type of school. (F=3.407, df=4, P=.011). F is significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. There is a significant difference in the adolescent-peer relationship with the type of school as reflected in Table 4.6 above. Girls boarding had the weakest relationship with a mean of 17.0909, while adolescents in mixed day schools had the strongest relationship shown by a means of 21.7778. Boys boarding were second with mean of 20.3600, followed by girls day (19.6538). Fourth was boys day school with a mean of 18.6296.

4.5 Objective 4

To identify the most common areas of disagreement between parents and their adolescents.

This objective had hypothesis number six (6) which states that:

There are no significant gender and school type differences in the areas of disagreement between adolescents and their parents. This hypothesis is tested after presenting the areas of disagreements.

First, the adolescents were asked to identify five (5) most serious problems that had put a lot of tension between them and their parents. Their responses are presented in Table 4.7(a) below.

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Table 4.7(a): Common areas of disagreements between parents and adolescents.

Areas of disagreement	Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%
Choice of friends/opposite sex	67	35.4	58	30.7
Time schedule (coming home late)	60	31.7	30	15.9
Academic performance	57	30.2	52	27.5
Manner of speech and entertainment	42	22.2	10	5.3
Home chores	23	12.2	0	0
Manner of dressing	20	10.6	7	3.7
Finance (pocket money)	15	7.9	11	5.8
Drug abuse	10	5.2	15	7.9
Religion (going to church)	7	3.7	0	0

The results presented in Table 4.7(a) show that the most common areas of disagreement between parents and their adolescent was the adolescents' choice of friends. This was reported by 33.3%. Second in rank was academic performance with 28.8%, and third was time schedule, going out and coming home late. This was reported by 23.8% of the respondents.

Secondly, the adolescents were asked to name the most serious problem that they had ever faced or were facing at the time of data collection with the mother and with the father. The findings are presented in Table 4.7(b).

The results revealed that the most serious area of disagreement between mothers and their adolescents was the general friends the teenager kept. This was cited by 11.6%, and the same had a higher percentage (13.2%) with the father.

Table 4.7(b): Most serious problem faced/being faced.

		Mother		Father	
Rank		**Mum**	**Mum**	**Dad**	**Dad**
	Most serious problem	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**
1	Choice of friends	22	11.6	25	13.2
2	Academic performance/Career choice	19	10.1	19	10.1
3	Coming home late	16	8.5	7	3.7
4	Finance/pocket money	9	4.8	6	3.2
5	Home chores	8	4.2	0	0
6	Drug abuse	7	3.7	5	2.6
7	Total quarrels	0	0	6	3.2
8	Religion	2	1.1	0	0
	Total	83	43.9	68	36.0
	No response	106	56.1	121	64.0
	Total	189	100.0	189	100.0

Second was in the area of academic performance and career choices. This was reported by 10.1% of the teenagers with both the mother and father. Third was on the issue of coming home late. Adolescents who had disagreements with their mother were more than two times (8.5%) compared to those with their father (3.7%).

Further, the adolescents were asked to write down what they would tell their parents if they could talk honestly with them. Their responses are presented in that 4.7(c).

Table 4.7(c): Issues Adolescents would discuss with their parents

	Mother		Father	
Issue	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**
Relationships:	117	61.9	70	37.0
boyfriend/girlfriend	47	24.9	29	15.3
Academic work and school life	42	22.2	31	16.4
Try to understand them	39	20.6	40	21.2
Listen to them	--	--	10	5.3
Stop alcohol taking	--	--	22	11.6
Be more open/available	12	6.3	--	--
Stop shouting	17	9.0	9	5.0
Dressing/hairstyles/language				

The findings presented in Table 4.7(c) reveal that, given the chance, teenagers have issues which they would wish to discuss with their parents.

The list shows that those issues causing friction between them and their parents (Table 4.7(a) ranged high in their wish to discuss them. These include relationships (61.9%) with the mothers and 37.0% with the fathers. This is followed by academics 24.9% with mother and 15.3% with father of the adolescents who expressed their wish to discuss the issue. Then there are those who wished that their parents would try to understand them, (22.2% with mothers).

Hypothesis 6, for objective 4 tested and reported below:

Hypothesis 6(a): **There are no significant gender differences in the areas of disagreement between adolescents and their mothers.** (X^2 = 11.698, df=6, P=.069). X^2 is not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Hypothesis 6(b): **There are no significant gender differences in the areas of disagreement between adolescents and their fathers.** (X^2=1.779, df=5, P=.879). X^2 is not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis 6(c): **There are no significant differences in the areas of disagreement between adolescents and their mother according to school type.** (X^2=3-.220, df=24, P=.178). X^2 is not significant. Therefore the null hypothesis is not rejected. Adolescents raised almost similar issues of disagreement with their mother irrespective of school type.

Hypothesis 6(d): **There are no significant school type differences in the areas of disagreement between adolescents and their father**. (X^2=15.685, df=15, P=.403). X^2 is not significant. Therefore, null hypothesis was retained.

Gender and school type of the adolescents seem to have similar areas of disagreement with parent as presented in table 4.7(a-c).

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

5.0 INTRODUCTION:

The aim of this study was to investigate the nature of parent-adolescent, and adolescent-peers relationship.

The results of the study were based on tests and analysis of data gathered from a sample of 189 adolescents from six (6) secondary schools in Nairobi Province, Kenya.

The sample consisted of both boys (96) and girls (93) aged between thirteen (13) and twenty (20) years.

Frequencies, percentages and means were used to describe the sample characteristics. In addition ANOVA (Analysis of Variance), t-test and chi-square were used to test the null hypothesis.

5.1 DISCUSSION:

The section discusses the findings of the four (4) objectives under study.

Objective 1: To establish the nature of parent-adolescent relationship as viewed by the adolescents.

The nature of parent-adolescent relationship ranged from not good to very good. A majority of the adolescents (78.3%) were classified as having either good or very good relationship with the mother, as compared to 42.9% with the father, and 60.6% with both parents. Those with not good relationship with the mother were 9.0%, with the father were 10.6%, and with both parents 19.6%. However, 12.7% of the participants with the mother, and 46.6% with the father did not respond to this question. This is probably because more teenagers lived with their mother (10.6%)

as compared to those who lived with their father (4.2%). It may be that there are more single mothers living with their adolescent children than single fathers. As such, more adolescents hardly if ever related with their fathers.

Generally, the results show that most adolescents enjoy good relationship with their parents. But a higher percentage of teenagers (56.6%) enjoyed a good relationship with the mother as compared to those who enjoyed a good relationship with the father (26.6%).

These findings are consistent with those reported by Steinberg et al; (1991). They noted that various studies across racial, cultural and socio economic groups found that most teenagers feel close to their parents. They concur with one survey done on parent – adolescent conflict by Montemayor in 1983. He concluded in his findings that, even though conflicts arise between adolescents and their parents, a strong bond remains between them. Such conflicts rarely threaten the parent-adolescent relationship, and therefore most of them enjoy a good relationship (Suntrock, 1990).

Similarly, research has shown that, most adolescents say that they feel closer to their mothers than their fathers; and that their mothers understand them better than do their fathers. That is, mothers generally, have more intimate relationship with their children (Grotevant and Cooper, 1986). Infact, statistics further show that adolescents are more comfortable talking to their mothers about their problems and other emotional matters than to their fathers. The fathers retain their authority over the family throughout the pubertal transition. As a result, they are perceived as relatively distant authority figures who may be consulted for "objective" information such as homework, but not support and guidance as in

boyfriend or girlfriend issues (Youniss & Smallar, 1985). This may account for the less close relationship between fathers and their adolescent children.

Objective 2:

To determine whether there are differences in the nature of parent-adolescent relationship according to gender and age.

One way ANOVA test results in this study revealed no differences in the nature of parent-adolescent relationship according to the adolescent's gender. However, results in table 4.3 indicated that mothers and fathers had a slightly better relationship with their daughters than with their sons. This could be justified by the fact that boys are said to be more assertive than girls. Hence girls may easily comply with parents demands, unlike boys. In addition, boys spend less time at home and share few leisure activities with parents, than with peers (Newman and Newman, 1986).

But generally, teenager's gender does not significantly influence the parent-teen-relationship. This concurs with the report of researchers in Steinberg, (1993) which indicate that differences between family relations of sons and daughters are minimal. Infact, research findings indicate that sons and daughters interact with their parents in remarkably similar ways (Cooper & Grotevant, 1987, Hauser et al; 1987). Although there are occasional exceptions to the rule, sons and daughters report similar degrees of closeness to their parents, similar conflicts, similar type of rules and disagreements about those rules and similar patterns of activity (Hill and Holmbeck, 1987; Youniss & Ketterlinus, 1987).

Similarly, one way ANOVA results showed no significant differences in the nature of parent-adolescent relationship according to the teenager's age (Phase of adolescence: early or late). Nevertheless, the mean of father-early and late adolescence was slightly lower (32.63617) than the mean of mother-early and late adolescence (35.6181) in the nature of their relationship with adolescents. This supports the earlier revelation that mothers tend to have slightly better relationship with their adolescents than do their fathers. But overall, the late teens have better relationship with father (32.7011) and mother (36.1705) compared to early teens who had a mean of 31.8148 with the father and 34.7500 with the mother.

This, to some degree is in line with social learning Development Theorists perspective that; early adolescence is the time when parent-child conflict escalates beyond parent-child (Montemayor & Hanson, 1985; Steinberg, 1987). It is a more stressful and strained time for the family than preadolescence and post adolescence. This may be due to what Smetana, (1988, 1989) revealed in his research that, early adolescence is a time of changes (biological and cognitive) in the youngsters view of family's relationships and in family members' expectations of each other. But during late adolescence, many teens leave away from their families in colleges and workplaces. Hence less regulation of their behaviour by family (Newman and Newman, 1986). Thus, late teens have more autonomy. Hence their relationship with parents is less conflictional.

Objective 3

To investigate the nature of adolescent-peer relationship; and determine whether parent-adolescent relationship is influenced by the adolescent's level of involvement with peers and school type.

According to the t-test results in Table 4.5(a), there are differences in the nature of adolescent-peer relationship and adolescent-parent relationship. Adolescents relate differently with their peers as compared to the way they relate with their parents. Infact, adolescents have weaker relationship (19.5575) with their peers compared to that with their mother (35.2769) or with the father (31.6270). This is against the old-age belief that adolescents are closer to their peers than to their parents (Shertzer & Stone, 1971)

Anyway this could be due to the fact that adolescents have some areas of their life that they can only share with their peers, who serve as a source of understanding and support (Mussen et al; 1990). But on serious issues like education, vocation and social values, most teenagers value their parents' views (McMahon, 1990). Further, review of literature shows that, adolescents usually name their parents, not their peers, as most influential people their lives (Galbo, 1984). Hence, the proof about the stronger relationship between adolescents and their parents as compared to their relationship with their peers. Similarly Bandura in Sebald, (1984) concluded that peer group membership is usually not in opposition to family values and does not generate intergenerational conflict. Again, the mean

results indicate that the mother has a stronger relationship (35.2769) with adolescents than either the father (31.6270) or the adolescent (19.5575) with the peers. This could be attributed tot he findings in this study that mothers have stronger relationships with their adolescents (Grotevant and Cooper, 1986).

A qualitative analysis of open-ended questions (presented in Table 4.5 (b) revealed that the peer relations influenced the nature of parent-adolescent relationship negatively since most disagreements arose from those areas where adolescents conformed with their peers. However, most of the issues raised are superficial which are related to day-to-day habits and tastes which do not threaten parent-adolescent relationship (McMahon, 1990). Even though adolescents spend less time with their parents, but with peers, researchers agree that most adolescents care deeply about their parents' opinions and a loving relationship while forming an identity of their own (Hartup, 1983; Rubin & Sloman, 1984).

As per the type of school the adolescent attended, there is a significant difference on the nature of relationship with the father and their peers, but neither with the mother, nor with both parents. However, adolescents in day schools posted a weaker relationship with both the mother and the father as compared to those in boarding secondary schools. This difference could be attributed to the daily interaction of parents with those adolescents' in day schools.

A comparison between the mother's and father's relationship with their adolescents according to the type of school adolescent attended shows that the mother had a stronger relationship (35.4200) as compared to that with the father (32.2708) who had weaker relationship with the adolescents.

Finally, the results in Table 4.6 reflected a significant difference in the adolescent-peer relationship with the type of school adolescent attended. Girls boarding had the weakest relationship with a mean of 17.0909, while those in Mixed day schools had the strongest relationship shown by a mean of 21.7778. This could be accounted for by the fact that those in boarding have limited interactions with the outside school, hence bored with same colleagues. But adolescents in day schools have variety and freedom of interaction both with schoolmates and outsiders.

Objective 4

To identify the most common areas of disagreement between parents and their adolescents.

Research findings showed that adolescents' choice of friends was the most common and most serious area of parent-adolescent disagreement. Academic performance and coming home late took second and third position respectively. Other common areas of conflict included home chores, pocket money, manner of dressing, quarrels, entertainment and language used; going to church and to a lesser extent, drug abuse.

This is consistent with research findings that parent-adolescent conflict areas are social life and customs, responsibility, schools, family relationships, values and morals; and probably, social life and customs create more conflict with parents than any other area (Rice, 1984).

Most of these issues causing disagreement between parents and their adolescents are to do with the teenager's personal taste and choice, for instance, choice of friends dress and hair styles (McMahon, 1990). But there were serious problems cited by small percentage (13.1%) like drug abuse.

A large number of teenagers responded to the areas of disagreement with their mothers than with their fathers. For example, on time schedule, 60 (31.7%) responded for the mother as compared to 30 (15.9%) with the father on the same issue. Overall, more adolescent, 83 (43.9%) responded to this question with the mother as compared to those who responded with the father, 68 (36.0%). This concurs with research findings that adolescents feel more free, and interact more with the mother in household matters than with their fathers (Grotevant & Cooper, 1986).

Consequently, more teenagers cited more differences with their mother (43.9%) than with their father (36.0%). Thus the fact that women are generally involved in household matters and day-to-day care of children, and mothers and teenagers hassle over such routine matters as doing household chores obeying and playing loud music, justifies this magnitude of differences (Neilsen, 1991). This is clearly reflected in Table 4.7 (b) where the conflicts presented mainly involve day-to-day issues such as household chores than outright fighting. So they do not involve Hall's familial "Storm and Stress" (Steinberg, 1993).

This too, is in agreement with other researchers who have reported that both sons and daughters tend to experience more conflicts with their fathers

(Montemayor, 1986; Steinberg, 1987). This could further be attributed to the claim that many mothers are reluctant to relinquish control over their adolescents. Mother-adolescent interaction revolves around her effort to keep her adolescent within family circles, while adolescent attempts to break free (Turner, 1970).

A comparison of the results show that for both mothers and fathers, choice of friends, academic performance and coming home late are the most serious issues of disagreement. Most of these are concerned with the personality and personal tastes of the parent versus that of the adolescent. This is in line with Smetana'a research in McMahon et al; (1990) that, a major contributor to parent-adolescent conflict or arguments is the fact that teenagers and their parents define issues of contention very differently. Thus, they clash over the definition of the issue, that is a matter of custom versus a matter of personal choice, than over specific detail (Smetana, 1988).

On the question of what the adolescents would tell their parents if they could talk honestly with them, results in Table 4.7© revealed that if teenagers were free and honest with their parents, they would discuss or tell their parents almost anything affecting their lives; both the adolescent and the parent. Some of the issues mentioned by the adolescents were relationship-boyfriend/girlfriend, academic work and school life, trying to understand each other, to be more open and available to them, manner of dressing, hair styles and speech. Other teenagers could express their concern over their parent's lifestyle such as taking alcohol and spending too much time out of home.

There is a noticeable similarity between the issues teenagers would like to talk over with their parents and the areas of parent-adolescent disagreement. It therefore appears that, there would be less parent-adolescent conflict if there were a free and honest atmosphere for communication between them. However, this is consistent with Rice (1984) that each generation is absorbed with its own problems and therefore tends to overlook, misinterpret and misunderstand the problems of other. "They don't seem interested or try to understand my problems" (pp. 351). This is clear indication that there is significant lack of communication between parents and their adolescents (Ginnot, 1969, Shertzer and Stone, 1971).

5.2 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION:

Based on research findings of this study, the following conclusions were derived:

- Only a small percentage of the adolescents viewed their relationship with their parents as not good.
- Majority of the teenagers viewed their relationship with their parents as good.
- The nature of mother-adolescent relationship was slightly better than that of father-adolescent.
- Parent-adolescent relationship is not conflict free. Disagreements do arise over certain issues.
- The adolescents' gender, age and school type did not significantly influence the nature of parent-adolescent relationship.
- Most adolescents have a closer relationship with their parents than they do with their peers.
- The adolescents' choice of friends, academic performance and time schedule were the most common and most serious issues of parent-adolescent disagreement.
- Most parent-adolescent disagreements arose from issues related to their everyday habits and tastes rather than serious issues like drug abuse and delinquency.
- Tension and disagreements could be lessened if free and honest atmosphere for parent-adolescent communication is encouraged and opened.
- Adolescent's level of involvement with peers did significantly influence parent-adolescent relationship.
- Adolescents in day schools had weaker relationship with their parents as compared to those in boarding schools.

5.3 Recommendations.

On the basis of the research findings of this study, the researcher made the following recommendations:

- Both parents and adolescents should try to eliminate the age-long prejudice that adolescence is a difficult and stressful period for parents and their adolescents. This old-age belief of adolescence being of "storm and stress" needs to be re-evaluated since most adolescents described their relationship with their parents as harmonious. Even the general public should change their attitude towards adolescence as a predestined time for parent-adolescent conflict, and instead view it as a normal period of human development where the adolescents need guidance and understanding in order to be incarnated into responsible adults. A positive attitude towards this period will consequently serve to improve the nature of adolescent-adult relationship and ensure smooth transition from adolescence into adulthood.
- Similarly, parents, teachers and counselors should look for ways to change the popular notion that adolescent-peers relationship impacts negatively on parent-adolescent relationship. They should improvise means of ensuring that the adolescent-peer relationship enhances the parent-teen relationship probably by encouraging it and giving guidance to lead to the positive relations.
- Parents should ensure that their free and open interaction with their children starts in early childhood and lay firm, friendly relationship. They should also impart desirable values in the child's early life so that at adolescence, there are no abrupt discontinuations or introduction of new rules. This will ensure smooth continuation of the foundation laid earlier in life. Hence avoid stress so long as freedom of expression for both parent and adolescent will have been established.

- Parents should learn to relinquish power and control over their adolescents gradually as they progress in development. This will give adolescent autonomy and will have no reason to fight his parents. Also the parents should create interest and understanding in the adolescents activities. This way, the teenager will feel loved and understood, and will have no reason for protesting.
- Adolescents should be involved in decision-making at home, school, and even in community activities so as to feel appreciated and part of what is happening. This way, their ego will be raised and will positively respond in parent or teacher-adolescent relationship, and enhance general development.

5.4 Suggestions for further research

There are numerous openings for further research in the area of parent-adolescent relationship since it has not been extensively studied, especially in Kenya.

As a result, the researcher would propose the following areas for further research.

- A study of the nature of relationship between parents and their adolescents in rural secondary schools.
- A comparative study of the nature of relationship between adolescents in rural and urban secondary schools.
- A comparative study on day versus boarding schools both in rural and urban schools on parent-adolescent relationship.
- A comparative study on girls versus boys in boarding, day and mixed secondary schools on parent-adolescent relationship.
- A study on non-school going adolescents and the nature of parent-adolescent relationship.

- A comparative study on the nature of parent-adolescent relationship between non-school going and school going teenagers.
- A study on parents' views on the nature of parent-adolescent relationship.
- A comparative study on parent versus adolescent's views on the parent-adolescent relationship.
- A study on adolescents-peers relationship in different school types: public versus private, low cost versus high cost, day versus boarding, mixed versus single gender schools.
- A comparative study of the issues of disagreements between parents and their adolescents in various school types.
- An assessment of social adjustment of teenagers with good nature of parent-adolescent relationship and those without good parent-adolescent relationship.
- An assessment of parenting styles and parent-adolescent relationship.

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QUESTIONNAIRE FOR A STUDY OF PARENT-ADOLESCENT AND ADOLESCENT-PEER RELATIONSHIPS

Please answer all the questions honestly. You may not write your name. Since your replies may be anonymous, let me know your real feelings. The information will be held in strict confidence and will only be used for the purpose of this study. Tick the alternative that best applies to you in the objective questions. Fill in the answers to the open questions in the blank spaces provided.

Section A: Demographic Characteristics

Name (Optional) _____

Gender _____

Age in years _____

Form _____

School _____

1. Which is your permanent Residence?

   Rural [ ]

   Urban [ ]

   Tick the relevant answer to your family.

2. My mother is _____ years.

   35 - 39 [ ]
   39 – 50 [ ]
   Under 35 [ ]
   Over 50 [ ]

3. My father is _____ years.

   35 - 39 [ ]
   39 – 50 [ ]
   Under 35 [ ]
   Over 50 [ ]

4. Whom do you live with?

   - My mother all the time [ ]
   - My father all the time [ ]
   - Both my parents all the time [ ]

- Occasionally with only one of them [ ]
- Uncle/Aunt/Grandparents [ ]
- Others (please specify) [ ]

5. How many brothers and sisters do you have?

   [ ] brothers [ ] sisters

6. What is your birth rank?

   [ ] first born
   [ ] last born
   [ ] only child
   [ ] other (please specify)

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIP WITH MOTHER

Section B: Relationship with Mother

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	My mother likes my choice of friends.					
2.	My mother approves of the language I use in my conversations.					
3.	My mother approves my times schedules (e.g. waking up and sleeping time, coming in at night).					
4.	My mother is satisfied with my academic performance.					
5.	My mother approves of my career aspirations.					
6.	My mother and I enjoy each other's company and talk over our problem.					
7.	My mother is positively responsive to any issues that affect me.					
8.	My mother provides me with valuable advice but encourages me to make independent decisions.					
9.	My mother makes all decisions concerning me without consulting me.					
10.	I do not talk back to my mother when she reprimands me for doing wrong.					
11.	I do not disobey my mother's orders.					
12.	My mother is open and honest when expressing her feelings about me.					

13.	I am open and honest with my mother when expressing my feelings about her.					
14.	I stick to the schedules my mother sets up for me (e.g. going out and coming back times).					

15. The 5 (five) serious problems that are putting (or have put) a lot of tension between my mother and I are:

(a) _____
(b) _____
(c) _____
(d) _____
(e) _____

16. Name the most serious problem you have faced (or are facing) with your mother and explain how (if ever) it was solved.

_____
_____
_____
_____

17. If you could talk really honestly with your mother, what important things about your interaction/relationship with her would you tell her?

(a) _____
(b) _____
(c) _____
(d) _____

18. How would you describe your relationship with your mother? Explain your answer briefly.

_____
_____
_____

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIP WITH THE FATHER

Section C: Relationship with Father

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	My father like my choice of friends.					
2.	My father approves of the language I use in my conversations.					
3.	My father approves my times schedules (e.g. waking up and sleeping time, coming in at night).					
4.	My father is satisfied with my academic performance.					
5.	My father approves of my career aspirations.					
6.	My father and I enjoy each other's company and talk over our problem.					
7.	My father is positively responsive to any issues that affect me.					
8.	My father provides me with valuable advice but encourages me to make independent decisions.					
9.	My father makes all decisions concerning me without consulting me.					
10.	I do not talk back to my father when she reprimands me for doing wrong.					
11.	I do not disobey my father's orders.					

12.	My father is open and honest when expressing her feelings about me.					
13.	I am open and honest with my father when expressing my feelings about her.					
14.	I stick to the schedules my father sets up for me (e.g. going out and coming back times).					

15. The 5 (five) serious problems that are putting (or have put) a lot of tension between my father and I are:

(f) _____
(g) _____
(h) _____
(i) _____
(j) _____

16. Name the most serious problem you have faced (or are facing) with your father and explain how (if ever) it was solved.

_____
_____
_____
_____

17. If you could talk really honestly with your father, what important things about your interaction or relationship with him would you tell him?

(e) _____
(f) _____
(g) _____
(h) _____

18. How would you describe your relationship with your father? Explain your answer briefly.

_____
_____
_____

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIP WITH PEERS

Section D: Relationship with Peers

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	I do not always do what my friends want me to do.					
2.	I am not influenced by my friends in my manner of dressing and hair style.					
3.	I am not influenced by my friends in the choice of language I use.					
4.	I always enjoy the company of my friends more than I enjoy that of my father.					
5.	I always enjoy the company of my friends more than that I enjoy of my mother.					
6.	I spend more time talking with my friends about personal issues than I do with my mother.					
7.	I spend more time talking with my friends about personal issues than I do with my father.					
8.	I am involved in more activities with my friends than with my family.					
9.	My close friends understand me better than my parents do.					
10.	I feel I can learn more from my parents than from my friends.					

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11. In which areas do your friends affect your relationship with your parents?

_____

_____

_____

_____

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E-mail: kubps@yahoo.com

Our Ref: E55/7871/02 **Date**: 30th August, 2004
Your Ref:

The Permanent Secretary,
Ministry of Education, Science & Technology,
P.O.Box 30040
NAIROBI.

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION:

I write to introduce Ms. Joyce M. Makau who is a Postgraduate Student of this University. She is registered for M.Ed degree programme in the Department of Psychology.

Ms. Makau intends to conduct research for a project entitled, "A Study of the Relationship Between the Parents and their Adolescents, and Adolescents and their Peer,'' as a partial fulfillment of the requirement of her degree programme.

Any assistance given to her will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

R.N. MANG'ENI
FOR AG. DEAN, GRADUATE SCHOOL

C.C. Registrar (Academic)
Dean, GS - to see on file
Dean, School of Education.
Chairman, Psychology Dept.

RNM:mb

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DATE: 25/08/04

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

REF: JOYCE MAKAU – E55/7871/02

This letter is to confirm that the above is our second year masters student at the Department of Educational Psychology. She is of good standing and is currently in the process of doing research for her thesis.

Any assistance financial or otherwise will help her to complete her research.

Thank you for considering her request.

Yours sincerely,

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AUG
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Dr. Sammy Tumuti
Chairman, Educational Psychology Department

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