#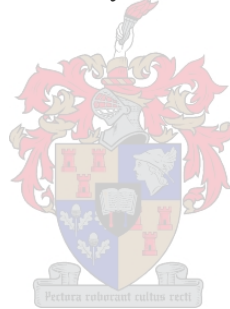 EXPLORING *CLOSENESS* IN PARENT-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIPS (PAR) IN A SEMI-RURAL, LOW-INCOME COMMUNITY IN THE WESTERN CAPE PROVINCE OF SOUTH AFRICA

OLIVIA BOMESTER

Thesis presented in fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of the Master of Arts (Psychology)
at the University of Stellenbosch

Supervisor: Dr. Elmien Lesch

March 2012

DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

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ABSTRACT

Research is limited regarding closeness in parent-adolescent relationships (PAR), particularly in marginalised communities. The research objective was to explore closeness in PAR in one semi-rural, low-income Coloured community in the Western Cape Province of South Africa. This study was exploratory in nature, making use of a cross-sectional survey research design and semi-structured interviews. Fifty families (67 parents and 50 adolescents) were eligible and willing to participate in the quantitative part of this study, while 12 families (19 parents and 12 adolescents) took part in the qualitative part of the study. For the empirical investigation into close PAR, the following questionnaires were administered to parents:

Mother and Father Versions of the Inventory of Parent Attachment (IPA), Revised Inventory of Parent Attachment (RIPA), and the Relationship Closeness Inventory (RCI). The questionnaires are currently not standardized for South African populations, therefore they were adapted to suit the specific context and translated into Afrikaans.

For statistical analysis of the surveys, summary statistics was performed using measures like means, standard deviations, frequency tables, and histograms. Reliability analysis was conducted using Cronbach's alpha. For comparison of the different instruments, correlations were calculated. Comparisons between different groupings were done using two-way ANOVA. Thematic analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data and to explore the participants' constructions of close PAR.

General findings were that most female participants reported close mother-daughter relationships while most male participants reported relatively close father-son relationships. Overall, mothers generally spent more time with their adolescent children. Fathers and daughters generally reported less close relationships with one another. Although fathers were relatively more involved in their children's lives compared to fathers in prior research studies, mothers and adolescents reported to have a closer bond.

OPSOMMING

Die navorsing is beperk ten opsigte van nabyheid in die ouer-adolessent verhoudings (OAV), veral in gemarginaliseerde gemeenskappe. Die navorsing doelstelling was om nabyheid in OAV in 'n semi-landelike, lae-inkomste Kleurling-gemeenskap in die Wes-Kaap Provinsie van Suid-Afrika te verken. Hierdie studie is verkennend van aard, en het 'n dwarsdeursnee-opname navorsingsontwerp en semi-gestruktureerde onderhoude gebruik. Vyftig gesinne (67 ouers en 50 adolessente) was bereid om deel te neem in die kwantitatiewe deel van hierdie studie, terwyl 12 gesinne (19 ouers en 12 adolessente) in die kwalitatiewe deel van die studie deelgeneem het. Vir die empiriese ondersoek in noue OAV, is die volgende vraelyste gebruik: Vader en Moeder weergawes van die *Inventaris Van Ouer Gehegtheid, Huidige Situasie Met My Kind*, en die *Verhouding Nabyheid Inventaris*. Die vraelyste is tans nie gestandaardiseer vir Suid-Afrikaanse bevolkings nie, daarom was hulle aangepas om die spesifieke konteks te pas en in Afrikaans vertaal. Vir die statistiese analise van die opnames, is opsommingstatistiek uitgevoer met behulp van maatreëls soos gemiddeldes, standaardafwykings, frekwensietabelle, en histogramme. Betroubaarheid analise is uitgevoer met behulp van Cronbach se alfa. Vir 'n vergelyking van die verskillende instrumente was korrelasies bereken. Vergelykings tussen die verskillende groeperings is gedoen met behulp van tweerigting-ANOVA. Tematiese analise is gebruik om die kwalitatiewe data te analiseer en om die deelnemers se konstruksies van noue OAV te verken. Algemene bevindings is dat die meeste vroulike deelnemers noue moeder-dogter verhoudings gerapporteer het, terwyl die meeste manlike deelnemers relatief noue vader-seun-verhouding gerapporteer het. Die moeders, oor die algemeen, het meer tyd met hulle adolessente kinders deurgebring. Paøs en dogters het, oor die algemeen, minder noue verhoudings met mekaar gehad. Hoewel die vaders relatief meer betrokke in hul kinders se lewens was, in vergelyking met die vaders in vorige navorsingstudies, moeders en adolessente het nouer bande met mekaar gerapporteer.

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- **My family** ó Thank you to my dear husband, Stafford, for your unwavering love and understanding throughout this research process. Thank you to my precious, beautiful little children, Tristan and Isabella for õpretending to understandö when mommy had to sacrifice family time to work.

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So much of what is great has sprung from the closeness of family ties –

James M. Barrie

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION AND MOTIVATION

The close relationships area has been referred to as *relationship science* by Berscheid (1999). It is an interdisciplinary research area which emerged largely during the last two to three decades. Close relationship research focuses on issues such as love, commitment, and social support. Specifically, close relationships researchers have focussed on the construct of closeness, as it relates to families and work, remarried families, and single parenting (Hendrick, 2004). In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in the study of interpersonal relationships between adolescents and the significant people in their social environments (Claes, 1998). Most international studies have focused on interpersonal relationships between adolescents and their parents and peers (Hartup, 1993; Renshaw & Parke, 1992; Youniss & Smollar, 1985), while few studies have examined adolescent-sibling relationships (Burhmester & Furman, 1990; Montemayor & Hanson, 1985).

Adolescence is a significant phase in the human life cycle for physical, cognitive, and psychosocial development (Papalia, Olds, & Feldman, 2009). Whilst each adolescent's individual experience may be remarkably different, a common theme that appears to emerge during this period is that of seeking autonomy, to a greater or lesser degree (Laursen & Collins, 1994; Scott, Booth, King, & Johnson, 2007). As adolescents attempt to gain more independence, they may endeavour to develop their own sense of self (Papalia et al., 2009; Steinberg & Silk, 2002). õOne of the most important developmental tasks that adolescents face is to achieve a mature and healthy sense of autonomy ó the capacity to make one's own decisions and to manage life tasks without being overly dependent on other peopleö (Shaffer & Kipp, 2010, p. 220). Shanahan, McHale, Osgood, and Crouter (2007) are of the view that the growing independence means that adolescents spend less time with their parents, are less affectionate toward them, and argue more often with them about styles, tastes, and freedom. However, Allen and Land (1999) believe that adolescents undergo normal bodily changes which naturally lead to a declining dependence on parents, but this does not signify the erosion in the importance of parent-adolescent relationships (PAR). Moraski (2002) points out that adolescents do tend to push their parents away, as this is a natural part of their process of maturation. As they detach themselves from their parents (Scott et al., 2007) they focus more on their friends for support and information. Many parents may falsely assume that peers play more significant roles in their adolescent children's lives than they as parents do (Delgado, as cited in Lezin, Rolleri, Bean, & Taylor, 2004). Yet, parents continue to be

important figures for adolescents and many do maintain close relationships and interactions with their parents (Moore, Guzman, Hair, Lippman, & Garret, 2004). Adolescentsø well-being also remains affected by the quality of their relationship with their parents (Rossi & Rossi, 1990; Thornton, Orbuch & Axinn, 1995; Van Wel, Bogt, & Raaijmakers, 2002, as cited in Bucx & Van Wel, 2008). Many studies provide evidence that close PAR benefit adolescents, especially regarding their mental and psychosocial well-being. These studies have found that close PAR are related to better academic performance, decreased risk of engaging in risky or problematic behaviour, and positive adult partner relationships in later life (Hair et al., 2003). Moore et al. (2004) argue that although parent-adolescent relationships may vary, they are often more positive than many might expect. Surveys in European and North American samples have frequently revealed that parents and adolescents alike perceive their relationships as warm and pleasant (Grotevant, 1998) and adolescentsø attitudes towards parents become increasingly more positive over the course of the adolescent period. Although parents and adolescents spend less time together and also behave differently with each other compared to parents and younger children; neither the importance of these relationships nor their functional significance diminishes. Most researchers today describe this process as *transformation* in which the properties and conditions of relationships change, without threatening to weaken the parent-adolescent bond (Collins, 1990). Steinberg (2001) asserts that there has to be a change therefore in the way in which parents and teenagers view themselves, as well as parentsø roles in adolescentsø development. He counters the misleading claims in the popular media that closeness to parents matter less to adolescents. õFew would deny that it is intrinsically valuable for parents and children to feel close to one another and enjoy being with one anotherö (p. 3). Moore et al. (2004) therefore consider closeness as an element of positive PAR, and argue that there are numerous benefits to this kind of relationship.

Adolescents generally perceive relationships with parents as providing unique resources, for example, early- to mid-adolescents more often than not turn to parents under conditions of extreme stress, and even young adults often look to parents for emotional support when experiencing difficulties (Allen & Land, 1999; Fraley & Davis, 1997). Emotional bonds between parents and children therefore survive the changes of adolescence, and parents do serve as resources during and even beyond the second decade of life.

One major limitation in the studies of close PAR is that only adolescents are usually included in samples, and rarely parents too. Barrocas (2006) argues that despite the significance of the reciprocal nature of the parent-adolescent attachment bond, there is not

much research to date on how mothers and fathers are attached to their adolescents. As will be shown in the literature review in Chapter 3, most of the PAR research has been conducted in developed Western countries like North America, Australia, and the European countries. It is therefore not certain how relevant these research findings are for various South African groups. In addition, most of extant international research has been conducted with White (Caucasian) and Black adolescents; minority groups tend to make up a small percentage of the sample groups. In general, there is a paucity of research regarding South African families, and existing research often focus on deficiencies and calamities (Nkosi & Daniels, 2007). Despite the importance of close PAR in adolescent well-being, insufficient research has been conducted on closeness in PAR in the South African context. Many of the South African PAR research which include Black participants (e.g. Thom, 1988) were conducted in the late 1980s and early 1990s, and the relevance of these findings for contemporary PAR in Black communities in South Africa is therefore questionable. South African psychological research also tends *not* to focus on neglected groups such as the Coloured[1] population. Macleod (2004), for example, found that between 1999 and 2003, only 3.7% of the studies published in the *South African Journal of Psychology* drew samples from the country's Coloured population, and according to Statistics South Africa (2011), there are 4.45 million Coloureds nationwide (i.e. 9% of the total population).

Furthermore, relationship researchers tend to overlook the importance of the context in understanding how people relate. Duck, West, and Acitelli (1997) argue that social and cultural contexts are pivotal in shaping relationships, because they provide individuals with rules and norms regarding relationships, appropriate ways to express emotions, as well as relationship language. Supporting such a social constructionist approach to relationship research, the proposed study will focus on PAR in one specific South African community. This study aims to address the lack of context-specific knowledge on PAR in Coloured low-income families. This study forms part of a larger funded project which focuses on exploring close relationships in one low-income Coloured community in the Western Cape.

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[1] "Coloured" is a term that was used under the Apartheid system to refer to people of mixed racial descent and does not suggest homogeneity. The term emerged in the late nineteenth century and continues to be used in this post-apartheid day and age. Although the use of racial categories in South African scholarship is contentious and there is a need to move beyond them, the term Coloured is still used today to refer to or self-identify race or ethnicity. Laubscher (2003) also argues that the term should be seen as indicative of a certain social and cultural context. It must be emphasized that in this study the term is not used to reinforce Apartheid ideology, but to acknowledge a history of political and economic differentiation between groups in South Africa.

The community of focus in this study has been selected because it represents the kind of South African community which is often neglected by local family researchers. It is a semi-rural farm-working community, surrounded by hills planted with vineyards, olive trees, and various orchards. The community is located outside a medium-sized town surrounded by farms that require intensive labour and is populated predominantly by Afrikaans-speaking, Coloured people (Visionafrika, 2011). The inhabitants are mostly working-class individuals (Lesch, 2000) primarily employed in the wine industry (Visionafrika, 2011), who earn monthly incomes of anywhere between R1000,00 to R3000,00. There is no clinic in the community, but a mobile clinic visits the community on a monthly basis. This means that oftentimes residents have to travel to Stellenbosch to be treated. The rates for tuberculosis and HIV/AIDS are high, and teenage pregnancies are quite common. õTikö addiction is also quite prevalent and problematic, especially amongst the youth. Although there is a primary school in the community, there is no high school, and most learners are transported via buses to the secondary school several kilometres away. There are two small cafés in the community, therefore most of the farm labourers have to travel to town in order to do their shopping. While the community enjoys sports such as soccer, netball, and rugby, it lacks the necessary sporting facilities (Visionafrika, 2011).

London (1995) notes that the educational levels of farm workers are low, and illiteracy ranges from 20% to 30% (Kritzinger & Vorster, 1996). Economic, social, and emotional distress are common amongst these individuals (Swartz, 1997), and as a result, other õriskyö psychosocial problems abound in this community. These include: drug and alcohol dependency, Foetal Alcohol Syndrome (FAS), school truancy, the use of weapons in violent situations, and intimate partner violence (IPV) (Engelbrecht, 2009; London, 1999; May et al., 2000). Hence, many low-income semi-rural communities (such as the one under investigation) in the Western Cape are characterized by poverty, unemployment, poor or non-existent health facilities, inadequate or crowded housing, and the inadequate provision of education (Pauw, 2005).

The objective of this study was to investigate closeness in PAR with these individuals who are otherwise locked out of mainstream dialogues due to poor socio-economic standing (Rabie, 2007).

In the next chapter, the conceptualization of terms and theoretical framework will be explained. This will be followed by Chapter 3 which will present a literature review of close PAR. In Chapter 4, the methodology will be explained, followed by Chapter 5, which presents the data findings. Chapters 6 and 7 will discuss the quantitative and qualitative results, respectively. Chapter 8 contains triangulation, limitations, conclusion and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUALIZATION OF TERMS AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Conceptualization of terms

At the core of a happy family are parents and children, connected to one another in a way that is mutually satisfying, pleasing and enduring (Lezin et al., 2004). The aforementioned researchers have described this as parent-child connectedness; others use the terms parent-child attachment, parent-child cohesion, parent-child bonding or parent-child closeness (Bahr, Marcos, & Maughan, 1995; Farrell, Barnes, & Banerjee, 1995). Parent-child connectedness is an umbrella term, characterised by the quality of the emotional bond between parent and child, and by the degree to which this bond is mutual and sustained over time. When parent-child connectedness is high in the family, the emotional climate is one of warmth, affection, satisfaction, trust and minimal conflict. Parents and children who share a high level of connectedness enjoy spending time together, communicate freely and openly, support and respect one another, share similar values, and have a sense of optimism about the future (Lezin et al., 2004; Miller, Benson, & Galbraith, 2001).

Repinski and Zook (2005) maintain that in many cases, it is challenging to study adolescentsø close relationships, as the descriptive term *close* is oftentimes vague and undefined. Others, however, have attempted to provide more specific definitions of *closeness*. For Zhang, Welte, and Wieczorek (1999), closeness means talking about worries, enjoying leisure time and having joint discussions. Rothbaum, Pott, Hiroshi, Kazuo, and Weisz (2000) define a close relationship as an interpersonal tie which entails love, loyalty, care and commitment, typically between dyads such as parents and children. Closeness refers to feelings of affection, connectedness and warmth (Regnerus & Luchies, 2009). A close relationship is a long-term, salient and mutually satisfying relationship (Reis, Collins, & Berscheid, 2000). Collins and Madsen (2006) add that õa close relationship is one in which two persons interact with each other frequently, across a variety of settings and tasks, and exert considerable influence on each othersø thoughts and actionsö (p. 194). Similarly, Holmes (2002, as cited in Baron, Byrne, & Branscombe, 2006) notes that the characteristic common to all close relationships is interdependence, whereby two people consistently influence each otherøs lives. They focus their thoughts on one another and regularly engage in joint activities. õConsequently, there is no agreed upon conceptualization of what constitutes

a close relationship or agreement about how to best assess relationship closenessö (Repinski & Zook, 2005, p. 80).

In some studies, a relationship was assumed to be close simply because of relationship type, for example a friend, a parent or a sibling (Moller & Stattin, 2001; Seiffge-Krenke, 2000; Way & Chen, 2000). In other instances, a nomination procedure (example õOf all your relationships, to whom are you closest?ö) or a single questionnaire item (example, õHow close do you feel to your mother?ö) was used to investigate adolescentsø subjective experience of and ideas about closeness in their relationships with parents (Bell & Avery, 1985; Richardson, Galambos, Schulenberg, & Petersen, 1984). In other studies, the repeated experience of positive emotions was used to typify close relationships, and closeness was operationalized as intimacy, understanding, affection, cohesion, or support (Bukowski, Hoza, & Boivin, 1994; Paulson, Hill & Holmbeck, 1991; Rice & Mulkeen, 1995; Starrels, 1994). Thus, a review of the literature shows that closeness has been delineated in a variety of different ways. Yet, a common theme which appears in these definitions is the feelings that accompany a close relationship, such as feelings of being acknowledged, loved, accepted, validated and safe (Naude, 2005). Where else, pose Mikulincer and Shaver (2005), but in close relationships do individuals experience such diversity and intensity of feelings as acceptance, security, love, joy, gratitude, and pride ó on the positive side, and frustration, rage, hatred, fear of rejection, humiliation, grinding disappointment, jealousy, grief, and despair ó on the negative side? Close relationships not only arouse emotions, but they are also affected by the way significant others react to these emotional states. According to Laursen, Wilder, Noack, and Williams (2000), closeness is the degree to which the thoughts, feelings, and behaviours of two parties are interconnected.

Collins and Repinski (1994) argue that the following two perspectives are relevant to the conceptualization and study of closeness in adolescent interpersonal relationships; this is also the conceptualization that will be used in this study: (1) Closeness is reflected by an enduring connection that involves frequent interdependent interactions in diverse settings and activities (Kelley et al., 1983). This perspective describes closeness in quantitative terms, for example frequency, diversity, and length of interactions (Berscheid, Snyder, & Omoto, 1989). (2) Closeness is also measured in terms of subjective experiences. This approach describes closeness in qualitative terms, for example emotional communication, the sharing of confidences and self-disclosure (Blyth et al., 1982; Paulson et al., 1991 as cited in Claes, 1998).

2.2. Theoretical framework

As one explores various theories of PAR, it becomes apparent that the most ubiquitous perspective for most of the last century was that adolescentsø physical, cognitive, and social maturation produced quite volatile or unpredictable relationships. The implications of these unstable relationships varied from one perspective to the other. On the other hand, more current models accentuate the nature and processes of adaptation in PAR. õThese views emphasize continuity and the enduring nature of bonds forged between parents and adolescent on the premise that functional properties of parent-adolescent interaction persist despite adolescent development and alterations in the content and form of interactionsö (Collins & Laursen, 2004, p. 332).

Five primary theoretical perspectives emerge in the study of parent-child relationships which are briefly outlined here. Each of these has contributed to the understanding of PAR. However, this study is informed by two theoretical frameworks: attachment theory and social constructionism. These two theoretical frameworks will be presented at the end of this section.

2.2.1. Individuation theory

The first theory proposed in this field was **individuation theory** (alternatively known as *endogenous-change perspective*), which suggests that the relationship between parents and adolescents become less close, as the child strives to attain his or her own social, emotional and cognitive autonomy (Blos, 1979; Grotevant & Cooper, 1986; Youniss & Smoller, 1985 as cited in Bucx & Van Wel, 2008). As children transition into the adolescent period, they begin with the process of individuation, which involves maintaining connections with parents while at the same time trying to gain a degree of separateness as individuals (Youniss & Smoller, 1989). Collins and Madsen (2006) explain that psychoanalytic and neo-analytic theorists (example Blos, 1979; A. Freud, 1958) believed that hormonal changes and the sexual excitement of puberty caused increased pressures toward individuation from parents and a greater involvement with friends. Psychoanalytic theorists (A. Freud, 1958; S. Freud, 1949) presupposed that hormonal changes at puberty cause unwelcome Oedipal urges to surface. These urges contribute to impulse control problems and anxiety, and cause the adolescent to rebel and distance him- or herself from the family. Other dated studies have shown that during early puberty, hormonal changes may contribute to adolescent moodiness, bouts of depression, and restlessness, as well as parent-adolescent-conflict (Buchanan, Eccles, & Becker, 1992; Udry, 1990). As European American adolescents experience these

hormonal changes, they often become more independent and less close to their parents (Paikoff & Brooks-Gunn, 1991). This trend is far from universal though.

Adolescent hormonal changes do not necessarily result in negative experiences between parents and adolescents. For example, Mexican American boys and their parents appear to become closer, rather than more distant as puberty arrives (Molina & Chassin, 1996). Black youths reported significantly higher levels of parental intimacy, and they described their friendship relations as somewhat less intimate, as opposed to their White counterparts. Black adolescents also generally score higher on family attachment and time spent with family members (Larson, Richards, Sims, & Dworkin, 2001).

Psychoanalysts such as Blos (1979) and Erikson (1968) called attention to adolescents striving toward ego identity development and adolescent autonomy. These later models espouse the notion of adolescents *deidealizing* their parents which contributes to the wedge formed between parents and adolescents. In addition, the inner turmoil produced by adolescent hormonal fluctuations can also aggravate PAR. This perspective focuses on heightened conflict and diminished closeness (regarded as inevitable by-products of the individuation process) in PAR, but it also implies that relationship closeness can be re-established in late adolescence and young adulthood (Collins & Laursen, 2004).

Before the 1970s, psychological perspectives on PAR stressed the need for adolescents to separate themselves from their parents; it was also believed that parent-adolescent conflict grew out of adolescentsø need to detach emotionally from parents. Most parents during this time were told to expect opposition and defiance from their adolescent children, and to even be concerned if the aforementioned factors were absent. In fact, the absence of conflict was seen as symptomatic of stunted development (Steinberg, 2001). Traditional psychoanalysts (e.g., Sigmund and Anna Freud) focussed on the intense level of conflict between parents and adolescents, as the latter experience the individuation process. However, neoanalytic theorists (examples Erikson and Blos) argued that adolescent individuation implied only a certain degree of discomfort for the family (Steinberg, 2001). Additionally, Erikson (1968) stated that while adolescents are striving for autonomy, they are also in the process of confronting the crisis of identity versus identity confusion. Thus, the individuation/endogenous-change theory highlights that troubled PAR at puberty serves to facilitate sexual relationships outside the family group, and consequently pushes adolescents to be less close and dependent on their parents.

2.2.2. Role identity theory

Role-identity theory suggests that emotional closeness between children and their parents is positively influenced by life course transitions. As adolescents move into more adult roles, their experiences become similar to their parents. Youngsters therefore become more able to identify with their parents, which leads to more favourable effects on the closeness of their relationships with their parents (Stryker, 1968).

2.2.3. Social-psychological perspective

The ***social-psychological perspective*** views relationship changes as a reflection of stress caused by multiple adaptations required during developmental transitions (Reis et al., 2000). Parentsø developmental issues related to careers, re-evaluation of personal goals, or declining hopes for the future can worsen the difficulties required in PAR (Collins & Laursen, 2004). According to these researchers, transitions into adolescence and early adulthood partly reflect maturational changes. Young people undergo stress and uncertainties as they transition into the adolescent period. The new life course transition produces temporary disequilibrium and the worsening of the PAR. It can bring about mutual tensions and communication problems in the PAR. However, in most cases, the PAR tends to improve over time, once adjustments to the new situation have been made (Kaufman & Uhlenberg, 1998; Knoester, 2003). Similarly, Collins and Madsen (2006) point out that unlike other perspectives, the social-psychological perspective theory implies decreased stability followed by increased stability between early and late adolescence.

2.2.4. Interdependency theory

The ***interdependency theory*** stresses the joint patterns whereby the actions, cognitions, and emotions of each member of the dyad are significant to the otherøs reactions (Hinde, 1997). Close relationships are defined quantitatively in terms of the frequency of engaging in a variety of tasks across a range of different settings. What is unique about this perspective is that closeness is unrelated to the emotional content of the relationship and interdependency may be characteristic of both positive and negative relationships. From this perspective, adolescence can be characterised as a period during which interdependencies in family relationships continue but in slightly different forms, while interdependencies with friends and romantic partners become more evident (Collins & Madsen, 2006).

2.2.5. Attachment theory

A fifth perspective is **_attachment theory_**, which informed the focus of this study. Attachment has been defined as a reciprocal, enduring tie between infant and caregiver, each of whom contribute to the quality of the relationship (Papalia et al., 2009). Attachment theory refers to the psychological tendency to seek closeness to another person, to feel secure when that person is present, and to feel anxious when that person is not there (Child and Adolescent Development Overview, 2006). Bowlby (1969), one of the pioneers of this theory, described attachment as a õlasting psychological connectedness between human beingsö (p. 194). He believed that relationships formed in early caregiver-child interactions would impact how stable a relationship would remain over time.

John Bowlby was the first psychologist to explore the different kinds of bonds which exist between parents/caregivers and infants. He established the attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969) whereby close relationships center primarily on the role of the mother figure (Takahashi, 2005). This theory has generated an overabundance of theoretical empirical work (Lewis, Feiring, & Rosenthal, 2000). Based on his observations of human infants who were separated from their caregivers, Bowlby discovered a standard pattern of responses produced by human babies ó protest, despair, and detachment. Initially, the infant will protest long and loudly. If this kind of behaviour produces no response, the infants will eventually become passive and silent in despair. In the end, the infant will become emotionally detached and *apparently* begin to behave independently. Thus, unless human babies can motivate their mothers or primary caregiver to stay close by and to provide food and protection, they will simply not survive (Fletcher, 2002).

Four concepts feature prominently in infant attachment. *Proximity seeking* simply refers to an infant seeking closeness to his/her caregiver. *Separation protest* occurs when the caregiver becomes unavailable, and the infant will overtly display feelings of upset. In the absence of threat, the attachment figure/caregiver will serve as a secure foundation (*secure base*) from which the infant can explore his/her environment. When signs of danger arise, the attachment figure/caregiver serves as a refuge (*safe haven*) to which the infant can turn to for support. Bowlby explained that a child usually becomes attached to more than one person, but also pointed out that the mother is generally considered to be the primary caregiver when the child is distressed. Other attachment figures like the father and older siblings are usually secondary to the primary caregiver (the mother), forming a hierarchy of attachment figures. Feeney, Noller, and Roberts (as cited in Hendrick & Hendrick, 2000) argue that these four

concepts are not only significant regarding infant attachment, but also extend to early childhood, adolescent and adult attachment relationships (see Figure 1).
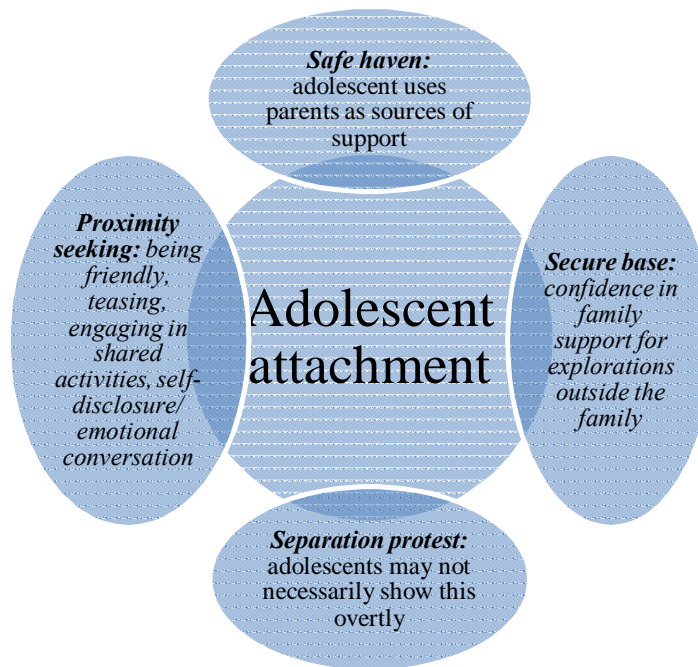
*Figure 1.*Defining features of adolescent attachment.

Early attachment theorist Mary Ainsworth explained attachment behaviours in infancy as an organizational construct, one that relies on the quality of the primary caregiverøs (typically the motherøs) response to the infantøs behaviours that then influence the infantøs responses and interactions (Sroufe & Waters, 1997). Differences in reactions and interactions lead to individual differences in the infantøs security. It is argued that the attachment figure (usually the mother) by and large has a consistent way of responding to his/her child, starting from infancy and early childhood, and further that parents may carry over these typical ways of reacting to their children during adolescence. Their consistently negative or positive reactions may greatly impact adolescentsø feelings of security and even closeness to parents. After careful observation, it was discovered in Ainsworthøs studies that three specific patterns of attachment appeared to emerge, namely *secure attachment*, *ambivalent attachment* and *avoidant attachment.* Infants with secure attachment cry or protest when their mother leaves, but they greet her happily when she returns. These babies are usually cooperative and fairly free from anger. Infants with avoidant attachment seldom cry when their mother leaves and, strangely, avoid her when she returns. These babies appear to be angry and do not reach out

to their mothers in time of need. They have an aversion to being held, but dislike being put down even more. Infants with ambivalent attachment become apprehensive even before the mother leaves and are very distressed when she goes out. When she returns, they display their resistance by seeking contact with her, while at the same time opposing contact by kicking or squirming. Ambivalent babies do little exploration and are difficult to comfort (Papalia et al., 2009; Shaffer & Kipp, 2010).

The application of Bowlbyøs theory has been studied by numerous researchers. It is not only limited to infant-adult attachment in terms of a set of overt behaviours, but is also a theory of personality, as well as a model of close relationships. A recent study (Hamilton, 2000) examined the stability and continuity of attachment security from infancy through adolescence. It widened the understanding of attachment by exploring adolescents reared in both conventional and non-conventional family environments. The general finding in this particular study was that infant attachment classification was a significant predictor of adolescent attachment classification (Hamilton, 2000). Once again, this investigation highlighted the fact that attachment styles do remain relatively stable over time and that an individualøs early attachment experiences with his or her primary caregiver will greatly impact the kind of attachment style he or she will have as an adolescent. As adolescents grow and develop, many of them naturally establish affectional ties to their peers. In spite of the shift in focus to peer relationships, most adolescents wish and need to maintain their parents as attachment figures; they continue to seek parental support and comfort during times of distress (West, Rose, Spreng, Sheldon-Keller, & Adam, 1998). Attachment theory focuses on stability and change within the dyad, rather than the impact of individual change on the dyad. This theory emphasizes the strong emotional ties within PAR. õAs a mutually regulated system, parents and children work jointly to maintain the relationship in a manner consistent with cognitive representations derived from their history of interactions with significant othersö (Bowlby, 1969, as cited in Lerner & Steinberg, 2004, p. 333).

The nature of attachment during adolescence does differ somewhat from that of early childhood, but adolescents still need the assurance of their parentsø commitment to them, and they still require their parents to be a secure base from which to explore the world (Baltes & Silverberg, 1994). According to Marchel (2004), the parent-child relationship serves as a prototype or template for the childøs future relationships. It is argued that the quality of oneøs early relationships may predict the quality of oneøs later relationships. Hence, it can be argued that children who have established adequate attachment relationships with their parents will as adolescents maintain those healthy and positive relationships with them, while

children who experienced poor attachment relationships with their parents may have more negative and strained relationships with their parents during the adolescent phase. According to attachment theory, close PAR relationships are therefore defined qualitatively (Collins & Madsen, 2006).

Allen and Land (1999) believe that attachment in adolescence is quite distinctive from attachment in earlier relationships both on a behavioural and cognitive level. Behaviourally, strong emotional ties to parents may be displayed subtly through friendly teasing, or more overtly through shared activities with fathers and self-disclosure to mothers. Cognitive advances within the adolescent mind make it possible for him/her to assume greater responsibility in activities such as caregiving and caretaking, thereby strengthening the PAR.

Research has found that representations of attachment in earlier life are related to characteristics of relationships with parents in adolescence (Becker-Stoll & Fremmer-Bombik, 1997). õA key implication of attachment formulations is that adolescents and parents with a history of sensitive, responsive interactions and strong emotional bonds facilitate adaptation during the transitions of adolescenceö (Collins & Laursen, 2004, p. 334). For example, it should be noted that the functions of secure relationships for adolescents are parallel to those for infants. While security facilitates exploration of the immediate environment in infancy, security provides adolescents with a sense of confidence in family support for their explorations outside the family, including forming new relationships with others (Lerner & Steinberg, 2004).

Leiberman, Doyle, and Markiewicz (1999) found that perceived maternal availability is significant across the transition from childhood to adolescence, and the quality of the mother-adolescent relationship is strongly linked to attachment security as well (Allen et al., 2003). Allen and colleagues (2003) found that maternal behaviours, such as support and attunement predicted security in the mother-adolescent relationship. Additionally, they found that 9[th-] and 10[th-] graders who were more securely attached were better able to intellectually and emotionally use their strong relationship with their mother as a base for exploration and autonomy. It is argued that the closer the PAR, the more interpersonal security should exist.

Collins and Laursen (2004) point out that increased conflict may occur in poor-quality PAR, accompanied by deterioration in closeness as adolescents express growing displeasure with unequal treatment and unfavourable outcomes. On the other hand, it is argued that high quality relationships may change very little or may even improve as participants build on mutually satisfactory patterns of exchange.

Closeness during adolescence is apparent in forms that differ from closeness in earlier parent-child closeness. For instance, intimacy as expressed by cuddling and extensive joint activities, tends to decrease as children mature. Yet, there is an increase in conversation in which information is conveyed and feelings are expressed (Hartup & Laursen, 1991). These adaptations are appropriate responses to the maturity level and changing needs of adolescents. It is clear that attachment theory emphasizes the importance of close PAR and this theory therefore guided the researcher to explore closeness in PAR in a South African community.

2.2.6. Social constructionism

The second theoretical framework that informed this study is the social contructionist perspective in which each person is seen as actively constructing knowledge, self-understanding, reality and truth in the social interaction with other individuals (Todd, Nerlick, McKeown, & Clark, 2004). According to Burr (2003), social constructionism is a theoretical orientation which reinforces newer approaches such as critical psychology, discursive psychology, discourse analysis, deconstructionism, and poststructuralism. Moreover, this particular paradigm challenges the idea of objective knowledge and suggests that psychology should cease its attempt to uncover laws that purportedly govern our experience and behaviour. Gergen (2009) emphasizes that the social constructionist approach highlights that meanings arise through human interaction. Gergen (1985) notes that the social constructionist perspective should be understood as a process of intellectual inquiry and reflection that is largely concerned with studying how people describe, explain and account for the world in which they live. Human experiences are made meaningful through specific beliefs and socio-cultural practices (Wortham, 1996). Social constructionism places importance on multiple understandings determined by the social and cultural context in which the person lives (Youngleson, 2006). Research using a social constructionist approach involves the study of ways in which social constructions are formed, and how they shape peopleøs experiences (Willig, 2001). It is argued that social constructionism should not be seen as a unitary theoretical framework. Instead, it should be viewed as a cluster of alternative forms of investigation aimed at countering the empiricist movement (Durrheim, 1997; Gergen, 1997; Hosking & Morley, 2004).

Gergen (1985) believes that there is no one fundamental feature of social constructionism; rather this approach has several common characteristics which will be elaborated on. *Firstly*, social constructionism resolutely maintains that we take a critical

stance toward our taken-for-granted ways of understanding our world and ourselves. Simply put, it cautions us to be sceptical of our assumptions about how the world appears to be. This is particularly true when it comes to the way we categorise human beings. A *second* tenet of social constructionism is that all ways of understanding are historically and culturally relative. õNot only are they specific to particular cultures and periods of history, they are seen as products of that culture and history, and are dependent upon the particular social and economic arrangements prevailing in that culture at that time. The particular forms of knowledge that abound in any culture are therefore artefacts of it, and we should not assume that our ways of understanding are necessarily any better, in terms of being any nearer to the truth, than other waysö (Burr, 2003 p. 4). A *third* tenet of social constructionism is that knowledge of the world and also understanding it is found in how people construct it. õThe goings-on between people in the course of their everyday lives are seen as the practices during which our shared versions of knowledge are constructedö (Burr, 2003, p. 4). Therefore, if one could simply describe this approach, one would state that social constructionism emphasizes how oneøs cultural surroundings have an impact on oneøs psychology (Burr, 2003). This study therefore investigated close PAR in one social setting and did not make any representative claims. Although qualitative methods feature prominently in social constructionist research (Burr, 2003) because it allows for deeper exploration of peopleøs experiences and meaning making, social constructionists advocate for the use of multiple methods (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). A mixed methods design was therefore used in this study in which both quantitative and qualitative methods were used.

CHAPTER 3
LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Introduction

The literature review on PAR encompasses the following sections: Adolescence...a period of õstorm and stressö?; the benefits of close PAR; close PAR dyads; parenting styles and close PAR; socioeconomic status (SES) and close PAR; and closeness in individualistic and collectivistic societies. This section will conclude with a précis of participants and methodologies in PAR research, as well as draw attention to findings based on South African PAR studies. The motivation for dividing literature into international and national sections is to illustrate a paucity of specific close PAR research in the South African context. As will be shown in the literature review, most close PAR studies have been conducted on European-American families, and therefore the applicability to other populations, such as South Africa, is questionable.

3.2. Adolescence...a period of "storm and stress"?

In the view of Kail and Cavanaugh (2010), adolescence has often been depicted by novelists and filmmakers as a time of *storm and stress,* a period in which parent-child relationships get worse in the face of belligerent, quarrelsome youth. These researchers add that this view may make for best-selling novels and hit movies, but in reality the rebellious adolescent period is by and large a myth. To substantiate the latter argument, Steinberg (1990) states that: (1) most adolescents admire and love their parents; (2) most adolescents rely upon their parents for advice; (3) most adolescents embrace many of their parentsø values; and (4) most adolescents feel loved by their parents. So while adolescence is a very exciting and challenging period (Feldman & Elliott, 1990), it is not intrinsically tempestuous. Adolescents and parents do experience a certain level of *storm and stress* and this is considered quite normal. Frequent, high-intensity, angry fighting, however, is not normative during adolescence (Steinberg, 2001). Studies spanning the 1990s prove that parent-adolescent conflicts decrease across adolescence, while perceived support and closeness remain stable (Cauce, Mason, Gonzales, Hiraga & Liu, 1996; Laursen, Coy & Collins, 1998; Smetana, 1988 as cited in Mahoney, Schweder & Stattin, 2002). Other views interpret parent-adolescent conflict as transitory perturbations that foster age-appropriate interactions between parents and their children (Collins, 1990; Smetana, 1988). According to Shaffer and Kipp (2010), parent-adolescent conflict is typically neither long-lasting nor severe. Often the focus

of these squabbles is on issues such as the adolescentsø physical appearance, his/her choice of friends, or his/her neglect of schoolwork and household chores. Much of the friction can be attributed to the differing viewpoints that parents and adolescents have. These conflicts are neither completely detrimental to closeness nor inevitably harmful to PAR.

3.3. The benefits of close PAR and psychological health

PAR may buffer against the impact of stressful life events (Ge, Natsuaki, Neiderhiser, & Reis, 2009). Close PAR have been associated with psychosocial health and well-being as well as other factors such as a higher self-esteem and lower levels of depression (Field et al., 1995). Kail and Cavanaugh (2010) stress that warm and affectionate parents are often involved in their childrenøs lives; they respond to their emotional needs and spend a significant amount of time with them. On the other hand, clear evidence exists which show that problems in intimate relationships contribute to both health and psychological problems (Cassidy, 2001). Parental coldness, perhaps indicative of a lack of parent-child closeness, has been related to a variety of psychiatric disorders (Kendler, Myers, & Prescott, 2000). Detached PAR are characterised by a lack of parental knowledge or interest in the adolescentsø daily activities, low verbal communication between parent and adolescent, and a paucity of shared time and activities (Barber, 1997; Herman, et al., 1997; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Otto & Atkinson, 1997). Mahoney et al. (2002) found that disconnected PAR increased the likelihood of levels of depressed mood in adolescents. Parentsø reports of well-being and life satisfaction also decline when they perceive their children to be detaching from them (Silverberg & Steinberg, 1990). Another study revealed that father connectedness was negatively related to adolescents displaying problem behaviours. Mother connectedness was positively correlated to prosocial behaviours (Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009).

3.4. Close PAR dyads

The first person to suggest that mother-daughter, mother-son, father-daughter, and father-son relationship dyads are distinct in character was Steinberg (1990). He also believed that these relations undergo different transformations in adolescence. Other researchers have also argued that there are unique relationship patterns for the four dyads (Dornbusch, 1989; Flannery, Montemayor, Eberly, & Torquati, 1993; Maccoby, 1990, as cited in Russell & Saebel, 1997). Thus, it can be argued that closeness between these dyads would also differ from one another.

3.4.1. Mother-adolescent relationships

Steinberg and Silk (2002) claim that men and women approach parenting differently. Therefore, it can be argued that mothers and fathers will relate to their adolescents differently. Mother-adolescent and father-adolescent pairs are similar in that both generally involve work (such as chores, care-giving, and housework) and recreation. However, Paulson et al. (1991) state that adolescents are more likely to report feeling close to their mothers than to their fathers. Adolescents tend to perceive their mothers as more accepting toward them than their fathers (Collins, 1990). According to Buchanan, Maccoby, and Dornbusch (1992), mothers are more inclined to develop closer, more intimate relationships with their children than fathers, even though mothers play a principal role in discipline as well. For many adolescents, relationships with mothers provide more pleasure and affection, but interestingly more conflict as well, than relationships with fathers (Larson & Richards, 1994). Most studies show that adolescents, girls in particular, have closer relationships with their mothers than with their fathers. This has been found for adolescents living in various countries: e.g., the United States (Barnes & Olson, 1985; Cooper, 1994; Field, Lang, Yando, & Bendell, 1995), Australia (Noller & Callan, 1990), and Israel (Shulman & Klein, 1993). Both theory and empirical research suggest that children's perceptions of maternal rejection are strongly associated with maladjustment (Rohner, Kean, & Cournoyer, 1991).

Older studies have revealed that mothers continue to remain deeply involved in the lives of their children, and that maternal influence may rival and even surpass that of friends (Berndt, 1999; Youniss & Smoller, 1985, as cited in Laursen et al., 2000). One way of remaining involved in their adolescents' lives is through spending time with their children. Studies have shown that mothers spent more time with their infants and young children, as opposed to fathers (Day & Lamb, 2004; Hofferth, et al., 2007; Pleck & Masciadrelli, 2004) and that they are responsible for managing their children's daily care. While mothers

continued to be more involved in terms of a managerial role (feeding, bathing, clothing), fathers tend to spend more time with their children engaging in more playful interactions (Park, 2000, as cited in Phares, Fields, & Kamboukos, 2009). The ways that mothers and fathers relate to their young children can be carried over into the adolescent years, whereby mothers continue to focus on the care-taking responsibility and fathers continue serving the role of õplaymateö as Lewis and Lamb (2003) would say. In fact, Hosley and Montemayor (1997) have found the pattern of maternal responsibility evident in early childhood also being evident in adolescence.

Similarly, Updegraff, Delgado, and Wheeler (2009) explored PAR with 162 Mexican immigrant families, and it was found that mothers spent more time with adolescents than fathers. Mothers reported spending on average five more hours per week with adolescents, compared to fathers. These researchers also found partial support for mothers devoting more time with their same-gender off-spring compared to their opposite-gender offspring. Mothers reported higher levels of warmth, acceptance, involvement, and knowledge than fathers. Regardless of these differences, fathers were relatively involved with their adolescents, but not to the same extent as the mothers. Another study also showed similar findings, in that mothers reported significantly more time spent on adolescents as compared to fathers. Mothers were more accessible and directly interacted with their adolescents more, both during weekdays and on weekends (Phares et al., 2009). Duschene and Laroseøs (2007) study also found that adolescents generally perceived their relationships with their mothers to be of higher-quality.

As adolescents enter high school, they also start undergoing important physical and social changes associated with puberty. Duschene and Larose (2007) indicated that these changes may lead adolescents to organize their attachment behaviours around their mothers. Adolescents may perceive their mothers to be the best persons to provide comfort and support during this sensitive developmental period. Adolescentsø search for closeness combined with their mothersø sensitivity could therefore explain the stronger attachment perceived by adolescents regarding mothers.

3.4.2. Father-adolescent relationships

In PAR studies of the early 1900øs, fathers were a hidden parent in research on childrenøs well-being. While their importance to childrenøs financial well-being was widely accepted, their contribution to other aspects of childrenøs development was often deemed to be secondary to that of mothers and was thus not usually examined (Nord, 1998). Over two decades ago, Youniss and Smoller (1985) found that American fathers tended to stay rigidly in the role of authority, excluding themselves from interpersonal relationships and inciting sources of confrontation. The low level of closeness between adolescents and fathers has also been documented in other later studies (Shulman & Klein, 1993). Claesø study (1998) showed that adolescents spent less time with their fathers, and the degree of intimacy of conversations with them was the lowest, while the mothers maintained a privileged position in the family.

McBride, Schoppe-Sullivan and Moon-Ho (2005) point out that õthe contribution of the father to child development has often been assumed to be subordinate to that of the motherö (p. 203). Fathers were seen to be on the periphery of childrenøs lives and of little direct importance to childrenøs development (Lamb, 1997). In the past decades, however, a cultural shift has occurred in the image of fatherhood ó from the disengaged breadwinner and unemotional disciplinarian to the *new father* who is expressive, nurturing and intimately involved in his childrenøs daily lives (Bozett & Hanson, 1991; Wilkie, 1993, as cited in Harris, Furstenberg, & Marmer, 1998). However, father-adolescent relationships are more focused on recreational activities than mother-adolescent relationships (Collins & Laursen, 2004).

Mammenøs (2011) review of research studies showed that fathers spend less time on childcare than mothers do (e.g., Sayer, Bianchi, & Robinson, 2004). Regardless of this, there is a strong consensus among developmental psychologists and sociologists that greater father involvement is beneficial for children (e.g., Carlson & McLanahan 2004; Palkovitz 2002). Fathersø expressive and instrumental affection, nurturance, interest, and companionship enhance childrenøs self-esteem, life satisfaction, and social competence (Biller, 1993; Wenk, Hardesty, Morgan, & Blair, 1994; Young, Miller, Norton, & Hill, 1995). It was found that fathersø involvement in their childrenøs education and achievement had several benefits, such as increased class attendance, fewer discipline problems, and higher academic aspirations (McBride et al., 2005). Research suggests that even when parents, fathers in particular, have limited schooling, their involvement in their childrenøs schools and school lives is an influential factor in childrenøs academic achievement (Gadsen & Ray, 2003).

Students also are less likely to repeat a grade, and are less likely to be suspended or expelled, if their fathers have high involvement in their schools. Even after taking into consideration such factors such as mothersø involvement, both parentsø educational levels, household income, and childrenøs race/ethnicity, it was found that students are still more prone to excel academically, take part in extracurricular activities, enjoy school, and are less likely to fail a grade if their fathers are highly involved in their schools (Nord, Brimhall, & West, 1997). Nord (1998) also points out that children living in father-only households do less well in school than children living in two-parent households. Yet, if fathers are highly involved in their schools, children in father-only households do better academically, participate more in extracurricular activities, enjoy school more and are less likely to have been suspended or expelled from school. It should also be added that fathers who are highly involved with their adolescent children have a propensity to show more acceptance towards their children than less involved fathers (Almeida & Galambos, 1991).

Steinberg and Silk (2002) are of the view that generally adolescents spend more time with their mothers and are more likely to share feelings with them, whereas adolescents in general ordinarily view fathers as distant figures to be consulted mainly for information and material support. Older research (Hill, 1988) indicates that both sons and daughters have warm relationships with their mothers, but sons are typically closer to fathers than daughters are. In addition, the relationship between fathers and daughters become less close due to pubertal maturation (Hill, 1988). The ebbing in fathersø involvement over time may occur because many young adults no longer live at home and have fewer opportunities to interact with their fathers (Harris et al., 1998). However, the aforesaid researchers found that fathers have close affective bonds with their mid-adolescent children, and engage in joint activities and supportive interactions to nearly the same degree as mothers do.

3.4.3. Close mother-daughter relationships

Russell and Saebel (1997) noted that a substantial amount of research has been done regarding the mother-daughter relationship. Examples of topics which have received attention are: problems in the motheródaughter relationship (Caplan, 1989); support in the motheródaughter relationship (Levitt, Guacci, & Weber, 1992); motheródaughter relationships during adolescence (Apter, 1990; Bassoff, 1987); and mothers and daughters in middle- and working-class families (Walkerdine & Lucey, 1989). Recently, more attention in literature has been given to what it means to have a close mother-daughter relationship.

Various researchers have found several characteristics of close mother-daughter relationships. The theme of *communication* was a salient aspect in these relationships (Crockett, Brown, Iturbide, Russell, & Wilkinson-Lee, 2009; Mosavel, Simon, & Van Stade, 2006; Russell, Chu, Crockett, & Doan, 2010). *Trust* was another central theme (Crockett et al., 2009; Russell et al., 2010). Because many adolescent daughters in research studies mentioned that they felt that they could trust their mothers, they found it easy to self-disclose to their mothers. For example, Crockettøs et al., (2009) study with Cuban American teenagers indicated that they appreciated being able to share secrets with their mothers and they trusted that their mothers would not disclose their secrets to others. Likewise, the theme of keeping secrets was also highlighted by Bojczyk, Lehanm, McWey, Melson, and Kaufman (2011).

Self-disclosure seemed to be another pivotal aspect to a close mother-adolescent relationship. In one study, 75% percent of the adolescent daughters felt more comfortable disclosing personal information to their mothers, while 50% of the mothers felt that way about their daughters (Bojczyk, et al., 2011). It could be argued that self-disclosure was usually unidirectional in mother-daughter relationships. Likewise, adolescent girls in Claesø (1998) study also reported having a preference for self-disclosing personal information to their mothers. *Showing unconditional emotional support* is also considered to be essential (Bojczyk et al., 2011; Crockett et al., 2009). The majority of the adolescent girls in the aforementioned study reported that mothers could show their support for their daughters through getting involved in their activities. Daughters reported feeling certain that their mothers would show support, especially in troubling times. Although showing emotional support was considered essential in close mother-daughter relationships, it was largely unidirectional though, with mothers primarily providing support, not necessarily vice versa (Bojczyk et al., 2011; Crockett et al., 2009). On the other hand, OøReilly (2010), author of *Encyclopedia of Motherhood*, believes that mothers and daughters are actually more emotionally enmeshed in each otherøs lives, and that this enmeshment is bidirectional.

Spending time together on shared activities is essential in close mother-daughter relationships (Mosavel et al., 2006; OøReilly, 2010; Phares et al., 2009; Updegraff et al., 2009). For example, in Mosaveløs et al., (2006) study, 90% of the mothers and daughters reported that they spent a lot of time together. OøReilly (2010) believe that *quality time* spent together by adolescent girls and their mothers was more important than the amount of time spent together. *Listening attentively* and *showing and receiving respect* are also vital components of close mother-daughter relationships. Ninety percent of mothers in Mosaveløs et al., (2006) study reported that their mothers listened to them, and thus they felt respected. *Asking for advice* seems to also characterize close mother-daughter relationships. Adolescent girls felt that their mothers should act as advisors and guides (Crockett et al., 2009; Mosavel et al., 2006). For example, in Mosaveløs et al., (2006) study, 45% of daughters asked their mothers for advice regarding daily affairs, 27% regarding social affairs, 14% regarding health matters, and 12% regarding future concerns. The majority (70%) of mothers reported that they asked for advice from their daughters. This could be because daughters are seen as trusting confidantes, and capable of giving advice regarding important matters (Mosavel et al., 2006).

Although teenage daughters in some studies did not elaborate on the following characteristic, they reported that mothers had to *be caring* (Boyd, 1989 as cited in Russell & Saebel, 1997; Crockett et al., 2009; Russell et al., 2010). Showing care could be through monitoring the daughterøs whereabouts and her friendships (Crockett et al., 2009). *Physical displays of affection* could also typify close mother-daughter relationships. For some daughters in one study, it was important that their mothers displayed physical affection via hugs and kisses; however, others noted that it was not always necessary for mothers to be so openly demonstrative. Therefore, mothers could be loving without being overtly affectionate (Crockett et al., 2009). A final characteristic offered by OøReilly (2010) is that the mother-daughter relationship provides a distinctive *blend of closeness and control*; the latter is oftentimes shown through mothers being critical of their daughters and also interrupting them when they speak.

In sum, important mother-daughter relationships characteristics were: communication, trust, self-disclosure, showing unconditional emotional support, spending time together, listening and respecting each other, asking advice from one another, showing care, exhibiting physical displays of affection, and sometimes also being controlling.

3.4.4. Close mother-son relationships

Russell and Saebel (1997) state that much less research studies exist which focus on the mother-son relationship. Many lay books on this relationship type exist, but actual research studies on the topic are lacking. Literature available on this relationship primarily focuses on issues such as the effect of divorce and single parenting (e.g. Hetherington, 1988; 1989), but these issues do not concern the present investigation. Caron (1994) wrote a brief chapter on mothers and their adolescent sons in her book *Strong mothers; strong sons: Raising the next generation of men*; similarly, Bassoff (1994) wrote about the role of mothers in the making of men in the book *Between mothers and sons*.

The following seems to be qualities of close mother-son relationships:

Communication is quite important (Crockett et al., 2009). Adolescent sons do not always bond closely with their mothers via verbal communication, although it would appear õnaturalö for mothers to bond with their adolescent sons in this way. Schwartzman (2006) studied the mother-adolescent relationship, and proposed that the motherøs directness of expression may actually generate distance in the son. While some evidence exists for sons not wanting to intimately communicate with their mothers, contrary evidence has also been found. Interestingly, Crockettøs et al., (2009) study with Cuban adolescents revealed that adolescent boys emphasized the importance of meaningful conversation with their mothers, *being open* and *expressing feelings*. Thus, they did not always want to have casual conversations with their mothers, but also wanted to engage with them on a deeper level.

Affection is an important element in close mother-son relationships. Oftentimes, sons prefer *bonding through action*. The literature revealed that adolescent boys preferred their mothers showing them affection via action (known as instrumental support), for example cooking a meal for them (Crockett et al., 2009; Russell et al., 2010). Showing *support and care* is integral in the mother-son relationship (Crockett et al., 2009; Updegraff et al., 2009). In one study, support and care was mainly described as mothers providing consolation and encouragement for their adolescent sons. These participants also reported that their mothersø involvement in doing domestic duties around the home was indicative of her caring for them.

Finally, *spending alone time* with adolescent sons is very important (OøReilly, 2010; Phares et al., 2009). To summarize, the important themes which characterize close mother-son relationships are: communication, being open, expressing feelings, affection through action, support and care, and spending alone time together.

3.4.5. Close father-daughter relationships

Regarding father-daughter relationships in Crockettøs et al. (2009) study, fathers were mainly described by girls as the decision-makers and the disciplinarians in the family. Furthermore, girls reported that their fathers *showed care and control* by being strict and protective, especially for older adolescent girls. Adolescent girls relied a lot on their fathers for *support and advice* concerning major decisions in their lives. Open communication did not feature prominently in father-daughter relationships, as a lot of discussions typically centred on impersonal topics (Crockett et al., 2009).

Coley (2003) examined the role of biological and social fathers in the lives of 302 adolescent African-American girls. It was revealed that, in general, adolescents reported more litigious and less close relationships with their fathers. Plenty of other studies in the recent years have focused on the role and influence of fathers in their childrenøs lives, with particular attention to how fathers influence their childrenøs development (Coley, 2001). While Coleyøs (2003) study acknowledged that while 65% of the sample of African American girls identified someone who fulfilled a fathering figure in their lives, the mere presence of that person in the girløs life was not linked to her well-being. Thus, she reinforces the argument of previous studies to move away from the basic õpresent/absentö father research to more detailed investigations of the processes through which fathers influence childrenøs development.

Cooksey and Fondell (1996) believe that it is indeed challenging to show that the physical absence of the biological father is as serious for the child as is often argued. In the light of the latter information, it has been suggested that the presence of the father can have negative consequences for the child (Jaffee, Caspi, Moffitt, Taylor, & Dickson, 2001). Ergo, Morrell (as cited in Richter & Morrell, 2006) asserts that the position of a father cannot be measured simplistically in terms of the physical absence of presence. A father might be there physically but be emotionally absent, or physically absent yet emotionally supportive. This is the other implication of õfather absenceö. Needless to say, emotional absence can be quite distressing for children.

Studies have shown that particularly during the adolescent years, fathers and daughters usually argue less than mothers and daughters, and have less competitive, more affectionate relationships than fathers and sons (Nielsen, 1996; Shulman & Krenke, 1996; Snarey, 1993). Nielsen (2006) points out that many fathers seem to feel that they are not as important to their daughters as to their sons. To reinforce the latter statement, certain

researchers maintain that many fathers even today spend more time with their sons than with their daughters (Lamb, 1997; Phares, 1999; Pleck, 1997; Updegraff, McHale, Crouter, & Kupanoff, 2001).

There is evidence that throughout their lifetimes, daughters and fathers generally fail to communicate as comfortably, spend as much time together, feel emotionally close or disclose about personal things as mothers and daughters (Amato & Booth, 1997; Lamb, 1997; Nielson, 1996; Nelson, 2004; Way & Gillman, 2000). Furthermore, Bengston and Roberts (2002) add that while bonds between mothers and children usually grow stronger over time, those between fathers and children usually do not.

It is essential that girls also have a communicative and close relationship with their fathers, as they do with their mothers. There are numerous studies which show that fathers have a greater impact than mothers on daughters' abilities to trust, enjoy and relate well to males in their lives (Erickson, 1998; Flouri, 2005; Kast, 1997; Leonard, 1998). Moreover, well-fathered daughters are by and large more self confident, more self-reliant, and more successful in schools and their careers, than poorly fathered daughters (Lamb, 1997; Morgan & Wilcoxon, 1998; Perkins, 2001). Undoubtedly, a close father-daughter relationship has been linked to a positive far-reaching lifelong impact on his daughter.

Nielson's (2006) study with 20 – 23 year old college students found that the majority of fathers and daughters did not really communicate, share personal things or get to know each other intimately, as compared to mothers and daughters. Many daughters also pointed out that especially during the childhood and adolescent years, they did not spend as much private time with their fathers as they did with their mothers. Finally, despite the majority of daughters reporting that they do have a *loving* father-daughter relationship, most daughters desire a more meaningful, more personal, closer relationship with their fathers.

In Russell's et al. (2010) study with Chinese-American girls, good father-daughter relationships were more difficult for adolescent girls to describe. Although girls indicated that communication and closeness were important, they often felt that these qualities were absent in relationships with their fathers. These Chinese-American girls generally agreed that their fathers were "nice" but emotionally closed off.

In sum, literature findings have shown that fathers and girls usually do not have very close relationships, yet themes such as showing care, being supportive, offering advice, and being loving were essential.

3.4.6. Close father-son relationships

Russell and Saebel (1997) have noted that less attention has been given in research to the father-son relationship in terms of its distinctive features. In Russell's et al. (2010) study, good father-son relationships were characterized by *communication*, *guidance*, and *respect* for fathers. Crockett et al. (2009) asked sons to describe good father-adolescent relationships. Many boys stressed a father's *instrumental support* and described a father's role as provider, decision-maker, and disciplinarian. In addition, they also described a type of communication whereby fathers related stories from their own lives to help guide their sons. While some adolescent boys described negative feelings toward their fathers and the desire to avoid conflict, others emphasized the need for *mutual understanding* in good father-son relationships. It must be mentioned that although physical affection was rare between fathers and sons, *bonding* could occur *through shared activities*, meaning that bonding between fathers and sons could occur more through doing things together than through physically showing affection for one another (Crockett et al., 2009).

Spending time together is also known to be a characteristic of a close father-son relationship. In one study, it was found that fathers behaved differently toward their sons and daughters and that fathers favoured spending time with their sons (Brody & Axelrad, 1978, as cited in Shulman & Seiffge-Krenke, 1997). From infancy and early childhood, fathers tend to devote more time to sons than daughters (Lamb & Lewis 2004, as cited in Mammen, 2011; Pleck & Masciadrelli, 2004 as cited in Phares et al., 2009). Results from Mammen's (2011) study showed that boys received more of their fathers' time, and that girls were disadvantaged in comparison. One reason offered for the apparent difference is that fathers clearly have a preference for spending more time with boys. For example, Yeung et al. (2001, as cited in Mammen, 2011) stated that simply by virtue of being a boy increased the young child's time in play and companionship activities with fathers by 18 minutes on weekdays, with a near significant effect on weekends. It would appear that even when the son is an adolescent, the preference to spend more time his father continues to exist.

Salt (as cited in Shulman & Seiffge-Krenke, 1997) found that, despite fathers perceptions that the amount of touch should decrease as the adolescent son got older, fathers expressed affection physically more than their sons did or wished for. Themes that have been cited as important in father-son relationships are: communication, respect, bonding through shared activities, spending time together, and mutual understanding. Boys also depended on their fathers for guidance and instrumental support.

3.5. Socioeconomic status and close PAR

Miller, Benson, and Galbraith (2001) maintain that parents occupy a social and economic status (SES) in the community, and this is usually reflected by some combination of their education, occupation, and income. Studies have been conducted to show that long-term disadvantage generally has detrimental effects on parent-child relationships. This by and large results in parental behaviour that is very strict, more depressed, less attentive and less consistent with regards to discipline. Likewise, parents living in chronic poverty usually experience higher levels of marital conflict than do more advantaged parents (Brody et al., 1994).

Evidence has also been found for a greater likelihood of antisocial behaviour and school failure for adolescents living in poverty (Bolger, Patterson, Thompson, & Kupersmidt, 1995). On the other hand, the literature also shows that despite difficult circumstances, many socio-economically disadvantaged parents often promote protective factors that tend to build adolescence competence; these are aimed at keeping adolescents safe in risky environments (Elder, Eccles, Ardelt, & Lord, 1995).

Various research studies with individuals from notably economically depressed farming and industrial regions, for example, show that parentsø uncertainty about jobs and family finance often distract them from the problems of children and adolescents (Conger et al., 1992, 1993; Flanagan & Eccles, 1993). Parents in the aforementioned studies who experienced economic hardship often became less caring toward their adolescents, and used inconsistent and rejecting disciplinary methods. In these families, adolescents commonly showed increased levels of depression and loneliness, and were also more inclined to use drugs and to be involved in delinquent activities.

3.6. Closeness in individualistic and collectivistic societies

Laurencau, Rivera, Schaffer and Pietromonaco (2004) and Johnson (2003) claim that the need for human beings to establish and maintain intimate relationships with others is a significant and fundamental human motivation that appears to cut across cultures. Closeness between parents and adolescents also varies depending on oneøs cultural context. As with many other constructs, closeness may not necessarily be culturally universal because of differences in collectivism-individualism (Laurencau et al., 2004). Dated studies indicate that individualistic cultures tend to operate according to the individuation theory, which maintains that PAR become less close as a result of the adolescent wanting to be more autonomous, and

less reliant on their parents (Blos, 1979; Grotevant & Cooper, 1986; Youniss & Smoller, 1985). Steinberg (1996) explains that biological and cognitive maturational processes in early adolescence, as well as having more close contacts with friends, give rise to processes of individuation and the transformation of the parent-child relationship.

Gilani (1999) found that collectivist cultures showed more intimacy, connectedness, and social harmony than individualist cultures. Collectivistic cultures maintain and value closeness and social harmony during the infant, childhood, adolescent and young adulthood years. This is known as symbiotic harmony, where there is a continual pull towards adapting the self to fit the needs of others. This leads to strengthening and positively affecting closeness in the parent-child relationship, while individuation tends to dilute these relationships (Rothbaum et al., 2000).

Rothbaum et al. (2000) noted cultural differences in PAR when studying middle class urban American and Japanese participants. They found that Japanese adolescents were more invested in maintaining close or harmonious relationships with both parents and friends. In contrast, American adolescents needed to individuate from parents, and focus more on their friendships and gaining their own independence. Bucx and Van Wel (2008) have also found evidence for the individuation theory when studying thousands of adolescents and youth from the Netherlands (ages 12 ó 24). They observed that parent-child relationships became less close as a result of transitions leading to more autonomy.

It must be noted that individualism is generally used to describe the predominant cultures of Western Europe, North America, Australia, and New Zealand, while African, Middle Eastern, and East Asian cultures are characterized by collectivism (Green, Deschamps, & Paez, 2005, as cited in Vogt & Laher, 2009; Triandis, MaCusker, & Hui, 1990; Triandis, 2001;). Yet one of the greatest limitations regarding individualism and collectivism research is that nations are treated as if they are cultures (Fiske, 2002, as cited in Vogt & Laher, 2009). These aforementioned researchers argue that because so many different types of cultures abound in South Africa, a variation in individualist and collectivist orientations can be expected. A study was conducted by Van Dyk and De Kock (2004) on officers in the South African National Defence Force (SANDF), and it was found that there were no significant differences in individualism and collectivism among Black, Coloured, and White officers. In their study, Vogt and Laher (2009) proposed that the typical South African student had more individualistic traits, due in part to their shared exposure to similar education (Eaton & Louw, 2000; Van Dyk & De Kock, 2004). Oyserman, Coon, and Kemmelmeier (2002) concurred by stating that most South African schooling environments

foster individualism, as the focus is on individual striving, competition, and the realization of one's own potential. This may well be true, but Van Dyk and De Kock (2004) maintained that Coloureds, in general, contained aspects of individualism *and* collectivism in their personhood. Lesch (2000) also argue that the Coloured, low-income, semi-rural people who participated in her studies demonstrated a sense of community by knowing their neighbours, knowing others in their community, and participating in community activities.

Table 1 will provide an overview of the participants and methodologies used in recent PAR research.

3.7. Participants and methodologies used in PAR research

As can be seen from Table 1, much of contemporary research has used quite simplistic measures of PAR closeness.

Table 1

How PAR Closeness was Measured in the Past

Method	Researcher(s)	Sample	Construct
Questionnaire: Parent-Child Closeness • ðHow openly do you talk with your mother/father?ö • ðHow careful do you feel you have to be about what you say to your mother/father?ö • ðHow comfortable do you feel admitting doubts and fears to your mother?ö • ðHow interested is your mother/father in talking to you when you want to talk?ö • ðHow often does your mother/father express affection or liking for you?ö • ðHow well does your mother/father know what you are really like?ö • ðHow close do you feel to your mother/father?ö • ðHow confident are you that your mother/father would help you if you had a problem?ö • ðIf you needed money, how comfortable would you be asking your mother/father for it?ö • ðHow interested is your mother/father in the things you do?ö	Buchanan, Maccoby, & Dornbusch (1991)	522 non-Hispanic, White, Hispanic, Asian and Black American adolescents (ages 10-18)	Closeness to parents (post-divorce)

(continued)

Table 1

How PAR Closeness was Measured in the Past (continued)

Method	Researcher(s)	Sample	Construct
Scale forming part of a questionnaire: Parent-Child Intimacy • ðMy parents often ask about what I am doing in school.ö • ðMy parents give me the right amount of affection.ö • ðOne of the worst things that could happen to me would be finding out that I let my parents down.ö • ðMy parents are usually proud of me when Iøve finished something Iøve worked hard at.ö • ðMy parents trust me.ö • ðIøm closer to my parents than a lot of kids my age are.ö	Giordano, Cernkovich, & DeMaris (1993)	942 White and Black American adolescents (ages 12 ó 19)	Parental intimacy
No actual instrument; simply a question: • ðHow close do you feel to your mother/father?ö	Harris et al., (1998)	584 non-Hispanic and non-White adolescents	Closeness to mothers and fathers
Questionnaire: Parental Closeness • ðHow often do you spend time talking with your parents?ö • ðHow often do you want to be like your parents?ö • ðHow often do you feel close to your parents?ö • ðHow often do you enjoy spending time with your parents?ö • ðHow often do you like doing what your parents want you to do?ö	Smith, Flay, Bell, & Weissberg (2001)	384 African-American adolescents in grades 5 ó 8 (ages 10 ó 15) from the Chicago area	Parental closeness
Questionnaire: Father-Daughter Relationship Rating Scale	Brown, Thompson & Trafimow (2002)	182 African-American, Euro-American, Asian and Hispanic youth (ages 17 ó 25)	Perceived relationship between daughters and fathers in terms of closeness and amount of time spent together

(continued)

Table 1

How PAR Closeness was Measured in the Past (continued)

Method	Researcher(s)	Sample	Construct
No actual instrument; simply a question: • ő How close do you feel to your biological mother/father?ö	Stewart (2003)	6072 nationally representative American teenagers (Grades 7 ó 12)	Closeness to nonresident biological mother/father
Questionnaire: Bond with [Mother/Father] • ő How close to you feel to your mother/father?ö • ő Most of the time, is your mother/father warm and loving to you?ö • ő Are you satisfied with the way your mother and you communicate with each other?ö • ő Overall, are you satisfied with your relationship with your mother/father?ö	Kapinus & Gorman (2004)	10 244 nationally representative American teenagers (Grades 7 ó 12; ages 12 ó 18)	Closeness with mother and father
No actual instrument; simply questions: • ő How close do you feel to your mom/dad?ö • ő How much do you think he/she cares about you?ö • ő Most of the time, your mother/father is warm and loving toward you.ö • ő You are satisfied with the way your mother/father communicate with each other.ö • ő Overall, you are satisfied with your relationship with your mother/father.ö	Ream & Savin-Williams (2005)	13 570 nationally representative American adolescents (Grades 7 ó 12)	Parent-adolescent closeness
Questionnaire: Relationship Closeness Inventory; reporting of frequency of selected emotions towards person X in past week; how subjectively close person feels towards person X.	Repinski & Zook (2005)	133 European-American middle class adolescents (68 females and 65 males) in Grades 7, 9, and 11 and a subsample of their parents (79 mothers and 56 fathers).	RCI measures closeness in terms of frequency of interaction, diversity of activities, and strength of influence.

(continued)

Table 1

How PAR Closeness was Measured in the Past (continued)

Method	Researcher(s)	Sample	Construct
Questionnaire: "Are you an equal opportunity daughter?"	Nielson (2006)	423 White upper middle class Americans (ages 20 ó 23)	Time spent together Communication Self-disclosure
No actual instrument; simply a question: • õHow close to you feel to your father/stepmother/non-resident biological mother?ö	King (2007)	294 nationally representative American teenagers (Grades 7 ó 12)	Closeness to fathers, stepmothers, and non-resident mothers
No actual instrument; simply a question: • õHow close do you feel to your mother/father?ö	Scott et al. (2007)	483 Black, Chinese, Cuban and Puerto Rican adolescents (Grades 7 ó 12)	Closeness to mother and father
No actual instrument; simply a question: • õHow close do you feel to your mother/father?ö	Martino et al. (2008)	312 Black, Asian, Latino and White adolescents from California (Grades 6 ó 10)	Closeness to mother and father
No actual instrument; simply questions: • õHow close do you feel to your mother/father?ö • õHow much do you think she (mother) or he (father) cares for you?ö	Regnerus & Luchies (2009)	2368 nationally representative American teens (Grades 7 ó 12); 15 years and older; from two-parent, biologically intact households.	Parent-adolescent closeness

As can be seen in Table 1, simplistic measures were used to measure closeness between parents and adolescents in the past, and the researcher wanted to use more sophisticated measures to gauge close PAR, hence the use of the *Mother and Father versions* of the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA), the Revised Inventory of Parental Attachment (RIPA) and the Relationship Closeness Inventory (RCI). It is argued that attachment and closeness are very closely related, hence the use of these instruments. Hopefully more in-depth information can be gleaned regarding the topic of closeness by utilizing these measures.

In sum, researchers have studied close PAR primarily with White, African-American, Hispanic, Asian, and European participants ranging from ages 13 ó 18 years old. Many of these were from suburban communities, ranging from middle to upper class. In terms of methodologies used, most researchers specifically measured closeness by utilising

questionnaires or interviews with *very few items*. Finally, it was noticed that most PAR research focused primarily on the adolescentsø perceptions and experiences, while neglecting those of the parents (Blyth, et al., 1987; Claes, 1998; Field et al., 1995; Hair et al., 2003; Moller & Stattin, 2001; OøConnor, 1998; Paulson et al., 1991; Somers & Paulson, 2000; Somers & Vollmar, 2006). Thus, the aforementioned limitations should be addressed in future close PAR research.

3.8. Findings based on South African PAR studies

A summary of South African PAR research is provided in Table 2. This table shows that much of the research has placed exclusive focus on parent-adolescent relationships in relation to adolescent social, physical and mental development. Specifically, the work that has been gleaned is clustered mainly around themes of adolescent sexuality, substance abuse, violence and aggression, suicide ideation, eating disorders, etc. There are several studies based on adolescent psychological health/well-being, communication between parents and adolescents, and even issues relating to discipline. More recent PAR has focussed on the generational differences which exist between parents and adolescents resulting from the latest trends in information and communication technologies.

It was challenging to locate articles relating directly to the topic of close PAR as specific South African studies are scarce. Therefore, it is strongly argued that there is a growing need to facilitate a better understanding of close PAR specifically within the South African context.

An electronic database search (example *EBSCOHost, Sabinet, Academic Search Premier, PsycARTICLES, NEXUS*) produced a list of South African research studies. The use of the following key words ó parent-adolescent relationships, parents and adolescents, parent-adolescent communication, mothers and daughters, mothers and sons, fathers and daughters, fathers and sons ó yielded a list of past research which has already been completed and published. There were *no findings* using the key words: close parent-adolescent relationships. The following table contains a list of these research studies, which have been categorised according to various themes.

Table 2

Research Themes Relating to South African Parents and Adolescents

Theme	Research study
Mothers and daughters	• The relationship between body dissatisfation of mothers and body dissatisfaction of their adolescent daughters (Adlard, 2007).
	• Grandmothers, mothers and daughters: transforming and coping strategies in Xhosa households in Grahamstown (Schwartz, 2006).
	• Experiences of mothers of pregnant unmarried adolescents in a community in Lesotho (Matela, 2005).
	• Respectable mothers, tough men, and good daughters producing persons in Manenberg township South Africa (Salo, 2004).
	• Processes that influence the experience of children living with mothers that have HIV: two case studies (Castelletto, 2003).
	• Mothers and sex education: An explorative study in a low-income Western Cape community (Lesch & Anthony, 2007).
	• The identification of risk factors in the relationships between stepmothers and adolescent stepdaughters (Roos, 2001).
	• The self-esteem of biological mothers of daughters incestuously abused by the biological father (Clunie, 1993).
	• The experience of mothers caring for their teenage daughterøs young children (Modungwa, 1996).
	• Reflections on the sexual agency of young women in a low-income South-African community (Lesch & Kruger, 2005).
	• The motheródaughter relationship: What is its potential as a locus for health promotion? (Mosavel et al., 2006).
Mothers and sons	• A mothersø story towards acceptance of her sonøs alternative lifestyle: a narrative journey from an educational psychology perspective (Yell, 2004).
	• Processes that influence the experiences of children living with mothers that have HIV: Two case studies (Castelletto, 2003).
	• How do certain South African women construct masculinity for their sons?: An analysis of motherly discourse regarding gendered expectations (Dixon, 2001).
	• Empathic mother/son interaction (Hirschowitz, 1980).
Fathers and daughters	• Emotional experiences of incestuous fathers: a social constructionist investigation (Van Niekerk, 2005).
	• Father-daughter incest: A criminological view (Maree, 1986).
	• Fathersø influence on the development of his daughter: the influence of academic prestige of adolescent daughters (Mans, 1985).
Fathers and sons	• The involvement of fathers in the sonsø lives: perceptions of sons (Bodenstein, 2008).
	• Emotional experiences of incestuous fathers: a social constructionist investigation (Van Niekerk, 2005).

(continued)

Table 2

Research Themes Relating to South African Parents and Adolescents (continued)

Theme	Research study
Parent-adolescent communication	• Parent-adolescent communication and sexual risk-taking behaviours of adolescents (Wang, 2009). • Adolescentsø experience of parental reactions to the disclosure of child sexual abuse (Smit, 2007). • Evaluating the effectiveness of communication training to single parent and adolescent interaction: an empirical investigation (Cooper, 2005). • Communication between adolescents and parents in restructured families (Sibiya, 2000). • Parent/adolescent communication on sexuality and HIV/AIDS in Tshepiso informal settlement Sedibeng district (Magagula, 2004). • Enriching communication in families with special reference to parent-adolescent interaction (Raath, 1988).
Effects of divorce / single-parenthood / restructured families	• Adolescents in remarried families: A pastoral-narrative approach (Kim, 2005). • Effects of single-parenthood on school-going adolescents in Gabarone District of Botswana (Morebodi, 2005). • Experiences of rural Black South African adolescents who never met their own biological fathers (Phaswana, 2003). • Raising male and female adolescent children in female-headed families (Magqaza, 2001). • A group intervention program for adolescents of divorce (Johnson, 2000). • Communication between adolescents and parents in restructured families (Sibiya, 2000). • Father-absence: Psychological experiences of Black rural adolescents (Magane, 2000). • An orthopedagogic evaluation of the effect of divorce on identity formation (Kaplan, 1986).
Adolescent sexuality	• Manufacturing willingness: Parents and young people talking about sex in an HIV/AIDS epidemic (Wilbraham, 2009). • The health-support systems of the unmarried pregnant adolescent with particular reference to parents (Tanga, 1991).
Adolescent mental, emotional and physical health	• Depressive symptoms in adolescents: Contributory factors at home and in school (Gajadhur, 2002). • The role of parents in the development of adolescentsø emotional intelligence (Wooton, 2001). • A model of self-development of adolescents: Promoting mental health of adolescents whose parents abuse substances (Moshome, 2001).

(continued)

Table 2

Research Themes Relating to South African Parents and Adolescents (continued)

Theme	Research study
Adolescent academia	• The impact of parental involvement of the future perspective of the adolescent learner in Siyabusiwa (Boshielo, 2002). • The impact of disrupted family life and school climate on the self-concept of the adolescent (Gasa, 2002). • Child abuse and academic performance of adolescents in Lesotho (Monyane, 1999). • The influence of parenting styles on the academic performance of Black high school students (Mekgwe, 1998).
Family strengths	• Parentsø and adolescentsø perceptions of a strong family (Le Roux, 1992).
Generational differences between parents and adolescents	• Exploring adolescentsø perceptions of the impact of information and communication technologies on PAR (Odendaal, 2004). • Wearing masks: an investigation of generational differences between Zulu adolescents and their parents in the Durban region from the adolescentsø perspective (Mbatha, 2003). • The attitudes of parents, grandparents and adolescents, towards adolescent problems in a rapidly changing society (Nyembe, 1990).
Improving PAR	• A psycho-educational programme to enhance the efficacy of parents of adolescents (Kerr, 2008). • A parent-effectiveness program to improve parent-adolescent relationships (Zulu, 2002). • The evaluation of a programme to facilitate constructive interpersonal relationships between adolescents and their parents (Moleli, 2001).
General	• The role of parenting styles in the acquisition of responsibility in adolescents (Preston, 2005). • The adolescentøs experience of parental discipline (Visser, 2004). • The relationships between negative and positive suicide ideations and attachment styles in adolescents (Smith, 2004). • The family perceptions of Coloured adolescents and the implications thereof for parenting (Stevens, 1999). • Family functioning and the development of the self-concept of a group of adolescents (Van Wyk, 1998). • The õracializedö discourses of a group of Black parents and adolescents in a Western Cape community (Stevens, 1995). • Difference in response pattern among adolescents and their parents with regard to observed family climate (De Wet, 1995). • Assessment of the quality of parent-adolescent relationships (Mayekiso & Flatela, 1993). • Adolescentsø relationships in a town in the Western Cape, South Africa (De Jager, 2011).

It can be seen from Table 2 that there is a void in South African research studies focussing on close PAR, and there is thus a need for this topic to be studied within the South African context.

3.8.1. Mothers and adolescents

Themes studied under the topic of mothers and daughters concentrate on aspects such as appearance, sexuality, self-esteem, etc. (Adlard, 2007; Clunie, 1993; Marcovitch, 1973; Matela, 2005) and since these research findings do not relate directly to this study, these will not be discussed. A few research findings from studies conducted in low-income, semi-rural Coloured communities will be highlighted below:

In Mosavel et al.øs (2006) quantitative study, mother-daughter dyads reported on certain shared activities in which they engaged in on a weekly basis. Television-watching, going grocery shopping, visiting friends, and having supper together were activities which were highlighted. Other findings showed that 96% of mothers reported getting along well with their daughters; 86% talked about many things; and 90% reported that they spent a lot of time together. The majority of the daughters in this study felt loved and respected by their mothers. Daughters asked their mothers for advice on daily and social affairs, as well as relationship, health, and future issues. The mothers mainly asked daughters for health-related advice, believing that the daughters had an increased access to knowledge and skills.

Open communication (for e.g. about sexuality) is said to characterize close PAR. Lesch (2000) found that closeness between Coloured, low-income mothers and daughter was negatively impacted in that the daughtersø sexuality often brought about a component of distance between the mothers and daughters. Mothers couldnøt tolerate hearing about their daughterøs sexuality, yet ironically they expected their daughters to talk to them about it. In turn, daughters tried to preserve a connection with their mothers by not disclosing their sexual experiences. Lesch and Anthony (2007), in a qualitative study with nine Coloured low-income mothers on the role of mothers in daughtersø sex education found that mothers were uncomfortable discussing sexual issues with their daughters and had limited capability for open discussion on these matters. Lesch (2000) proposes that daughtersø sexuality and sexual development should provide a foundation for closeness between mothers and daughters, thereby allowing the daughters to communicate openly and honestly about their own sexual experiences.

De Jager (2011) conducted quantitative research with White and Coloured adolescents in a Western Cape community and found that adolescents reported that their mothers were important relationship sources of support and affection.

Research pertaining to mothers and sons is quite limited with one study that focussed on how mothers construct masculinity for their sons (Dixon, 2001) and another on the experience of sons, in particular with HIV-positive mothers (Castelleto, 2003). Hirschowitz (1980) conducted a study into empathic mother/son communication. This study is dated and its relevance for the current context could be questioned. These topics do not directly relate to this current investigation, and will therefore not be discussed.

3.8.2. Fathers and adolescents

A number of studies have focussed on the theme of fathers and daughters. Two specific research studies which investigated the theme of father-daughter incest were located (Maree, 1986; Van Niekerk, 2005). Another outdated study investigated the fathersø influence particularly on the academic achievement of daughters (Mans, 1985). Once again, it can be argued that the applicability of such dated findings may be debatable.

There is a dearth of South African research focussing on the relationship between fathers and sons. Two South African studies on the father-son relationship were located, but these were in Dutch (Bammann, 2002; Walbrugh, 1996). However, in spite of the lack of or sparse research on the theme of father-son relationships, the researcher came across a recent research study by Bodenstein (2008) who explored South African fathersø involvement with their families. The aim of his study was to establish insight into boysø perceptions of father-involvement in the lives of 18 Grade 7 and 8 adolescent boys. The topic was investigated qualitatively via focus group discussions. Prominent themes which unfolded were that fathers need to provide care for the son; the son also wants to be disciplined and protected by his father. Sons highlighted that they need their fathers to be there to talk to, to be there for them, and to pay attention to them. It is argued that all of the latter themes are imperative for a close parent-adolescent relationship.

It must be mentioned that the *Fatherhood Project*, a uniquely South African project, was launched in 2003 by the *Child, Youth and Family Development Programme* at the *Human Sciences Research Council.* It consisted of a travelling exhibition of photographs, where constructive involvement of fathers in the care and protection of children was promoted. Consequently, Richter and Morrell (2006) introduced the book *Baba : Men and Fatherhood in South Africa.* The aim of the book was to contribute to the emerging

international literature on fathers and fatherhood. As mentioned previously, fathers were a hidden parent in PAR; Lamb (1997) believed that fathers were on the periphery of children's lives, and of little direct importance to children's development. Researchers began actively working at bringing about change in this trend. But the fact of the matter is that "not all fathers are proud to be fathers, and unfortunately not all fathers want to participate in the lives of their children" (Richter & Morrell, 2006, p. 2). These researchers further contend that most South African men do not seem especially interested in their children, based on their research. Yet, South African research on fatherhood is slowly aligning itself with changes in international research, where men are beginning to reassess the value of fatherhood. Richter (2003) has discussed the changed role of fathers, from the "traditional stereotypical father" to the contemporary "new father" who is intimately engaged and cares for his children. McKeown, Ferguson and Rooney (1998) echo what was discussed in a previous section, and that is that "Fathers who have warm, close and nurturing relationships with their children can have an enormously positive influence on their development. The converse is also true" (p. 92). It can therefore be argued then that detached father-adolescent relationships can profoundly negatively affect children.

3.8.3. Communication in PAR

Communication between individuals is one of the essential elements of a close relationship. The studies which could be uncovered relating to the theme of parent-adolescent communication focussed chiefly on themes such as parent-adolescent communication regarding sexual issues (Magagula, 2004; Smit, 2007). While the latter topic is important, especially within the South African context, given our HIV/AIDS pandemic in the country, it does not relate directly to the present research study. Several studies which elaborated on communication problems between parents and adolescents were located.

Adolescents reported that the PAR is characterised by a number of difficulties, particularly regarding communication. They added that their parents tend to be harsh when relating to them, which leads them to be stubborn and hard-headed. This negatively affects the constructive interaction between parents and adolescents (Moleli, 2000).

Louw (1991) and Mayekiso and Flatela (1993) found that most Black adolescents often disagreed with their parents on a larger number of issues, possibly because they felt more westernized than their parents. Mayekiso and Flatela's (1993) research on 13 and 14 year old participants' relationships were characterised by conflict and limited parent-adolescent interaction, and parents often adopted an authoritarian style. A lacuna exists in the

literature, and older literature may have been impacted by the strong political events of the day. According to Thom (1988), Black South African adolescents do not share and enjoy activities with their parents to the same extent as White adolescents. It was also observed that Black South African adolescents do not discuss problems and concerns to the same extent as the White adolescents with their parents, and that there is not the same degree of closeness in their relationship with their parents. These findings happened during a very volatile political context, which may have had a significant impact on the outcomes of these studies. The late 1980s was a very important time for adolescents. South Africa was divided under the apartheid system, and thus it could be proposed that not many Black adolescents felt close to their parents.

3.8.4. General themes relating to PAR

Other themes which South African researchers have investigated (pertaining to PAR) include: effects of divorce; single-parenthood; restructured families; adolescent sexuality; adolescent mental, emotional and physical health; adolescent academia; and generational differences between parents and adolescents. There is also a host of South African studies which have been classified under the category *General* (see Table 2).

3.8.5. Is a strong family also a close family?

South African researcher Le Roux (1992) argues that most research on family dynamics focuses on relationship problems and pathology while little research attention focuses on the strengths of South African families. She goes on to assert that õ...most researchers still prefer the pathogenetic paradigm in spite of the more positive and growth-directed salutogenetic orientation, which is of much practical value...to family psychologyö (Le Roux, 1992, p. 1219). It has well been established that close PAR produces a positive impact on many spheres of life, and it is firmly believed that the present study is steered towards a more positive/growth-directed orientation. Although Le Rouxøs (1992) study did not focus specifically on the construct of closeness, she focussed on family strengths which incorporate the following: appreciation, spending time together, commitment, good communication patterns, high religious orientation, and the ability to deal with a crisis in a positive manner. It is argued that the four specific aforementioned characteristics are also essential in close PAR. The researcher focussed on 20 Euro-American families of middle to high SES from a Protestant parish in the Western Cape Province. The key research finding from her study was that although family strength correlated positively with all six identified characteristics, time spent together and appreciation for each other had the highest correlation with family strength.

3.8.6. Improving PAR

Recent South African research *specifically* focusing on *close* PAR could not be located, which supports the researcherøs argument for a need to focus on it in current research. However, several studies have shed some light on and offered suggestions for improving PAR. Zulu (2002) noticed that there was an increase in juvenile delinquency (amongst adolescents ages 12 ó 18 years) in the Kwa-Dlangezwa location of KwaZulu Natal. These adolescents were engaged in a variety of activities ranging from car hijacking, drug addiction, cigarette smoking, burglary, shoplifting, murder, truancy, etc. Adolescents completed a survey to determine the causes of their problems and the kind of communication relationship they have with their parents. A parent-effectiveness programme was designed and implemented over a period of six weeks, whereby parents and adolescents participated in group meetings. In this study, parents were given an opportunity to express warmth and love towards their adolescents. Both the adolescent and parent found the programme extremely beneficial.

Kerr (2008) has designed a psycho-educational programme to enhance the efficacy of parents and adolescents. In her thesis, she discusses the importance of adolescentsø need for nurturance. While adolescents are often quite self-conscious about receiving nurture, they are in need of it and parents need to behave in ways that the adolescent receives the message: õYou are lovable and I will respond to your needs for care, affection, and praiseö (Jernberg & Booth, 1999, p. 19). Kerr (2008) mentions that parents need to be warm, gentle, soothing, calming and comforting, especially with their adolescent children, and above all, they need to display unconditional love towards their children. She goes on to explain that touch is a very important way of communicating love to adolescents; parents should give their children hugs, back rubs, and even give them high fives or pats on the back. Chapman (1995) has written comprehensively on the different õlove languagesö and points out that parents need to be aware of the primary õlove languageö of their adolescent children. These are: words of affirmation and encouragement (that is: showing love through verbal affirmation); acts of service (that is: showing love via actions or behaviour); gifts; and quality time (that is: spending time with and interacting closely with them). The final õlove languageö is particularly relevant to the proposed current study because it involves physical closeness or touch (that is: touching, hugging, sitting close to adolescents, etc.) Kerr (2008) maintains that parents need to employ all of these love languages, but it would be most beneficial to identify and respond to their childøs primary love language. It could be further argued that responding to the childøs love languages and using these judiciously and effectively can go a long way in strengthening the close bond between parent and child.

Kerr (2008) also recommends that parents and adolescents spend as much quality time together as possible; these should not only include daily activities, but also motivating and stimulating activities (like hiking together or playing games). Smith (2003) asserts that adolescents need to feel connected to their parents, which is very challenging in modern times where parents are often disconnected from their neighbours, other parents, the community, their children and/or spouse often because of busy independent life-styles.

3.9. Conclusion/synopsis of literature review

To summarize, research has shown that mothers, fathers, and adolescents do have quite different experiences when it comes to how they relate to one another. A longstanding trajectory in the research was that mother-adolescent relationships were generally closer, but more current research is challenging the idea of the traditionally distant father. Due to a variety of reasons, it may not always be possible for adolescents to be close to both of their parents. Yet research seems to show over and over again that even if an adolescent has a close relationship with at least *one* parent (irrespective of that parentøs gender), it would yield many positive effects. Extant research with parents and adolescents challenges traditional theoretical and methodological approaches to adolescent development. Currently, ample studies on adolescentsø close relationships imply that adolescent development can be understood more fully in the context of significant-other relationships, and that relationships with parents remain essential in these contexts (Allen & Land, 1999; Collins, Gleason, & Sesma, 1997). Yet, the principal task is to understand not only the developing adolescent, but also the interplay between individual growth and change, and the nature and developmental significance of relationships with others, more especially parents. This will surely lead to a more thorough understanding of PAR (Collins & Laursen, 2004).

CHAPTER 4
METHODOLOGY

4.1. Research problem and objective

Research is very limited regarding closeness in South African PAR, particularly in marginalised communities. This study therefore explored closeness in PAR in one semi-rural, low-income community in the Western Cape Province of South Africa.

4.2. Specific research objectives

1. To explore adolescentsø perceptions of closeness with mother.
2. To explore adolescentsø perceptions of closeness with father.
3. To explore differences in perceptions of closeness with mother and father.
4. To explore mothersø perceptions of closeness with adolescent children.
5. To explore fathersø perceptions of closeness with adolescents children.
6. To explore differences between mothersø and fathersø perception of closeness with adolescents children.
7. To explore gender differences in adolescentsø perceptions of closeness with mothers and fathers.
8. To triangulate quantitative and qualitative findings.

4.3. Research design

As limited research has been conducted within the context of PAR in semi-rural, low-income Coloured communities in South Africa, this was an exploratory study making use of a cross-sectional survey research design. A mixed method combining questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were used, because it is argued that a mixed method design can expand an understanding from one method to another, as well as confirm findings from different data sources (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

4.4. Quantitative method

Questionnaires designed for quantitative research purposes are meant to tap into the strength of attitudes, perceptions, views and opinions of the chosen sample. This process entails attempting to measure or quantify how intensely people feel about issues. Quantitative research allows individuals to understand tendencies i.e. decisions and actions in groups of people who share common characteristics (Black, 1999). Part of this study, therefore, utilized a quantitative correlational design in order to comprehend tendencies pertaining to close PAR in the selected community.

4.4.1. Participants

The school where adolescent participants were recruited is the local secondary school that most of the targeted community¢s adolescents attend. This school was therefore used as a means to access this community¢s adolescents. Adolescents were classified as early adolescents (12 ó 14 years old), middle adolescents (15 ó 16 years old) and late adolescents (17 ó 19 years old). This study collected and analyzed data from both parents and teenagers, because the existing literature indicates that most adolescent-parent relationship research focus primarily on the *adolescents'* perceptions and experiences, while overlooking those of the parents (Blyth, et al., 1987; Claes, 1998; Field et al., 1995; Hair et al., 2003; Moller & Stattin, 2001; O¢Connor, 1998; Paulson et al., 1991; Somers & Paulson, 2000; Somers & Vollmar, 2006). Inclusion criteria for the adolescent participants included: attending the secondary school in the identified community; aged 12 to 19; Afrikaans-speaking, and living with their parents; obtaining informed consent from parents; and parents participating in the study. Criteria for parent participants included: living in the identified community; biological parents or step-parents of their adolescent child; Afrikaans-speaking, and having their adolescent child residing in their home.

It was hoped to recruit a maximum number of 120 adolescent volunteers and their parents, but the recruitment efforts produced a smaller number of 50 families (67 parents and 50 adolescents) participating. Although many of the adolescents seemed quite keen to participate in the survey, a limited number of parents completed and returned the informed consent forms and questionnaires. Despite appeals via letters to parents and also asking the adolescents to remind their parents to complete their surveys, the parents¢ response rate remained low. An overall parental response rate of 20% was achieved. One factor which could explain the low response rate is that parents¢ limited literacy hindered their understanding and completion of the consent forms and questionnaires. Two studies revealed

that many parents in this community only have primary school education (Lesch & Anthony, 2007; Van Dongen, 2003). Another limitation of this study is that few fathers participated in the study.

The demographic characteristics for the participants are indicated in Table 3.

Table 3

Demographic Representation of the Sample

Variable	*f*	%
Adolescent gender		
Female	32	64
Male	18	36
Adolescent age		
Early (12-14 yrs)	21	42
Middle (15-16 yrs)	10	20
Late (17-19 yrs)	19	38
Parent gender		
Female	47	70
Male	20	30
Parent age		
29-40	30	45
41-50	22	33
51-64	9	13
No age given	6	9
Racial distribution		
Coloured	111	96
Black	6	4
Religion (Christian)	101	87
Language (Afrikaans)	111	96
Parents married	26	52
Parents not married	24	48
Parents living together	30	60
Parents not living together	20	40
Place of residence		
Farm	97	88
Town	17	10
Informal settlement	3	2
Employment		
Mothers	33	72
Fathers	14	78
Family income per month		
Less than R1000	8	12
R1000	17	25
More than R1000	2	4
R2000	12	18
R3000		16
No details given	17	25

Note. f = frequency distribution

Questionnaires were administered to 50 families (50 adolescents and 67 parents). The ages of the adolescents ranged from 12 to 19 years old. Thirty-two adolescents were female (*n* = 32;

64%) and eighteen adolescents were male (n = 18; 36%). The sample was taken from adolescents in Grades 8 to 12. Forty-seven parents were female (n = 47; 70%) and twenty parents were male (f = 20; 30%). The age of the parents ranged from 29 to 64 years old, with the youngest parent being 29; and the oldest parent being 64; and the average parental age being 42 years old. Forty-two percent of adolescents fell into the range of early adolescence (12 ó 14 years old); 20% into middle adolescence (15 ó 16 years old), and 38% into late adolescence (17 ó 19 years old). In terms of racial distribution, the majority of the sample was Coloured (96%) while only 4% was Black. In terms of religious affiliation, the majority of the sample was Christian (87%); 1% was Muslim and 12% had no religious affiliation. Considering their home language, 96% of the sample spoke Afrikaans and 4% of them spoke Xhosa. Fifty-two percent of the parents were married while 48% were not. Considering the years of marriage, the median was 13.0; the mean was 13.41; the standard deviation was 5.23; the minimum was 5.0 and the maximum was 23.0. Sixty percent of the adolescents reported that their parents are currently living together while 40% are not. Eighty-eight percent live on a farm; 10% in the town (presumably Stellenbosch), and 2% live in an informal settlement (presumably Kayamandi). Eighty percent of the sample lived in an actual brick house; 14% live in an informal hut either on their own property or in a separate entrance; and 6% live in a zinc shack. In terms of the people residing in the home, the median number was 5; the mean was 6; the standard deviation was 2; the minimum was 2 and the maximum was 15.

Most parents disclosed their monthly income, which was anywhere between below R1000,00 and R3000,00. Eight parents reported earning less than R1000; 17 parents reported earning approximately R1000; two parents reported earning more than R1000; 12 parents reported earning R2000; and eight parents reported earning approximately R3000 per month. Seventeen parents chose not to disclose their monthly incomes by stating õN/Aö. Of the 73% of parents who were employed, the majority of them were domestic workers or farm labourers. When one thinks of individuals with these kinds of jobs and what they earn, it is evident that people who work within these unskilled professions do not make a lot of money, and would arguably fall within the low-income category.

4.4.2. Measurement

The following instruments have been utilized in the present research: Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA): *Mother and Father Versions* (IPA), Revised Inventory of Parent Attachment (RIPA), and the Relationship Closeness Inventory (RCI). The questionnaires are currently not standardized for South African populations (i.e. there are no norms available). Therefore, they were adapted to suit the specific context and translated into Afrikaans.

The following questionnaires were completed by the **adolescents** (see Appendix A).

(i) Demographic questionnaire

A self-designed demographic questionnaire was completed by the adolescents and parents, with the aim of eliciting information such as gender, age, language, religious affiliation (if any), place of residence, employment status, income bracket, etc.

(ii) Relationship Closeness Inventory (RCI)

The RCI, a psychometrically sound instrument, was designed by Berscheid et al. (1989) to measure the degree of closeness in interpersonal relationships by determining the amount of time two individuals spend alone with each other, the diversity of activities they engage in together, and the strength of the influence that each has on the other (Thornton, 2003). It has and can be used to measure closeness in romantic relationships, friendships and family relationships. The format is a 7-point Likert type questionnaire, and consists of 75 items. In scoring the frequency, diversity and strength measures, raw scores are converted to values on a common 10-point scale, with higher scores always indicating greater closeness on that dimension.

Scoring criteria for each dimension are available (Berscheid et al., 1989; Perlmutter, Touliatos, & Holden, 2001). According to Touliatos, Perlmutter, and Holden (2001), the frequency score is the total time spent in minutes; the diversity score is calculated by the number of activity domains that the person reports spending with the other, and the raw strength score is the sum of the values on Likert-type scales, after adjusting for reverse-scored items. Although the instruction requires participants to choose the *one* person with whom they have the closest, deepest, most involved, and most intimate relationship, it can be argued that the researcher can also be the one to select the closest relationship. Developers of the RCI reasoned that to study relationship closeness, *they* should select individualsø closest relationship for initial examination to ensure that closeness would indeed be present in the

relationship to be examined, and that there would be more of it instead of less of it to study (Berscheid et al., 1989).

Most studies employing the RCI, including the validation study, have sampled college populations in their late teens and early twenties; military personnel, wives of military personnel, hospital staff, parents and early adolescents (Touliatos et al., 2001). Alpha was 0.56 for frequency, 0.86 for diversity, 0.90 for strength, and 0.62 for overall combined index. Test-retest correlations after 3 ó 5 weeks for the RCI were 0.82 for frequency, 0.61 for diversity, and 0.81 for the respective subscales. Test-retest reliability for the overall index was 0.82 (Touliatos et al., 2001). Not only is the RCI a reliable instrument but it possesses discriminant, predictive, and construct validity (Berscheid et al., 1989, as cited in Mashek & Aron, 2004). In the validation study on American college students, the RCI was used in order to test whether it could discriminate between a personøs closest relationship and one that is not close. The RCI scores were significantly different for relationships defined by participants as close and not so close. Paired *t* tests between the close RCI and the not-close RCI produced highly significant differences, with the close RCI total scores, as well as the subscale scores, being almost twice as high as the non-close scores. Thus, the RCI produced and possesses discriminate validity (Berscheid et al., 1989). It was found that the RCI had high predictive validity in that the three closeness measures were associated with relationship stability. In particular, the diversity and strength scales were significant, pointing to the RCIøs predictive power (Berscheid et al, 1989, as cited in Mashek & Aron, 2004). The RCI was also shown via a number of studies to possess construct validity (Berscheid et al., 1989, as cited in Mashek & Aron, 2004; Collins & Repinski, 1995; Laursen et al., 2000). Thus, it can be argued that the RCI is a reliable and valid measure of relationship closeness.

For this present study, the reliability of the RCI was determined using Cronbachøs alpha coefficients. According to Shuttleworth (2009), a reliability coefficient of 0.70 is generally considered to be an acceptable measure of internal consistency. Influence of parents on thoughts, feelings and behaviour was 0.97; influence of parents on future plans and goals was 0.89; influence of children on mothersø thoughts, feelings and behaviour was 0.96; influence of children on fathersø thoughts, feelings and behaviour was 0.95; influence of children on mothersø future plans and goals was 0.81; and finally, influence of children on fathersø future plans and goals was 0.85. As can be seen, all of these coefficients are excellent measures of internal consistency.

(iii) Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA)

The IPPA, a psychometrically sound instrument, was designed by Armsden and Greenberg (1987) to measure attachment to parents (subscales: trust, communication and alienation). The format is a 5-point Likert type questionnaire and the length consists of 25 items. All three subscales are scored independently. Total attachment scores for mother and father are the sum of all items after reverse-scoring certain items. Higher scores indicate more attachment (Touliatos et al., 2001). It was developed for use on samples between ages 16 to 20 years old; however it was used successfully in several studies with adolescents as young as 12 (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). It has been used on different populations (e.g. Bynum, 2007; Coley & Medeiros, 2007; Costa & Weems, 2005; Gomez & McLaren, 2007; Schwartz & Buboltz; 2004; Wilkinson & Kraljevec, 2004; Ying, Lee, & Tsai, 2007).

The trust, communication and alienation subscales had internal consistency alphas of 0.91, 0.91 and 0.86 respectively. Test-retest reliability coefficients over a three-week interval were excellent, with 0.93 for the prototype parent attachment (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987).

The IPPA has excellent concurrent validity. Scores correlate well with several measures of psychological well-being, including self-concept, self-esteem, positiveness, life satisfaction, problem-solving, and locus of control. Scores are negatively correlated with depression and loneliness. The IPPA also has good known-groups validity with scores discriminating delinquent from non-delinquent youngsters (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987).

For this present study, the reliability of the IPA was determined using Cronbach's alpha coefficients. For mothers, trust was 0.79; communication was 0.77; alienation was 0.66, and the total score was 0.87. For fathers, trust was 0.79; communication was 0.84; alienation was 0.71, and the total score was 0.86. The reported coefficients are all fairly acceptable measures of internal consistency. Alpha coefficients (especially the total scores) generally tended towards higher ranges. For this particular research group, internal consistency scores for both the subscale and total scores was generally high.

The following questionnaires were given to the **parents** (see Appendix B):

(i) Demographic questionnaire

(ii) Relationship Closeness Inventory

(iii) Revised Inventory of Parental Attachment (RIPA)

The RIPA was designed by Johnson, Ketring, and Abshire (2003) to measure parents' attachment to adolescent children.

The format is a 5-point Likert type questionnaire, and the length consists of 30 items. All three instruments are scored independently. Total attachment scores for mother and father are the sum of all items after reverse-scoring certain items. Higher scores indicate more attachment (Perlmutter et al., 2001; Touliatos et al., 2001). It was standardized on a population of 212 adult participants, and 89 adolescent participants from a Midwestern state in America.

Reliability analysis was conducted by computing Cronbach's alpha for each of the RIPA sub-scales. Reliability coefficients are as follows: trust/avoidance 0.91, and communication, 0.72. No additional tests for reliability were conducted. According to Johnson et al. (2003), five additional items were added to the original IPPA to increase the face validity, as these items addressed issues unique to parents. Construct validity was evidenced by correlations with measures of family conflict, support, and cohesion. Validity analysis was conducted by correlating the subscale scores of both the RIPA and the IPPA with the outcomes related to attachment. Validity analysis provided initial evidence that the RIPA does measure parental attachment. No further findings on validity could be located (Johnson et al., 2003).

For this present study, the reliability of the RIPA was determined using Cronbach's alpha coefficients. Trust was 0.77; communication was 0.59; alienation was 0.59; parental experiences was 0.60 and the total score was 0.80. This means that for this research group, internal consistency was quite acceptable on the trust subscale and the overall total score. Yet, with regards to communication and alienation, the internal consistency was less than 0.70, yet closer to 0.60, which means that it is still deemed as acceptable.

4.4.3. Pilot study

All of the instruments, which the adolescents completed, were used in the pilot study.

Objectives

The primary objective of the pilot study was to determine the suitability of the proposed measuring instruments for the adolescents, specifically checking whether they could easily understand and answer the test items.

Participants

A pilot study was conducted on a convenience sample of 20 learners. They were recruited by a field worker, who visited the school. After explaining the study to several classes, 20 learners volunteered to be part of the pilot study. Inclusion criteria for the adolescents included: attending the high school in the identified community; aged 12 to 19; Afrikaans-speaking, and living with their parents; obtaining informed consent from parents; and parents participating in the study.

Procedure

After informed consent had been obtained from the parents of the adolescents, one field worker visited the school on a Friday afternoon (early in the year 2009) The adolescents completed the questionnaires in one classroom after school. Upon analysis of the preliminary results, and in consultation with the statistician, Professor Martin Kidd of the University of Stellenbosch, certain items were flagged as challenging to understand. In the *Inventory of Parent Attachment*, the following items seemed to confuse the participants, as their answers appeared to contradict what they were saying in other test items: õI feel that it is of no value to show my feelings in front of my mother/fatherö translated as õEk voel dis van geen waarde om my gevoelens voor my ma/pa te wys nieö; õMy mother/father has her/his own problems, so I donøt bother her/him with my own problemsö translated as õMy ma/pa het haar/sy eie probleme, so ek pla haar/hom nie met myne nieö; and õMy mother/father does not understand what I am going through these daysö translated as õMy ma/pa verstaan nie waardeur ek deesdae gaan nieö. It was decided that these items should be omitted from the instruments, as some terminology and/or the way certain questions were phrased seemed to cause some confusion amongst the participants. The instruments were translated using the backward translation procedure; an experienced Afrikaans college lecturer guided this process (see Appendix C).

4.4.4. Data collection/procedure

Ethical clearance was obtained from the relevant bodies and permission was obtained from the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) to conduct this study with the participants attending the relevant school (see Appendix D). An appointment was set up with the principal of the school and he was briefed about this study. Arrangements were made to speak to the learners. At these opportunities, the study goal, procedure and ethical rights of participants were explained, and volunteers were asked to read and sign an informed consent letter. These volunteers were given a letter and form to give to their parents to obtain parental consent for the learnersø participation, as well as consent forms and questionnaires for their own participation. The questionnaires for adolescents were completed and collected as arranged with the school principal.

Incentives were offered for participants to increase the rate of completion. They were informed that when completed questionnaires from both parents and children were received, the family õnumbersö would be entered into a lucky draw where prizes could be won. The prizes included cell phone air time vouchers, shopping vouchers, chocolates, and luxury gift packs for men and women, respectively.

4.4.5. Data analysis/statistical procedure

For statistical analysis, the *Statistica* package was used. Descriptive statistics was performed using measures like means, standard deviations, frequency tables, and histograms. Reliability analysis was conducted using Cronbachøs alpha. For comparison of the different variables, correlations were calculated. Comparisons between different groupings were done using two-way ANOVAs. A probability value (known as the p-value) of 0.05 was used in all the analyses to test for significance.

4.5. Qualitative method

The primary reason for making use of the interview method was to supplement the information provided by the data from the surveys. Thus, in addition to collecting data via the survey method, family interviews were also conducted. Henwood and Pidgeon (2003) have stated that qualitative methodology is essentially concerned with meaning, and concentrates on how people make use of the world, and how they attach meaning to various events. Therefore, it recognizes that understanding is constructed and that multiple realities exist (Tindall, 1994). It involves capturing peopleøs opinions, feelings, and practice, as well as

their experiences and the kind of atmosphere and context in which they act and respond (Wisker, 2001).

Cresswell (1998) explained qualitative research as a process of inquiry into a specific social and human problem. The unique advantage of this particular research design is that it establishes a more complex and extensive understanding of how people experience their world, and it incorporates the context and the individualøs cultural frame of reference. Mason (2002) declared that qualitative strategies allow the researcher to investigate issues of everyday life, subjective understandings, experiences and beliefs of the participants, social processes and discourses, and the significance of meanings generated. All of these cited characteristics are unique to qualitative research, and this method therefore was considered ideal for this investigation. The qualitative component of this investigation was aimed at gaining insight into how parents and adolescents construct their relationships with each other.

4.5.1. Participants

Twelve participating families were eligible and willing to participate in the qualitative part of this study (19 parents and 12 adolescents). According to Crouch and McKenzie (2006, as cited in De Villiers, 2011), smaller sample sizes are usually recommended for exploratory studies. Seven mother-father-adolescent families were interviewed, along with five mother-adolescent families. Most of the adolescents were relatively young. There were two 13 ó year olds; six 14 ó year olds; three 15 ó year olds and one 17 ó year old.

Twelve Psychology Honours students from the Stellenbosch University were required to take part in the qualitative data collection procedure as part of their course work for the *Intimate Relationships* module. Students were paired with each other, and conducted the interview together, helping and supporting each other in the interviewing process. Of the 12 students, 11 were female and one was male. Of the 12 students, ten were White and two were Coloured. Ten students were between the ages of 21 ó 23 years old; one student was 27 years of age, and the oldest interviewer was 32 years old. The average age amongst the interviewers was 22,8 years old. The majority of them were Afrikaans-speaking (67%) and the minority were English-speaking (33%). The students attended a briefing and training session. In this session, each of the questions was discussed, and also how they could explore answers to these questions.

It needs to be acknowledged that these students were novice interviewers, and their interviewing skills were limited by the following: (1) some had difficulty creating rapport at the onset of the interviews; (2) English-speaking students particularly lacked the vocabulary

to express themselves in Afrikaans, although this did not seem to encumber the process as the majority of the participants seemed to understand and answer the questions even if they were grammatically flawed; and (3) they seemed to lack essential basic interviewing skills e.g., probing.

4.5.2. Interviews

According to Britten (1995), semi-structured interviews consist of a loose structure, which involves asking open-ended questions that need exploration. This kind of interviewing style allows for both the interviewer and interviewee to diverge from the semi-structured questions, thereby pursuing an idea in more detail or even generating new ideas. The research questions were formulated in such a way so as to encourage the participants to express in their own words what their understanding of close PAR was. A series of questions was drawn up carefully so as not to be too vague, probing, embarrassing, or too closed. An interview schedule was used as a guide, and as is shown in Appendix E, parents and adolescents were questioned about the same broad range of topics. The interviews were recorded on audio CDs, which were transcribed verbatim. Qualitative, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the 12 participating families (composing of 18 parents and 12 adolescents). Most of the interviews were approximately one hour long. During the interviews, the participants were asked to elaborate on their understanding of close PAR. The typical questions that were asked were (1) When do you usually spend time together? (2) What do you do, and what is this time like for you? (3) Do you enjoy spending time together? (4) Do you wish that you had more time to spend together? (5) When we talk about closeness between parents and children, what do we mean? (6) Do you currently feel close to each other? Why or why not?

4.5.3. Data collection

Learners at the targeted school were asked whether they would be interested in taking part in the family interview with their parent(s). The field worker (whose responsibility it was to collect the survey data) asked the learners to provide their contact details. In total, 77 of the learners showed interest in the interviews, by providing their details. The researcher compiled a list, and provided each student with five options of parents to contact. The field workers were asked to secure one family for each of them to interview. They were given a set introduction to give to the parents when they contacted them telephonically. They contacted the parents of learners to determine their interest in and willingness to take part in the study.

Time and cost constraints allowed for 12 families to be interviewed. Field workers arranged for the family interview to take place at the Stellenbosch University Psychology Department. All interviews were conducted during August ó September 2009. Shortly after inviting participants into the venue where the interview took place, field workers explained the informed consent form (see Appendix F) and had all participants sign these, if they agreed to the information. It was stressed that they could refuse to answer any particular question that they did not want to answer, and that they could end the interview at any time. The interviewees were assured of anonymity, and no identification of the respondent was made except the first name. All of the interviews were conducted in Afrikaans, which was the language of choice of the participants. All of the interviews were audio-taped with the permission of the participants; these CDs were then transcribed. The interviews lasted for approximately one hour, and each family received R150,00 to reimburse them for travel costs and as a gesture of appreciation to come for the interviews after-hours. The simple step-by-step procedure which the field workers followed can be found in Appendix G.

4.5.4. Transcription of interviews

The researcher had all 12 of the interviews transcribed for her by three undergraduate college students in their early twenties (two white Afrikaans- and English speaking students; one Coloured Afrikaans-speaking student). In order to ensure a high quality transcription process, the researcher checked through all typed out interviews and ensured that they were accurate versions of the audio versions. Attention was given to the more subtle aspects of social interaction (e.g. nonverbal communication) apparent in the audio-taped interviews, and these were included in the transcriptions.

4.5.5. Analysis of the data

The researcher of this investigation followed the six-phased guideline to doing thematic analysis as offered by Braun and Clarke (2006). Table 4 summarizes the process.

Table 4

Guidelines to Doing Thematic Analysis

Guideline	Description
1. Familiarization with the data	The data was transcribed verbatim, including all of the verbal utterances and any nonverbal forms of communication. After reading through it repeatedly (termed immersion), initial ideas were noted. Punctuation marks were added as not to change the õtrueö meaning of the data. All typed out transcripts were checked against the audio recordings for accuracy.
2. Generating initial codes	The data set was collated and coded in a systematic fashion, in other words interesting information was highlighted in the most basic way to generate codes.
3. Searching for themes	Collated codes were placed into potential themes, with the aid of an initial thematic map.
4. Reviewing themes	Data themes were checked, thereby creating a developed thematic map of the analysis.
5. Defining and naming themes	Data themes were clearly defined and named, as shown in the final thematic map (see Figure 2).
6. Producing the report	A selection of vivid, compelling extract examples were taken and highlighted in the final report, and compared to the literature, thereby producing answers to the research question(s).

CONTENT THEMES

PROCESS THEMES

Perception of closeness:
mother
father
adolescent

Characteristics of close PAR:
time spent together
activities
communication
respect

Gender differences in closeness:
close mother-adolescent relationships
close father-adolescent relationships

Physical displays of affection:
hugs, kisses, etc.

Mother as family spokesperson

Adolescents finding it difficult to express themselves

One-directional communication

"We" are the prototype of a close family

Figure 2. Thematic map of data themes

4.5.6. Enhancing reliability

One sure way of guaranteeing reliability in qualitative research is to maintain records of the interviews and observations, and also by documenting the process of analysis in detail (Mason, 1996). The 12 interviews were recorded on audio CD, transcribed verbatim and each analysis step was documented. The researcher's supervisor assessed each step of analysis for accuracy, which also contributed to increasing reliability.

4.5.7. Enhancing validity

Validation has been defined as a process through which the trustworthiness of observations and interpretations in qualitative research can be evaluated (Mishler, 1990). Yardley (as cited in Smith, 2008) reminds us that that the validity of the research involves making a judgement about how well research has been carried out, and whether the research findings can be considered trustworthy and useful. Making such judgements can be particularly challenging for qualitative researchers. The same author goes on to mention that most qualitative researchers believe that different people have different, equally valid perspectives on õrealityö which are shaped by their context, culture and activities. Although it is generally agreed that qualitative research should be submitted to scrutiny for evaluation of the trustworthiness of its findings, the establishment of validity standards is quite difficult, since rigour, subjectivity and creativity need to be integrated into the scientific process (Whittemore, Chase & Mandle, 2001, as cited in De Villiers, 2011).

Certain validation methods to boost validity have been suggested by researchers. These include another person checking the qualitative research process pertaining to data transcription and analysis, reflexivity, triangulation, and peer review (Angen, 2000; Cho & Trent, 2006; Mays & Pope, 2000, as cited in De Villiers, 2011). Supervisor checking, reflexivity, and triangulation have all been used in this investigation. While a few researchers have stated that that no single procedure or õmethodö can ensure validity in interpretive, qualitative research (Angen, 2000; Koro-Ljungberg, 2008; OøConnor, Netting, & Thomas, 2008), others (e.g. Cho & Trent, 2006) have suggested that validity should be viewed as a process (with an emphasis on theory and practice) and that attention be given to validity throughout the research process. Concurring with the latter, Freeman, DeMarrais, Preissle, Rouston and St. Pierre (2007) said that there is no single marker of validity in qualitative inquiry. When considering validity in qualitative research, one obviously needs to reflect on the abilities and characteristics of the researcher (Angen, 2000; Cho & Trent, 2006). Madill, Jordan, and Shirley (2000) warned though that the credibility of findings should rest on more

than the authority of the researcher. Thus, it becomes important for the transcription and analysis processes to be thoroughly checked by another individual (in this case, the researcher's supervisor), in order to increase the validity of the study. While critical self-reflection of the researcher and how he or she understands and interprets the data is important to the validation process (Angen, 2000), it remains important that the data is checked by another person.

Internal coherence considers the thoroughness and robustness of an analysis, while acknowledging that no analysis can ever be complete (Angen, 2000; Johnson & Waterfield, 2004; Madill et al., 2000). According to Angen (2000), a written account of the research must convince the reader of internal coherence; this would include a detailed account of the research process followed, the researcher's subjectivity throughout the process, the relationship of claims to the data, and considerations of the strengths and limitations of the study (Angen, 2000). In the present study, a detailed account of the research process has been provided. In reporting the findings and interpretations, sufficient interview excerpts were included to support the claims that were made. The strengths and limitations of the study were also acknowledged in the final chapter on this thesis. All of these elements, together with reflexivity and triangulation, improved the trustworthiness of the qualitative research in this study.

4.5.8. Reflexivity and power relations

Mruck and Mey (as cited in Bryant and Charmaz, 2010) have defined reflexivity as the manner and extent to which the researchers present themselves as embedded in the research situation and process (p. 423). They go on to explain that reflexivity may take several forms e.g., examination of the researcher's own background and its influences on the research and reflections on the researcher's own emotions, worries and feelings. "There must be an acknowledgement that the researcher plays a central role in how the phenomenon under investigation is constructed....Reflexivity demands that the researcher reveals who he(/she) is, and how personal interests and values shape the research process" (Rabie, 2007, p. 59). The researcher will now briefly reflect on the latter.

I am a 32-year old, Coloured, English-speaking woman, wife, and mother of two toddlers. I work full time and am attempting to complete my Master's thesis part time. I was born into a middle-class family, and am the eldest child. I have a brother, who is three years younger than me. My early years were spent in Mitchell's Plain and Athlone, two communities in the Western Cape occupied densely and primarily by low-to-middle-income

Coloured families, who are either Christian or Muslim. These areas are both in the Southern Suburbs of the Cape. During middle childhood, we relocated to Brackenfell, which forms part of the Northern Suburbs. These communities are more cosmopolitan in terms of racial distribution, and most people are of middle-to-upper class. Hence, in many Coloured circles, there is a type of antagonism that exists between Coloureds in the Southern and the Northern Suburbs, with the former group of people mainly thinking that Coloureds in the Northern Suburbs õhouhulself witö (which is a popular phrase coined in Coloured communities and directly translated means õthey pretend to be Whiteö) and are hence õbetterö than them. The reason for including this information here is that I myself had been referred to as acting õWhiteö on one or two occasions during my adolescent years. My being exposed to Coloureds from both the Northern and Southern suburbs from various backgrounds and all types of levels of socio-economic statuses, enabled me to identify with some aspects in the participants in the interviews. Had I only been exposed to the Coloured culture of middle to high SES, and had I only been exposed to Model C schooling in my adolescent years, I may not have had a more õcomprehensiveö understanding of my interview participants. I am a Seventh-day Adventist Christian, and attended primary and high schools which firmly entrenched generic Christian values into all learners. The high schools which I attended were considered Model C schools, i.e., formerly White schools which were located in middle-class, predominantly White neighbourhoods. The church which I attended for almost two decades is located in the low-to-middle-income õColoured partö of Kraaifontein. Although the schools and my church were bilingual, a stronger emphasis was placed on the Afrikaans language, especially in speech. Throughout my school, I always received good grades in Afrikaans, but I usually shied away from talking Afrikaans, especially amongst my Coloured Afrikaans friends, as they were more fluent than I. While I was exposed to the more õsuiwerö Afrikaans (the conservative / eloquent Afrikaans) in my schooling, I felt more at ease amongst my Coloured friends, family, church associates, etc. who spoke the language more colloquially and more expressively. Therefore, bearing my background in mind, it was easy for me to identify with what the participants were saying. Firstly, being Christian myself it was effortless to identify with the mostly Christian participantsø common Christian values and to understand the participantsø reasoning. Secondly, many participants used Coloured colloquialisms which I could understand within the context, but the field workers (who were mainly White) could not understand completely. Two White students who assisted me with the transcription of the interviews also struggled understanding these colloquial expressions.

Rabie (2007) described power relations as the status difference between the researcher and the participants. In this study, power imbalances were produced by largely White middle-class students of Psychology (interviewers) who were affiliated to a tertiary institution, and low-income Coloured interviewees from a semi-rural farming community who have limited educational opportunities. It is likely that the young adolescent intervieweesø initial discomfort may be explained by the power imbalances implicit in an interview situation with their parents present as well as being interviewed in an unfamiliar õacademicö university environment by middle-class White students. It is therefore possible that the interviewer-interviewees pairings may have been a limitation in the study and that greater congruence between interviewers and interviewees may have improved the quality of the interviews. Most of the parents, however, were not inhibited when it came to answering the interview questions.

I completed my Bachelorøs degree at a South African college (affiliated with Andrews University in Michigan, America) and my Honourøs degree at the University of the Western Cape. Iøve always had a keen interest in adolescent psychology, which is why my Masterøs thesis is in this area. During my adolescent years, I was not particularly close to my parents in terms of emotionally disclosing personal information and communicating openly, etc. We did *do* a lot as a family, and I have many wonderful memories of my happy childhood years. In that sense I thought that we were a close-knit family. It is possible that my lack of emotional closeness to my parents predisposed me to see the limitations in closeness amongst the interview participants.

I have been married for five and a half years to an amazing husband, and we have a son and a daughter, both toddlers. As young as they are, I am trying my best as a mother to be a good example to them, to instil good values in them, and, to very importantly, keep communication channels open. In the process of listening to the interviews, I often felt that the mothers did not actually *hear* their children, but that may have been my bias. I shared many beliefs and ideas with the participants about what constitutes õgoodö motherhood, and what I have personally learnt is that communication is not simply about the parent doing all of the talking, but also listening and encouraging their children to talk. Both of my children are still toddlers, but as young as they are, I need to encourage two-way communication in my household. Interactionality in communication seemed lacking in the interviews. I firmly believe that communication is bidirectional, and I as a mother need to model that. Our family is very privileged; while we do not have õthe best thingsö in terms of materialism, we are blessed in that all of our basic needs are supplied, and this is through Godøs grace. I feel as

though I am sometimes on a roller coaster, spinning out of control, with *so much* to do in *so little time*. This sentiment was also highlighted on several occasions by the participants, but I was reminded again, through their stories, that nothing is more important than family. Things will never be perfect in our families, but there's always room for us to make things better.

4.6. Ethics

Ethical clearance for this study was obtained from the relevant Ethics Committee of Stellenbosch University, as well as the Committee for Human Research (CHR) situated at the Health Sciences Faculty, Stellenbosch University. The goals of this study, as well as the survey and interview methods were explained to the participants. To ensure that the language would be reasonably understandable to the participants (American Psychological Association, 2002), all of the measuring instruments were translated into Afrikaans. The researcher also required that the adolescents and parents sign consent forms, to show an acceptance to be part of, and full understanding of the research procedures. Participants were informed of the benefits of this study, the researcher's and supervisor's name, and the possibility of a debriefing session, if requested. The participants could withdraw themselves from the study at any time, without any negative consequences. There was no risk of physical harm to the participants. If any of them were somehow psychologically affected by issues that may have arisen through the survey or interview method, they were given information on how to obtain help for these problems. Participants in the qualitative component had to travel to the University of Stellenbosch to attend interviews after hours. Each family received R150,00 to cover travel costs and to provide a gesture of appreciation for their effort. Research data was stored in the researcher's locked office, and only the researcher and her supervisor has access to it.

CHAPTER 5
PRESENTATION OF QUANTITATIVE DATA

In this chapter, the results of the surveys will be presented in the following order: *Revised Inventory of Parental Attachment (RIPA)*; *Inventory of Parental Attachment (IPA)*; and *Relationship Closeness Inventory (RCI)*.

5.1. Parents' attachment to adolescents

The RIPA was designed to measure parentsø attachment to adolescents (Johnson et al., 2003). As there are no South African norms for the RIPA, the total and subscale scores were used to compare mothersø and fathersø total and subscale scores, as well as compare mothers and fathersø scores for male and female children.

Tables 5 to 9 (see Appendix H) indicate the means and standard deviation scores for both the subscale and total scores for the RIPA. The following section will highlight various ANOVA tables.

Table 10

Two-way Repeated Measures of Analysis of Variance for Trust (RIPA)

Source	*df*	F	p
Parentsø gender	12	0.11	0.74
Childøs gender	44	0.88	0.35
Parentøs gender x childøs gender	12	0.00	0.96

There was no significant difference between the parentsø scores on the *trust* subscale. Mothersø and fathersø scores were relatively similar, and no significant differences existed, as p = 0.74. The childøs gender did not influence how much trust the parents had in the children; no significant differences were found, as p = 0.35. The interaction effect was not significant, implying that the parent and child gender effects could be investigated independently.

Table 11

Two-way Repeated Measures of Analysis of Variance for Communication (RIPA)

Source	*df*	F	p
Parents' gender	13	0.06	0.80
Child's gender	44	0.00	0.95
Parent's gender x child's gender	13	3.08	0.78

Regarding the *communication* subscale, there was no significant difference between the parents' scores. Not only did the child's gender not influence how parents communicated with their children, but also, the interaction effect was not significant. There were no significant differences between mothers and fathers' scores for male and female children.

Table 12

Two-way Repeated Measures of Analysis of Variance for Alienation (RIPA)

Source	*df*	F	p
Parents' gender	13	0.36	0.56
Child's gender	44	0.22	0.64
Parent's gender x child's gender	13	3.02	0.11

Table 12 indicates that there was no significant difference between the parents' scores on the *alienation* subscale. Mothers' and fathers' scores were relatively analogous. The child's gender did not influence how angry and isolated the parents felt towards their children; no significant differences were found, as p = 0.64. The interaction effect for alienation was also not significant. Finally, there were no significant differences between mothers and fathers' scores for male and female children.

Table 13

Two-way Repeated Measures of Analysis of Variance for Parental Experiences (RIPA)

Source	*df*	F	p
Parents' gender	13	0.35	0.56
Child's gender	44	0.53	0.47
Parent's gender x child's gender	13	0.79	0.39

Table 13 shows that there was no significant difference between the parents' scores on the *parental experiences* subscale. No significant difference existed between mothers' and fathers' scores on the parental experiences subscale, and there were no significant differences

between mothers and fathers' scores for male and female children. Moreover, the interaction effect was not significant.

Table 14

Two-way Repeated Measures of Analysis of Variance for RIPA Total Score

Source	*df*	F	p
Parents' gender	12	0.12	0.74
Child's gender	44	0.36	0.55
Parent's gender x child's gender	12	0.00	0.98

There was no significant difference between the parents' scores on the *total* score. Mothers' and fathers' scores were relatively similar. No significant difference existed between mothers' and fathers' scores on the parental experiences subscale. In addition, there were no significant differences between mothers and fathers' scores for male and female children.

5.2. Adolescents' attachment to parents

The IPA measures adolescent attachment to parents (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). Adolescents were asked to report on how attached they felt to their parents. Higher scores indicate more attachment. As there are no South African norms for the IPA, the total and subscale scores were used to compare differences between mothers' and fathers' scores.

Tables 15 ó 18 (see Appendix G) indicate the means and standard deviation scores for both the subscale and total scores for the IPA.

Table 19

Comparison Between Mothers' and Fathers' Subscale Scores (IPA)

Source	Mother	Father
Trust	4.24	4.03
Communication	4.10	3.75
Alienation	3.34	3.02
Total	4.02	3.76

Table 19 indicates that mothers scored higher than fathers on *all* of the subscales, including the total score.

The following section will highlight various ANOVA tables.

Table 20

Two-way Repeated Measures of Analysis of Variance for Trust (IPA)

Source	*df*	F	p
Child's gender	48	1.68	0.20
Parents' gender	29	1.39	0.25
Child's gender x parents' gender	29	0.39	0.53

There were no significant differences between the sons' and the daughters' scores on the *trust* subscale, as p = 0.20. There were no significant differences between how much trust sons and daughters had in their parents, as p = 0.25. No significant differences existed regarding the interactionality between the children's and the parents' genders, as p = 0.53.

Table 21

Two-way Repeated Measures of Analysis of Variance for Communication (IPA)

Source	df	F	p
Child's gender	48	1.70	0.20
Parents' gender	29	2.40	0.13
Child's gender x parents' gender	29	0.73	0.40

There were no significant differences between the sons' and the daughters' scores on the *communication* subscale. There were no significant differences between how sons and daughters communicated with their parents. No significant differences existed regarding the interactionality between the children's and the parents' genders, as p = 0.40.

Table 22

Two-way Repeated Measures of Analysis of Variance for Alienation (IPA)

Source	df	F	p
Child's gender	48	3.67	0.06
Parents' gender	29	4.56	**0.04**
Child's gender x parents' gender	29	0.46	0.50

There were no significant differences between the sons' and the daughters' scores on the alienation subscale. Noting the information in the aforementioned tables, it is evident that a definite trend emerged, whereby no major differences were found between sons' and daughters' scores on the three subscales.

There was a significant difference between how much feelings of anger and isolation sons and daughters had toward their parents, as p = 0.04. Furthermore, as can be seen in Figure 3 (also refer back to Table 19), mothers (3.34) scored significantly higher on the alienation subscale, as opposed to fathers (3.02). The mean difference was 0.32, with a standard deviation of 0.15, indicating statistical significance. Adolescents, therefore, had stronger feelings of anger and isolation towards their mothers, than their fathers.
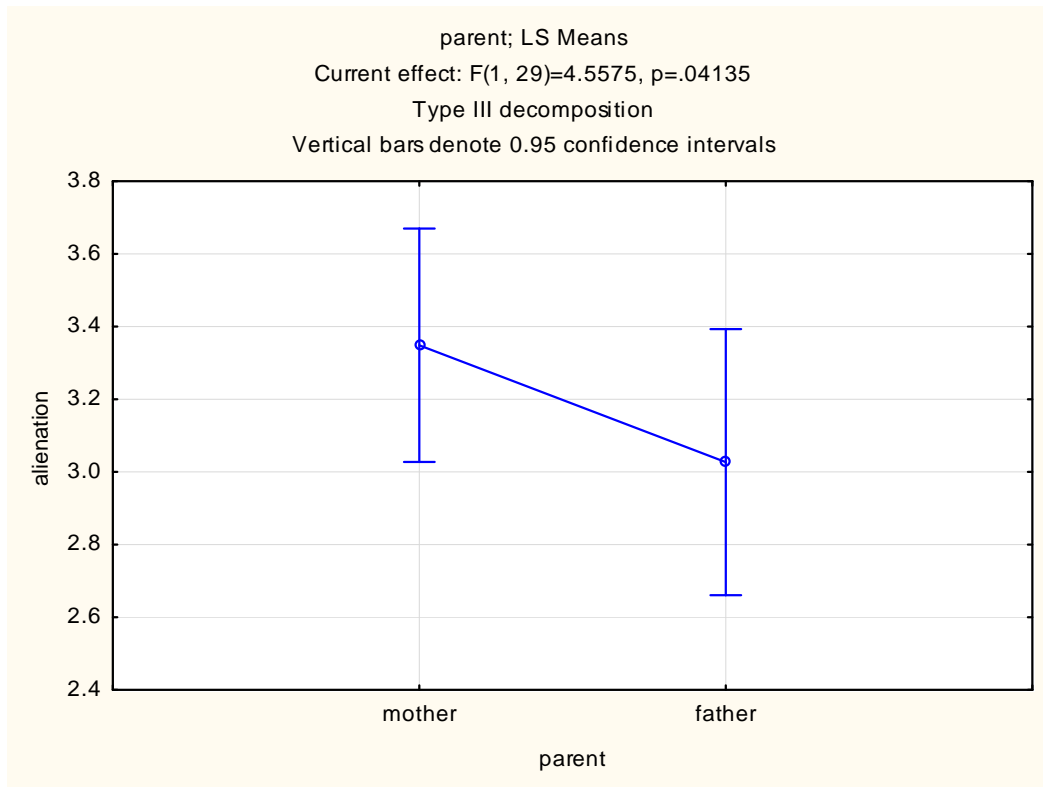
Figure 3. Comparison between mothers' and fathers' alienation scores (p < 0.05).

Table 23

Two-way Repeated Measures of Analysis of Variance for Total Score for IPA

Source	*df*	F	p
Child's gender	48	0.20	0.65
Parents' gender	28	4.09	**0.05**
Child's gender x parents' gender	28	0.26	0.61

There were no significant differences between the sons' and the daughters' total scores. There was a significant difference between total scores for mothers and fathers, as p = 0.05.
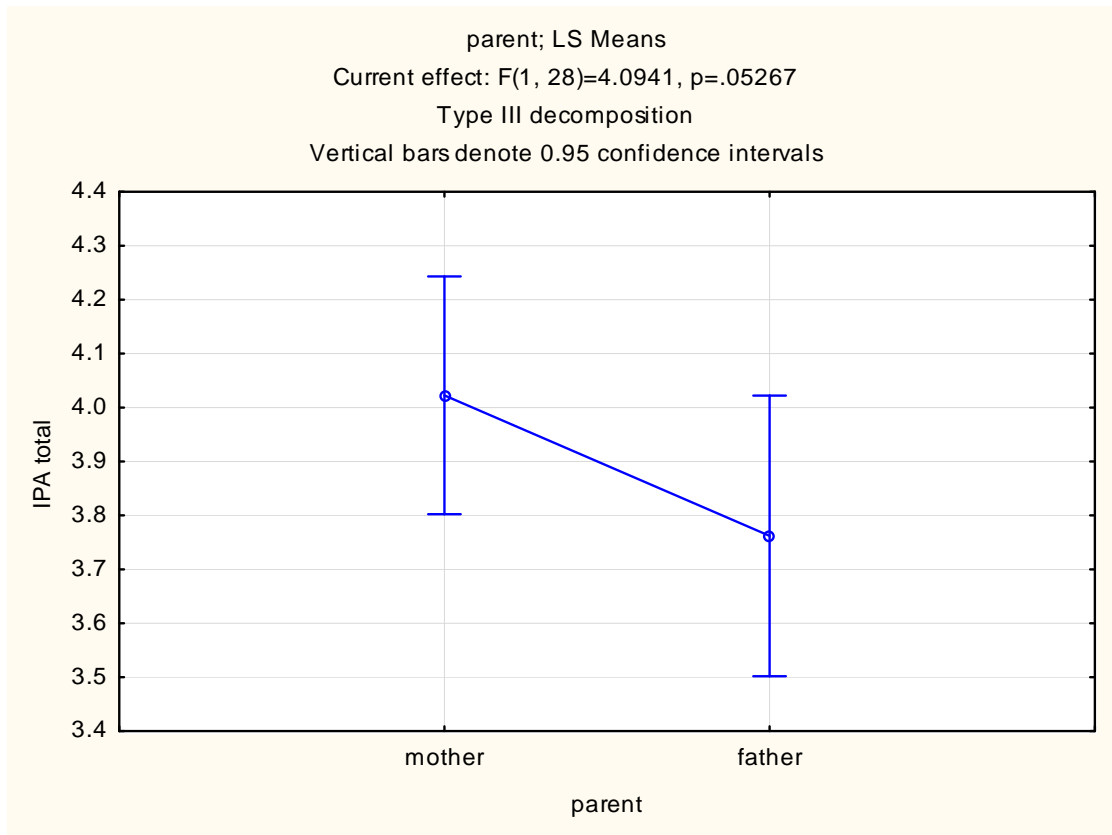
Figure 4. Comparison between mothersø and fathersø total scores on IPA (p < 0.05).

Figure 4 (refer back to Table 19) also indicates that a significant difference existed between mothersø (4.02) and fathersø (3.76) total scores, with regards to the IPA. There was a mean difference of 0.26, with a standard deviation of 0.13, indicating statistical significance. Thus, mothers in general, received higher scores, which indicated more attachment between parent and child.

5.3. Time spent together

5.3.1. Time spent together per week

The RCI measures PAR closeness in terms of frequency, diversity, and length of interactions (Berscheid et al., 1989).

Table 24

Time Spent Together per Week, According to Parents

Gender	Average time
Mother	190.14 min
Father	145.09 min
Total	335.23 min
Mean difference	45.05 min

On average, mothers reported spending 190 minutes and fathers reported spending 145 minutes per week with their adolescent children. The total time that parents reported spending with their children was 335 minutes per week. According to the parents, mothers reported spending up to 45 minutes more (per week) with their adolescent children, as compared to fathers.

Table 25

Time Spent Together per Week, According to Adolescents

Gender	Average time
Daughters	169.45 min
Sons	138.35 min
Total	307.80 min
Mean difference	31.10 min

On average, daughters reported spending 169 minutes and sons reported spending 138 minutes per week with their parents. The total time that children reported spending with their parents was 308 minutes per week. According to the adolescents, mothers spent up to half an hour more (per week) with their adolescent children, in contrast to fathers. As indicated in Tables 24 and 25, it is clear that parents reported spending more time with their children; while the average times that children reported spending with their parents were slightly lower for both mothers and fathers.

Categorized Histogram: Gender x Are you employed?
Chi-square(df=1)=0.25, p=.61873 Fisher exact, one-tailed p=.43863
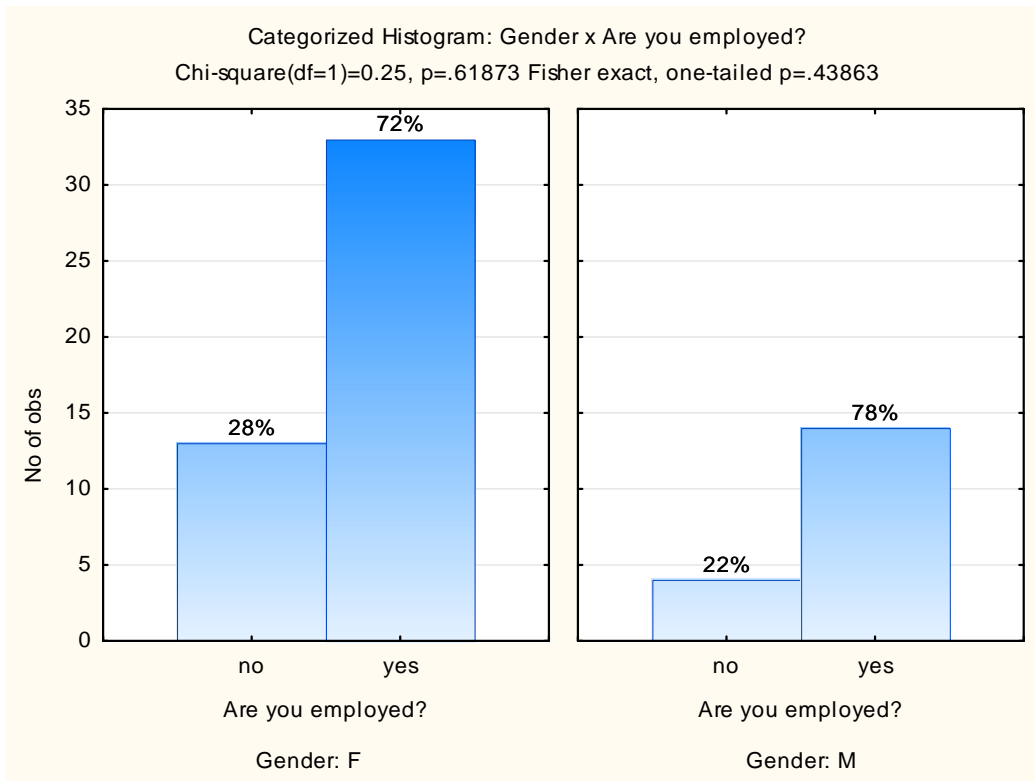
Figure 5. Categorized histogram of parental employment.

As can be seen from the categorized histogram of parental employment, even though the majority of the parents were employed (72% of mothers; 78% of fathers), mothers were on average reporting spending slightly more time with their adolescent children, as revealed by both parents and adolescents.

5.3.2. Does the child's gender make a difference?

One of the research objectives was to establish whether there would be a difference in the amount of time that parents reported spending with their adolescents. The next table shows the results based on the adolescentsø genders.

Table 26

Effect of Child's Gender on Amount of Time Spent With Them, Reported by Parents

Gender	Time spent with parents (Weekly basis)	Time spent parents (Daily basis)
Daughters	146.58 min	20.94 min
Sons	242.27 min	34.61 min
Total	388.86 min	55.55 min
Mean difference	95.69 min	13.67 min

Table 26 represents whether the child's gender made any difference in how much time the parents reported spending with their adolescent children. As can be seen, on average, parents were reporting spending roughly 242 minutes per week with their sons (approximately 35 minutes on a daily basis) as opposed to roughly 147 minutes per week with their daughters (approximately 21 minutes on a daily basis). The mean difference was 96 minutes (approximately 14 minutes on a daily basis). Figure 7 further illustrates that p < 0.02, which means that there was a statistically significant difference between how much time was spent with the boys, as opposed to the girls.

child gender; LS Means
Current effect: $F_{(1, 55)}=5.5623$, p=.02193
Type III decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals
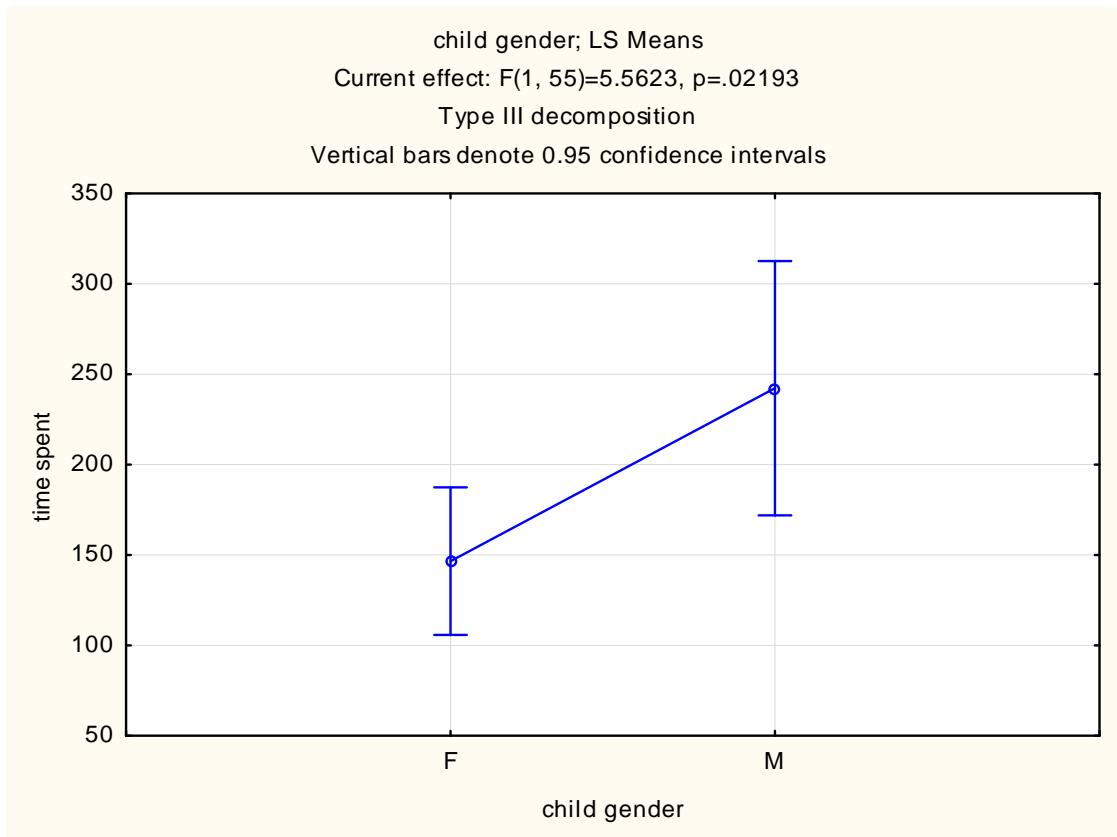
Figure 6. Effect of child's gender on amount of time spent with them, reported by parents (p < 0.05).

Thus, it can be argued that in this investigation, the child's gender did make a significant difference (p < 0.02) on the amount of time that parents spent with their adolescent children. The trend was that more time was spent with sons.

5.3.3. Does the time of day make a difference?

Table 27

Effect That Time of Day Had in Relation to Amount by Time Spent Together, Reported by Parents

Time of day	Average time spent
Morning	167.05 min
Afternoon	209.64 min
Evening	206.61 min

Table 27 reveals that less time was spent with the adolescents in the morning, as compared to other times of the day. Overall, slightly more time was spent with them in the afternoons compared to in the evenings.
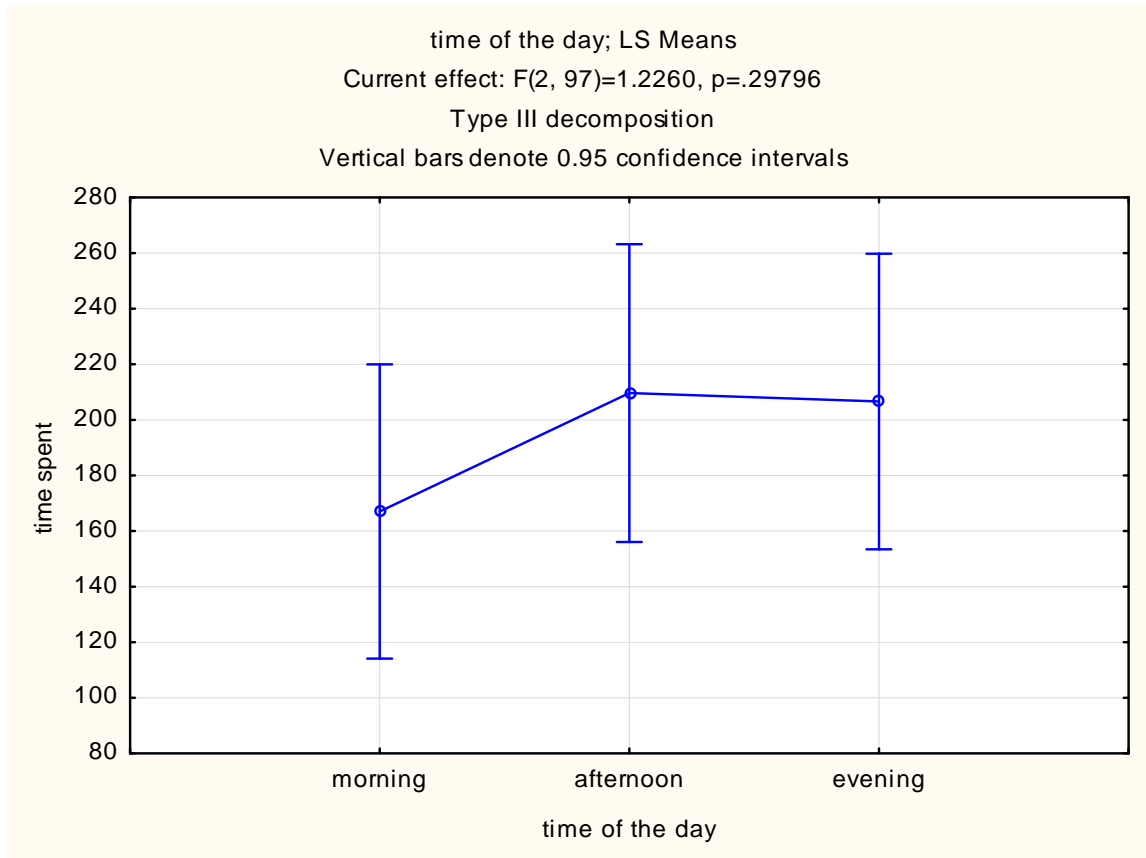
Figure 7. Effect of time of day in relation to amount of time spent together, reported by parents (p > 0.05).

The graph suggests that there was no significant difference (p = 0.30) between the time of day and the amount of time that parents reported spending with their adolescent children.

Table 28

Effect That Time of Day Had in Relation to Amount of Time Spent Together, Reported by Adolescents

Time of day	Average time Spent
Morning	143.07 min
Afternoon	161.76 min
Evening	156.87 min

Table 28 indicates that adolescents reported spending slightly more time with their parents in the afternoon, as opposed to in the mornings and evenings. However, no significant difference existed, as p = 0.67, as can be seen in Figure 8.
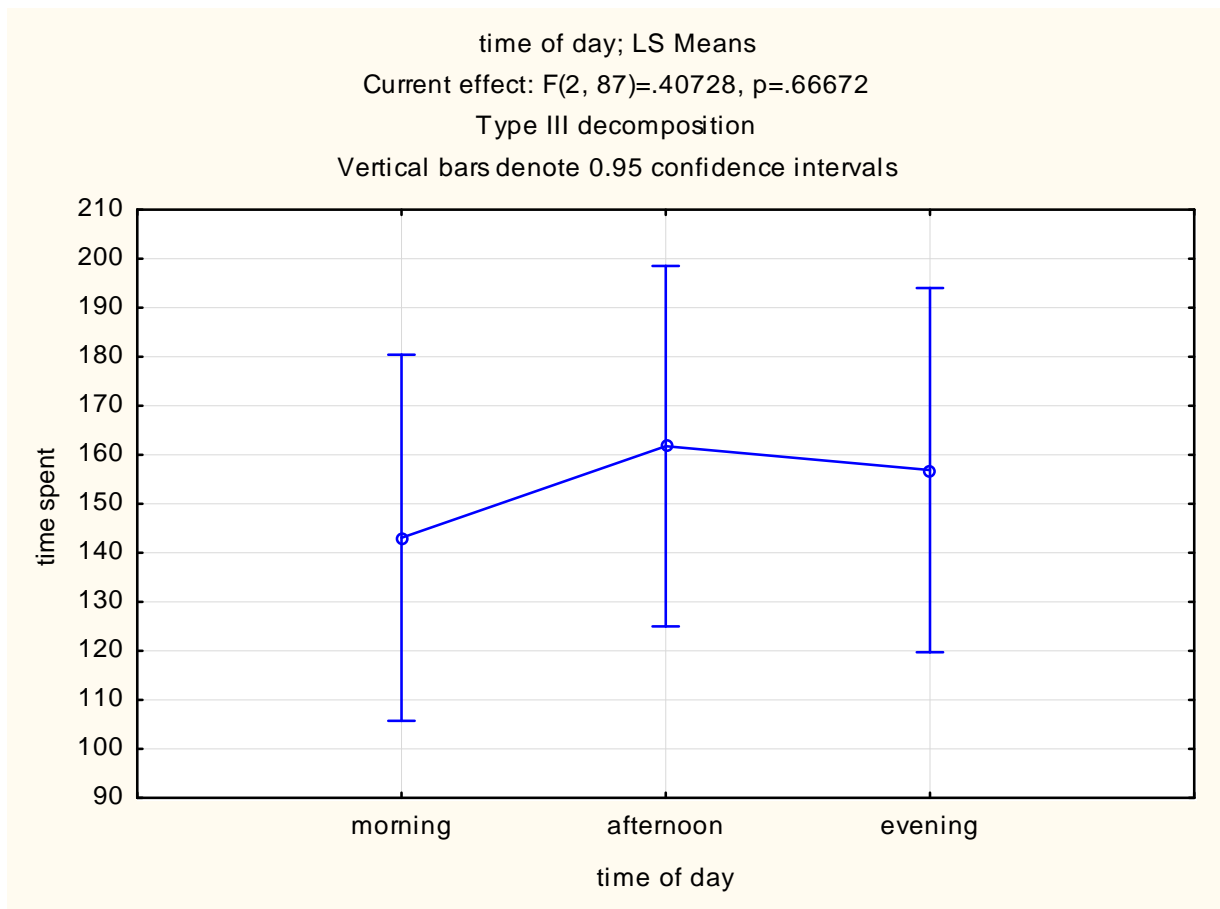
Figure 8. Effect that time of day had in relation to amount of time spent together, reported by adolescents (p > 0.05).

Hence, it can be said that both of the parents and adolescentsø answers were consistent with each other. The two graphs followed a similar pattern. Both adolescents and parents tended to report spending slightly more time together in the afternoon.

5.3.4. The effect of gender on time spent together

Table 29

Effect of Gender on Amount of Time Spent Together, Reported by Parents

Parent's gender	Child's gender	Average time spent
Female	Female	183.65 min
Female	Male	211.22 min
Male	Female	109.52 min
Male	Male	273.33 min

As can be seen from Table 29, according to the parents' reports, mothers and daughters were on average spending 184 minutes per week with each other; mothers and sons 211 minutes per week; fathers and daughters 110 minutes per week; and fathers and sons 273 minutes per week with one another.
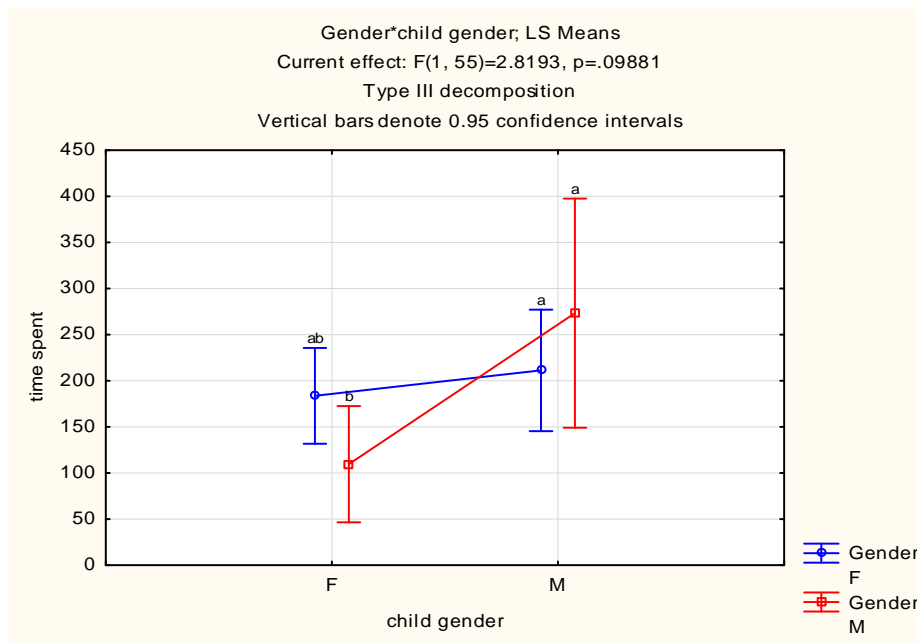
Figure 9. Graphical depiction of effect of parent's gender, child's gender, and amount of time parents spent with adolescents, as reported by parents ($p < 0.05$).

In the graph, the child's gender is represented by the *F* and *M* letters, to symbolise daughters and sons, respectively. The mother's gender (F) is represented by the blue line, while the father's gender (M) is represented by the red line. There is no significant difference between the amount of time that the mothers reported spending with their daughters and sons (ab ; a); there is no significant difference between the amount of time that the mothers reported

spending with their daughters compared to the amount of time that the fathers reported spending with their daughters (ab ; b), nor with the amount of time that the mothers reported spending with their daughters, compared to the amount of time fathers reported spending with their sons (ab ; a).

There was no significant difference between how much time fathers reported spending with sons compared to how much time mothers reported spending with sons (a ; a). In addition, there was no significant difference between how much time fathers spent with sons compared to how much time mothers spent with daughters (a ; ab). However, the graph revealed that fathers did spend significantly more time with their sons than with their daughters $(p < 0.01)$.

Figure 10 illustrates the impact of the childøs gender and the amount of time that is spent with him/her, based on the time of the day (as reported by the parents).
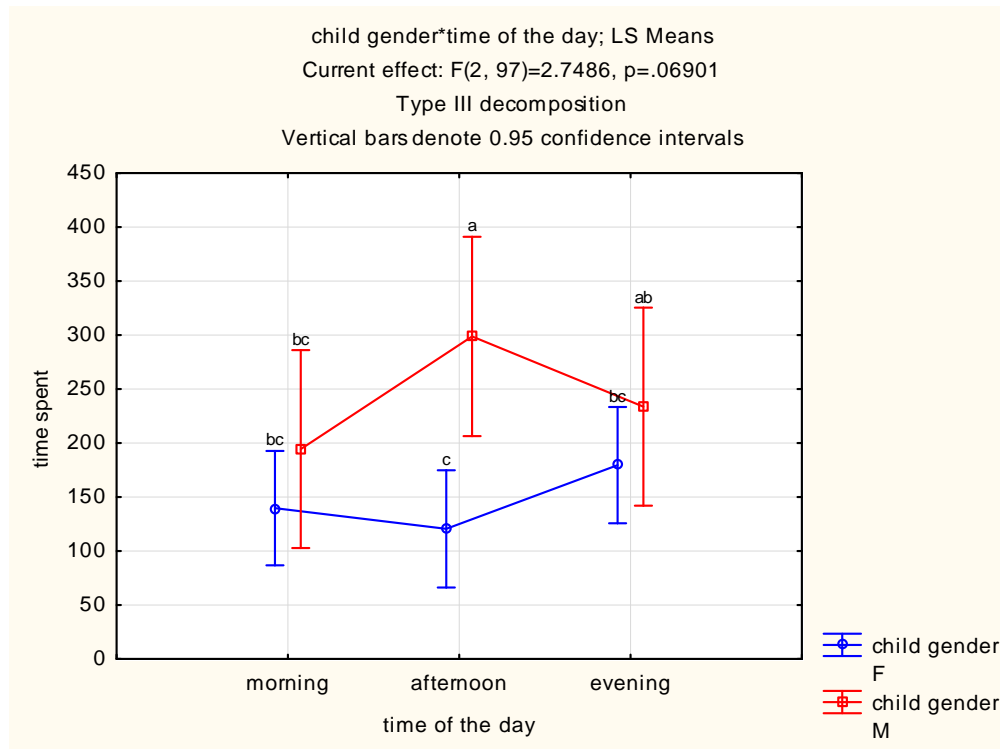
Figure 10. Effect of gender on amount of time spent together at specific times of the day, reported by parents $(p > 0.05)$.

In Figure 10, the blue line indicates daughters (F); the red line indicates sons (M). No significant difference existed between the amount of time spent with daughters in the mornings and afternoons (bc ; c). No significant difference existed between the amount of time spent with daughters in the mornings and evenings (bc ; bc). No significant difference existed between the amount of time spent with daughters in the afternoons and evenings (c ; bc).

No significant difference existed between the amount of time spent with sons in the mornings and evenings (bc ; ab). No significant difference existed between the amount of time spent with sons in the afternoons and evenings (a ; ab). However, the graph does show that significant difference existed between the amount of time spent with sons in mornings and afternoons (bc ; a), with more time being devoted to sons in the afternoons. Therefore it can be stated that in the mornings and evenings, relatively the same time was spent on boys and girls. However, in the afternoons, significantly more time was spent on boys.

The next table indicates how much time the parents were spending with their children depending on the time of the day, as reported by the *adolescents*.

Table 30

Amount of Time That Parents Spent With Children Depending on the Time of Day, Reported by Adolescents

Gender	Time of day	Average time spent
Mother	Morning	154.33 min
Mother	Afternoon	176.59 min
Mother	Evening	177.43 min
Father	Morning	131.81 min
Father	Afternoon	146.92 min
Father	Evening	136.31 min

Adolescents reported that mothers spent slightly more time with them in the mornings, compared to fathers. This difference, however, was small at 22 minutes on a weekly basis. Adolescents also reported that mothers tend to spend more time with them in the afternoons compared to fathers. Again the difference was small ó 29 minutes on a weekly basis. However, when LSD tests were conducted, a significant difference ($p < 0.04$) was found in the amount of time that adolescents reported their mothers spent with them in the evenings (177 minutes) in comparison to the amount of time that fathers reportedly spent with them in the evenings (136 minutes).

5.4. Activities

Table 31

Shared Activities Between Mothers and Adolescents, Reported by Mothers

Most popular activities	%	Least popular activities	%
Went to church/religious function	72	Went on a trip (e.g., vacation or weekend away)	21
Cooked and had a meal	67	Went to a movie	19
Played music/sang	66	Went on an outing (e.g., picnic or beach)	16
Cleaned the house	65	Went to a party	14
Worked on homework	65	Went to a bar	12
Visited family	51	Went dancing	5

Table 32

Shared Activities Between Mothers and Adolescents, Reported by Adolescents

Most popular activities	%	Least popular activities	%
Watched television	78	Went on an outing (e.g., picnic or beach)	24
Cleaned the house	78	Went to a party	22
Worked on homework	68	Went to a movie	16
Discussed things of a personal nature	64	Went dancing	14
Cooked and had a meal	60	Went to a bar	12
Went to church/religious function	60	Went to a restaurant	6

When comparing mothersø reports with adolescentsø reports, agreement exists between four particular items: attending church/religious functions, cooking and having meals, and doing housework and homework together. Whereas attending church was rated the most common activity between these dyads for mothers (72%), adolescents deemed watching television together as the most common activity (78%). Doing household chores was rated as the second most common activity, as reported by the adolescents. Sixty-four percent of adolescents stated that they discussed things of a personal nature with their mothers, yet this activity did not feature strongly in the mothersø reports.

Table 33

Shared Activities Between Fathers and Adolescents, Reported by Fathers

Most popular activities	%	Least popular activities	%
Cleaned the house	67	Went to a movie	11
Went to church/religious function	61	Attended a sporting event	11
Worked on homework	50	Went on an outing (e.g., picnic or beach)	11
Cooked and had a meal	50	Went dancing	11
Played music/sang	50	Went to a party	11
Discussed things of a personal nature	44	Went on a trip (e.g., vacation or weekend away)	6
Visited family	44	Went to a bar	6

Table 34

Shared Activities Between Fathers and Adolescents, Reported by Adolescents

Most popular activities	%	Least popular activities	%
Watched television	63	Went to a party	11
Cooked and had a meal	58	Went to a movie	11
Discussed things of a personal nature	50	Planned a party/social event	11
Visited family	50	Did the laundry	11
Talked on the telephone	47	Went to a bar	8
Went to church/religious function	45	Went dancing	8

When comparing the fathersø reports with the adolescentsø reports, it is evident that agreement exists between four particular items: attending church/religious functions, cooking and having meals, talking to each other about personal matters, and visiting family together. While the fathers reported that doing household chores was the most commonly shared activity (67%), adolescents indicated that watching television together was the most common activity (63%).

5.5. Influence on thoughts, feelings and behaviour

Part of the RCI required parents to rate on a 7-point Likert-type scale how much influence their adolescents had on their thoughts, feelings and behaviour. Cronbachøs alpha was 0.97. Parents reported, for all 27 items, the highest percentages under the õnot at allö column. This meant that the majority of the parents reported that their children had no influence on their thoughts, feelings and behaviour. There was no significant difference between mothers and fathers with regards to the amount of influence that the child had on their thoughts, feelings and behaviours, as $p = 0.63$. It was also important to find out about the amount of influence that mothers and fathers respectively had on their adolescentsø thoughts, feelings and behaviours. Cronbachøs alpha was 0.96 for mothers and 0.95 for fathers. When statistically comparing the answers of how adolescents rated their motherøs and fatherøs influence, there were no significant differences ($p = 0.80$). Generally, children did not really impact the parentsø vacation plans, their marriage, their plans for achieving a particular financial standard of living, etc. Mothers mainly influenced their childrenøs school-related plans, and

their plans for achieving a certain standard of living. Interestingly, adolescents reported that fathers had more of an influence on their school-related plans and future plans for achieving a certain standard of living.

CHAPTER 6
DISCUSSION OF QUANTITATIVE DATA

6.1. Demographic information

In this current study, 64% of the adolescent participants were female and 36% were male; 70% of the parents were female and 30% were male. This indicates a gender bias that should be kept in mind when interpreting the results. Another aspect to consider is that 42% of the adolescent participants were between the ages 12 to 14 years old, indicating that many of them were young. The fact that many adolescent participants were young *and* female could have also impacted the results.

The majority of the participants was Afrikaans-speaking and self-identified as Coloured. This finding is in line with other studies conducted in similar communities indicating a mainly Afrikaans-speaking community, populated by Coloureds (De Jager, 2011; Kritzinger & Vorster, 1995; London, 1994; Van Dongen, 2003). The bulk of them resided on farms. They were employed either as farm labourers or domestic workers.

In this sample, 78% of the men were employed, while 72% of the women were employed. This indicates that less women were economically dependent on their husbands or male partners. Engelbrecht's (2011) study found a 25% employment difference between men and women in her sample, and suggested that possibly more women were economically dependent on their husbands or male partners, and as a result, makes them more vulnerable to economic abuse, and possibly other types of abuse as well. In the current study unemployment rates were relatively low, a finding which is consistent with studies amongst rural agricultural Western Cape populations by Bremridge (2000) and De Lange and Fayess (2005). These researchers theorized that poverty rates in such communities continue to remain high and unemployment rates low. A possible explanation that these researchers offer is that while many farm workers are employed, they still earn very low wages, which keeps them in a state of poverty. This explanation could also be applicable to this present study. There was a clear distinction between traditional male occupations and traditional female occupations, as most of the women reported unskilled occupations such as domestic workers who cleaned, ironed, did kitchen work, or looked after children, while most of the men were more involved in skilled labour such as tractor-driving, irrigation of farms, and wine-making. This finding is in agreement with previous recent research on low-income, semi-rural farms in the Western Cape Province (Engelbrecht, 2011; Kritzinger& Vorster, 1995). Irving (2007, as cited in Engelbrecht, 2011) maintained that feminised occupations are constructed as low

skilled because the skills required are those that women are õnaturallyö supposed to have, in contrast to the occupational skills that men acquire. Thus, feminised occupations have oftentimes been devalued, with many women performing paid work which mirrored their unpaid work in their homes. Although some women in this current study were employed as manual farm labourers, most of them worked domestically while most men were farm labourers, which is consistent with Bremridgeøs (2000) study in a similar low-income rural Coloured community.

The majority of the participants identified themselves as Christians, who regularly attended church. They identified with several church affiliations, but no one church was dominant. This is similar to findings conducted by Engelbrecht (2011) and De Jager (2011) in the same community. The participantsø religious orientation may have impacted on how they responded to research questions.

Almost half of the parents were married and almost half were not, and 60% of the adolescents had parents who cohabited together, but were not married. These marital status figures concur with national marriage rates amongst Coloured population groups which indicates that 40% are married, 43.7% never marry at all and 5.6% cohabit together (Statistics South Africa, 2001).This sampleøs cohabitation figures, however, seems to be higher than the national rates. According to Budlender, Chobokoane, and Simelane (2005), who have studied South African marriage patterns, cohabitation is more prevalent amongst Coloured people.

Most parents reported only primary school level education. Specifically, 45% of mothers and 48% of fathers completed primary school, and the majority of them did not complete high school. This finding is similar to that of Lesch and Anthonyøs (2007) study, who researched a similar community. Although the completion of primary school education does not indicate illiteracy, one cannot be sure how good the participantsø reading and writing skills were. It is therefore possible that these results could indicate limitations regarding parentsø literacy skills. In Kritzinger and Vorsterøs (1995) study with low-income, Coloured, Afrikaans-speaking, rural women, it was shown that one fifth of the participants reported illiteracy. London (1995) also noted that many Western Cape farm workers have very low educational levels and Van Dongenøs (2003) qualitative study with several adult farm workers showed that many of them possessed very limited reading and writing skills.

In sum, most of the participants were Afrikaans-speaking and Coloured. Many parents were married to each other. Even though less than half of the parents were not married to each other, cohabitation was prevalent. Most parents had at least two children living with

them in their homes. Many parents were employed, with men performing mostly skilled labour, and women unskilled labour. The majority of the participants was Christian, and regular church-goers. Most of them had low educational levels and earned low incomes.

6.2. Parents' attachment to adolescent children

Tables 10 ó 14 indicate that no statistically significant differences existed between mothersø and fathersø subscale and total scores. The childøs gender did not correlate with the parentsø attachment to their children. Also, mothers and fathers did not have significantly different scores for their male and female adolescents. This indicated that there were no differences in the mothersø and fathersø sense of closeness/attachment to their adolescents.

With regards to the RIPA, selected individualized items will be briefly discussed, as these overlap with the following themes identified in the interview data:

Forty-five percent of parents reported almost never getting frustrated with their children and 52% reported never constantly yelling and fighting with their children. Sixty-one percent reported almost never feeling angry with their children and 65% reported almost never getting easily upset around their children. Research shows that adolescents and parents do experience a certain level of *storm and stress*. This is considered quite normal, yet frequent, high-intensity, angry fighting is not normative during adolescence (Steinberg, 2001). The findings in the current study corroborate such a tendency as many of the parents reported not taking part in high-intensity, heated arguments with their children, but also that their relationships are   not immune to conflict. The general lack of intense PAR conflict may be indicative of PAR closeness within this research group

Twenty percent reported that their children did not trust their judgment and 14% reported that their children did not care about their point of view. These findings may be explained by the fact that adolescents challenge their parentsø views much more than in previous developmental phases (Elkind, 1984). Adolescentsø cognitive skills do sharpen during this phase in their lives; they are able to reason more logically and question issues that they may not have in a previous developmental phase. Therefore, it makes sense that all of these adolescents are in the stage where they are not simply blindly trusting their parentsø judgment or caring about their points of views.

Forty-nine percent of the parents reported feeling cared for by their children and 50% of parents reported that their children could tell when they were upset about something. This could possibly indicate that many of these parents believed that their children were emotionally attuned to their feelings, moods and needs.

Forty percent of parents reported that they share their problems with their children and 40% reported being able to talk to their children about their difficulties. The vast majority of parents did not. One plausible explanation for this could be that it is culturally inappropriate for these parents to share their difficulties with their children. However, one must remember that many of the parents in this study were female, and it is commonly known that mothers usually find it easier to talk about their problems with their children (Meeker, 2009). For example, Mosaveløs et al. (2006) study with South African mothers and daughters found that 70% of mothers asked their adolescentøs for advice, and 93% stated that they actually would listen to their daughterøs advice. Eighty-six percent of the mothers said that they talk about many things to their daughters, although this study did not specify if õmany thingsö entailed mothersø sharing personal problems. Some recent research findings are beginning to portray a more reciprocal representation of the motheródaughter relationship (Aronowitz, Rennells, & Todd, 2005; Pinquart & Silberstein, 2004). The latter researchers furthermore suggest that adolescent children, including daughters, can be instrumental in influencing and supporting their mothers in a variety of ways (as cited in Mosavel et al,, 2006). Perhaps parents in this study still considered their adolescents to be õchildrenö who should not be confronted with their parentsøpersonal problems.

Fifty-one percent of parents enjoyed physical displays of affection from their teenagers, compared to 13% who actually opposed it. Jernberg and Booth (1999) remind us that adolescents are oftentimes quite self-conscious about receiving physical forms of nurture from their parents. It is normal for teens to shy away from physical displays of affection from their parents during this stage in their lives, yet in this case, 13% of the parents possibly also felt self-conscious about showing this type of affection towards their teenagers. However, the finding indicates that slightly more parents are quite comfortable with showing physical displays of affection towards their teenagers.

In general, the majority of parents in this study indicated that they reported feeling very attached to their adolescents.

6.3. Adolescents attachment to parents

Table 19 showed that mothers scored higher on all three subscales, as well as the total score. This finding is consistent with other international studies, which shows that mothers and adolescents generally tend to be closer (Buchanan et al., 1992).

Tables 20 ó 23 indicate that no statistically significant differences were found between adolescentsø scores for mothers and fathers on the trust and communication scale.

However, Table 22 shows that adolescents felt stronger feelings of anger and isolation towards their mothers, even though they reported higher attachment scores for their mothers than their fathers (see Table 19). Mikulincer and Shaverøs (2005) comments about emotionality in close relationships could shed some light on these findings. These researchers spoke about the diversity and intensity of both positive and negative emotions. It is possible that the closer the relationship, the more individuals will experience both positive and negative emotions. It could be argued then that because adolescents reported being closer to mothers, they also felt stronger levels of anger and isolation towards their mothers. This creates a challenging paradox.

With regards to the IPA, selected individualized items will be briefly discussed, as these overlap with the following themes identified in the interview data:

Adolescents strongly felt that both their parents respected their feelings (78% mothers; 78% fathers). This is in line with another South African study: the vast majority in Mosaveløs et al. (2006) study also highlighted the importance of adolescents feeling respected by their parents.

When asked to rate the extent to which the parent did a good job as a parent, however, 62% of adolescents reported that their mothers did a good job as a parent, while only 47% of them felt that their fathers did a good job. There was a 15% difference. The apparent confidence that they had in their mothers was demonstrated in some of the other results:

More adolescents (52%) preferred getting their motherøs point of view on things that concerned them. Sixteen percent of adolescents reported almost never wanting to get their fatherøs point of view regarding issues that concerned them. In addition, slightly more adolescents (54%) felt that their mothers cared more about their opinions when they discussed things, compared to their fathers. More adolescents felt more comfortable discussing their problems with their mothers rather than their fathers. Seventy percent of adolescents reported that they could always count on their mothers when they needed to get things off their chests. Nineteen percent of adolescents indicated that it was almost never true that they could count on their fathers. Being able to count on oneøs parent is imperative for a young adolescent. Adolescent attachment researchers (West et al., 1998) believe that most adolescents wish and need to maintain their parents as attachment figures, and they continue needing parental support and comfort, especially during distressing times in their adolescence. The findings in this study suggest that some adolescents felt that they could not count on their fathers for much needed support and comfort during this stage in their lives.

Studies have shown that adolescents are more likely to report feeling closer to their mothers for various reasons (Holmbeck & Hill, 1991). According to Laursen and Collins (2004), more time is spent with mothers than with fathers and, more importantly, there is more sharing of emotions with mothers as well. If one refers back to Figure 1, which focuses on defining features of adolescent attachment, it is clear that self-disclosure and emotional conversation are both characteristic of proximity-seeking. Various researchers have found relationships between quality of the mother-adolescent relationship and attachment security (e.g. Allen et al., 2003) and perceived maternal availability (Leiberman, Doyle, & Markiewicz, 1999). Barrocas (2006) argues that in these stronger, higher-quality relationships, there may also be higher levels of trust between mothers and their adolescents. Adding to this, Benoit and Parker (1994) have found that secure mothers tend to have secure children. Thus, it could be argued that mothers who are available, specifically emotionally, are those who have children who perceive them to be this way, as well as feel as if their children are able to satisfy some of their emotional needs (Barrocas, 2006). Adolescents in this study generally appeared to report feeling closer to their mothers in that they felt more at ease self-disclosing and emotionally conversing with their mothers.

A possible explanation why adolescents generally felt closer to their mothers could be that they felt more at ease to share issues of concern and also that they felt listened to and that their opinions were valuable. They may not have had similar feelings towards their fathers primarily due to the less intimate father-adolescent relationships. It seems therefore that the cultural shift to more engaged, nurturing and emotionally expressive fathering (Bozett & Hanson, 1991; Wilkie, 1993, as cited in Harris et al., 1998) has not taken place yet in this sample of fathers.

However, regarding attention, it seems that the adolescent participants did not feel very attended to by their parents as only 55% and 49% reported that their mothers and fathers respectively would ask them if something is bothering them. Also, only 50% felt that they received enough attention from their father and 30% felt that way about their mothers. The difference regarding the latter finding could perhaps indicate that adolescents had higher expectation of attention from their mothers than their fathers, probably because mothers and adolescents seemed more attached to each other than fathers and adolescents.

6.4. Time spent together

Parents reported spending approximately 335 minutes weekly with their adolescents, and adolescents reported spending approximately 307 minutes weekly with their parents. This is

much less than reported by other studies, for example Updegraff's et al. (2009) Mexican study showed that parents reported spending 720 – 1200 minutes with their adolescents on a weekly basis. The current study's results regarding time spent with children may be partly due to some of the parents' work situations as interview participants indicated that many domestic worker mothers had to work after normal work hours which meant that they had less time to spend with their children.

From Tables 24 and 25, it is clear that parents reported more time spent with adolescents than reported by the adolescents. The average times that children reported spending with their parents were slightly lower than the parents' reports for both mothers and fathers. One possible explanation for this difference is the phenomenon of over-reporting found in many surveys whereby respondents tend to report more socially desirable behaviours (Fuchs as cited in Lavrakes, 2008). Parents who want to believe or who want to portray themselves as "good" parents may therefore have over-reported or overestimated the actual time that they spent with their children. Parents may have also included everyday activities like preparing food and completing other household tasks in the presence of their children as time spent together while children may not have viewed this as time spent together. Another possible explanation is that most adolescents experience some decline in their feelings of warmth, support, and emotional closeness to their parents as they move through adolescence (Furman & Burhmester, 1985; 1992). This could be associated with adolescents needing or wanting to spend less time with their parents and perhaps reporting less time than was actually the case.

Frequent contact between parents and children, however, does not automatically connote high-quality parenting (Ihinger-Tallman, Pasley, & Buehler, 1993). Relevant literature leaves little doubt that it is the *quality* of the interaction, rather than the quantity of contact, that underlies positive outcomes for children (Healy, Malley, & Stewart, 1990; Simons, Whitbeck, Beaman & Conger, 1994; Simons, Lin, Gordan, Conger, & Lorenz, 1999; White & Gilbreth, 2001).

6.4.1. The gender effect

According to both the parents and the adolescents, mothers spent more time with their adolescents than fathers, even though the majority of the parents were both employed (72% of mothers; 78% of fathers). This is in line with a number of international studies showing that adolescents spent more time with their mothers (e.g. Phares et al., 2009). In this current study, mothers reported spending 190 minutes and fathers reported spending 145 minutes per

week with their adolescents. According to parents, mothers on average spent 45 minutes more with their adolescents, compared to fathers. Daughters reported spending 169 minutes and sons reported spending 138 minutes per week with their parents.

According to the adolescents, mothers spent up to half an hour more with their adolescents. This trend is similar to Updegrafføs et al. (2009) study with Mexican youth, where mothers reported spending substantially more amounts of time with their adolescents. While the present study revealed a 30 ó 45 minute weekly difference between mothers and fathers, Updegrafføs et al. (2009) study revealed a 300 minute weekly difference. Claesø (1998) study with Canadian, Belgian, and Italian adolescents showed that adolescents spent less time with their fathers and more time with their mothers. Claesø (1998) investigation showed that Canadian youth spent 1402.8 minutes per week with their mothers; Belgian youth 1831.2 minutes, and Italian youth 2049.6.minutes. In contrast, Canadian youth spent 1066.8 minutes per week with their fathers; Belgian youth 1390.2 minutes, and Italian youth 1696.8 minutes. This indicated that adolescents across various groups/cultures spent more time with their mothers and that adolescents from different groups/cultures differed regarding the amount of time they spent with their parents.

Phares et al. (2009) conducted a study with Caucasian, African-American, and Hispanic families, and found that mothers spent significantly more time with their adolescents during weekdays and on weekends and that it has been shown in the literature (e.g. Phares et al., 2009) that parents spent more time with their adolescents on weekends, as opposed to weekdays. On weekdays, mothers on average reported spending 192 minutes directly interacting with adolescents, and on weekend days the average was 326 minutes. On the other hand, fathers on average spent 131 minutes with adolescents on weekdays, and 257 minutes on weekend days (Phares et al., 2009). A limitation in the current investigation is that participants were not given the opportunity to differentiate between the time they spent with each other on weekdays and weekends. If they had, a similar trend may have been shown as weekends usually allow for more family time together.

Potential reasons for adolescents reporting that mothers spent more time with them could be that adolescents often feel closer to their mothers than fathers (Buchanan et al., 1992; Paulson et al., 2005) and adolescents perceiving their mothers as being more accepting towards them than their fathers (Collins, 1990). Research studies worldwide have found that adolescents have closer relationships with their mothers than their fathers (Barnes & Olson, 1985; Cooper, 1994; Field et al., 1995; Noller & Callan, 1990; Shulman & Klein, 1993).

Another plausible explanation for fathers spending less time with adolescents may have been due to the season. Almeida and Galambos (1991) illustrated in their study with predominantly White educated American adolescent-father-mother triads that fathers spent more time with their adolescents in summer, when days are longer and adolescents were out of school. Thus, fathers and adolescents had more time for õfunö recreational outdoor activities. During the winter time, the season restricted the time in the day and limited the types of activities that fathers and adolescents could engage in. It is possible that this explanation could also apply here, as survey data was collected during the winter months in South Africa. It is likely that fathers would also spend more time with their children when days are longer and the weather allows for more outdoor activities. Furthermore, Bengston and Roberts (2000) believe that bonds between mother and children usually grow stronger over time, while those between fathers and children typically do not.

There was a significant difference between how much time parents spent with sons in comparison with daughters. A small significant difference was found between mothersø reports of time spent with sons than with daughters, with mothers spending slightly more time with their sons.. This finding is in contradiction to Updegrafføs et al. (2009) who found that mothers spent more time with their same-gendered off-spring. However, Nkosi and Daniels (2007) point out that many South African women, especially rural women are subjected to an undisguised patriarchal dominance and men are often considered more important than their female counterparts. The same may apply for mothers in this study. Strebel et al. (2006) also indicate that male dominance and female subservience are still evident in these communities, along with traditional gender roles pertaining to division of labour. In a similar gender discriminating vein, it may also be that mothers spent more time with sons who may be assumed to be less self-reliant inside the home regarding aspects such as grooming and getting meals for themselves. Mothers may therefore do more for adolescent sons than for daughters and in this way spent more time with them.

The results also show that fathers spent significantly more time with their sons than with their daughters. This concurs with other studies that found fathers tending to devote more time to sons than daughters (Lamb & Lewis 2004, as cited in Mammen, 2011; Mammenøs (2011); Pleck & Masciadrelli, 2004 as cited in Phares et al., 2009). One possible explanation could be that fathers preferred to spend more recreational time with their sons, as opposed to their daughters. Father-son recreational time on weekends, for example, could be lengthier, compared to the shorter length of time that fathers and daughters spent together during the week on daily household chores. Also, it must be taken into consideration that the

majority of the adolescent participants were young and female, and most likely undergoing pubertal changes. According to Hill's study (1988), fathers and daughters become less close due to such pubertal changes. Fathers in this study could have felt uncomfortable with these changes and preferred to spend less time with their daughters.

In sum, in this population group, mothers generally spent more time with their adolescents, compared to fathers. Both mothers and fathers spent more time with their sons, as opposed to their daughters.

6.4.2. The time of day effect

Table 27 and Figure 9 show that parents reported spending more time with their adolescents in the afternoons and evenings. This finding is to be expected as mornings are usually taken up by adolescents getting ready for school and spending the morning at school. Adolescents also reported spending more time with their parents in the afternoons and evenings, and less time together in the mornings. Thus, parent-adolescent congruence was high. Figure 10 shows that parents reported spending relatively the same amount of time with their sons and daughters in the mornings and evenings, however, in the afternoons, significantly more time was spent on sons. Again, the gender preference was an issue here. Table 30 illustrates that adolescents reported that their mothers spent more time with them in the evenings, in contrast to fathers.

Most fathers who were employed in this study worked during regular business hours, but some mothers worked in the mornings and had õfreeö time in the afternoons, before returning to their õafter hoursö jobs. This could possibly explain why mothers seemingly had more time to spend with their children alone. Evenings are usually the times when the whole family is together within close proximity and more challenging to have alone parent-adolescent time.

6.5. Shared activities

In Russelløs et al. (2010) study, all of the adolescents reported the importance of parental closeness in doing things together, and discussing problems. Mother-adolescent and father-adolescent pairs are similar in that both generally involve work such as chores, caregiving, housework, and recreation (Paulson et al., 1991). This was found to be true amongst the research participants. Mothers and adolescents agreed regarding four particular shared activities: attending church/religious functions, cooking and having meals, and doing housework and homework together. For mothers, attending church was rated the most common activity (72%), while adolescents deemed watching television together as the most common activity (78%). These findings are congruent to Mosaveløs et al. (2006) study with South African English, Afrikaans, and Xhosa-speaking urban mother and daughter dyads. Similarities included having a meal together, watching television together, cleaning the house, and visiting family together. This finding is to be expected, as they may be considered typical mother-daughter activities in South-African working class Coloured families.

The attendance of church and religious functions seems important family activities for the participants in this study and it seems that in this regards they practise their religion

actively. Lesch and Anthony (2007) have also found that that religious affiliations and regular attendance at church services and related events were important to their Coloured, semi-rural participants and suggested that these seem to be important social mechanisms of community, status and also reputation in the community. Adolescents reported television watching as the most common activity shared between parent and child. It is possible that the adolescentsø reports are more credible, as it seems more likely that parents and children would watch more hours of television than hours attending church, which was the most common mutually-shared activity reported by the mothers.

Doing household chores was rated as the second most common activity that mothers and adolescents engaged in, as reported by the adolescents. Through the interviews, it was repeatedly mentioned that parents and adolescents really enjoyed cooking together, and thereafter sharing the meal. Some studies indicate that mothers continue doing the majority of household chores (Goodnow, 2004; Goodnow & Lawrence, 2001 as cited in Phares et al., 2009), and in this current investigation, both adolescents and parents frequently engage in these activities (refer to Tables 31 ó 34). This could indicate that a culture of doing household chores seems to be the norm in this community. As some of the mothers work in the evenings as well (as revealed through the interviews), it would make sense for everyone in the family to pitch in regarding household chores.

Sixty-four percent of adolescents stated that they discussed things of a personal nature with their mothers, yet this activity was not strongly rated amongst the mothers who completed the surveys. The participants in Crockettøs et al. (2009) study likened the mother-daughter relationship to a close friendship, and daughters also pointed out that they shared secrets with their mothers and appreciated being able to reveal intimate details of their lives in confidence. Therefore, this finding could indicate that daughters felt that issues of a personal nature were discussed, but mothers did not feel that same way. In Fuligniøs (1998) study, Asian American and European American adolescents reported the importance of parental closeness in doing things together and discussing problems with each other. Thus, spending time together engaging in various activities is important, but it also needs to be cemented by meaningful communication, which was of particular importance for adolescent girls. Mothers in this community could possibly not have been comfortable in self-disclosing personal information, as it may have appeared inappropriate within this cultural context.

When comparing what the fathers said to what the adolescents said, agreement exists between four particular items: attending church/religious functions, cooking and having meals, talking to each other about personal matters, and visiting family together. It is worth

noting that when comparing mother-adolescent dyads to father-adolescent dyads, it is clear that the activities shared between mothers and adolescents tend to have a focus *other* than *on each other*. In other words, when attending church, the focus is on worshipping God; when doing housework, the focus is on chores; and when doing homework, the focus is on the adolescentøs schoolwork. Thus, it can be concluded that regarding mother-adolescent activities, the focus is *rarely* on spending meaningful quality time together *focussing on one another*, as opposed to the emphasis being certain activities. This finding is differs slightly to the findings of the most common activities between fathers and adolescents. For the fathers, attending church/religious functions and cooking and having meals together were also more often reported, but they also reported talking to their children about personal matters as common activities.

This finding appears to contrast with other research which highlights the preference for mother-adolescent closeness, as opposed to father-adolescent closeness (Buchanan et al., 1992; Paulson et al., 1991; Collins, 1990). Interestingly, Steinberg and Silk (2002) believed that since adolescents spend more time with their mothers, that they are more likely to discuss things of a personal nature with them. In their study, fathers were mainly seen as distant figures, to be primarily consulted for information and material support. Furthermore, when examining the frequency of conversations and the level of disclosure, Claesø (1998) study showed that Canadian, Belgian, and Italian adolescents preferred talking more to their mothers, although their friends were privy to their most intimate conversations. These adolescents spoke less to their fathers and rarely disclosed personal information to them, which once more seems to contradict the findings in this research study. This appears contrary to findings in this investigation, because both adolescents and fathers reported discussing personal matters as a common shared activity.

Lamb (1997) states that in the past, fathers were often seen as being on the periphery of their childrenøs lives, but this finding suggests that fathers in this investigation are not that disengaged in their childrenøs lives. Not only do they engage in a variety of shared activities, but they also choose to be more intimately involved in their lives e.g. through personal or intimate conversations. Several researchers have noted that a cultural shift took place within psychological research: from the disengaged breadwinner/unemotional disciplinarian to the õnew fatherö who is expressive, nurturing, and intimately involved in his childrenøs daily lives (Bozett & Hanson, 1991; Wilkie, 1993). Gathering from the data findings, it would certainly appear as though rural South African Coloured fathers in this community would be

classified in the category of õnew fatherö as they not only spend time with their children, but also engage in a variety of activities with their adolescents.

Collins and Laursen (2004) found that father-adolescent relationships had more of a recreational nature to them, but their finding is inconsistent to the findings in this present investigation. Referring back to Tables 33 and 34 which indicate that fathers and adolescents focussed more on home-based activities, such as cooking and having meals together, cleaning the house, and working on homework together. The limited amount of time and resources available for recreational activities could possibly explain why these father-adolescent dyads have less of a recreational activity focus.

An interesting finding in this current investigation is that 44% and 50% of fathers and adolescents respectively said that they discussed things of a personal nature. This aspect was not reported as common amongst the mothers.

Activities that were rarely engaged in between parents and adolescents included going to the movies, restaurants, parties, bars, etc. This is to be expected as the participants were from a low-income community, who most probably struggled to make ends meet. Another possible explanation could be that the bulk of the participants have Christian values and perhaps the aforementioned activities are not deemed socially acceptable in their culture and in the community. Contrary to this, families from developed countries spent more family time on these types of activities. For example, Canadian youth spent more time with their parents going to movies, shows, and restaurants and Belgians enjoy shopping with parents (Claes, 1998).

CHAPTER 7
PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE QUALITATIVE DATA

This chapter will present the results of the thematic analysis of the family interviews. Although there were varied responses in the 12 interviews, certain common themes emerged. Four process themes were identified: mothers tended to be the spokesperson for the family; adolescents generally seemed to find it difficult to express themselves in the interviews; parents tended to talk *to* adolescents and not *with* them; and many of these families considered themselves to be the õprototypeö of the ideal close-knit family. Concepts taken from the theory of close PAR were predominantly used to label the content themes: perceptions of closeness; characteristics of close PAR; gender differences in closeness, and physical displays of close PAR. Each of these themes will be presented, discussed and compared with relevant literature.

All of the participants were Afrikaans-speaking. The direct quotations from the participants were translated into English. Inevitably, the meaning of especially colloquial expressions might have been altered through the translation process. In the excerpts, the interviewer is identified as *Interviewer*, while family members are referred to by their code names e.g., *Mother 1, Father 1* and *Adolescent 1* which indicates that they all belong to *Family 1*. Where adolescentsø names were used in this chapter, pseudonyms were employed for the sake of confidentiality. The adolescentsø ages are indicated in brackets. Firstly, the four process themes will be presented.

7.1. Process themes

7.1.1. Mother as family spokesperson

A predominant theme that emerged throughout all 12 interviews was that mothers tended to be the spokesperson for the family. Not only did they do the majority of the talking, but oftentimes when questions were specifically addressed to the family as a whole, the mothers would respond first and would talk for the family by using õweö.

> *Interviewer: Do **you** ("julle") enjoy your time together?*
> *Mother 10: Yes, I enjoy it. We enjoy it very much.*
>
> *Interviewer: Are **you** ("julle") close?*
> *Mother 9: We are very close to each other*
>
> *Interviewer: Do **you** ("julle") talk about everyday things with each other?*
> *Mother 6: Yes, we talk daily about what is happening in life.*

Sometimes, when fathers or adolescents gave very brief answers, the mothers would expand on these answers:

> Interviewer: ...and what else do **you** ("julle") do together in the week?
> Father 4: Television.
> Mother 4: We watch television or sit with their schoolwork....

Mother 3 felt it necessary to interject in the excerpt below, and to give a more substantive answer providing evidence that Sheryl was indeed comfortable talking to the mother:

> Interviewer: Ok, and Sheryl, do you feel comfortable talking to your mother?
> Adolescent 3(14yrs): Yes.
> Mother 3: There are times when I feel sad. Then she will want to know. Then I tell her: "Bad day at work. Or somebody said something bad about me".

It may be that the mother felt that she had to help her daughter who may have felt constrained by the interview context. Another possibility is that the mother wanted to make sure that the interviewer perceived that mother and daughter had a comfortable, close relationship.

There were also several occasions when the interviewers addressed the child specifically, but the mothers would answer for them:

> Interviewer: Ok, and on Sundays, what do **you** ("julle") do on Sundays?
> Mother 2: Sundays we go to church.
> Interviewer: ...Do you go to church also? (Interviewer is specifically addressing the daughter)
> Mother 2: No, she stays home, then she makes food and then when I come out of church then I eat and then I sleep.

This mother seemed unaware of how she contradicted herself, firstly stating that õweö go to church together but then explaining later how her daughter stays home to see to the domestic duties. The daughter stays at home and the mother would eat and sleep when she returned from church. No mention is made of if and how they actually spend time together on Sundays. Unfortunately, it is unclear whether this is a mutual agreement or why and how this arrangement came about because the interviewer did not probe further.

In the following extract, the child did not get an opportunity to respond to the question:

> *Interviewer: Does your mother play TV games with you? (Interviewer is addressing the 15-year old son)*
> *Mother 7: Ah yes, he has actually everything; he has a lot of little things. Everything in blocks....but we play soccer with them...*

When the interviewer asked both the mother and son how often they touched one another, the mother answered:

> *Interviewer: And how often do you ("julle") touch each other?*
> *Mother 7: Actually a lot. Very much. Play-play..."When mummy comes by then I will quickly tap mummy".*

Mother 7 not only spoke *for* her son about his behaviour towards her; but she actually spoke for him in the first person.

It seems that mothers in this group of participants play the dominant speaking role in the family and may be considered or allowed to act as the familyøs representative or spokesperson. Other family members may have disagreed with the mothers, but voicing their opinions may have been considered disrespectful. A dated study which profiled two million South African Coloureds showed that mother-dominated families are mainly found amongst the õlower classö in society, and that a more father-dominated and egaliteratian pattern is more evident amongst the higher social classes (Venter, 1974). Therefore, it could be argued that mother-dominion is more prevalent within this low-income, semi-rural community. These findings could also be argued to affirm Strebeløs et al. (2006) findings that traditional gender roles are still largely adhered to in South Africa (Strebel et al., 2006) and that women are generally expected to care for the family (Lindeggar & Maxwell, 2007). Because Coloured women are considered the caregivers/nurturers in the family, and men the breadwinners, it could be that women may automatically assume the dominant position when conveying information about the children and the psychological functioning of the family.

7.1.2. Adolescents finding it difficult to express themselves

The majority of the adolescents seemed to find it difficult to express themselves in the interviews as their answers were very brief, even when probed.

> *Interviewer: And how is it for you not to live with your mother?*
> *(There is a long pause before the child answers the question).*
> *Adolescent 2(15yrs): For me it is boring. I miss my mom. (Child speaks softly)*
> *Interviewer: So how is it when you are back at home again?*
> *Adolescent 2(15yrs): I feel at ease....at ease. (Long pause here again)*

Some other adolescentsø responses may have been socially correct responses presented in the specific context of these interviews:

> Interviewer: Don't you argue or fight now and then with each other?
> Adolescent 2(15yrs): No.
> Mother 2: No, she doesn't have a boyfriend yet. (Laughs)

It seems hard to believe that mother and adolescent daughter did not have conflict as no normal PAR is free from conflict. Mother 2 suggested that she expected conflict when the daughter has a boyfriend one day, who would perhaps be a competing important other person. It must be kept in mind that Adolescent 2 was 15 years old and it is possible that the lack of conflict was due to her young age. Douvan and Adelson (as cited in Smetana, 2011) found in their study conducted with approximately 3500 American teenagers (ages 14 ó 16) that the girls displayed a childlike submission towards their parents. This kind of submission seemed to be displayed by Adolescent 2, who was still quite young. She admitted that she felt angry at times with her mother, but did not challenge her mother, which could also signal parental submission:

> Interviewer: And you, when your mom makes you angry, what do you do then?
> Adolescent 2(15yrs): I ask for forgiveness; (we) talk about the matter.
> Interviewer: What did your mom do that made you very angry; what do you do then?
> (Child doesn't answer over here. There is a long period of silence).
> Mother 2: Then she goes and sits in her room...then she comes out and asks for forgiveness.

Such obedience could signal a power hierarchy that is common in some Coloured families with the parents having the most power and demanding that their children accept the parentsø judgment unquestioningly. For example, in De Villiersø (2011) study with Coloured participants, it was found that well-raised children were respectful, obedient, and well-mannered. õReceivingö respect from children was found to be a form of parental assertiveness in her study; a definite power hierarchy therefore existed. It would appear as though the authoritarian parenting style is more prevalent within this particular research population.

Related to this may also be the issue of socialised respect for parents as authority figures which meant that children did not speak against their elders and especially not against their parents in public (e.g. in the research interview). This finding parallels with Van Dongenøs (2003) study in a similar community where participants spoke about a lack of respect being shown by õtalking back.ö

7.1.3. One-directional communication

The participants in the interview were also asked to expound on the ease with which they were able to talk to each other about topics of both a general and personal nature. It became clear that communication was not bidirectional for the most part. It appeared as though the parentsø general understanding of communication was them being able to talk openly *to* their children, not necessarily *with* their children.

> *Interviewer: How easy or difficult is it to talk about things? (referring to everyday things)*
> *Mother 5: I am the type of person who talks about everything with him...*
>
> *Interviewer: And how easy or how difficult is is to talk about these things (referring to everyday things)*
> *Mother 6: I don't find it very difficult, because I am very open to talk to them about these things.*
> *Interviewer: And your opinion?*
> *Adolescent 6(14yrs): (silence) I actually don't know what to say.*

These two examples could illustrate that mothers thought that *they* were able to talk openly about things, and that their adolescents felt the same way. For example, while Mother 6øs perception was that it was quite easy to openly communicate with her daughter about everyday things, the daughterøs initial silence appeared to send the message that the feeling was not mutual.

In the sixth interview, no evidence was provided to show that Adolescent 6 spoke to her mother about topics which were more personal in nature. The following example highlighted once again that communication was not bidirectional:

> *Interviewer: And do you talk about personal things with each other?*
> *Mother 6: Yes, I am talking about personal things now with her. When it comes to boyfriends, then I <u>warn</u> her ("ek waarsku haar") about what can happen, and what it means to have sex with a boy. Such personal things I talk to her about.*

It seems as if õpersonal thingsö for this mother mostly meant sexual matters. Other mothers in the interviews also mentioned that they talked openly with their teens about personal things, especially regarding sex. Yet it was remarkable to take note of Mother 6øs words: õek *waarsku* haarö (she stressed the word in the middle: *warn*). Her idea of talking openly about personal things was giving warnings about the consequences of having sex. The topic of sex is quite imperative, especially in this stage that Adolescent 6 found herself in, yet her mother seemed to harp on the negative. There was no indication of positive elements incorporated into the discussions e.g., giving motherly advice without coming across as a prophet of doom wagging a finger of warning.

Mother 7: We talk about the thing just like it is. I said to him: "Listen my child, girlies on the phone and so on, if you have a girlfriend, tell mummy who she is. I want to know where she lives; I want to know who she is. I want to know who her parents are...and if you want to do grown-up things, I want to know about it, because children are born; children have children and then they are still very young.

Mother 7 not only warned her child about the reality of teenage pregnancy, but also expected that her son share with her whether he was or was not having sex. In the subsequent excerpt, the question was once addressed to õjulleö (Process theme 1). The interviewer wanted to find out whether the parent and child communicated openly with each other:

Mother 4: Yes, yes, I am very open with her. I will tell her; she and I talk; then I say to her but it's not time for boyfriends (laughs), because they will just be there by accident and then when the baby is there, then they want nothing to do with you. I talk like that to her.

Open communication is a hallmark of close PAR, according to the literature (Crockett et al., 2009; Mosavel et al., 2006; Russell et al., 2010). Yet this example shown above illustrated that the motherøs idea of communication was *her* talking or lecturing about issues such as boyfriends and sexuality. This excerpt also carried the nuance of warning, because in the motherøs mind, boyfriends equalled babies. This is in line with the study of Lesch and Anthonyøs (2007) in a similar low-income Western Cape Coloured community. They also found that mothers strongly supported the importance of open communication with their daughter about sex, but that their idea of open communication was largely limited to stressing the possible negative consequences of premarital sex, e.g. early pregnancy. In another study with daughters of these mothers, Lesch (2000) found that daughters reported that their mothers õlecturedö them and failed to initiate or encourage dialogue about sexual issues. Lesch (2000) argues that mothers in these communities can be key figures in their daughtersø sexual empowerment and that daughtersø sexuality and sexual development may provide a foundation for mother-daughter closeness. Mothers, however, need to be taught more effective strategies to communicate openly about sex in order to utilise this potential.

One-directional communication also seemed to apply when it came to disciplining and dealing with adolescentsø undesirable behaviour:

Mother 4: She's smoking now at the moment but we didn't catch her smoking yet. We talk to her because we don't want her to do that.
Interviewer: Did you tell your parents that you smoke?
Father 4: No. One day, I was by the house. I took her outside and put my arm around her. There wasn't any scolding. There was nothing.
Interviewer: You told your mother?
Father 4: No...scared! Because she will now scold. Yes, scold! Then, there's hidings!
Interviewer: And you were scared to tell them?

Father 4: Yes, she must be scared! Because she was already scolded! After the scolding, then it is a few weeks, then she must get a hiding because she doesn't want to listen. We give a warning and then we watch her after the warning. If they don't listen, then they must feel.
Interviewer: And how did you feel when you felt that she smoked?
Mother 4: I spoke to her a bit, (asked her) what she smoked. I am old and smoking makes you cough a lot. I don't just talk, I tell her. Many get TB. Many get sick. Then she says: "Mummy, I know". That's all.

In the excerpt above, the father mentions corporal punishment as a logical consequence if the child did not listen. Severe corporal punishment was also considered effective disciplinary action in De Villiers (2011) and Van Dongenøs (2003) studies in similar communities. As was mentioned before, the authoritarian parenting style seemed to prevail within this research group. Richter and Morrell (2006) have written extensively about fatherhood in South Africa, and in their book *BABA: Men and fatherhood in South Africa*, researchers Marsiglio and Day (1997) state that the traditional role of fathers is to enforce rules and boundaries, and to administer punishment. Crockett et al. (2009) have found that, specifically regarding father-daughter relationships, fathers usually exert discipline. Although both parents clearly were concerned about their daughterøs smoking behaviour, they resorted to an ineffective, warning and punishing strategy instead of engaging their daughter in a discussion about her behaviour and implementing more effective mechanisms to stop her smoking. In sum, one could argue that these parents demonstrated authoritarian parenting styles and had Calvinistic constructions of educating and disciplining.

7.1.4. "We" are the prototype of a close family

The mother participants in this study especially appeared to believe that their families were prototypes of the ideal close-knit family. While most adolescents failed to elaborate on their answers, mothers apparently effortlessly expanded on their brief responses (Process theme 1) and portrayed the ideal relationships with their children:

Interviewer: And how are your weekends when you are with each other?
Adolescent 2(15yrs): It's relaxing.
Mother 2: It's very relaxing, and when it's so rainy, then we make a pot of soup, then we perhaps watch some TV and we lay under the blankets.

For Mother 2, food and comfort seemed to be important in how she saw her relationship with her daughter. She emphasised a õwe-nessö, a togetherness, a specialness that was not present in Adolescent 2(15yrs)øs comments. Perhaps the motherøs comments were simply a reflection of what *she* believed was the ideal mother-daughter relationship.

> *Adolescent 2(15yrs): We never fight with each other.*
> *Mother 2: We are always happy with each other. We never fight with each other. We love each other.*

The extracts above indicate, that at times, several parents and children presented their families as free of conflict, always loving each other. Perhaps in their minds, it was impossible to be considered close by the interviewers/researchers, if they admitted to upheavals and discontents in their families. Occasionally it seemed that some adolescents were prepared to challenge their parentsø versions of conflict-free relationships:

> *Interviewer: Ok, do you talk about problems in the family?*
> *Adolescent 2(15yrs): Yes.*
> *Interviewer: Can you give me an example?*
> *Adolescent 2(15yrs): My mother's brother drinks and they fight in the house and then they come to our house....then my mother must help them out...they don't bring their part. They mainly drink.*
> *Interviewer: Do you talk to her about it?*
> *Mother 2: I talk to her about everything.*

Throughout the interview with Family 2, the mother cited examples of how good things were in their family, until her daughter was mentioned how family membersø drinking behaviour impacted negatively on their home life. In response, the mother emphasised her desire to have a good family and distanced herself from her brotherøs problems in the following way:

> *Mother 2: I will tell her: "See how they are going on; I don't want you to be like them. You must ...be ...good. I don't want you to struggle. You see how I do my work; you must be like me. Look to me."*

The mother believed that she was a good example for her daughter to emulate.

As indicated below, it seemed important to some parents that they were managing to instil Christian values in their children and that they had good families in comparison to some others in the same community:

> *Mother 8: My wish is to raise them in the fear of the Lord. Yes, we don't smoke; we don't drink...*

> *Mother 1: If we live properly in front of our children, then our children will see: "My mother doesn't drink. My mother doesn't smoke. Mmm, but that's a good mother"...*

Also, as will be discussed in more detail later, participants spoke about alcoholism in Coloured communities having the power to rip a family apart, and wanting to safeguard their own families against this phenomenon. Mother 8 was quite confident about her family in this regard:

Interviewer: And you don't have such problems?
Mother 8: Not in <u>this</u> house.

Mother 11 boldly stated that there were very few people who had the kind of relationship that she had with her daughter. She claimed to know everyone in the community, and gave the impression that their PAR was somewhat õbetterö than others.

> *Mother 11...No, there are very few people who have such a relationship like ours, because I actually know everybody. I tell her: tell that other children about what we have; give them a little bit of information....tell your friends how it is by us...I know that she will tell them; they will also have that longing; they will also wish they had these kind of parents.*

In Father 1øs mind, his daughter was special; she was not like other õbadö children who walked the streets.

> *Father 1: There on the farm, there are few children who are like her. She'll be more at the house, whereas the <u>other</u> children will be walking around...*

To summarize, many of the mothers seemed to emphasize a õspecialnessö about their relationships, and it appeared as though their relationships were õbetterö than others. The cited reasons were that they never had conflict, they never smoked nor drank. In the preceding section, it was shown that mothers tended to be the spokesperson for the family; adolescents generally seemed to find it difficult to express themselves in the interviews; communication between parent and child was one-directional; and many of these families considered themselves to be the õprototypeö of the ideal close-knit family. In the next section, various content themes will be elaborated on, and these need to be viewed in the light of the mentioned process themes.

7.2. Content themes

7.2.1. Participants' perceptions of close PAR

When mothers gave their understanding of closeness in their families, they were certain that they were close to their children because they loved them. A mother feeling love for her child was therefore equated with closeness between mother and child.

> *Interviewer: What do you understand by the term closeness?*
> *Mother 2: There must be <u>love</u> for you and your child...I <u>love</u> my children very much....*

Perhaps one reason why Mother 2 stressed the word õloveö was due to the fact that she did not see her daughter at all during the week. It appeared as though she was arguing that even

though she was not always with her daughter physically, it did not make her a bad mother. She still considered their relationship close due to her loving her daughter so much.

> Interviewer: Are you close?
> Mother 9: We are very close to each other...I love my children very much...love them very much.

Although Mother 9 also emphasised her love for her children, she also reported that she spent most of her time on work, church business, and chores in the household. It seems therefore that her õfeltö love for her children did not necessarily translate into spending time with her children. Perhaps she believed that her investment in work and household tasks was also a demonstration of love for her children. Love is indeed one key component of close relationships (Rothbaum et al., 2000) but it entails more than õfeltö love. It also includes õactsö of love as Mother 4 indicates in the following extract:

> Mother 4: Give love... Look (at) her schoolwork. See that she does it right. See that she learns it.

Not only did Mother 4 construct closeness as providing love but also by taking an interest in the childøs behaviour and schoolwork.

Research indicates that communication, the sharing of confidences and self-disclosure are vitally important between parent and child (Blyth et al., 1982; Paulson, et al., 1991 as cited in Claes, 1998). Other mothers mentioned these characteristics of close PAR:

> **Open / honest communication**
> Mother 3: ... be honest with each other...
> Mother 8: ....be open with each other.... to be able to give each other honest opinions...
> Mother 11: For me it is easy to talk to her about personal things. Personal things about myself I will share with her...
> Mother 7:... a mother can talk with the child about everything... must feel free to communicate.
>
> **Trust**
> Mother 3: Trust....
> Mother 8: ...to trust each other...
>
> **Sharing problems**
> Mother 3: If I have problems, I will talk with her...
> Mother 7: He can talk with me about things that are bothering him or what happened...

Several mothers highlighted the elements of communication, trust and the sharing of problems with each other. Various studies have cited these as important qualities in close

mother-daughter relationships, e.g. *communication* (Crockett et al., 2009; Mosavel et al., 2006; Russell et al., 2010); *trust* (Crockett et al., 2009; Russell et al., 2010), and *self-disclosure* (Bojczyk, et al., 2011; Claes, 1998).

In sum, the Coloured mothers in this community seemed to find it easy to talk about their perceptions of closeness. The elements which they deemed important were love, open / honest communication, trust, and sharing problems. These findings are consistent with international research.

Close relationships with adolescents were more difficult for three fathers to describe, but four fathers offered the characteristics of close PAR:

Being there

Father 3 ...being there...
Father 10: For me, it means that you must be there for your child....perhaps in times of emergency....if someone must hurt her, then I will go out of my way to show fatherhood. That's what closeness means to me.

Care
Father 3: It is when people care for each other....

Love
Father 3 ...they must have love for each other....

Talking
Father 4: Must talk.
Father 3: Spending more time talking with each other and don't hide things away from each other.

Closeness is fluid and changeable
Father 12: I will say that a person....a person can never be close enough to your family, because today if you are away from your family, it is very dangerous. You can never say you are very close because things change so quickly...We must just try everyday to try to learn and understand one another more....

The fathersø responses differed somewhat from the mothersø answers. The mothersø responses mainly stressed how *they* felt. The fathersø answers appeared to have more of a collectivistic tone to it e.g., being there for their children, family members caring, loving and talking to each other.

It seemed challenging for five of the adolescents to voice their understanding of a close PAR, as they generally did not volunteer to respond. They often stayed silent, despite the interviewersø promptings. However, seven of the 12 adolescents offered brief ideas of what constitutes close PAR:

Communication specifically with mother
Interviewer: What do you think of when we talk about closeness between parents and children?
Adolescent 11(14yrs): ...for me it is easier to talk to my mother and to communicate, compared to my friends. With my mother, I can talk about everything...but I can't with my friends.
Adolescent 7(15yrs): I feel that a child can talk with his mother if he feels that he must talk...
Adolescent 1(13yrs): (My mom and I) communicate with each other.

Love
Adolescent 8(13yrs): Of...love.
Adolescent 2(15yrs): They love each other...
Adolescent 4(17yrs): Getting...love

Trust
Adolescent 3(14yrs): (We)....perhaps can trust each other. If my dad doesn't tell his friends...It must stay in our house.
Adolescent 1(13yrs): We...trust one another.

Respect
Adolescent 3(14yrs): I can say that we respect each other...
Adolescent 1(13yrs): We respect each other...

Attention
Adolescent 1(13yrs): When my mother gives me attention...
Adolescent4 (17yrs): Getting enough attention...

Honesty
Adolescent 8(13yrs): Of honesty....

Sharing problems
Adolescent 2(15yrs): They always share their problems with each other...

Elements of close PAR for these adolescents incorporated communicating (specifically with their mothers), love, trust, respect, attention, honesty and sharing problems. In one international study, communication and trust were cited as very important qualities of good mother-adolescent relationships (Russell et al., 2010). Amongst the adolescents in this community, communication and love were mentioned most often.

In sum, it was difficult for certain adolescents to voice their understanding of a close PAR. One explanation could be that firstly, the majority of these adolescents were very young and most likely cognitively immature, and therefore it may have been challenging to elaborate or offer their own understanding of an õabstractö concept such as *closeness*. Normative socialized language seemed to be present in the bulk of their answers. It was as

though they were presenting scripted notions of close family relations. Secondly, it seemed interesting that adolescents highlighted the ability to communicate with parents (especially with mothers), yet they were for the most part silent in their presence. Perhaps they were intimidated in a strange social situation and it may have been difficult to talk with their parents present. Nonetheless, it seems possible that what adolescents constructed as talking with each other could be a more idealistic understanding and not necessarily reflect their real experiences.

If one looked at commonalities between the mothers$\emptyset$ fathers$\emptyset$ and adolescents$\emptyset$ perceptions of closeness, one can see that the primary constituent of close PAR was *love*. In general, the mothers and adolescents had similar views on honesty, trust, communication, respect and sharing problems as being indicative of a close PAR. There seemed to be a lot of overlap between the mothers$\emptyset$ and adolescents$\emptyset$ answers. Possible reasons for this could be that firstly, mothers presented their ideas first which may have influenced the other family members$\emptyset$ responses. Secondly, adolescents were probably too cognitively immature to offer their own original ideas regarding close PAR. Therefore, their answers appeared to be a carbon copy of their mothers.

7.2.2. Characteristics of close PAR

Analysis of the data revealed that there were several key characteristics of close PAR, namely spending time together, engaging in mutually-shared activities, communicating openly, and lastly showing respect, care, and attention for each other. Ample literature currently exists to show the importance of all of the aforementioned elements. There were several shared features that were prominent in the interviews.

(a) Time spent together and mutually-shared activities

It has been shown in the literature that spending time together is pivotal in close PAR (Mosavel et al., 2006; O$\emptyset$Reilly, 2010; Phares et al., 2008; Updegraff et al., 2009). Parents and children in this community enjoyed spending time together especially on weekends, as well as engaging in a variety of diverse activities. Generally, evenings were very busy times devoted to chores, homework, housework, having supper, etc. Television-watching was a common activity in which the families engaged in. *Sewende Laan*, a popular South African series was highlighted in several of the interviews, and seemed to be a clear favourite.

Mother 7: We watch TV.

Mother 5: Sit and watch TV.

Mother 6: Sewende Laan.

Adolescent 9(14yrs): We watch Sewende Laan....

Mother 2: We mainly watch Sewende Laan...I don't talk...I am just (concentrating on the) TV! (laughs)

Adolescent 12(14yrs):....We enjoy sitting in front of the television and chatting.

Father 9: We chat. We ask how the day was...

Adolescent 5(14yrs): Then we sit in front of the TV and talk about things.

Mother 3: ...So (we) will sit in front of the television and chat a bit.

Few families watched television in silence, but most of them described it as also a time for chatting.

Mother 3 also highlighted another shared feature: attending church as a family on Wednesday evenings (Prayer Meetings) and/or Sunday mornings.

Mother 3: On Wednesday (evenings) we go to church as a family; we go to church on Sundays, so we are actually busy.

Mother 4: Every weekend and during the week, then <u>we</u> spend time together, especially on Sundays, then <u>we</u> are close with each other...<u>We</u> are very around each other on Sundays. ("Ons is baie om met mekaar Sondae")

Mother 4 also stated that they attended church together as a family. She stressed the word õtogetherö (*almal*) repeatedly; this conveyed the importance of them all being together as a family. She added that they are õbaie om met mekaarö which had the connotation that a sense of togetherness was very important to them. Attending church was a great priority for them and it was an activity that they all seemed to take part in. Generally, the familiesø religious lives were not only limited to attending church services. Several families diligently read the bible either separately, or as a family.

Mother 8: My three children and I are very close to each other...we are mainly together in the evenings...we all go and lay on the bed and talk...when I am tired and exhausted, then I say: "Right, come we pray Our Father"...then after that they go and sleep. Then I have my time to read the bible...

Father 10: (We) read a little bible...

Evenings were busy times for most families. This was the time when housework and homework needed to be completed, yet the eighth family prioritised talking just before bedtime. They talked and prayed together.

> *Mother 10: I cook, he cooks, she cooks. Then she asks me: "Mummy, how must I do this? Then I will show her...we cook together...*

The tenth family also enjoyed cooking together. The daughter enjoyed learning from her mother via observational learning. The survey participants also cited preparing meals together as common activities that they enjoy doing.

> *Mother 7: We play games together. We listen to music together, and if they have "moves" then they dance....then I try, then they will say: "No mummy, a person don't (dance) like that!"*

In the seventh interview, Mother 7 engaged in other fun activities, such as playing games and dancing together.

> *Mother 10: For me, it's just nice to laugh together. Not being funny; we are all just happy. We laugh together even if it is about something serious...yes, then I feel happy...I see their little faces and they are happy. Then I also feel happy.*

> *Mother 10:...the money isn't always there to take the children to Spur. Now...I wish this could be every weekend...but it's just once or twice a year that we take them to Spur...*

> *Father 10: Sometimes you feel that you cannot do what you really want to do. You don't have what other people have, do you understand? Then you feel out ("dan voel 'n mens uit") because you cannot do what you really want to do...*

Mother 10 mentioned that they did not always have money to take the children to Spur, a well-known South African family restaurant. Going to Spur was not only seen as the ultimate treat for everyone, but it also provided them with an opportunity to spend time together. Money is needed in this day and age to do so many things. These parents felt that they could do more for and with their families if they had more money.

It was also necessary to establish whether there were differences in the kinds of activities in the mother-adolescent dyads and the father-adolescent dyads.

> *Interviewer: Are there any other things that you do with your mother?*
> *Adolescent 4(17yrs): Will play netball.*
> *Mother 4: At the house, we play together. Drie Blikkies and Kennetjies.*

It was found that playing games together was a popular activity especially amongst the mothers and daughters. Adolescent 4(17yrs) confidently stated that she and her mother enjoyed playing netball together. Mother 4 explained that they enjoyed playing several

popular games together: Drie Blikkies (a game with tins) and Kennetjies (a game with sticks) are two popular games which are played in low-income Coloured communities. It has been shown in the literature that father-adolescent relationships are more focused on recreational activities than mother-adolescent relationships (Collins & Laursen, 2004). Lewis and Lamb (2003) have referred to fathers generally as õplaymatesö. In this investigation though, several of the mothers specifically cited the various culture-specific games that they would play with their children. None of the fathers mentioned playing games together as a fun recreational activity in which to engage with their adolescents. Thus, this finding in this study seems to contradict other literature findings, as here mothers were generally perceived as the õplaymatesö as shown also in the eighth interview:

> *Mother 8: Yes, sometimes I will play netball with her. I even had netball poles made, then I will play with her...*

> *Interviewer: What type of things do you do together?*
> *Mother 12: Ooh, many things! We do many things together, but he doesn't actually enjoy spending time with me. He prefers spending time with his father who spoils him a lot...he won't wash the dishes, but he enjoys making food with me.*

Mother 12 pointed out that her son did not actually enjoy spending time with her. Instead she perceived that he would prefer to spend time with his father, who spoilt him a lot.

Oftentimes the fathers transported the children where they needed to go to, be it school or to the soccer field. Travelling together provided the fathers and children opportunities to chat with one another.

> *Father 3: Actually there is not enough time to spend together. If she has a project, then I will take her. Then I take her to school....and then we talk....*

> *Adolescent 12(14yrs): We play soccer together. My father rides the bakkie for the players...it's mainly him and me and my brother on the field....we play now....there we talk about nice things....*

In the above excerpt, Adolescent12 expressed how he found pleasure in playing soccer together with his father and his brother. On the soccer field, they were able to talk about many interesting things.

In sum, the participants in this community seemed to enjoy watching television, cooking, attending church and/or reading the bible, and playing various types of games with each other. Some of these mutually-enjoyable activities were also cited as important amongst the survey participants.

(b) Communication

The interview participants were also asked to discuss what sorts of general and personal issues they discussed in their household. For the most part, the parents, especially the mothers tended to talk *for* the adolescents, who either had very little to say or restricted their communication with their parents to schoolwork:

> Interviewer: And Bradley, what do you talk about?
> Adolescent 9(14yrs): I don't talk about anything. ("Ek praat oor niks")
>
> Interviewer: What do you talk about?
> Adolescent 12(14yrs): Mainly about my schoolwork. They put a lot of pressure on me. I like it when she talks because....a person learns things...what goes on in life...my schoolwork got worse, so they encouraged me to pull up my socks, yes! (laughs)

It appeared as though parents and adolescents who considered themselves to be close tended to compliment one another regularly.

> Mother 4: I will always compliment her and her father...before church: "You look very nice". Or in the taxi I will tell her that she looks really pretty....I will say thank you that you cleaned the house, or thank you for looking after Johnny. Or perhaps I will say that she did well on her maths...
>
> Mother 8: For example, if I get dressed, then Rochelle will say: "No, that shoes don't match"....or if we go to town, then I will say "That doesn't match; put that on." We always say that that lipstick doesn't match....we are always there for each other.
>
> Mother 3: It doesn't just come out, but just in passing: "You look nice. Oh, your hair looks nice, or so."
>
> Interviewer: And do you say nice things to your mother?
> Adolescent 2(15yrs): Yes...if her hair is blowed out, then I will say: "You look nice today."
>
> Adolescent 8(13yrs): Sometimes I will say: "Mummy looks nice today."

Most fathers did not voice their opinions about compliments. One father was honest enough to share:

> Interviewer: Do you say nice things to each other?
> Father 9: Not really....we....no.
> Interviewer: Why?
> Father 9: Maybe it's because....sjoe, what can I say now? That's not the way that we were brought up. That wasn't mentioned.

Father 9 revealed that he did not usually give compliments, because these were not part of his experience during his upbringing. However, statements such as these could also indicate that fathers in this community are not accustomed to giving compliments , which is one

dimension of PAR intimacy. This type of communication may be construed as too unmasculine and may possibly make Coloured fathers feel slightly uncomfortable.

The interview participants were also asked to talk about whether they were able to tell whether the other person was upset about something and what they would in turn do about the issue. Mothers generally said that they found it easy to tell whether their children were bothered by something. Fathers generally did not respond to this question in the interviews. It was normally easier for the adolescents to identify when their mothers were upset because they would showed it overtly via their facial expressions. It was more challenging to read their father's nonverbals as most times, they would simply go silent.

> *Mother 3: If she sees that something is not right, we will ask: "How's mummy looking now? Is there something wrong? What is bothering mummy?"*
> *Father 3: Yes....if I am upset about something, I will just become quiet, then they will know that something is wrong. Then they will perhaps ask....we can talk about it later.*
>
> *Interviewer: And Sheryl, can they see when something is bothering you?*
> *Adolescent 3(14yrs): Not always....sometimes I feel unhappy about something, but then they don't pick it up. I just become quiet....*
> *Interviewer: And how do you feel when they don't pick it up that you are upset?*
> *Adolescent 3(14yrs): (silence followed by a sigh). I just get....it looks like I am angry. I just get unhappy when they don't pick it up.*
>
> *Interviewer: Can you see when your mother is upset?*
> *Adolescent 4(17yrs): My mother's eyes become red.*
> *Interviewer: And your father?*
> *Adolescent 4(17yrs): I cannot tell.*
> *Interviewer: Can you see when Mercia is upset?*
> *Adolescent 4(17yrs): I see it every day....if she is upset then she calls me: "Mummy, I am very upset; Mummy this happened to me"...then I talk to her.*
> *Interviewer: And daddy, can you see if Mercia is upset?*
> *Father 4: I cannot simply see it.*
>
> *Interviewer: What do you do if your mother is upset?*
> *Adolescent 8(13yrs): I just leave her...if she is upset, then I don't actually worry...*
>
> *Adolescent 1(13yrs): If she is angry...she will scream...but I don't worry...*
>
> *Interviewer: ...and what do you do if you see that they (the parents) are upset? Do you do something?*
> *Adolescent 9(14yrs): No....they come right by themselves.*

Another theme that seemed to emerge from the adolescents was that when they saw their parent upset, they tended to do nothing because they believed that their parents would self-soothe and self-recover. This content theme of communication must be seen in light of the process theme of communication, whereby communication did not really appear to be

bidirectional, especially when it came to personal matters. However, it was generally easy for adolescents to compliment their parents. When their parents were upset, a few of them mentioned that it was customary for them *not* to worry because their parents would õrecoverö by themselves.

(c) Respect

The element of respect is a vital ingredient in any emotionally close PAR (Walker & Thompson, 1983). There were certain commonalities amongst the interview participants about what was considered respectful and disrespectful.

> *Mother 11: There is a lot of respect with us...she will say: "Morning mummy" or "I love you mummy"...she won't just say you or your (*"djy of djou")....I am not rude with her; I don't swear at her or scold her..*
> **Words can only be undertstood in the Coloured Afrikaans context.*

> *Adolescent 1(13yrs): Some of my other friends say djy...they don't have respect...*

> *Mother 10: Yes, for me, it is when she says "Mummy"...other people simply say "djy en djou"...that's not a good thing.*

The way that children addressed their parents was a key factor in showing respect towards them. The parents stressed the importance of their children addressing them properly. Mothers 10 and 11 spoke about how the daughter used the salutation õmummyö when she spoke to her mother. This is a sign of great respect in Coloured culture. By addressing oneøs parents using õdjyö and õdjouö language is completely frowned upon, as also alluded to by Adolescent 1(13yrs). Respect was also shown when parents did not behave rudely towards their children and swearing at them.

Another way in which Coloured people are raised is to look at the other person when he or she is speaking, regardless of the status of that person. Adolescent 8(13yrs) shared that she showed attention in this way:

> *Adolescent 8(13yrs): I look at her when she talks....*

Not only is orienting oneøs actual face towards the person a sign of attention, but it is also a sign of respect.

> *Mother 10: She has respect but <u>many</u> times there is backchatting...then I feel that she loses that respect...*
> *Father 10: It's part of growing up.*

Mother 10 felt as though her daughter did respect her parents, but there were many times that she back-chatted them, which is another great sign of disrespect. She emphasised the word

õmanyö (*baie*) which conveyed the message that back-chatting was a big problem. In that moment of back-chatting, the child lost respect for the parent, according to Mother 10. The father seemed to understand that she was going through a phase, and that talking back was part and parcel of growing up.

Several adolescents also articulated how their parents showed respect toward them:

> *Adolescent 4(17yrs): They don't use ugly words with me...*

Adolescent 4 felt that one way that her parents showed respect for her was not to use foul language, an aspect which was also mentioned in other interviews.

A prominent theme that ran through several interviews regarding the issue of respect was that it was essential that parents model respect for their children, as Mother 8 and Mother 4 alluded to:

> *Mother 8: This is how it works...we talk about a thing and try to get over it as quickly as possible....for me it is better if I ask forgiveness from the children, and then I will go into the room and pray to God for forgiveness, because we are human; we also make mistakes. Confession ("belydenis") for me is very important. Because it doesn't help much if I pray, but I don't ask my children for forgiveness....*

> *Mother 4: For me, I respect my husband and my children. I must respect them; I don't want that tomorrow they go outside and don't have respect for other people. Because if I or my husband don't have respect for the children in the house, then they won't show respect for people outside.*

Respect between parent and child seemed to somehow be linked to having God in their family lives, as could be seen below:

> *Mother 6: Yes, there is a lot of respect...When my husband drank – we live all the years with my mother – when he drank, there was no respect, but now that God is in our lives, there is a lot of respect and a big change. My mother served the Lord before us. And when we asked the Lord into our lives, there was a lot of respect in the house....there is a relationship of understanding....when we drank, there wasn't manners in the house....there wasn't respect....but now that the Lord came into our lives, now everything is as it should be.*

In sum, respect between close parents and adolescents in this particular Coloured community was fourfold: it was primarily shown via speech by addressing parents appropriately; respect also needed to be modelled by parents; it needed to be bidirectional in that parents and children need to mutually reciprocate respect towards each other; finally, respect was linked to having God in their family life.

7.2.3. Gender differences in closeness

One of the objectives of this investigation was to explore gender differences that may have existed between mother-adolescent closeness and father-adolescent closeness. Mothers were by and large more vocal regarding this topic. All 12 of them firmly believed that they had a close bond with their children:

Mother 3: Yes, we are actually very close; very close.

Not many teenagers echoed these sentiments of the mothers, which led the researcher to question the mothersø constructions of closeness. One teenager though voiced her opinion regarding this topic:

Adolescent 10(15yrs): Like my mother said....I tell her everything; she tells me everything. We are relatively close to each other, but I think that we can be closer.

Another trend that became quite evident was that the majority of the mothers stated that they found it easy to talk to their children.

Mother 8: Yes...for example, I already spoke to her about sex from two years old...
Interviewer: And how did you feel when your mom spoke?
Mother 8: She's shy....I actually like that...
Interviewer: So it's easy to talk about personal things?
Mother 8: Yes, it's easy.

Mother 11:...I tell her that because she is a teenager, she should wait her turn. Wait until you are 21...then you are on your own, but as long as you are under my roof, you will still listen to me...we talk a lot about these things.

As can be seen in the excerpts, these mothers believed that it was relatively easy to talk to their daughters especially regarding sexual matters. The daughters generally were not given an opportunity to agree with or refute their motherø reasoning. A few of the mothers also indicated that their relationships with their daughters usually changed the older that they became. Usually, the bond would become closer:

Mother 8: For me, it feels that the bond that I have with her is getting stronger and now that the child is getting older, she needs more attention with her sport and schoolwork....

A few of the fathers seemed to have more of a detached relationship with their children in that they did not really engage in talking about personal matters, they did not really spend quality time alone with their children, and they did not believe in showing physical displays of affection.

Interviewer: Do you talk about personal matters?
Father 12: Not actually....

Father 1: Very rarely....

None of the fathers engaged in physical displays of affection via hugs and kisses. One reason for this could be that perhaps these symbols of love primarily did not form part of their upbringing. While many fathers did not really hug and kiss their children, many would teasingly play-fight with their adolescents. õTappingö (õ*tikking*ö) seemed something that was fairly common especially between fathers and adolescent children in this particular community:

Mother 12: He is very playful...not with me....with the children...very playful...he enjoys playing and tapping (laughs)

Steinberg and Silk (2002) stated that men and women approach parenting very differently. This could imply that differences would exist also in the way that they interact with their children. For e.g., it was shown in this community that mothers and adolescents generally enjoy playing culture-specific games in the street, but here it is shown that fathers and adolescents express the recreational aspect of their relationship by play õpattingö or tapping each other.

Certain fathers and daughters appeared to have an easier bond with one another than mothers and daughters.

Adolescent 6(14yrs): I like to tease my father. It's nice to be with him. If we talk, then we make jokes then I tap him and then he taps me.
Interviewer: Uhm, do you wish that you had more time with your father?
Adolescent 6(14yrs): Yes, it will be nice to spend the whole day with my father.

Adolescent 3(14yrs): I tell him (my father) that I love him very much. (Mother laughs)
Mother 3: She tells me now often.

Finally, certain fathers and children admitted that they were not really close and that they did not really spend time together:

Interviewer: Do you two also have things that you two do together when you spend time together?
Adolescent 10(15yrs): Not actually...
Father 10: ....I am not actually there for such times, no, actually, I am there but I don't have such a personal (bond)...
Adolescent 10(15yrs): Not very close.
Father 10:...Yes, we are not so close, but we chat nicely with each other....we are not that close. Closeness – this is probably something that I must work on....I don't think that we make enough time (for one another)...

This section regarding gender differences in closeness cannot be concluded without bringing in the aspect of gender roles. According to Slavkin and Stright (2000), gender roles are

beliefs about the ways in which individual, familial, community and societal roles are defined by gender. Traditional gender roles are common in traditional families, such as this particular research group. Here, the man is considered to be the breadwinner, and the woman is in charge of childcare and housekeeping. Masculinity is defined as being independent, assertive, and aggressive (Eagly & Steffen, 1984; Eagly, 1987, as cited in Stephens, 2009). Femininity is defined as being nurturing, sensitive and emotional (Bem, 1981; Slavkin & Stright, 2000, as cited in Stephens, 2009). Stephens (2009) argues that there are often two distinct spheres in the traditional household: The man's sphere is usually outside the home in the workplace, while the woman's sphere is inside the home taking care of household chores and the children. As was already mentioned in Chapters 3 and 6, mothers on average spend more time taking care of children than fathers. It may follow that children would feel more emotional closeness to their mothers than their fathers because they spend more time with their mothers, according to Stephens (2009). Craig (2006) mentions that one widespread view of mothers is that they are often over-involved in their children's lives, whereas fathers have a much less involved approach, being mostly playmates for their children (Craig, 2006; Lewis & Lamb, 2003). Stephens (2009) also proposes that perhaps it is more acceptable for women to show affection than men. Consequently, it might be more difficult for men to show affection and other forms of emotional intimacy towards their children.

Craig (2006) argues that women are often perceived as more nurturing in our society, and many people think that women are better at taking care of children than men are (Craig, 2006). Society often tends to assume that all women should take care of children and all men should focus on work and leave the childrearing to the mother. It is also assumed, therefore, that mothers should have a closer relationship to their children than the fathers because mothers are supposed to be more focused on their children (Stephens, 2009).

To summarize the gender differences in closeness in this community: mothers believed that they were very close to their adolescents, but fathers did not feel particularly close to them. While mothers found it easy to talk to their children regarding personal matters, fathers generally avoided these types of conversations. When appropriate, mothers provided hugs and kisses to their children, but fathers steered away from these forms of physical affection. They preferred to play-fight with each other in the form of tapping one another.

7.2.4. Physical displays of affection

Each family was asked about whether and how often they showed physical displays of affection.

> *Interviewer: And how often do you touch each other physically?*
> *Mother 3: Ooh, probably a lot (laughs).*
> *Interviewer: Do you give enough hugs and kisses?*
> *Father 3: Not so many hugs and kisses.*
> *Interviewer: And how often do you give her a hug and kiss?*
> *Father 3: If it is necessary...*

Mother 3 believed that they touched each other a lot. Father 3 seemed to contradict what Mother 3 said. In his viewpoint, hugs and kisses were not very prevalent. Perhaps he had his own reasons for not really giving hugs and kisses. One reason could be that Father 3øs love language was not really shown through hugs and kisses. Chapman (1995) wrote quite a bit about love languages, but hugging and kissing was clearly not part of Father 3øs love language. He gave hugs and kisses *when necessary*. Therefore, in order to display this type of affection, there needed to be a reason.

> *Father 4: (I) don't touch the child.*
> *Interviewer: Don't touch Mercia?*
> *Father 4:No...I have the little one to raise now.*

Upon analysing Father 4øs tone of voice here, it sounded as though he was talking about an object that should not be touched, instead of his daughter. His reasoning was that he had a younger child which he needed to raise; the younger one needed his hugs and kisses. Father 10 had a similar way of reasoning as Father 4:

> *Interviewer: Sir, do you also give Lee-Ann hugs before she does to school?*
> *Father 10: Not actually.*
> *Mother 10: No man, it's not right! (laughs).*
> *Interviewer: Lee-Ann, do you give your dad hugs?*
> *Adolescent 10(15yrs): No.*

Father 10 said that he rarely gave hugs to his daughter. This made sense, because the researcher was already given the impression that the father and daughter were not close. Mother 10 did not agree with her husbandøs choice not to show physical displays of affection to the children. The mother suddenly interjected and said that he was not going to lie (simply because they were in the interview). When Adolescent 10(15yrs) was asked if she gave her father hugs, she plainly answered no, which further demonstrated that the father-daughter dyad was not very close.

Certain adolescents understandably did not feel comfortable receiving hugs and/or kisses from their parents, which was demonstrated in at least two interviews.

Mother 5: Perhaps when he gives me a hug, then he feels a bit distant...

Mother 8: She's very shy now for kisses....yes, I always did it with them...but now that Rochelle is getting a little older....
Adolescent 8(13yrs): No, mummy!

Mother 8 and Mother 5 noted that it was the phase that the adolescents were going through which was making them to not want to engage in physical displays of affection. Adolescent 8(13yrs) obviously felt embarrassed to even talk about those overt displays of affection.

Adolescent 8(13yrs):...I don't like kisses and such things. A hug or so....

In 2009, Crockett et al. conducted a study with adolescents and parents. The daughters had to talk about different characteristics of close mother-daughter relationships. For some daughters, it was important that their mothers displayed physical affection via hugs and kisses; however others noted that it was not always vital for mothers to be so openly demonstrative. Therefore, mothers could be loving without being overtly affectionate. Adolescent 8(13yrs) stated here that she did not really like such things i.e., hugs and kisses. Nonetheless, it did not mean that her mother loved her any less.

Mother 5 indicated that she could also get the sense that her son felt õdistantö when she hugged him. In this particular family, the reason for the perceived distance could not only be attributed to the child undergoing pubertal changes, but also because of his background. When Adolescent 5(14yrs) was very young, his biological parents died and he was sent to live with his aunt and uncle who became his adoptive parents. It could have been challenging for him to deal with the loss of both parents and form bonds with his õnewö set of parents. Naturally, perhaps he had difficulty showing physical displays of love, even as a teenager.

Mother 8:....I understand her, because as children get older, then they change. Things change. I respect that. I don't force things on her so that she feels uncomfortable....now and then I will give her a hug and will tell her that I love her.

While Mother 8 understood and respected that Adolescent 8(13yrs) was going through a certain stage, she did not force hugs and kisses onto her. However, she did not withhold these completely.

Father 9: I think his mother does that more....it's just that...it's a sign that....that, I don't have to tell him that I love him. It's just through what I do.

Father 9 said that the mother was more prone to engage in loving touches. He argued that he did not always have to *say* that he loved his child. His actions spoke louder than words.

Father 9 thought that he was very close to his child, although Adolescent 9 did not always overtly display his close feelings towards his parents.

The literature review highlighted that closeness during adolescence is apparent in forms that differ from closeness in earlier parent-child closeness. For instance, intimacy as expressed by cuddling, tends to decrease as children mature. Therefore, perhaps Father 9 did provide those hugs and kisses (physical displays of affection) to Adolescent 9(14yrs) when he was younger. But now that he was older, those forms of affection were not necessarily as prevalent as before, yet it did not connote a decrease in love between the parent-child dyad.

In sum, when it came to physical displays of affection, most mothers in this community tended to engage more in hugs and kisses compared to fathers. Fathers did not generally engage in these forms of affection regardless of the childøs gender. Adolescents did not really enjoy receiving hugs and kisses due to various reasons; finally, there seemed to be some consensus amongst a few parents that adolescent maturity played a role in the typical decrease in this form of intimacy.

7.3. Conclusion

Key qualitative findings included: mothers tended to be the spokesperson for the family; adolescents generally seemed to find it difficult to express themselves in the interviews; parents tended to talk *to* adolescents and not *with* them; and many of these families considered themselves to be the õprototypeö of the ideal close-knit family. Without a doubt, mothers seemed to play the central speaking role in the interviews, by acting as the familyøs representative. The main element of close PAR, according to mothers, fathers, and adolescents, was love. Characteristics of close PAR included time spent together, engaging in mutually-shared activities, communication, and respect. Mutually-enjoyable PAR activities included watching television, cooking, attending church, reading the bible, and playing various games together. Gender differences in closeness in this community existed, with mothers believing that they were very close to their children. On the other hand, fathers generally did not feel the same way. The mothersø general responses focussed primarily on how *they* felt, while the fathersø answers appeared to be less self-centered. While mothers found it easy to talk to their children concerning personal matters, fathers generally avoided these types of conversations. When appropriate, mothers provided hugs and kisses to their children, but fathers steered away from these forms of physical affection. They preferred to play-fight with each other in the form of tapping one another.   Adolescents were by and large

very quiet during the interviews. When they did speak, their comments seemed to be a reflection of normative socialized scripts.

Smetana (2011) noted that two prevailing views have existed in the past few decades regarding PAR. At one extreme, the adolescent period has been viewed as one of developmental disturbance, and the PAR was characterized by rebellion and conflict. At another extreme, this period was viewed as a somewhat peaceful period involving warm and close relationships. These dialectical views have been replaced in recent years by more moderate and multidimensional views, which include a recognition of the continuity between childhood and adolescence in terms of the overall emotional quality of the relationship, and also an awareness that relationships do transform during the course of adolescence. Smetana's (2011) research is pertinent in light of this current investigation. The adolescents for the most part did not display signs of intense rebellion or conflict, nor did they unanimously present themselves as having warm, close relationships with their parents. There was an awareness that PAR change over time. Most of the mothers believed that the close bond that they shared with the children when they were younger automatically continued into adolescence. It was as though they were not consciously aware of the fact that as their teenagers underwent pubertal changes, so their social relations were also affected, and a by-product of this could be a decrease in parent-adolescent intimacy. What Rutter and his colleagues (1979) discovered years ago regarding close PAR has relevance for this particular investigation as well. Most young adolescents will continue to be influenced by their parents and generally got along well with them. They are usually not critical of their parents (Rutter et al., 1979). The majority of the adolescents in this study appeared to fit Rutter's description, perhaps because they were young adolescents. However, cultural norms could also have been at play. Overall, the discourse in this community parallels with the research findings highlighted in the literature review in Chapter 3. In general, mothers' constructions of closeness appear more egocentric; fathers' constructions largely collectivistic, and adolescents' constructions socially scripted.

CHAPTER 8

TRIANGULATION, LIMITATIONS,
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1. Triangulation

Tables 35 and 36 illustrate the similarities and differences that existed between the participants who completed the surveys and those who participated in the interviews.

Table 35

Similarities Between Survey and Interview Participants

Surveys	Interviews
Table 3 illustrated that the majority of the participants were affiliated with a Christian religion. In Table 31 and 32 respectively, 72% of mothers and 61% of fathers cited that attending church/religious services were common popular activities to engage in with their adolescents.	The majority of the interview participants were also Christian, as oftentimes they made references to church attendance and reading the bible. Christian values seemed firmly entrenched in their thinking.
Figure 3 showed that the majority of the participants were employed ó 72% mothers and 78% fathers. Even though more parents were employed, both parents and adolescents confirmed that mothers tended to spend more time with their adolescent children.	All of the mothers and fathers were employed, with a few of the mothers holding more than one job. Many of the mothers emphasized the amount of time that they spent and the things that they did with their children, which gave the impression that they seemed to invest more in their children, as compared to the fathers.
Common mutually-shared activities amongst parents and adolescents were cooking and eating, cleaning the house, working on homework and watching television together (refer to Tables 31 ó 34).	Cooking, eating, doing chores and homework were also made reference to by almost all of the participants. Not only did they enjoy watching television together, but *Sewende Laan* was a definite favourite.
In Tables 31 ó 34, it is shown that going on trips, outings, to the movies or to restaurants were not common activities.	Interview participants were not very specific about these mentioned activities but they did make quite a number of comments about not always being in a financial position to do these types of activities, for e.g. going to eat out at *Spur* together as a family.
Drinking, partying, going to dances and bars were generally considered activities that most parents and adolescents did not engage in (refer to Tables 31 ó 34).	Dancing, smoking and drinking were generally considered õbadö activities which were frowned upon. Many participants repeatedly brought up the subject of alcoholism which directly negatively impacted family relations. Their Christian value system did not condone these types of behaviours.

(continued)

Table 35

Similarities Between Survey and Interview Participants (continued)

Surveys	Interviews
Characteristics of close PAR included trust; respect; parents talking to children about difficulties/problems; parents feeling that their children could tell when they were upset; and showing physical displays of affection in the form of touch.	All of these elements, amongst many others, were also mentioned amongst the interview participants.
Adolescents would prefer to get their mothersø opinions about matters that concerned them; and they felt that they could more easily discuss their problems with their mothers, as opposed to their fathers.	This was also confirmed amongst the interview participants.

Table 36

Differences Between Survey and Interview Participants

Surveys	Interviews
Table 27 revealed that more time was spent with adolescents in the afternoons, as compared to the evenings.	The majority of the interviewees stated that more time was spent together in the evenings, not the afternoons, as most parents worked.
Table 32 indicates that, 64% of the adolescents stated that discussing things of a personal nature was a common activity amongst the mothers and adolescents. This activity was not strongly rated amongst the mothers who completed the surveys.	Most mothers strongly emphasized that they discussed things of a personal nature with their children.
Table 33 shows that 44% of the fathers stated that they talked to their children about personal matters.	Most of the fathers mentioned that their conversations with their children were more general in nature, and did not really reach the more personal level.
There were no reported statistically significant differences between mother and father closeness, as reported by the parents.	Mothers reported feeling closer to their adolescents than fathers, in general.

This study enriched the literature in that the outsider is provided with a glimpse of how PAR are constructed in this particular community. Table 35 revealed that similarities existed with regards to religion, employment, mutually-shared activities, socially-unacceptable activities, characteristics of close PAR, and the fact that mothers and adolescents generally were closer.

Table 36 reports on differences which existed. A possible reason for these differences could be that interview participants were given an opportunity to õvoiceö their opinions and to provide more exhaustive explanations. Surveys participants were limited to specific information that they needed to complete on the questionnaire.

8.2. Limitations

This exploratory study on close PAR has the following limitations.

- Despite numerous efforts to increase participation, particularly amongst the mothers and fathers, the overall response rate for involvement remained quite low (20%). The samples for both the quantitative and qualitative components of the study were therefore small and not representative of the community in which the study was conducted. Furthermore, this particular investigation was conducted on a relatively small group of adolescents and parents living in a small community in the Western Cape Province of South Africa, and therefore this studyøs findings may not necessarily be valid for other adolescents.

- However, the findings could be used to inform larger future studies in this particular community.

- The researcher was a novice in qualitative data analysis and found the process of thematic analysis quite challenging. A more experienced qualitative researcher may have provided a better quality data-analysis.

- According to prior research, individuals will use impression management to maintain a desirable public identity (Reis & Rusbult, 2010). It must be remembered that with self-report instruments, there is always the chance that research participants consciously or unconsciously engage in õimpression managementö thereby presenting themselves in an overly positive light. õImpression managementö seemed quite prevalent amongst all of the mothers who engaged in the qualitative part of this study.

- Some of the results may be explained by the fact that the recruitment procedure and requirements resulted in a very select group: those adolescents who had parents who were involved in their lives and interested enough to complete the forms. The result was that the researcher possibly ended up with a population of more involved, closer families or parent-adolescent relationships.

8.3. Recommendations for further research

The following recommendations are not comprehensive but they do represent the most important issues for the researcher:

- Future research could entail incorporating a larger sample for both survey and interview methods, in order to increase the understanding of present South African PAR.

- One limitation that could be rectified by future researchers would be to interview the parents and adolescents separately, in order to get õricherö information from the adolescents. Linked to this recommendation would be for future researchers to think of ways of controlling õimpression managementö during the data collection process, so as not to threaten the validity of the research results.

- This investigation primarily concentrated on the data obtained from Coloured individuals. It would therefore be valuable to conduct similar kinds of research on other South African population groups, e.g. Blacks, Whites, and Indians, and note similarities and differences that may arise.

8.4. Conclusion

The research objective of this investigation was to explore closeness in PAR in one semi-rural, low-income Coloured community in the Western Cape Province of South Africa. It was exploratory in nature, making use of a cross-sectional survey research design and semi-structured interviews. Fifty families (67 parents and 50 adolescents) participated in the quantitative part of this study, while 12 families (19 parents and 12 adolescents) participated in the qualitative part of the study. Key quantitative findings included: (1) mothers spent more time with adolescents; (2) the childøs gender made a significant difference in that more time was devoted to sons; (3) parents and adolescents mainly spent time together in the afternoons; and (4) parents and adolescents were in relative agreement regarding mutually-shared activities as well as socially-unacceptable and/or least popular activities. Key qualitative findings included: (1) mothers tended to be the spokesperson for the family; (2) adolescents generally seemed to find it difficult to express themselves in the interviews; (3) parents tended to talk *to* adolescents and not *with* them; and (4) many of these families considered themselves to be the õprototypeö of the ideal close-knit family.

General findings were that most female participants reported close mother-daughter relationships and most male participants reported relatively close father-son relationships. Overall, mothers generally spent more time with their adolescent children. Fathers and

daughters generally reported less close relationships with one another. Although fathers were relatively more involved in their childrenøs lives compared to fathers in prior research studies, mothers and adolescents reported to have a closer bond.

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APPENDICES A – H

DEELNEMERINLIGTINGSBLAD EN –TOESTEMMINGSVORM
VIR GEBRUIK DEUR <u>ADOLESSENT KINDERS</u>

TITEL VAN DIE NAVORSINGSPROJEK:
ᵼn Ondersoek van nabyheid tussen ouers en adolessente in ᵼn semi-plattelands, lae-inkomste gemeenskap in die Westelik Kaapprovinsie van Suid-Afrika
HOOFNAVORSER: Mev. Olivia Bomester (MA Sielkunde student, Departement Sielkunde aan die Universiteit Stellenbosch)
ADRES: Departement Sielkunde, Universiteit van Stellenbosch, Privaatsak XI, Matieland, 7602
KONTAKNOMMER: (021)8507552 / 0828398460
Jy word genooi om deel te neem aan ᵼn navorsingsprojek. Lees asseblief hierdie inligtingsblad op jou eie tyd deur aangesien die detail van die navorsingsprojek daarin verduidelik word. Indien daar enige deel van die navorsingsprojek is wat jy nie ten volle verstaan nie, is jy welkom om die navorser daaroor uit te vra. Dit is baie belangrik dat jy ten volle moet verstaan wat die navorsingsprojek behels en hoe jy daarby betrokke kan wees. Jou deelname is ook **volkome vrywillig** en dit staan jou vry om deelname te weier. Jy sal op geen wyse hoegenaamd negatief beïnvloed word indien jy sou weier om deel te neem nie. Jy mag ook ten enige tyd van die navorsingsprojek onttrek, selfs al het jy ingestem om deel te neem.
Hierdie navorsingsprojek is deur die Komitee vir Mensnavorsing van die Universiteit Stellenbosch goedgekeur en sal uitgevoer word volgens die etiese riglyne en beginsels van die Internasionale Verklaring van Helsinki en die Etiese Riglyne vir Navorsing van die Mediese Navorsingsraad (MNR).

Wat behels hierdie navorsingsprojek?

Ons weet nie baie van Suid Afrikaanse ouer-kind verhoudings nie. Die doel van hierdie studie is om nabyheid tussen ouers en adolessente te ondersoek.

As jy hierdie verklaring vorm lees en teken, en toestemming gee om in hierdie navorsing deel te neem, die volgende sal gebeur:
Jy sal ᵼn verklaring vorm gegee word om na jou ouers huistoe te neem om hulle toestemming te gee vir jou om deel te neem, en ook hulle toestemming te gee om in hierdie studie deel te neem. Jy sal die vraelyste in jou klaskamer by die skool voltooi.
Jy sal gevra word om ᵼn demografiese vraelys te voltooi waar persoonlike inligting gevra word, soos byvoorbeeld, geslag, ouderdom, getal kinders in die gesin, kerklike verband, ens. Ander vraelyste sal jou oor jou verhoudings met jou ouers vra. Jou vraelyste sal in ᵼn geseelde koevert geplaas word en sal deur die navorser kollekteer word.
Jy sal vraelyste huistoeneem sodat jou ouers dit kan voltooi. Jou ouers sal hulle geseelde vraelyste terug na die skool bring en hierdie sal in ᵼn vertroulike houer geplaas word.
As ek volledige vraelyste van albei jou en jou ouers ontvang, sal jy outomaties deel wees om pryse tot die waarde van R3000.00 te wen.
Dit moet gesê word dat jy het die reg om nie in hierdie studie deel te neem nie, en as jy kies om deel te neem, het jy die keuse om enige tyde te onttrek sonder enige vrae gevra word. Alle vrae oor verhoudinge sal anononiem hanteer word.

Waarom is jy genooi om deel te neem?

Jy is gekies om deel te neem omdat jy ᵼn lid van die tiepe gemeenskap waarin die navorser geïntereseerd is. Jy is ook in die ouderdomsgroep waaroor ek meer wil weet.

Wat sal jou verantwoordelikhede wees?

Ek vra dat jy toestemming gee om deel te neem in hierdie studie deur die toestemmingsvorm te teken.

Sal jy voordeel trek deur deel te neem aan hierdie navorsingsprojek?

Nie baie kinders kry die geleentheid om diep te dink en hulle verhoudings met hulle ouers te exploreer nie. Jou gewilligheid om deel te neem aan hierdie studie maak so 'n geleentheid moontlik. Dit mag 'n waardevolle leer ondervinding wees vir albei kind en ouer. 'n Oorvloed van internasionle navorsing is reeds gedoen oor hierdie onderwerp, maar ek benodig jou hulp om myself sowel as ander navorsers beter insig te gee oor die nabyheid van Suid-Afrikanse ouer/kind verhoudings. Hierdie inligting sal ook tot voordeel wees vir meer effektiewe programme in die toekoms om die ouer/kind verhoudinge in jou gemeenskap te verbeter.

Is daar enige risiko's verbonde aan u deelname aan hierdie navorsingsprojek?

Dit behoort interessant vir albei ouers en adolessente te wees om aandag aan hulle verhoudings te gee. Alhoewel geen vrae baie persoonlik is nie, kan sekere vrae ongemaklikheid veroorsaak. Dit is dan belangrik vir alle deelnemers om te onthou dat indien hulle kies om nie sekere vrae te beantwoord nie, hulle van die studie kan onttrek. Ouers en adolessente mag bewus word van sekere probleme in hulle verhoudinge en dalk professionele hulp benodig. Die navorser sal nie professionele hulp kan gee nie, maar sal in staat wees om die deelnemer na 'n person of organisasie te verwys.

Watter alternatiewe is daar indien u nie instem om deel te neem nie?

As jy nie instem om deelteneem nie, sal jy nie negatief geaffekteer word nie.

Wie sal toegang hê tot jou rekords?

Elke stukkie inligting sal vertroulik wees. Na alle vraelyste gekollekteer is, sal ek nie noodwendig met die deelnemers in kontak wees nie. Geen kontak inligting word van deelnemers verwag nie. Die vraelyste sal onder slot en grendel in my kantoor gehou word. Slegs ek en my studieleier, Dr Lesch, sal toegang tot die data hê.
Die uitslae van die studie sal deel van my tesis wees; hierdie uitslae sal aan die skoolhoof gegee word. Enige person wat graag meer inligting oor die uitslae wil hê kan genooi word na 'n terugvoeringsessie waar vrae oor die studie beantwoord en bespreek kan word.

Sal jy betaal word vir deelname aan die navorsingsprojek en is daar enige koste verbonde aan deelname?

Nee, jy sal nie betaal word om deelteneem nie. Daar sal geen koste vir jou betrokke wees indien jy nie deelneem nie.

Is daar enigiets anders wat jy moet weet of doen?

Indien jy vrae het oor jou regte as 'n deelnemer vir navorsing, kan jy Mej Maryke Hunter-Husselmann van die Eenheid vir Navorsingsontwikkeling kontak by 021-808-4623.
Jy kan die Komitee vir Mensnavorsing kontak by 021-938 9207 indien jy enige bekommernis of klagte het wat nie bevredigend deur die navorser hanteer is nie.

Jy sal 'n afskrif van hierdie inligtings- en toestemmingsvorm ontvang vir jou eie rekords.

Verklaring deur deelnemer

Met die ondertekening van hierdie dokument onderneem ek,

í í ....í í í .....í í ...í í í .., om deel te neem aan die navorsingsprojek getiteld

'n Ondersoek van nabyheid tussen ouers en adolessente in 'n semi-plattelands, lae-inkomste gemeenskap in die Westelik Kaapprovinsie van Suid-Afrika
Ek verklaar dat:

- Ek hierdie inligtings- en toestemmingsvorm gelees het of aan my laat voorlees het en dat dit in 'n taal geskryf is waarin ek vaardig en gemaklik mee is.

- Ek geleentheid gehad het om vrae te stel en dat al my vrae bevredigend beantwoord is.

- Ek verstaan dat deelname aan hierdie navorsingsprojek **vrywillig** is en dat daar geen druk op my geplaas is om deel te neem nie.

- Ek ten enige tyd van die navorsingsprojek mag onttrek en dat ek nie op enige wyse daardeur benadeel sal word nie.

- Ek gevra mag word om van die navorsingsprojek te onttrek voordat dit afgehandel is indien die navorser van oordeel is dat dit in my beste belang is, of indien ek nie die ooreengekome navorsingsplan volg nie.

Geteken te *(plek)* ....í í í í í .. op *(datum)* í í í í ....í í í .. 2009.
....

Handtekening van deelnemer   Handtekening van getuie

Verklaring deur navorser

Ek *(naam)* í í í í í í í í í í í í í ...í í í í í í verklaar dat:
- Ek die inligting in hierdie dokument verduidelik het aan

  í í í í í í í í ....í í í ..

- Ek hom/haar aangemoedig het om vrae te vra en voldoende tyd gebruik het om dit te beantwoord.

- Ek tevrede is dat hy/sy al die aspekte van die navorsingsprojek soos hierbo bespreek, voldoende verstaan.

- Ek 'n tolk gebruik het/nie 'n tolk gebruik het nie.

Geteken te *(plek)* ....í í í í í .. op *(datum)* í í í í ....í í í .. 2009.
....

Handtekening van navorser   Handtekening van getuie

DEMOGRAFIESE INLIGTING – ADOLESSENTE / KINDERS

Instruksie: Hierdie vraelys moet voltooi word deur die ADOLESSENT KINDERS. Voltooi asseblief die volgende inligting so eerlik as moontlik. Moenie jou naam op hierdie vraelys stryf nie.

Voorletters:_____   Datum:_____

1. Geslag: ☐ Manlik   ☐ Vroulik
2. Geboortedatum: (DD/MM/JJJJ) _____
3. Ouderdom:_____
4. Aan watter bevolkingsgroep sou jy sê behoort jy?
    ☐   Swart
    ☐   Bruin / Kleurling
    ☐   Wit
    ☐   Indïer
    ☐   Ander (spesifiseer asseblief):_____

5. Aan watter geloof behoort jy?
_____(spesifiseer asseblief)   *OF:*   ☐ Geen geloof (merk ̓n kruisie)
   6. Watter taal praat jy by die huis?
    ☐   Afrikaans
    ☐   Engels
    ☐   Xhosa
    ☐   Ander (spesifiseer asseblief): _____

7. Is jou ouers getroud?
    ☐   Ja (Hoeveel jaar?) _____
    ☐   Nee

8. Woon jou ouers saam met mekaar op die oomblik?
    ☐   Ja
    ☐   Nee

9. Waar woon jy?
    ☐   Dorp
    ☐   Plaas
    ☐   Ander (spesifiseer asseblief): _____
10. In watter soort huis woon jy?
    ☐   Baksteenhuis op   aparte standplaas
    ☐   Baksteenhuis op ̓n eiendom
    ☐   Informele hut/blyplek in agterplaas
    ☐   Informele hut/blyplek op ̓n eiendom
    ☐   Ander (spesifiseer asseblief): _____

11. Hoeveel mense leef in julle huis op die oomblik?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | Meer ☐ (spesifiseer die hoeveelheid): _____

12. Werk jou ma op die oomblik? ☐ Ja   ☐ Nee
13. Indien sy werk, watter werk doen sy?
_____
14. Werk jou pa op die oomblik? ☐ Ja   ☐ Nee
15. Indien hy werk, watter werk doen hy?
_____
16. Hoeveel geld sal jy sê jou ouers verdien per maand?
        ☐   Minder as R1000,00 per maand
        ☐   Omtrent R1000,00 per maand
        ☐   Omtrent R2000,00 per maand
        ☐   Omtrent R3000,00 per maand
        ☐   Meer as R3000,00 per maand

17. As jy moet sê, in watter inkomstegroep val jou huisgesin?
        ☐   Lae inkomstegroep
        ☐   Gemiddelde inskomstegroep
        ☐   Hoë inkomstegroep

INVENTARIS VAN OUER GEHEGTHEID – ADOLESSENTE / KINDERS

Instruksies: Hierdie vraelys moet beantwoord word deur die ADOLESSENT / KINDERS.

Beantwoord asseblief die volgende vrae oor jou verhouding met jou ma en pa; skryf net die nommer wat op jou van toepassing is.

Gebruik die volgende skaal:

Glad nie	Iewat	=n Redelike Hoeveelheid	Heelwat	Baie
1 (0%)	2 (1-35%)	3 (36-65%)	4 (66-85%)	5 (86-100%)

Beantwoord die volgende vrae oor jou MA:

1.	My **ma** respekteer my gevoelens.	_____
2.	Ek voel my **ma** doen =n goeie werk as my **ma**.	_____
3.	Ek wens ek het =n ander **ma** gehad.	_____
4.	My **ma** aanvaar my soos ek is.	_____
5.	Ek hou daarvan om my **ma** se sienswyse te kry oor dinge waaroor ek besorgd is.	_____
6.	My **ma** weet wanneer ek ontsteld is oor iets.	_____
7.	Om oor my gevoelens met my **ma** te praat, laat my skaam of soos =n gek voel.	_____
8.	My **ma** verwag te veel van my.	_____
9.	Ek raak maklik ontsteld in my **ma** se teenwoordigheid.	_____
10.	Ek raak meer male ontsteld as waarvan my **ma** bewus is.	_____
11.	Wanneer ons dinge bespreek, gee my **ma** om vir my sienswyse.	_____
12.	My **ma** vertrou my oordeel.	_____
13.	My **ma** help my om myself beter te verstaan.	_____
14.	Ek vertel my **ma** van my probleme en moeilikhede.	_____
15.	Ek is kwaad vir my **ma**.	_____
16.	Ek kry nie veel aandag van my **ma** nie.	_____
17.	My **ma** help my om oor my probleme te praat.	_____
18.	My **ma** verstaan my.	_____
19.	Wanneer ek kwaad is oor iets, probeer my **ma** om te verstaan.	_____
20.	Ek vetrou my **ma**.	_____
21.	Ek kan op my **ma** staatmaak wanneer ek iets op die hart het.	_____
22.	As my **ma** weet iets pla my, sal sy my daaroor uitvra.	_____

Nou, beantwoord die volgende vrae oor jou PA:

1.	My **pa** respekteer my gevoelens.	_____
2.	Ek voel my **pa** doen ꞌn goeie werk as my **pa**.	_____
3.	Ek wens ek het ꞌn ander **pa** gehad.	_____
4.	My **pa** aanvaar my soos ek is.	_____
5.	Ek hou daarvan om my **pa** se sienswyse te kry oor dinge waaroor ek besorgd is.	_____
6.	My **pa** weet wanneer ek ontsteld is oor iets.	_____
7.	Om oor my gevoelens met my **pa** te praat, laat my skaam of soos ꞌn gek voel.	_____
8.	My **pa** verwag te veel van my.	_____
9.	Ek raak maklik ontsteld in my **pa** se teenwoordigheid.	_____
10.	Ek raak meer male ontsteld as waarvan my **pa** bewus is.	_____
11.	Wanneer ons dinge bespreek, gee my **pa** om vir my sienswyse.	_____
12.	My **pa** vertrou my oordeel.	_____
13.	My **pa** help my om myself beter te verstaan.	_____
14.	Ek vertel my **pa** van my probleme en moeilikhede.	_____
15.	Ek is kwaad vir my **pa**.	_____
16.	Ek kry nie veel aandag van my **pa** nie.	_____
17.	My **pa** help my om oor my probleme te praat.	_____
18.	My **pa** verstaan my.	_____
19.	Wanneer ek kwaad is oor iets, probeer my **pa** om te verstaan.	_____
20.	Ek vetrou my **pa**.	_____
21.	Ek kan op my **pa** staatmaak wanneer ek iets op die hart het.	_____
22.	As my **pa** weet iets pla my, sal hy my daaroor uitvra.	_____

VERHOUDING NABYHEID INVENTARIS – ADOLESSENTE/ KINDERS

Instruksie:
Hierdie vraelys moet beantwoord word deur die ADOLESSENTE/ KINDERS.
Beantwoord asseblief die volgende vrae oor jou verhoudings met jou ma en pa.

Gedurende die afgelope week, wat was die gemiddelde hoeveelheid tyd per dag wat jy alleen met jou ouer in die oggend deurgebring het (b.v. tussen die tyd wat jy wakker geword het en 12:00nm)?
ma   ____uur/ure ____minute
pa   ____uur/ure ____minute

Gedurende die afgelope week, wat was die gemiddelde hoeveelheid tyd per dag wat jy alleen met jou ouer in die middag deurgebring het (b.v. tussen 12:00nm en 18:00nm)?
ma   ____uur/ure ____minute
pa   ____uur/ure ____minute

Gedurende die afgelope week, wat was die gemiddelde hoeveelheid tyd per dag wat jy alleen met jou ouer in die aand deurgebring het (b.v. tussen 18:00nm en slaaptyd)?
ma   ____uur/ure ____minute
pa   ____uur/ure ____minute

In vergelyking met die õnormaleö hoeveelheid tyd wat jy gewoonlik met jou **MA** alleen spandeer, hoe tipies was die afgelope week? *(Merk 'n kruisie by een)*
____tipies   _____nie tipies nie ....as dit so is hoekom? *(Verduidelik asseblief)*
_____

In vergelyking met die õnormaleö hoeveelheid tyd wat jy gewoonlik met jou **PA** alleen spandeer, hoe tipies was die afgelope week? *(Merk 'n kruisie by een)*
____tipies   _____nie tipies nie ....as dit so is hoekom? *(Verduidelik asseblief)*
_____

Die volgende is 'n lys van verskillende aktiwiteite waaraan mens deur die loop van een week kan deelneem. Vir elkeen van hierdie aktiwiteite, merk 'n kruisie by dié waaraaan jy en jou ouer *alleen* deelgeneem het gedurende die afgelope week. Merk net daardie aktiwiteite wat jy *alleen* met jou ouer gedoen het, *nie in die teenwoordigheid van ander nie.*
Gedurende die afgelope week, het ek die volgende aktiwiteite *alleen* met my **MA** gedoen...
(Merk almal wat op jou van toepassing is):

_ Wasgoed gedoen	_ Het oor die telefoon gepraat
_ 'n Maaltyd voorberei	_ Gaan fliek
_ Televisie gekyk	_ Het 'n maal geëet
_ Na 'n restuarant toe gegaan	_ Aan sport aktiwiteite deelgeneem
_ Na 'n kruidenierswinkel toe gegaan	_ Na 'n smokkie toegegaan
_ Op 'n stappie / op 'n rit gegaan	_ Het familie besoek
_ Het oor persoonlike dinge gepraat	_ Het vriende/vriendinne besoek
_ Het 'n partytjie beplan	_ Het kaart gespeel
_ Het op 'n vakansie gegaan / weg gegaan vir die naweek	_ Het 'n sport gebeurtenis bygewoon
_ Het die huis skoongemaak	_ Het geoefen
_ Het kerk toe gegaan / 'n geestelike funksie bygewoon	_ Het op 'n uitstappie gegaan (b.v. pikniek, strand)
_ Tuiswerk gedoen	_ Het gaan dans
_ Het oor onpersoonlike dinge gepraat	_ 'n Partytjie bygewoon
_ Het na 'n klerewinkel gegaan	_ Het musiek gespeel / gesing

Gedurende die afgelope week, het ek die volgende aktiwiteite *alleen* met my **PA** gedoen...
(Merk almal wat op jou van toepassing is):

_ Wasgoed gedoen	_ Het oor die telefoon gepraat
_ 'n Maaltyd voorberei	_ Gaan fliek
_ Televisie gekyk	_ Het 'n maal geëet
_ Na 'n restuarant toe gegaan	_ Aan sport aktiwiteite deelgeneem
_ Na 'n kruidenierswinkel toe gegaan	_ Na 'n smokkie toegegaan
_ Op 'n stappie / op 'n rit gegaan	_ Het familie besoek
_ Het oor persoonlike dinge gepraat	_ Het vriende/vriendinne besoek
_ Het 'n partytjie beplan	_ Het kaart gespeel
_ Het op 'n vakansie gegaan / weg gegaan vir die naweek	_ Het 'n sport gebeurtenis bygewoon
_ Het die huis skoongemaak	_ Het geoefen
_ Het kerk toe gegaan / 'n geestelike funksie bygewoon	_ Het op 'n uitstappie gegaan (b.v. pikniek, strand)
_ Tuiswerk gedoen	_ Het gaan dans
_ Het oor onpersoonlike dinge gepraat	_ 'n Partytjie bygewoon
_ Het na 'n klerewinkel gegaan	_ Het musiek gespeel / gesin

Die volgende vrae handel oor hoeveel jou ouers jou gedagtes, gevoelens, en gedrag beïnvloed. Gebruik die 7-punt skaal onderaan en dui asseblief die mate wat jy saamstem of nie saamstem nie deur die toepaslike nommer te skryf.

Glad nie	-n Bietjie	Toevallig	Soms	Dikwels	Amper altyd	Heeltemaal
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1.	My **ma** sal my toekomstige geldelike sekerheid beïnvloed.	_____
	My **pa** sal my toekomstige geldelike sekerheid beïnvloed.	_____
2.	My **ma** beïnvloed nie die daaglikse dinge in my lewe nie.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed nie die daaglikse dinge in my lewe nie.	_____
3.	My **ma** beïnvloed belangrike dinge in my lewe.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed belangrike dinge in my lewe.	_____
4.	My **ma** beïnvloed watter partytjies en sosiale gebeurtenisse ek bywoon.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed watter partytjies en sosiale gebeurtenisse ek bywoon.	_____
5.	My **ma** beïnvloed die mate waarin ek verantwoordelikheid in ons verhouding aanvaar.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed die mate waarin ek verantwoordelikheid in ons verhouding aanvaar.	_____
6.	My **ma** beïnvloed nie die hoeveelheid tyd wat aan ek huistake spandeer nie.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed nie die hoeveelheid tyd wat aan ek huistake spandeer nie.	_____
7.	My **ma** beïnvloed nie hoe ek kies om my geld te spandeer nie.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed nie hoe ek kies om my geld te spandeer nie.	_____
8.	My **ma** beïnvloed hoe ek oor myself voel.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed hoe ek oor myself voel.	_____
9.	My **ma** beïnvloed nie my buie nie.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed nie my buie nie.	_____
10.	My **ma** beïnvloed my basiese waardes.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed my basiese waardes.	_____
11.	My **ma** beïnvloed nie die opinies wat ek oor ander belangrike mense in my lewe het nie.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed nie die opinies wat ek oor ander belangrike mense in my lewe het nie.	_____
12.	My **ma** beïnvloed nie wanneer ek my gesin sien, of tyd saam met hulle deurbring nie.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed nie waarneer ek my gesin sien, of tyd saam met hulle deurbring nie.	_____
13.	My **ma** beïnvloed nie wanneer ek my vriende/vriendinne sien, of tyd saam met hulle deurbring nie.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed nie wanneer ek my vriende/vriendinne sien, of tyd saam met hulle deurbring nie.	_____
14.	My **ma** beïnvloed nie watter van my vriende/vriendinne ek sien nie.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed nie watter van my vriende/vriendinne ek sien nie.	_____
15.	My **ma** sal nie die tipe loopbaan wat ek sal volg beïnvloed nie.	_____
	My **pa** sal nie die tipe loopbaan wat ek sal volg beïnvloed nie.	_____
16.	My **ma** sal die hoeveelheid tyd wat ek bestee aan my loopbaan beïnvloed.	_____
	My **pa** sal die hoeveelheid tyd wat ek bestee aan my loopbaan beïnvloed.	_____
17.	My **ma** sal nie my kanse om goeie werk in die toekoms te kry beïnvloed nie.	_____
	My **pa** sal nie my kanse om goeie werk in die toekoms te kry beïnvloed nie.	_____
18.	My **ma** beïnvloed hoe ek oor die toekoms voel.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed hoe ek oor die toekoms voel.	_____
19.	My **ma** het nie die vermoë om my te beïnvloed hoe ek my in verskillende situaties gedra nie.	_____
	My **pa** het nie die vermoë om my te beïnvloed hoe ek my in verskillende situaties gedra nie.	_____
20.	My **ma** beïnvloed my totale geluk en dra daartoe by.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed my totale geluk en dra daartoe by.	_____
21.	My **ma** beïnvloed nie my huidige geldelike sekerheid nie.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed nie my huidige geldelike sekerheid nie.	_____
22.	My **ma** beïnvloed hoe ek my vryetyd bestee.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed hoe ek my vryetyd bestee.	_____
23.	My **ma** beïnvloed wanneer ek haar sien en die hoeveelheid tyd wat ons twee saam deurbring.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed wanneer ek hom sien en die hoeveelheid tyd wat ons twee saam deurbring.	_____
24.	My **ma** beïnvloed nie hoe ek aantrek nie.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed nie hoe ek aantrek nie.	_____
25.	My **ma** beïnvloed hoe ek my kamer versier.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed hoe ek my kamer versier.	_____
26.	My **ma** beïnvloed nie waar ek woon nie.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed nie waar ek woon nie.	_____
27.	My **ma** beïnvloed wat ek op televisie kyk.	_____
	My **pa** beïnvloed wat ek op televisie kyk.	_____

**DEELNEMERINLIGTINGSBLAD EN -TOESTEMMINGSVORM VIR
GEBRUIK DEUR <u>OUERS</u>**

TITEL VAN DIE NAVORSINGSPROJEK: ̶n Ondersoek van nabyheid tussen ouers en adolessente in ̶n semi-plattelands, lae-inkomste gemeenskap in die Westelik Kaapprovinsie van Suid-Afrika
HOOFNAVORSER: Mev. Olivia Bomester (MA Sielkunde student, Departement Sielkunde aan die Universiteit Stellenbosch)
ADRES: Departement Sielkunde, Universiteit van Stellenbosch, Privaatsak XI, Matieland, 7602
KONTAKNOMMER: (021)8507552 / 0828398460
U en u kind word genooi om deel te neem aan ̶n navorsingsprojek. Lees asseblief hierdie inligtingsblad deur op u eie tyd aangesien die detail van die projek daarin verduidelik word. Indien daar enige deel van die projek is wat u nie ten volle verstaan nie, is u welkom om die navorser te kontak. Dit is baie belangrik dat u ten volle moet verstaan wat die navorsing behels en hoe u en u kind daarby betrokke kan wees. U en u kind se deelname is ook **volkome vrywillig** en dit staan u en u kind vry om deelname te weier. U en u kind sal op geen wyse hoegenaamd negatief beïnvloed word nie indien u en u kind sou weier om deel te neem nie. U en u kind mag ook te enige tyd aan die studie onttrek, selfs al het u en u kind ingestem om deel teeneem.
Hierdie studie is deur die Komitee vir Mensnavorsing van die Universiteit Stellenbosch goedgekeur en sal uitgevoer word volgens die etiese riglyne en beginsels van die Internasionale Verklaring van Helsinki en die Etiese Riglyne vir Navorsing van die Mediese Navorsingsraad (MNR).

Wat behels hierdie navorsingsprojek?
Ons weet nie baie van Suid Afrikaanse ouer-kind verhoudings nie. Die doel van hierdie studie is om nabyheid tussen ouers en adolessente te ondersoek.
As u hierdie verklaring vorm lees en teken, en toestemming gee om in hierdie navorsing deel te neem, die volgende sal gebeur:
U kind sal ̶n verklaring vorm ge gee word om na hul ouers huistoe te neem om hulle toestemming te gee vir hulle om deel te neem, en ook u toestemming te gee om in hierdie studie deel te neem. As julle toestemming gee, sal ek ̶n tyd reël gedurende skooltyd sodat u kind die vraelyste vir ouers kan versamel. U kind sal haar/sy vraelyste in die klaskamer by die skool voltooi.
U kind sal gevra word om ̶n demografiese vraelys te voltooi waar persoonlike inligting gevra word, soos byvoorbeeld, geslag, ouderdom, getal kinders in die gesin, kerklike verband, ens. Ander vraelyste sal u kind oor hy/sy verhoudings met hul ouers vra. U kind se vraelyste sal in ̶n geseelde koevert geplaas word en sal deur die navorser kollekteer word.
U kind sal vraelyste huistoeneem sodat hul ouers dit kan voltooi. U sal gevra word om ̶n demografiese vraelys te voltooi; ander vraelyste sal u oor u verhoudings met u kind vra. U sal geseelde vraelyste terug na die skool bring en hierdie sal in ̶n vertroulike houer geplaas word. As ek volledige vraelyste van albei u en u kind ontvang, sal u outomaties deel wees om pryse tot die waarde van R3000.00 te wen.
Dit moet gesê word dat u en u kind het die reg om nie in hierdie studie deel te neem nie, en as julle kies om deel te neem, het julle die keuse om enige tyde te ontrek sonder enige vrae gevra word. Alle vrae oor verhoudinge sal anononiem hanteer word.

Waarom is u en u kind genooi om deel te neem?
U en u kind is gekies om deel te neem omdat u en u kind ̶n lid van die tiepe gemeenskap waarin die navorser geintereseerd is. U kind is ook in die ouderdomsgroep waaroor ek meer wil weet.

Wat sal u en u kind se verantwoordelikhede wees?
Ek vra dat u toestemming gee om deelteneem in hierdie studie deur die toestemmingsvorm te teken.

Sal u en u kind voordeel trek deur deel te neem aan hierdie navorsing?
Nie baie ouers en kinders kry die geleentheid om diep te dink en hulle verhoudings met mekaar te exploreer nie. U en u kind se gewilligheid om deel te neem aan hierdie studie maak so ŉ geleentheid moontlik. Dit mag ŉ waardevolle leer ondervinding wees vir albei kind en ouer. ŉ Oorvloed van internasionle navorsing is reeds gedoen oor hierdie onderwerp, maar ek benodig u hulp om myself sowel as ander navorsers beter insig te gee oor die nabyheid van Suid-Afrikanse ouer/kind verhoudings. Hierdie inligting sal ook tot voordeel wees vir meer effektiewe programme in die toekoms om die ouer/kind verhoudinge in u gemeenskap te verbeter.

Is daar enige risiko's verbonde aan u en u kind se deelname aan hierdie navorsing?

Dit behoort interessant vir albei ouers en adolessente te wees om aandag aan hulle verhoudings te gee. Alhoewel geen vrae baie persoonlik is nie, kan sekere vrae ongemaklikheid veroorsaak. Dit is dan belangrik vir alle deelnemers om te onthou dat indien hulle kies om nie sekere vrae te beantwoord nie, hulle van die studie kan onttrek. Ouers en adolessente mag bewus word van sekere probleme in hulle verhoudinge en dalk professionele hulp benodig. Die navorser sal nie professionele hulp kan gee nie, maar sal in staat wees om die deelnemer na ŉ person of organisasie te verwys.

Watter alternatiewe is daar vir u en u kind indien julle nie instem om deel te neem nie?
As u en u kind nie instem om deel te neem nie, sal geen van julle negatief geaffekteer word.

Wie sal toegang hê tot u en u kind se rekords?
Elke stukkie inligting sal vertroulik wees. Na alle vraelyste gekollekteer is, sal ek nie noodwendig met die deelnemers in kontak wees nie. Geen kontak inligting word van deelnemers verwag nie. Die vraelyste sal onder slot en grendel in my kantoor gehou word. Slegs ek en my studieleier, Dr Lesch, sal toegang tot die data hê.
Die uitslae van die studie sal deel van my tesis wees; hierdie uitslae sal aan die skoolhoof gegee word. Enige person wat graag meer inligting oor die uitslae wil hê kan genooi word na ŉ terugvoeringsessie waar vrae oor die studie beantwoord en bespreek kan word.

Sal u of u kind betaal word vir deelname aan die projek en is daar enige koste verbonde aan deelname?

Nee, u of u kind sal nie betaal word vir deelname aan die projek nie. Deelname aan die projek sal u niks kos nie.

Is daar enigiets anders wat u moet weet of doen?

Indien u vrae het oor jou regte as ŉ deelnemer vir navorsing, kan u Mej Maryke Hunter-Husselmann van die Eenheid vir Navorsingsontwikkeling kontak by 021-808-4623.
U kan die Komitee vir Mensnavorsing kontak by 021-938 9207 indien u enige bekommernis of klagte het wat nie bevredigend deur die navorser hanteer is nie.

U sal ŉ afskrif van hierdie inligtings- en toestemmingsvorm ontvang vir u eie rekords.

INSTEMMING VAN MINDERJARIGE

Ek (naam van kind/minderjarige) í í í í í í í í í í í í ....í í í í í . is genooi om deel te neem aan hierdie navorsingsprojek.

- Die navoser en my ouers het die besonderhede van bogenoemde navorsingsprojek aan my verduidelik en ek verstaan wat hulle aan my gesê het.

- Ek weet ook dat ek te enige tyd aan die navorsingsprojek kan onttrek indien ek ongelukkig is.

- Deur my naam hieronder in te vul, onderneem ek om vrywillig aan die navorsingsprojek deel te neem. Ek bevestig ook dat ek nie deur my ouers of die navorser gedwing is om deel te neem nie.

....

Naam van kind   Onafhanklike getuie

(Deur kind geskryf te word indien moontlik)

Verklaring deur ouers

Met die ondertekening van hierdie dokument onderneem ons, (*name van ouers*)
í í í í ....í .., om ons kind *(naam van kind)*
í í í í ....í .., wat .... jaar oud is, te laat deelneem aan ‑n navorsingsprojek getiteld **'n Ondersoek van nabyheid tussen ouers en adolessente in 'n semi-plattelands, lae-inkomste gemeenskap in die Westelik Kaapprovinsie van Suid-Afrika**
Ons verklaar dat:

- Ons hierdie inligtings- en toestemmingsvorm gelees het of aan my laat voorlees het en dat dit in ‑n taal geskryf is waarin ek vaardig en gemaklik mee is.

- Ons kind moet instem om aan die navorsingsprojek deel te neem as hy/sy ouer as 7 jaar is, en dat sy/haar INSTEMMING op hierdie vorm aangeteken sal word.

- Ons geleentheid gehad het om vrae te stel en dat al my vrae bevredigend beantwoord is.

- Ons verstaan dat deelname aan hierdie projek **vrywillig** is en dat daar geen druk op my geplaas is om my kind te laat deelneem nie.

- Ons kind ten enige tyd van die projek mag onttrek en dat hy/sy nie op enige wyse daardeur benadeel sal word nie.

- Ons kind gevra mag word om aan die projek te onttrek voordat dit afgehandel is indien die navorser van oordeel is dat dit in sy/haar beste belang is, of indien my kind nie die ooreengekome studieplan volg nie.

Geteken te (*plek*) ....í í í í í .. op (*datum*) í í í í ....í í í .. 2009.
....

Handtekening van moeder   Handtekening van getuie

....

Handtekening van vader   Handtekening van getuie

Verklaring deur navorser

Ek (naam) í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í   verklaar dat:

- Ek die inligting in hierdie dokument verduidelik het aan hierdie ouers.

- Ek hulle aangemoedig het om vrae te vra en voldoende tyd gebruik het om dit te beantwoord.

- Ek tevrede is dat hulle al die aspekte van die navorsingsprojek soos hierbo bespreek, voldoende verstaan.

- Ek ʼn tolk gebruik het/nie ʼn tolk gebruik het nie.

Geteken te (*plek*) ....í í í í í .. op (*datum*) í í í í ....í í í .. 2009.

....

Handtekening van navorser   Handtekening van getuie

VERKLARING DEUR OUERS

Met die ondertekening van hierdie dokument onderneem ons, í í ....í í í .....í í ...í í í ..,

om deel te neem aan ʼn navorsingsprojek

ʼn Ondersoek van nabyheid tussen ouers en adolessente in ʼn semi-plattelands, lae-inkomste gemeenskap in die Westelik Kaapprovinsie van Suid-Afrika
Ons verklaar dat:

- Ons hierdie inligtings- en toestemmingsvorm gelees het of aan ons laat voorlees het en dat dit in ʼn taal geskryf is waarin ons vaardig en gemaklik mee is.

- Ons geleentheid gehad het om vrae te stel en dat al ons vrae bevredigend beantwoord is.

- Ons verstaan dat deelname aan hierdie navorsingsprojek **vrywillig** is en dat daar geen druk op ons geplaas is om deel te neem nie.

- Ons te enige tyd aan die navorsingsprojek mag onttrek en dat ons nie op enige wyse daardeur benadeel sal word nie.

- Ons gevra mag word om van die navorsingsprojek te onttrek voordat dit afgehandel is indien die navorser van oordeel is dat dit in ons beste belang is, of indien ek nie die ooreengekome navorsingsplan volg nie.

Geteken te *(plek)* ....í í í í í .. op *(datum)* í í í í ....í í í .. 2009.

....

Handtekening van moeder   Handtekening van getuie

....

Handtekening van vader   Handtekening van getuie

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Verklaring deur navorser

Ek *(naam)* ……………………………………verklaar dat:

- Ek die inligting in hierdie dokument verduidelik het aan hierdie ouers.

- Ek hulle aangemoedig het om vrae te vra en voldoende tyd gebruik het om dit te beantwoord.

- Ek tevrede is dat hulle al die aspekte van die navorsingsprojek soos hierbo bespreek, voldoende verstaan.

- Ek 'n tolk gebruik het/nie 'n tolk gebruik het nie.

Geteken te *(plek)* ……………………………………….. op *(datum)* …………………….. 2009.

....

Handtekening van navorser   Handtekening van getuie

OUER GELETTERHEID

Opleidingstatus van die MA:

Wat was die hoogste graad (of standerd) wat u op primêre/höerskool geslaag het? _____

Lees asseblief die vraelyste wat ingesluit is voordat u besluit of u wil deelneem in hierdie studie of nie.

Sodra u die vraelyste gelees het, merk asseblief EEN wat toepaslik is as volg : ☑

- Ek verstaan al die vrae.   ❑
- Ek verstaan meeste van die vrae.   ❑
- Ek verstaan sommige van die vrae.   ❑

Opleidingstatus van die PA:

Wat was die hoogste graad (of standerd) wat u op primêre/höerskool geslaag het? _____

Lees asseblief die vraelyste wat ingesluit is voordat u besluit of u wil deelneem in hierdie studie of nie.

Sodra u die vraelyste gelees het, merk asseblief EEN wat toepaslik is as volg : ☑

- Ek verstaan al die vrae.   ❑
- Ek verstaan meeste van die vrae.   ❑
- Ek verstaan sommige van die vrae.   ❑

DEMOGRAFIESE INLIGTING - OUERS

Instruksie: Hierdie vraelys moet voltooi word deur die OUERS.

Voltooi asseblief die volgende inligting so eerlik as moontlik. Moenie jou naam op hierdie vraelys stryf nie.

Voorletters:_____   Datum:_____

1. Geslag: ☐ Manlik   ☐   Vroulik

2. Geboortedatum: (DD/MM/JJJJ) _____

3. Ouderdom:_____

4. Aan watter bevolkingsgroep sou jy sê behoort jy?
      ☐   Swart
      ☐   Bruin / Kleurling
      ☐   Wit
      ☐   Indïer
      ☐   Ander (spesifiseer asseblief):_____

5. Aan watter geloof behoort jy?
_____(spesifiseer asseblief)   *OF:*   ☐ Geen geloof (merk 'n kruisie)

6. Watter taal praat jy by die huis?
      ☐   Afrikaans
      ☐   Engels
      ☐   Xhosa
      ☐   Ander (spesifiseer asseblief): _____

7. Is jy getroud?
      ☐   Ja (Hoeveel jaar?) _____
      ☐   Nee

8. Woon jy met jou gade op die oomblik?
      ☐   Ja
      ☐   Nee

9. Waar woon jy?
- ☐   Dorp
- ☐   Plaas
- ☐   Ander (spesifiseer asseblief): _____

10. In watter soort huis woon jy?
- ☐   Baksteenhuis op   aparte standplaas
- ☐   Baksteenhuis op 'n eiendom
- ☐   Informele hut/blyplek in agterplaas
- ☐   Informele hut/blyplek op 'n eiendom
- ☐   Ander (spesifiseer asseblief): _____

11. Hoeveel mense leef in julle huis op die oomblik?
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | Meer ☐ (spesifiseer die hoeveelheid): _____

12. Hoeveel van *jou eie kinders* leef in julle huis op die oomblik?
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Meer ☐ (spesifiseer die hoeveelheid): _____ Ouderdomme van kinders _____

13. Hoeveel van *jou gade se kinders* leef in julle huis op die oomblik?
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Meer ☐ (spesifiseer die hoeveelheid): _____ Ouderdomme van
kinders_____

14. Hoeveel aangeneemde kinders leef in julle huis op die oomblik?
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Meer ☐ (spesifiseer die hoeveelheid): _____ Ouderdomme van
kinders_____

15. Werk jy op die oomblik? ☐ Ja ☐ Nee

16. Indien jy werk, watter werk doen jy?
_____

17. Hoeveel geld verdien jy per maand?
- ☐   Minder as R1000,00 per maand
- ☐   Omtrent R1000,00 per maand
- ☐   Omtrent R2000,00 per maand
- ☐   Omtrent R3000,00 per maand
- ☐   Meer as R3000,00 per maand

18. As jy moet sê, in watter inkomstegroep val jou huisgesin?
- ☐   Lae inkomstegroep
- ☐   Gemiddelde inskomstegroep
- ☐   Hoë inkomstegroep

HUIDIGE SITUASIE MET MY KIND - OUERS

Instruksies: Hierdie vraeslys moet beantwoord word deur die OUERS.

Beantwoord asseblief die volgende vrae oor jou verhouding met jou adolessent kind; skryf net die nommer wat op jou van toepassing is.

Gebruik die volgende skaal:

Glad nie	Iewat	ᵻn Redelike Hoeveelheid	Heelwat	Baie
1 (0%)	2 (1-35%)	3 (36-65%)	4 (66-85%)	5 (86-100%)

1.	Ek raak gefrustreerd met my kind.	_____
2.	Ek skree gedurig op en baklei altyd met my kind.	_____
3.	My kind vertrou my oordeel.	_____
4.	Ek vertrou my kind.	_____
5.	My kind respekteer my gevoelens.	_____
6.	Ek voel kwaad vir my kind.	_____
7.	Ek word maklik ontsteld naby my kind.	_____
8.	My kind verstaan my.	_____
9.	My kind gee om vir my sienswyse.	_____
10.	Wanneer ek kwaad is, verstaan my kind die situasie dikwels.	_____
11.	Ek voel my kind is ᵻn goeie kind.	_____
12.	My kind aanvaar my soos ek is.	_____
13.	Ek wens ek het ᵻn ander kind gehad.	_____
14.	Ek bespreek my moeilikhede met my kind.	_____
15.	Wanneer my kind weet iets pla my, vra hy/sy my daarna.	_____
16.	Ek vertel my kind van my probleme.	_____
17.	Ek kan op my kind staatmaak wanneer ek iets van my hart af moet kry.	_____
18.	My kind weet wanneer ek ontsteld is oor iets.	_____
19.	Ek hou daarvan om my kind se sienswyse te kry oor dinge waaroor ek beswaard voel.	_____
20.	Wanneer ek swaarmoedig of alleen voel, spandeer ek tyd met my kind.	_____
21.	My kind help my om myself beter te verstaan.	_____
22.	Ek hou nie daarvan dat my kind my aanraak nie.	_____
23.	Om met my kind te praat oor my probleme, laat my skaam en soos ᵻn gek voel.	_____
24.	Ek voel dat dit geen doel dien om my gevoelens voor my kind te wys nie.	_____
25.	My kind het sy/haar eie probleme en ek wil hom/haar nie pla met my probleme nie.	_____

VERHOUDING NABYHEID INVENTARIS – OUERS

Instruksie:
Hierdie vraelys moet beantwoord word deur die OUERS.
Beantwoord asseblief die volgende vrae oor u verhoudings met u adolessent kind
Gedurende die afgelope week, wat was die gemiddelde hoeveelheid tyd per dag wat u alleen met u kind in die oggend deurgebring het (b.v. tussen die tyd wat u wakker geword het en 12:00nm)?
____uur/ure ____minute
Gedurende die afgelope week, wat was die gemiddelde hoeveelheid tyd per dag wat u alleen met u kind in die middag deurgebring het (b.v. tussen 12:00nm en 18:00nm)?
____uur/ure ____minute
Gedurende die afgelope week, wat was die gemiddelde hoeveelheid tyd per dag wat u alleen met u kind in die aand deurgebring het (b.v. tussen 18:00nm en slaaptyd)?
____uur/ure ____minute
In vergelyking met die õnormaleö hoeveelheid tyd wat u gewoonlik met u kind alleen spandeer, hoe tipies was die afgelope week? *(Merk 'n kruisie by een)*
____tipies _____nie tipies nie ....as dit so is hoekom? *(Verduidelik asseblief)*
_____

Die volgende is 'n lys van verskillende aktiwiteite waaraan mens deur die loop van een week kan deelneem. Vir elkeen van hierdie aktiwiteite, merk 'n kruisie by dié waaraaan u en u kind *alleen* deelgeneem het gedurende die afgelope week. Merk net daardie aktiwiteite wat u *alleen* met u kind gedoen het, *nie in die teenwoordigheid van ander nie.*
Gedurende die afgelope week, het ek die volgende aktiwiteite *alleen* met my kind gedoen...
(Merk almal wat op u van toepassing is):

_ Wasgoed gedoen
_ 'n Maaltyd voorberei
_ Televisie gekyk
_ Na 'n restuarant toe gegaan
_ Na 'n kruidenierswinkel toe gegaan
_ Op 'n stappie / op 'n rit gegaan
_ Het oor persoonlike dinge gepraat
_ Het 'n partytjie beplan
_ Het op 'n vakansie gegaan / weg gegaan vir die naweek
_ Het die huis skoongemaak
_ Het kerk toe gegaan / 'n geestelike funksie bygewoon
_ Tuiswerk gedoen
_ Het oor onpersoonlike dinge gepraat
_ Het na 'n klerewinkel gegaan

_ Het oor die telefoon gepraat
_ Gaan fliek
_ Het 'n maal geëet
_ Aan sport aktiwiteite deelgeneem
_ Na 'n smokkie toegegaan
_ Het familie besoek
_ Het vriende/vriendinne besoek
_ Het kaart gespeel
_ Het 'n sport gebeurtenis bygewoon
_ Het geoefen
_ Het op 'n uitstappie gegaan (b.v. pikniek, strand)
_ Het gaan dans
_ 'n Partytjie bygewoon
_ Het musiek gespeel / gesing

Die volgende vrae handel oor hoeveel u kind u gedagtes, gevoelens, en gedrag beïnvloed. Gebruik die 7-punt skaal onderaan en dui asseblief die mate wat u saamstem of nie saamstem nie deur die toepaslike nommer te skryf.

Glad nie	‑n Bietjie	Toevallig	Soms	Dikwels	Amper altyd	Heeltemaal
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1.	My kind sal my toekomstige geldelike sekerheid beïnvloed.	
2.	My kind beïnvloed nie die daaglikse dinge in my lewe nie.	
3.	My kind beïnvloed belangrike dinge in my lewe.	
4.	My kind beïnvloed watter partytjies en sosiale gebeurtenisse ek bywoon.	
5.	My kind beïnvloed die mate waarin ek verantwoordelikheid in ons verhouding aanvaar.	
6.	My kind beïnvloed nie die hoeveelheid tyd wat aan ek huistake spandeer nie.	
7.	My kind beïnvloed nie hoe ek kies om my geld te spandeer nie.	
8.	My kind beïnvloed hoe ek oor myself voel.	
9.	My kind beïnvloed nie my buie nie.	
10.	My kind beïnvloed my basiese waardes.	
11.	My kind beïnvloed nie die opinies wat ek oor ander belangrike mense in my lewe het nie.	
12.	My kind beïnvloed nie wanneer ek my gesin sien, of tyd saam met hulle deurbring nie.	
13.	My kind beïnvloed nie wanneer ek sien of tyd saam met vriende/vriendinne deurbring nie.	
14.	My kind beïnvloed nie watter van my vriende/vriendinne ek sien nie.	
15.	My kind beïnvloed nie die tipe werk wat ek doen nie.	
16.	My kind beïnvloed die hoeveelheid tyd wat ek bestee aan my werk.	
17.	My kind sal nie my kanse om goeie werk in die toekoms te kry beïnvloed nie.	
18.	My kind beïnvloed hoe ek oor die toekoms voel.	
19.	My kind het nie die vermoë om my te beïnvloed hoe ek my in verskillende situaties gedra nie.	
20.	My kind beïnvloed my totale geluk en dra daartoe by.	
21.	My kind beïnvloed nie my huidige geldelike sekerheid nie.	
22.	My kind beïnvloed hoe ek my vryetyd bestee.	
23.	My kind beïnvloed wanneer ek hom/haar sien en die hoeveelheid tyd wat ons twee saam deurbring.	
24.	My kind beïnvloed nie hoe ek aantrek nie.	
25.	My kind beïnvloed hoe ek my huis versier.	
26.	My kind beïnvloed nie waar ek woon nie.	
27.	My kind beïnvloed wat ek op televisie kyk.	

Die volgende items gaan oor hoeveel u kind u toekomsplanne en doelwitte beïnvloed. Gebruik die 7-punt skaal onderaan. Dui asseblief hoeveel u kind u toekomsplanne en doelwitte beïnvloed, deur die toepaslike nommer te skryf. As ‑n item nie u situasie pas nie, skryf ‑n 1.

Glad nie	‑n Bietjie	Toevallig	Soms	Dikwels	Amper altyd	Heeltemaal
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1.	My vakansie planne	_____
2.	My huwelik	_____
3.	My planne om nog kinders te hê	_____
4.	My planne om ‑n groot belegging te maak (b.v. huis, motor, ens.)	_____
5.	My planne om aan ‑n klub, sosiale organisasie, kerk, ens., te behort	_____
6.	My planne in verband met werk	_____
7.	My planne om ‑n n spesifieke finansiële lewenstandaard te bereik	_____

INVENTORY OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT – ADOLESCENT CHILDREN
(IPPA; MOTHER & FATHER VERSION)

Instructions: **The following questionnaire needs to be completed by ADOLESCENT CHILDREN. Please answer the following questions regarding your relationship with your MOTHER. Only write down the appropriate number in the right-hand column.**

Use the following scale:

Almost never / never true	Not very often true	Sometimes true	Almost always	Always true
1	2	3	4	5

1. My mother respects my feeling.	_____
2. I feel my mother does a good job as my mother.	_____
3. I wish I had a different mother.	_____
4. My mother accepts me as I am.	_____
5. I like to get my mother's point of view on things I'm concerned about.	_____
6. My mother can tell when I'm upset about something.	_____
7. Talking over my problems with my mother makes me feel ashamed or foolish.	_____
8. My mother expects too much from me.	_____
9. I get upset easily around my mother.	_____
10. I get upset a lot more than my mother knows about.	_____
11. When we discuss things, my mother cares about my point of view.	_____
12. My mother trusts my judgment.	_____
13. My mother helps me to understand myself better.	_____
14. I tell my mother about my problems and troubles.	_____
15. I feel angry with my mother.	_____
16. I don't get much attention from my mother.	_____
17. My mother helps me to talk about my difficulties.	_____
18. My mother understands me.	_____
19. When I am angry about something, my mother tries to be understanding.	_____
20. I trust my mother.	_____
21. I can count on my mother when I need to get something off my chest.	_____
22. If my mother knows something is bothering me, she asks me about it.	_____

Now, please answer the following questions regarding your relationship with your FATHER. Only write down the appropriate number in the right-hand column.

Use the following scale:

Almost never / never true	Not very often true	Sometimes true	Almost always	Always true
1	2	3	4	5

1. My father respects my feeling.	_____
2. I feel my father does a good job as my father.	_____
3. I wish I had a different father.	_____
4. My father accepts me as I am.	_____
5. I like to get my father's point of view on things I'm concerned about.	_____
6. My father can tell when I'm upset about something.	_____
7. Talking over my problems with my father makes me feel ashamed or foolish.	_____
8. My father expects too much from me.	_____
9. I get upset easily around my father.	_____
10. I get upset a lot more than my father knows about.	_____
11. When we discuss things, my father cares about my point of view.	_____
12. My father trusts my judgment.	_____
13. My father helps me to understand myself better.	_____
14. I tell my father about my problems and troubles.	_____
15. I feel angry with my father.	_____
16. I don't get much attention from my father.	_____
17. My father helps me to talk about my difficulties.	_____
18. My father understands me.	_____
19. When I am angry about something, my father tries to be understanding.	_____
20. I trust my father.	_____
21. I can count on my father when I need to get something off my chest.	_____
22. If my father knows something is bothering me, she asks me about it.	_____

REVISED INVENTORY OF PARENTAL ATTACHMENT (R-IPA) - PARENTS

Instructions: **The following questionnaire needs to be completed by PARENTS.**

Please answer the following questions regarding your relationship with your adolescent child. Only write down the appropriate number in the right-hand column.

Use the following scale:

Almost never / never true	Not very often true	Sometimes true	Almost always	Always true
1	2	3	4	5

1. I get frustrated with my child.	_____
2. I am constantly yelling and fighting with my child.	_____
3. My child trusts my judgment.	_____
4. I trust my child.	_____
5. My child respects my feelings.	_____
6. I feel angry with my child.	_____
7. I get upset easily around my child.	_____
8. My child understands me.	_____
9. My child cares about my point of view.	_____
10. When I am angry, my child often understands.	_____
11. I feel my child is good.	_____
12. My child accepts me as I am.	_____
13. I wish I had a different child.	_____
14. I talk to my child about my difficulties.	_____
15. If my child knows sometime is bothering me, he/she asks me about it.	_____
16. I tell my child about my problems.	_____
17. I can count on my child when I need to get something off my chest.	_____
18. My child can tell when I´m upset about something.	_____
19. I like to get my child´s point of view on things I am concerned about.	_____
20. When I feel sad and lonely, I spend time with my child.	_____
21. My child helps me understand myself better.	_____
22. I don´t like my child to touch me.	_____
23. Talking over my problems with my child makes me feel ashamed or foolish.	_____
24. I feel it is no use letting my feelings show around my child.	_____
25. My child has his/her own problems so I don´t bother him/her with my problems.	_____

RELATIONSHIP CLOSENESS INVENTORY (RCI) – ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

<u>**Instruction**</u>**: The following questionnaire needs to be completed by ADOLESCENT CHILDREN.**
Please answer the following questions regarding your relationship with your mother and your father.
During the past week, what was the average amount of time, per day, that you spent alone with your parent in the morning (e.g., between the time you wake and 12 noon)?
mother ____hour(s) _____minutes
father ____hour(s) _____minutes
During the past week, what was the average amount of time, per day, that you spent alone with your parent in the afternoon (e.g., between 12 noon and 6 pm)?
mother ____hour(s) _____minutes
father ____hour(s) _____minutes
During the past week, what was the average amount of time, per day, that you spent alone with your parent in the evening (e.g., between 6 pm and bedtime)?
mother ____hour(s) _____minutes
father ____hour(s) _____minutes
Compared with the "normal" amount of time you usually spend alone with your **mother**, how typical was
the past week? (Check one) _____typical _____not typical. . . if so, why? (please explain)
_____
Compared with the õnormalö amount of time you usually spend alone with your **father**, how typical was *the past week? (Check one)* _____typical _____not typical. . . if so, why? (please explain)
_____

The following is a list of different activities that people may engage in over the course of one week. For each of the activities listed, please check all of those that you have engaged in *alone* with your parent in the past week. Check only those activities that were done *alone* with your mother and *not* done in the presence of others. *In the past week,* I did the following activities *alone* my **MOTHER**: *(Check all that apply)*

_ Did laundry
_ Prepared a meal
_ Watched tv
_ Went to a restaurant
_ Went to a grocery store
_ Went for a walk/drive
_ Discussed things of a personal nature
_ Planned a party/social event
_ Attended class
_ Went on a trip (e.g., vacation or weekend)
_ Cleaned house/apartment
_ Went to church/religious function
_ Worked on homework
_ Discussed things of a non-personal nature

_ Went to a clothing store
_ Talked on the phone
_ Went to a movie
_ Ate a meal
_ Participated in a sporting activity
_ Went to a bar
_ Visited family
_ Visited friends
_ Played cards/board game
_ Attended a sporting event
_ Exercised (e.g., jogging, aerobics)
_ Went on an outing (e.g., picnic, beach)
_ Went dancing
_ Went to a party
_ Played music/sang

The following is a list of different activities that people may engage in over the course of one week. For each of the activities listed, please check all of those that you have engaged in *alone* with your parent in the past week. Check only those activities that were done *alone* with your father and *not* done in the presence of others. *In the past week,* I did the following activities *alone* my **FATHER**: *(Check all that apply)*

_ Did laundry	_ Went to a clothing store
_ Prepared a meal	_ Talked on the phone
_ Watched tv	_ Went to a movie
_ Went to a restaurant	_ Ate a meal
_ Went to a grocery store	_ Participated in a sporting activity
_ Went for a walk/drive	_ Went to a bar
_ Discussed things of a personal nature	_ Visited family
_ Planned a party/social event	_ Visited friends
_ Attended class	_ Played cards/board game
_ Went on a trip (e.g., vacation or weekend)	_ Attended a sporting event
_ Cleaned house/apartment	_ Exercised (e.g., jogging, aerobics)
_ Went to church/religious function	_ Went on an outing (e.g., picnic, beach)
_ Worked on homework	_ Went dancing
_ Discussed things of a non-personal nature	_ Went to a party
	_ Played music/sang

The following questions concern the amount of influence your parents has on your thoughts, feelings, and behaviour. Using the 7-point scale below, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by writing the appropriate number in the space corresponding to each item.

Not at all	A little	Occassionally	Sometimes	Often	Almost always	Very much
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1.	My **mother** will influence my future financial security.	_____
	My **father** will influence my future financial security.	_____
2.	My **mother** does *not* influence everyday things in my life.	_____
	My **father** does *not* influence everyday things in my life.	_____
3.	My **mother** influences important things in my life.	_____
	My **father** influences important things in my life.	_____
4.	My **mother** influences which parties and other social events I attend.	_____
	My **father** influences which parties and other social events I attend.	_____
5.	My **mother** influences the extent to which I accept responsibilities in our relationship.	_____
	My **father** influences the extent to which I accept responsibilities in our relationship.	_____
6.	My **mother** does *not* influence how much time I spend doing household work.	_____
	My **father** does *not* influence how much time I spend doing household work.	_____
7.	My **mother** does *not* influence how I choose to spend my money.	_____
	My **father** does *not* influence how I choose to spend my money.	_____
8.	My **mother** influences the way I feel about myself.	_____
	My **father** influences the way I feel about myself.	_____
9.	My **mother** does *not* influence my moods.	_____
	My **father** does *not* influence my moods.	_____
10.	My **mother** influences the basic values that I hold.	_____
	My **father** influences the basic values that I hold.	_____
11.	My **mother** does *not* influence the opinions that I have of other important people in my life.	_____
	My **father** does *not* influence the opinions that I have of other important people in my life.	_____
12.	My **mother** does *not* influence when I see, and the amount of time I spend with my family.	_____
	My **father** does not influence when I see, and the amount of time I spend with my family.	_____

13.	My **mother** influences when I see, and the amount of time I spend with, my friends.	_____
	My **father** influences when I see, and the amount of time I spend with, my friends.	_____
14.	My **mother** does *not* influence which of my friends I see.	_____
	My **father** does *not* influence which of my friends I see.	_____
15.	My **mother** does *not* influence the type of career I will have.	_____
	My **father** does *not* influence the type of career will I have.	_____
16.	My **mother** influences or will influence how much time I devote to my career.	_____
	My **father** influences or will influence how much time I devote to my career.	_____
17.	My **mother** does *not* influence my chances of getting a good job in the future.	_____
	My **father** does *not* influence my chances of getting a good job in the future.	_____
18.	My **mother** influences the way I feel about the future.	_____
	My **father** influences the way I feel about the future.	_____
19.	My **mother** does *not* have the capacity to influence how I act in various situations.	_____
	My **father** does *not* have the capacity to influence how I act in various situations.	_____
20.	My **mother** influences and contributes to my overall happiness.	_____
	My **mother** influences and contributes to my overall happiness.	_____
21.	My **mother** does *not* influence my present financial security.	_____
	My **father** does *not* influence my present financial security.	_____
22.	My **mother** influences how I spend my free time.	_____
	My **father** influences how I spend my free time.	_____
23.	My **mother** influences when I see her and the amount of time the two of us spend together.	_____
	My **father** influences when I see him and the amount of time the two of us spend together.	_____
24.	My **mother** does *not* influence how I dress.	_____
	My **father** does *not* influence how I dress.	_____
25.	My **mother** influences how I decorate my room.	_____
	My **father** influences how I decorate my room.	_____
26.	My **mother** does *not* influence where I live.	_____
	My **father** does *not* influence where I live.	_____
27.	My **mother** influences what I watch on TV.	_____
	My **father** influences what I watch on TV.	_____
28.	My **mother** will influence my future financial security.	_____
	My **father** will influence my future financial security.	_____
29.	My **mother** does *not* influence everyday things in my life.	_____
	My **mother** does *not* influence everyday things in my life.	_____
30.	My **mother** influences important things in my life.	_____
	My **father** influences important things in my life.	_____

The following items deal with the amount of influence your parents have on your future plans and goals. Using the 7-point scale below, please indicate the degree to which your future plans and goals are affected by your parents by writing the appropriate number in the space corresponding to each item. If an area does not apply to you, write a 1.

Not at all	A little	Occassionally	Sometimes	Often	Almost always	Very much
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1.	My vacation plans	**Mother**	_____
		Father	_____
2.	My marriage plans	**Mother**	_____
		Father	_____
3.	My plans to have children	**Mother**	_____
		Father	_____
4.	My plans to make *major* investments (house, car, etc.)	**Mother**	_____
		Father	_____
5.	My plans to join a club, social organization, church, etc.	**Mother**	_____
		Father	_____
6.	My school-related plans	**Mother**	_____
		Father	_____
7.	My plans for achieving a particular financial standard of living	**Mother**	_____
		Father	_____

RELATIONSHIP CLOSENESS INVENTORY (RCI) – PARENTS

Instruction: **The following questionnaire needs to be completed by PARENTS.**
Please answer the following questions regarding your relationship with your child.

During the past week, what was the average amount of time, per day, that you spent alone with your child in the morning (e.g., between the time you wake and 12 noon)?
_____hour(s) _____minutes
During the past week, what was the average amount of time, per day, that you spent alone with your child in the afternoon (e.g., between 12 noon and 6 pm)?
_____hour(s) _____minutes
During the past week, what was the average amount of time, per day, that you spent alone with your child in the evening (e.g., between 6 pm and bedtime)?
_____hour(s) _____minutes
Compared with the "normal" amount of time you usually spend alone with your child, how typical was *the past week? (Check one)* _____typical _____not typical. . . if so, why? (please explain)
_____
_____

The following is a list of different activities that people may engage in over the course of one week. For each of the activities listed, please check all of those that you have engaged in *alone* with your child in the past week. Check only those activities that were done *alone* with your child and *not* done in the presence of others. *In the past week,* I did the following activities *alone* my child: *(Check all that apply)*

- _ Did laundry
- _ Prepared a meal
- _ Watched tv
- _ Went to a restaurant
- _ Went to a grocery store
- _ Went for a walk/drive
- _ Discussed things of a personal nature
- _ Planned a party/social event
- _ Attended class
- _ Went on a trip (e.g., vacation or weekend)
- _ Cleaned house/apartment
- _ Went to church/religious function
- _ Worked on homework
- _ Discussed things of a non-personal nature
- _ Went to a clothing store
- _ Talked on the phone
- _ Went to a movie
- _ Ate a meal
- _ Participated in a sporting activity
- _ Went to a bar
- _ Visited family
- _ Visited friends
- _ Played cards/board game
- _ Attended a sporting event

- _ Exercised (e.g., jogging, aerobics)
- _ Went on an outing (e.g., picnic, beach)
- _ Went dancing
- _ Went to a party
- _ Played music/sang

The following questions concern the amount of influence your child has on your thoughts, feelings, and behaviour. Using the 7-point scale below, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by writing the appropriate number in the space corresponding to each item.

Not at all	A little	Occassionally	Sometimes	Often	Almost always	Very much
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1.	My **child** will influence my future financial security.	_____
2.	My **child** does *not* influence everyday things in my life.	_____
3.	My **child** influences important things in my life.	_____
4.	My **child** influences which parties and other social events I attend.	_____
5.	My **child** influences the extent to which I accept responsibilities in our relationship.	_____
6.	My **child** does *not* influence how much time I spend doing household work.	_____
7.	My **child** does *not* influence how I choose to spend my money.	_____
8.	My **child** influences the way I feel about myself.	_____
9.	My **child** does *not* influence my moods.	_____
10.	My **child** influences the basic values that I hold.	_____
11.	My **child** does *not* influence the opinions that I have of other important people in my life.	_____
12.	My **child** does *not* influence when I see, and the amount of time I spend with, my family.	_____
13.	My **child** influences when I see, and the amount of time I spend with, my friends.	_____
14.	My **child** does *not* influence which of my friends I see.	_____
15.	My **child** does *not* influence the type of career I have.	_____
16.	My **child** influences or will influence how much time I devote to my career.	_____
17.	My **child** does *not* influence my chances of getting a good job in the future.	_____
18.	My **child** influences the way I feel about the future.	_____
19.	My **child** does *not* have the capacity to influence how I act in various situations.	_____
20.	My **child** influences and contributes to my overall happiness.	_____
21.	My **child** does *not* influence my present financial security.	_____
22.	My **child** influences how I spend my free time.	_____
23.	My **child** influences when I see him/her and the amount of time the two of us spend together.	_____
24.	My **child** does *not* influence how I dress.	_____
25.	My **child** influences how I decorate my home.	_____
26.	My **child** does *not* influence where I live.	_____
27.	My **child** influences what I watch on TV.	_____

The following items deal with the amount of influence your child has on your future plans and goals. Using the 7-point scale below, please indicate the degree to which your future plans and goals are affected by your child by writing the appropriate number in the space corresponding to each item. If an area does not apply to you, write a 1.

Not at all	A little	Occassionally	Sometimes	Often	Almost always	Very much
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1.	My vacation plans	_____
2.	My marriage	_____
3.	My plans to have more children	_____
4.	My plans to make *major* investments (house, car, etc.)	_____
5.	My plans to join a club, social organization, church, etc.	_____
6.	My school-related plans	_____
7.	My plans for achieving a particular financial standard of living	_____

Navrae **Enquiries** *IMibuzo*	**Dr RS Cornelissen**			
Telefoon **Telephone** *IFoni*	**(021) 467-2286**		**Wes-Kaap Onderwysdepartement**	
Faks **Fax** *IFeksi*	**(021) 425-7445**		**Western Cape Education Department**	
Verwysing **Reference** *ISalathiso*	**20090227-0015**		**ISebe leMfundo leNtshona Koloni**	

Dear Mrs O. Bomester

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: EXPLORING CLOSENESS IN PARENT-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIPS IN A SEMI-RURAL LOW-INCOME COMMUNITY IN THE WESTERN CAPE.

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educatorsø programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The Study is to be conducted from **27th February 2009 to 29th May 2009**.
6. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
7. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr R. Cornelissen at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number.
8. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
9. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
10. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
11. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

The Director: Research Services
Western Cape Education Department
Private Bag X9114
CAPE TOWN
8000
We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.

Signed: Ronald S. Cornelissen
for: **HEAD: EDUCATION**
DATE: 27th February 2009

ONDERHOUD VRAE

1. Wanneer spandeer julle (ma, pa en adolessent) gewoonlik tyd saam met mekaar? Wat doen julle dan? Hoe is hierdie tye vir julle?

2. Geniet julle **(as 'n familie)** om saam tyd met mekaar te spandeer?

3. Wens julle dat julle meer tyd met mekaar kan hê?

4. Wanneer en hoe spandeer **ma** en adolessent tyd saam? Wat doen julle dan? Hoe is hierdie tye vir julle? Geniet julle om saam tyd met mekaar te spandeer? Wens julle dat julle meer tyd met mekaar kan hê?

5. Wanneer en hoe spandeer **pa** en adolessent tyd saam? Wat doen julle dan? Hoe is hierdie tye vir julle? Geniet julle om saam tyd met mekaar te spandeer? Wens julle dat julle meer tyd met mekaar kan hê?

6. As mens praat van nabyheid tussen ouer en kind, wat is dit wat julle daaronder verstaan, met ander woorde waarvan praat ons?

7. Hoe naby voel julle drie op die oomblik aan mekaar? Hoekom sê julle so? Wat dink julle is die rede hoekom julle tans so voel?

8. Hoe naby voel julle gewoonlik aan mekaar? Hoekom sê julle so? Wat dink julle is die rede hoekom julle tans so voel?

9. Hoe na voel ma en adolessent op die oomblik aan mekaar? Stem julle saam hieroor? Vra pa of hy met ma en kind saamstem oor hulle antwoorde. Wat dink julle is die rede waarom julle so naby of ver van mekaar voel op hierdie stadium? Hoe na voel pa en adolessent op die oomblik aan mekaar? Stem julle saam hieroor? Vra ma of sy met ma en kind saamstem oor hulle antwoorde. Wat dink julle is die rede waarom julle so naby of ver van mekaar voel op hierdie stadium?

10. Voel julle dat daar respek tussen julle is? Verduidelik asseblief.

11. Aanvaar julle mekaar soos julle is? Verduidelik asseblief.

12. Weet julle as die ander ontsteld oor iets is, en wat doen julle gewoonlik daaroor?

13. Praat julle oor gewone, alledaagse dinge met mekaar? Vra vir voorbeelde. Hoe maklik of hoe moeilik is dit om met mekaar hieroor te praat?

14. Praat julle oor persoonlike dinge met mekaar? Vra vir voorbeelde. Hoe maklik of hoe moeilik is dit om met mekaar hieroor te praat?

15. Praat julle oor probleme in die familie? Voorbeelde? Hoe maklik of moeilik is dit om hieroor met mekaar te praat?

16. Hoe gee julle aandag aan mekaar? Kry julle genoeg aandag van mekaar? Verduidelik asseblief.

17. Hoe dikwels raak julle aan mekaar? Wie gee vir wie soentjies en drukkies? Hoekom is dit so?

18. Voel jy (adolessent) dat jou ouers vir jou versorging en aandag gee? Verduidelik antwoord asseblief.

19. Voel jy (ma) dat jou kind vir jou versorging en aandag gee? Verduidelik antwoord

20. Voel jy (pa) dat jou kind vir jou versorging en aandag gee? Verduidelik antwoord.

21. Sê julle vir mekaar mooi dinge? Hoe dikwels? Voorbeelde?

22. Is julle daar vir mekaar as die ander hulp nodig het? Verduidelik. Voorbeelde.

DEELNEMERINLIGTINGSBLAD EN –TOESTEMMINGSVORM
VIR GEBRUIK DEUR <u>ADOLESSENTE LEERDERS</u>

TITEL VAN DIE NAVORSINGSPROJEK:
ŉ Ondersoek van nabyheid tussen ouers en adolessente in ŉ semi-plattelands, lae-inkomste gemeenskap in die Wes Kaapprovinsie van Suid-Afrika
HOOFNAVORSER: Mev. Olivia Bomester (MA Sielkunde student, Departement Sielkunde aan die Universiteit Stellenbosch)
ADRES: Departement Sielkunde, Universiteit van Stellenbosch, Privaatsak XI, Matieland, 7602
KONTAKNOMMER: (021)8507552 / 0828398460
Jy word genooi om deel te neem aan ŉ navorsingsprojek. Lees asseblief hierdie inligtingsblad op jou eie tyd deur aangesien die detail van die navorsingsprojek daarin verduidelik word. Indien daar enige deel van die navorsingsprojek is wat jy nie ten volle verstaan nie, is jy welkom om die navorser daaroor uit te vra. Dit is baie belangrik dat jy ten volle moet verstaan wat die navorsingsprojek behels en hoe jy daarby betrokke kan wees. Jou deelname is ook **volkome vrywillig** en dit staan jou vry om deelname te weier. Jy sal op geen wyse hoegenaamd negatief beïnvloed word indien jy sou weier om deel te neem nie. Jy mag ook ten enige tyd van die navorsingsprojek onttrek, selfs al het jy ingestem om deel te neem.
Hierdie navorsingsprojek is deur die Komitee vir Mensnavorsing van die Universiteit Stellenbosch goedgekeur en sal uitgevoer word volgens die etiese riglyne en beginsels van die Internasionale Verklaring van Helsinki en die Etiese Riglyne vir Navorsing van die Mediese Navorsingsraad (MNR).
Wat behels hierdie navorsingsprojek?

Ons weet nie baie van Suid Afrikaanse ouer-kind verhoudings nie. Die doel van hierdie studie is om nabyheid tussen ouers en adolessente te ondersoek.

Dit moet gesê word dat jy die reg het om nie in hierdie studie deel te neem nie, en as jy kies om deel te neem, het jy die keuse om enige tyde te onttrek sonder dat enige vrae gevra word. Alle vrae oor verhoudinge sal anononiem hanteer word.

Waarom is jy genooi om deel te neem?

Jy is gekies om deel te neem omdat jy ŉ lid van die tipe gemeenskap waarin die navorser geintereseerd is. Jy is ook in die ouderdomsgroep waaroor ek meer wil weet.

Wat sal jou verantwoordelikhede wees?

Ek vra dat jy toestemming gee om deel te neem in hierdie studie deur die toestemmingsvorm te teken.

Sal jy voordeel trek deur deel te neem aan hierdie navorsingsprojek?

Nie baie kinders kry die geleentheid om diep te dink en hulle verhoudings met hulle ouers te eksploreer nie. Jou gewilligheid om deel te neem aan hierdie studie maak so ŉ geleentheid moontlik. Dit mag ŉ waardevolle leer ondervinding wees vir albei kind en ouer. ŉ Oorvloed van internasionle navorsing is reeds gedoen oor hierdie onderwerp, maar ek benodig jou hulp om myself sowel as ander navorsers beter insig te gee oor die nabyheid van Suid-Afrikanse

ouer/kind verhoudings. Hierdie inligting sal ook tot voordeel wees vir meer effektiewe programme in die toekoms om die ouer/kind verhoudinge in jou gemeenskap te verbeter.

Is daar enige risiko's verbonde aan u deelname aan hierdie navorsingsprojek?

Dit behoort interessant vir albei ouers en adolessente te wees om aandag aan hulle verhoudings te gee. Alhoewel geen vrae baie persoonlik is nie, kan sekere vrae ongemaklikheid veroorsaak. Dit is dan belangrik vir alle deelnemers om te onthou dat indien hulle kies om nie sekere vrae te beantwoord nie, hulle van die studie kan onttrek. Ouers en adolessente mag bewus word van sekere probleme in hulle verhoudinge en dalk professionele hulp benodig. Die navorser sal nie professionele hulp kan gee nie, maar sal in staat wees om die deelnemer na ŉ person of organisasie te verwys.

Watter alternatiewe is daar indien u nie instem om deel te neem nie?

As jy nie instem om deelteneem nie, sal jy nie negatief geaffekteer word nie.

Wie sal toegang hê tot jou rekords?

Elke stukkie inligting sal vertroulik wees. Na alle vraelyste gekollekteer is, sal ek nie noodwendig met die deelnemers in kontak wees nie. Geen kontak inligting word van deelnemers verwag nie. Die vraelyste sal onder slot en grendel in my kantoor gehou word. Slegs ek en my studieleier, Dr Lesch, sal toegang tot die data hê.
Die uitslae van die studie sal deel van my tesis wees; hierdie uitslae sal aan die skoolhoof gegee word. Enige person wat graag meer inligting oor die uitslae wil hê kan genooi word na ŉ terugvoeringsessie waar vrae oor die studie beantwoord en bespreek kan word.

Sal jy betaal word vir deelname aan die navorsingsprojek en is daar enige koste verbonde aan deelname?

Ja, jou familie sal R100 betaal word vir deelname aan die projek.

Is daar enigiets anders wat jy moet weet of doen?

Indien jy vrae het oor jou regte as ŉ deelnemer vir navorsing, kan jy Mej Maryke Hunter-Husselmann van die Eenheid vir Navorsingsontwikkeling kontak by 021-808-4623.
Jy kan die Komitee vir Mensnavorsing kontak by 021-938 9207 indien jy enige bekommernis of klagte het wat nie bevredigend deur die navorser hanteer is nie.

Jy sal ŉ afskrif van hierdie inligtings- en toestemmingsvorm ontvang vir jou eie rekords.

Verklaring deur deelnemer

Met die ondertekening van hierdie dokument onderneem ek, í í ....í í í .....í í ...í í í ..,

om deel te neem aan die navorsingsprojek getiteld

'n Ondersoek van nabyheid tussen ouers en adolessente in 'n semi-plattelands, lae-inkomste gemeenskap in die Wes Kaapprovinsie van Suid-Afrika
Ek verklaar dat:

- Ek hierdie inligtings- en toestemmingsvorm gelees het of aan my laat voorlees het en dat dit in ‑n taal geskryf is waarin ek vaardig en gemaklik mee is.

- Ek geleentheid gehad het om vrae te stel en dat al my vrae bevredigend beantwoord is.

- Ek verstaan dat deelname aan hierdie navorsingsprojek **vrywillig** is en dat daar geen druk op my geplaas is om deel te neem nie.

- Ek ten enige tyd van die navorsingsprojek mag onttrek en dat ek nie op enige wyse daardeur benadeel sal word nie.

- Ek gevra mag word om van die navorsingsprojek te onttrek voordat dit afgehandel is indien die navorser van oordeel is dat dit in my beste belang is, of indien ek nie die ooreengekome navorsingsplan volg nie.

Geteken te *(plek)* ....í í í í í .. op *(datum)* í í í í ....í í í .. 2009.

....

Handtekening van deelnemer   Handtekening van getuie

Verklaring deur navorser

Ek *(naam)* í í í í í í í í í í í í í ...í í í í í í verklaar dat:

- Ek die inligting in hierdie dokument verduidelik het aan

  í í í í í í í í ....í í í ..

- Ek hom/haar aangemoedig het om vrae te vra en voldoende tyd gebruik het om dit te beantwoord.

- Ek tevrede is dat hy/sy al die aspekte van die navorsingsprojek soos hierbo bespreek, voldoende verstaan.

- Ek ‑n tolk gebruik het/nie ‑n tolk gebruik het nie.

Geteken te *(plek)* ....í í í í í .. op *(datum)* í í í í ....í í í .. 2009.

....

Handtekening van navorser   Handtekening van getuie

DEELNEMERINLIGTINGSBLAD EN -TOESTEMMINGSVORM VIR
GEBRUIK DEUR <u>OUERS</u>

TITEL VAN DIE NAVORSINGSPROJEK: ̶n Ondersoek van nabyheid tussen ouers en adolessente in ̶n semi-plattelands, lae-inkomste gemeenskap in die Wes Kaapprovinsie van Suid-Afrika
HOOFNAVORSER: Mev. Olivia Bomester (MA Sielkunde student, Departement Sielkunde aan die Universiteit Stellenbosch)

ADRES: Departement Sielkunde, Universiteit van Stellenbosch, Privaatsak XI, Matieland, 7602

KONTAKNOMMER: (021)8507552 / 0828398460

U en u kind word genooi om deel te neem aan ̶n navorsingsprojek. Lees asseblief hierdie inligtingsblad deur op u eie tyd aangesien die detail van die projek daarin verduidelik word. Indien daar enige deel van die projek is wat u nie ten volle verstaan nie, is u welkom om die navorser te kontak. Dit is baie belangrik dat u ten volle moet verstaan wat die navorsing behels en hoe u en u kind daarby betrokke kan wees. U en u kind se deelname is ook **volkome vrywillig** en dit staan u en u kind vry om deelname te weier. U en u kind sal op geen wyse hoegenaamd negatief beïnvloed word nie indien u en u kind sou weier om deel te neem nie. U en u kind mag ook te enige tyd aan die studie onttrek, selfs al het u en u kind ingestem om deel teeneem.

Hierdie studie is deur die Komitee vir Mensnavorsing van die Universiteit Stellenbosch goedgekeur en sal uitgevoer word volgens die etiese riglyne en beginsels van die Internasionale Verklaring van Helsinki en die Etiese Riglyne vir Navorsing van die Mediese Navorsingsraad (MNR).

Wat behels hierdie navorsingsprojek?
Ons weet nie baie van Suid Afrikaanse ouer-kind verhoudings nie. Die doel van hierdie studie is om nabyheid tussen ouers en adolessente te ondersoek.
U en u kind die reg het om nie in hierdie studie deel te neem nie, en as julle kies om deel te neem, het julle die keuse om dat enige tyde te ontrek sonder enige vrae gevra word. Alle vrae oor verhoudinge sal anononiem hanteer word.

Waarom is u en u kind genooi om deel te neem?
U en u kind is gekies om deel te neem omdat u en u kind ̶n lid van die tiepe gemeenskap waarin die navorser geinterseerd is. U kind is ook in die ouderdomsgroep waaroor ek meer wil weet.

Wat sal u en u kind se verantwoordelikhede wees?
Ek vra dat u toestemming gee om deelteneem in hierdie studie deur die toestemmingsvorm te teken.

Sal u en u kind voordeel trek deur deel te neem aan hierdie navorsing?
Nie baie ouers en kinders kry die geleentheid om diep te dink en hulle verhoudings met mekaar te eksploreer nie. U en u kind se gewilligheid om deel te neem aan hierdie studie maak so 'n geleentheid moontlik. Dit mag 'n waardevolle leer ondervinding wees vir albei kind en ouer. 'n Oorvloed van internasionle navorsing is reeds gedoen oor hierdie onderwerp, maar ek benodig u hulp om myself sowel as ander navorsers beter insig te gee oor die nabyheid van Suid-Afrikanse ouer/kind verhoudings. Hierdie inligting sal ook tot voordeel wees vir meer effektiewe programme in die toekoms om die ouer/kind verhoudinge in u gemeenskap te verbeter.

Is daar enige risiko's verbonde aan u en u kind se deelname aan hierdie navorsing?

Dit behoort interessant vir albei ouers en adolessente te wees om aandag aan hulle verhoudings te gee. Alhoewel geen vrae baie persoonlik is nie, kan sekere vrae ongemaklikheid veroorsaak. Dit is dan belangrik vir alle deelnemers om te onthou dat indien hulle kies om nie sekere vrae te beantwoord nie, hulle van die studie kan onttrek. Ouers en adolessente mag bewus word van sekere probleme in hulle verhoudinge en dalk professionele hulp benodig. Die navorser sal nie professionele hulp kan gee nie, maar sal in staat wees om die deelnemer na 'n person of organisasie te verwys.

Watter alternatiewe is daar vir u en u kind indien julle nie instem om deel te neem nie?
As u en u kind nie instem om deel te neem nie, sal geen van julle negatief geaffekteer word.

Wie sal toegang hê tot u en u kind se rekords?
Elke stukkie inligting sal vertroulik wees. Na alle vraelyste gekollekteer is, sal ek nie noodwendig met die deelnemers in kontak wees nie. Geen kontak inligting word van deelnemers verwag nie. Die vraelyste sal onder slot en grendel in my kantoor gehou word. Slegs ek en my studieleier, Dr Lesch, sal toegang tot die data hê.
Die uitslae van die studie sal deel van my tesis wees; hierdie uitslae sal aan die skoolhoof gegee word. Enige persoon wat graag meer inligting oor die uitslae wil hê kan genooi word na 'n terugvoeringsessie waar vrae oor die studie beantwoord en bespreek kan word.

Sal u of u kind betaal word vir deelname aan die projek en is daar enige koste verbonde aan deelname?

Ja, jou familie sal R100 betaal word vir deelname aan die projek.

Is daar enigiets anders wat u moet weet of doen?

Indien u vrae het oor jou regte as 'n deelnemer vir navorsing, kan u Mej Maryke Hunter-Husselmann van die Eenheid vir Navorsingsontwikkeling kontak by 021-808-4623.
U kan die Komitee vir Mensnavorsing kontak by 021-938 9207 indien u enige bekommernis of klagte het wat nie bevredigend deur die navorser hanteer is nie.

U sal 'n afskrif van hierdie inligtings- en toestemmingsvorm ontvang vir u eie rekords.

INSTEMMING VAN MINDERJARIGE

Ek (naam van kind/minderjarige) í í í í í í í í í í í í í ....í í í í í . is genooi om deel te neem aan hierdie navorsingsprojek.

- Die navoser en my ouers het die besonderhede van bogenoemde navorsingsprojek aan my verduidelik en ek verstaan wat hulle aan my gesê het.

- Ek weet ook dat ek te enige tyd aan die navorsingsprojek kan onttrek indien ek ongelukkig is.

- Deur my naam hieronder in te vul, onderneem ek om vrywillig aan die navorsingsprojek deel te neem. Ek bevestig ook dat ek nie deur my ouers of die navorser gedwing is om deel te neem nie.

....

Naam van kind   Onafhanklike getuie

(Deur kind geskryf te word indien moontlik)

Verklaring deur ouers

Met die ondertekening van hierdie dokument onderneem ons, (*name van ouers*)
í í í í ....í .., om ons kind *(naam van kind)*
í í í í ....í .., wat .... jaar oud is, te laat deelneem aan ᵻn navorsingsprojek getiteld **'n Ondersoek van nabyheid tussen ouers en adolessente in 'n semi-plattelands, lae-inkomste gemeenskap in die Wes Kaapprovinsie van Suid-Afrika**
Ons verklaar dat:

- Ons hierdie inligtings- en toestemmingsvorm gelees het of aan my laat voorlees het en dat dit in ᵻn taal geskryf is waarin ek vaardig en gemaklik mee is.

- Ons kind moet instem om aan die navorsingsprojek deel te neem as hy/sy ouer as 7 jaar is, en dat sy/haar INSTEMMING op hierdie vorm aangeteken sal word.

- Ons geleentheid gehad het om vrae te stel en dat al my vrae bevredigend beantwoord is.

- Ons verstaan dat deelname aan hierdie projek **vrywillig** is en dat daar geen druk op my geplaas is om my kind te laat deelneem nie.

- Ons kind ten enige tyd van die projek mag onttrek en dat hy/sy nie op enige wyse daardeur benadeel sal word nie.

- Ons kind gevra mag word om aan die projek te onttrek voordat dit afgehandel is indien die studiedokter of navorser van oordeel is dat dit in sy/haar beste belang is, of indien my kind nie die ooreengekome studieplan volg nie.

Geteken te (*plek*) ....í í í í í .. op (*datum*) í í í í ....í í í .. 2009.

....
Handtekening van moeder   Handtekening van getuie

....
Handtekening van vader   Handtekening van getuie

Verklaring deur navorser

Ek (naam) í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í verklaar dat:

- Ek die inligting in hierdie dokument verduidelik het aan hierdie ouers.

- Ek hulle aangemoedig het om vrae te vra en voldoende tyd gebruik het om dit te beantwoord.

- Ek tevrede is dat hulle al die aspekte van die navorsingsprojek soos hierbo bespreek, voldoende verstaan.

- Ek ӊn tolk gebruik het/nie ӊn tolk gebruik het nie.

Geteken te (*plek*) ....í í í í í .. op (*datum*) í í í í ....í í í .. 2009.

....

Handtekening van navorser   Handtekening van getuie

VERKLARING DEUR OUERS

Met die ondertekening van hierdie dokument onderneem ons,

í í ....í í í .....í í ...í í í .., om deel te neem aan ŉn navorsingsprojek

'n Ondersoek van nabyheid tussen ouers en adolessente in 'n semi-plattelands, lae-inkomste gemeenskap in die Wes Kaapprovinsie van Suid-Afrika

Ons verklaar dat:

- Ons hierdie inligtings- en toestemmingsvorm gelees het of aan ons laat voorlees het en dat dit in ŉn taal geskryf is waarin ons vaardig en gemaklik mee is.

- Ons geleentheid gehad het om vrae te stel en dat al ons vrae bevredigend beantwoord is.

- Ons verstaan dat deelname aan hierdie navorsingsprojek **vrywillig** is en dat daar geen druk op ons geplaas is om deel te neem nie.

- Ons te enige tyd aan die navorsingsprojek mag onttrek en dat ons nie op enige wyse daardeur benadeel sal word nie.

- Ons gevra mag word om van die navorsingsprojek te onttrek voordat dit afgehandel is indien die navorser van oordeel is dat dit in ons beste belang is, of indien ek nie die ooreengekome navorsingsplan volg nie.

Geteken te *(plek)* ....í í í í í .. op *(datum)* í í í í ....í í í .. 2009.

....

Handtekening van moeder   Handtekening van getuie

....

Handtekening van vader   Handtekening van getuie

Verklaring deur navorser

Ek *(naam)* í í í í í í í í í í í í í í ...í í í í í í verklaar dat:
- Ek die inligting in hierdie dokument verduidelik het aan hierdie ouers.

- Ek hulle aangemoedig het om vrae te vra en voldoende tyd gebruik het om dit te beantwoord.

- Ek tevrede is dat hulle al die aspekte van die navorsingsprojek soos hierbo bespreek, voldoende verstaan.

- Ek ŉn tolk gebruik het/nie ŉn tolk gebruik het nie.

Geteken te *(plek)* ....í í í í í .. op *(datum)* í í í í ....í í í .. 2009.

....
Handtekening van navorser   Handtekening van getuie

SIMPLE STEP-BY-STEP PROCEDURE FOR INTERVIEWS

1. Please contact the parents telephonically from the Psychology Department. What will you say? [In Afrikaans] õGood morning/afternoon/evening; my name is ___ and I am an Honours student at Stellenbosch University (SU). I received your contact number from your child, who attends Stellenzicht Secondary School. Your child has agreed to take part in a family interview. The research study has been explained to your child recently at school. We at SU would like to know whether you as parent(s) would like to take part in the family interview. We are simply interested in the relationships between parents and their teenage children. The questions are not very personal, for example: we are mainly interested in some of the activities that the family enjoys doing together. You will be paid for the interviewí (Give the respondent a chance to ask questions). Can we arrange a time over the weekend or during the week for the interview to take place? (Arrange a suitable date and time; explain to them that the interview will be conducted at the university. They will need to come to the Psychology Department and will be reimbursed R50,00 for their travelling costs. A fee of R100,00 will be paid for the actual interview, which will take approximately 1 ½ hours. Please provide directions to the SU Psychology Department).

2. Please provide a telephone call / sms to remind the participants of their commitment to the interview date and time.

3. Arrive at the venue beforehand. Arrange the seating accordingly; not too close and not too far apart. Ensure that your equipment (i.e. tape recorder) is working and that you have a notepad and pens. Please also have copies of the consent forms.

4. Introduce yourself; invite them to sit down; take +/- 5 minutes to create rapport. E.g. õIs it the first time that you are at the university? It must feel pretty (fill in whatever)í   please make yourself comfortable. Relax. Before we get started, Iøm just going to explain a few things to all of you.ö

5. Explain main points on the consent form. Please ask them to sign the forms beforehand. (Have a pen available)

6. Conduct the interview. Take special note of nonverbal cues. Is the verbal communication and nonverbal communication generally consistent or inconsistent with each other? Take

note of facial expressions, eye contact, body language, etc. It is perfectly ok if they don't want to answer certain questions. Take a little break if necessary.

7. If anyone wishes to have counseling, please refer them to free counseling services in Stellenbosch, for example the public hospital's counseling services in Idas Valley. Thank them for their participation and finally pay them (R150,00).

Table 5

Subscale Scores for RIPA (Trust)

Effect	Level of factor	Level of factor	N	Mean	SD
Total			60	4.16	0.67
Parent's gender	F		43	4.17	0.69
Parent's gender	M		17	4.14	0.63
Child's gender	F		42	4.22	0.70
Child's gender	M		18	4.03	0.58
Parent's gender x Child's gender	F	F	29	4.25	0.72
Parent's gender x Child's gender	F	M	14	4.02	0.63
Parent's gender x Child's gender	M	F	13	4.17	0.70
Parent's gender x Child's gender	M	M	4	4.06	0.38

Table 6

Subscale Scores for RIPA (Communication)

Effect	Level of factor	Level of factor	N	Mean	SD
Total			61	4.14	0.64
Parent's gender	F		43	4.15	0.65
Parent's gender	M		18	1.43	0.62
Child's gender	F		43	4.13	0.68
Child's gender	M		18	4.15	0.53
Parent's gender x Child's gender	F	F	29	4.13	0.68
Parent's gender x Child's gender	F	M	14	4.18	0.53 0.70
Parent's gender x Child's gender	M	F	14	4.14	0.56 0.68
Parent's gender x Child's gender	M	M	4	4.06	0.41

Table 7

Subscale Scores for RIPA (Alienation)

Effect	Level of factor	Level of factor	N	Mean	SD
Total			61	3.79	0.89
Parent's gender	F		43	3.79	0.79
Parent's gender	M		18	3.78	1.09
Child's gender	F		43	3.78	0.95
Child's gender	M		18	3.81	0.70
Parent's gender x Child's gender	F	F	29	3.85	0.85
Parent's gender x Child's gender	F	M	14	3.66	0.68
Parent's gender x Child's gender	M	F	14	3.63	1.16
Parent's gender x Child's gender	M	M	4	4.31	0.63

Table 8

Subscale Scores for RIPA (Parental Experiences)

Effect	Level of factor	Level of factor	N	Mean	SD
Total			61	3.89	0.96
Parent's gender	F		43	3.91	0.89
Parent's gender	M		18	3.85	1.14
Child's gender	F		43	3.94	0.98
Child's gender	M		18	3.78	0.94
Parent's gender x Child's gender	F	F	29	3.92	0.98
Parent's gender x Child's gender	F	M	14	3.89	0.79
Parent's gender x Child's gender	M	F	14	3.98	1.07
Parent's gender x Child's gender	M	M	4	3.38	1.42

Table 9

Total Scores for RIPA

Effect	Level of factor	Level of factor	N	Mean	SD
Total			61	4.05	0.51
Parent's gender	F		43	4.06	0.51
Parent's gender	M		18	4.03	0.54
Child's gender	F		43	4.08	0.56
Child's gender	M		18	4.00	0.40
Parent's gender x Child's gender	F	F	29	4.09	0.55
Parent's gender x Child's gender	F	M	14	4.00	0.44
Parent's gender x Child's gender	M	F	14	4.05	0.60
Parent's gender x Child's gender	M	M	4	4.00	0.28

Table 15

Subscale Scores for IPA (Trust)

Effect	Level of factor	Level of factor	N	Mean	SD
Total			81	4.16	0.76
Child's gender	F		52	4.06	0.83
Child's gender	M		29	4.33	0.62
Parent's gender	F		49	4.24	0.70
Parent's gender	M		32	4.03	0.85
Child's gender x parent's gender	F	F	31	4.17	0.78
Child's gender x parent's gender	F	M	21	3.90	0.88
Child's gender x parent's gender	M	F	18	4.36	0.53
Child's gender x parent's gender	M	M	11	4.28	0.76

Table 16

Subscale Scores for IPA (Communication)

Effect	Level of factor	Level of factor	N	Mean	SD
Total			81	3.96	0.95
Child's gender	F		53	3.87	1.03
Child's gender	M		28	4.15	0.75
Parent's gender	F		49	4.10	0.93
Parent's gender	M		32	3.75	1.10
Child's gender x parent's gender	F	F	32	4.05	0.88
Child's gender x parent's gender	F	M	21	3.58	1.20
Child's gender x parent's gender	M	F	17	4.18	0.73
Child's gender x parent's gender	M	M	11	4.10	0.81

Table 17

Subscale Scores for IPA (Alienation)

Effect	Level of factor	Level of factor	N	Mean	SD
Total			81	3.32	1.08
Child's gender	F		52	3.50	1.00
Child's gender	M		29	3.00	1.15
Parent's gender	F		49	3.34	1.04
Parent's gender	M		32	3.02	1.13
Child's gender x parent's gender	F	F	31	3.58	0.99
Child's gender x parent's gender	F	M	21	3.38	1.03
Child's gender x parent's gender	M	F	18	3.11	1.10
Child's gender x parent's gender	M	M	11	2.80	1.27

Table 18
Total Scores for IPA

Effect	Level of factor	Level of factor	N	Mean	SD
Total			80	3.91	0.73
Child's gender	F		52	3.88	0.78
Child's gender	M		28	3.97	0.63
Parent's gender	F		48	4.02	0.68
Parent's gender	M		32	3.76	0.77
Child's gender x parent's gender	F	F	31	4.00	0.72
Child's gender x parent's gender	F	M	21	3.68	0.83
Child's gender x parent's gender	M	F	17	4.03	0.62
Child's gender x parent's gender	M	M	11	3.88	0.66