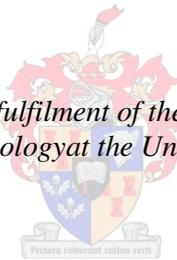# ADOLESCENTS' RELATIONSHIPS IN A TOWN IN THE WESTERN CAPE, SOUTH AFRICA

by
Nadia de Jager

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

Supervisor: Dr. Elmien Lesch
Faculty of Arts
Department of Psychology

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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

The important role of interpersonal relationships in the adolescent developmental period has been extensively demonstrated in the literature (e.g. Brown, 1991; Gottlieb, 1991; Larson, Wilson, Brown, Furstenburg, & Verma, 2002). In the present study, adolescents' relationships with their mothers, fathers, romantic partners, and best friends were investigated. The sample consisted of mainly White and Coloured late-adolescents from four schools in and around a large country town, representing different cultures and socio-economic backgrounds. Their relationships were investigated by assessing in what relationships adolescents reported the most and least of certain relationship qualities like support and intimacy. This was assessed with the use of two self-report questionnaires.

The questionnaires used was the Network of Relationships Inventory (NRI), a 33-item Likert-type scale with which intimacy, companionship, affection, nurturance, satisfaction, relative power, punishment and conflict (C1) was assessed, and the Quality of Relationships Inventory (QRI), a 25-item Likert-type scale with which support and conflict (C2) was assessed (Touliatos, Perlmutter, & Holden, 2001). It was found that adolescents reported the different relationship qualities differently in all their relationships. The following are the main findings for the different relationship qualities:

- Support: Support was found to be equally as high for mothers, best friends and romantic partners, with fathers ranked lowest for support.
- Intimacy: Intimacy with romantic partners was reported as being the highest, followed by best friends and then mothers and intimacy from fathers being the lowest.
- Companionship: The highest level of companionship was reported for best friends and romantic partners, who did not differ significantly from each other. This was followed by companionship from mothers and companionship from fathers was the lowest.
- Affection: The highest level of affection was reported for mothers, followed by romantic partners and then fathers, with the lowest levels of affection coming from best friends.
- Nurturance: Romantic partners were rated highest for nurturance, followed by best friends and mothers, who did not differ significantly from each other. The lowest level of nurturance was reported for fathers.

- Satisfaction: Adolescents were most satisfied with their romantic relationships, best friends and mother-relationships, as they did not differ significantly from each others. Adolescents were least satisfied with their father-relationships.
- Relative Power: Adolescents felt most powerful in their mother-relationships, followed by their relationships with their fathers. The third most power was reported in romantic relationships and adolescents felt the least powerful in their relationships with their best friends.
- Punishment: Adolescents were punished most by their mothers, then their fathers and then their romantic partners and they were punished least by their best friends.
- Conflict: Conflict reported was equally as high for mothers, fathers and romantic partners, with the lowest levels of conflict reported with their best friends.

Apart from the above findings, analyses were also done between the different relationship qualities, relationships, and certain demographic factors. The results are supported by the developmental-contextual framework, as it emphasizes how the different aspects of adolescents' relationships and lives are interrelated.

OPSOMMING

Die belangrike rol wat interpersoonlike verhoudings in die ontwikkelingstadium van adolessensie speel, is al breedvoerig gedemonstreer in die literatuur (bv. Brown, 1991; Gottlieb, 1991; Larson, Wilson, Brown, Furstenburg, & Verma, 2002). In die huidige studie is adolessente se verhoudings met hul ma's, pa's, romantiese vennote, en beste vriende ondersoek. Die steekproef het bestaan uit hoofsaaklik Kleurling en Wit laat-adolessente van vier skole in en om 'n groot plattelandse dorp, verteenwoordigend van verskillende kulture en sosio-ekonomiese agtergronde. Hul verhoudings is ondersoek deur te meet in watter verhoudings die meeste en minste van sekere verhoudingskwaliteite soos ondersteuning en intimiteit, gerapporteer is. Dit is ge-asseseer met die gebruik van twee self-rapporteer vraelyste.

Die vraelyste wat gebruik is, was die "Network of Relationships Inventory (NRI)", 'n 33-item Likert-tipe skaal waarmee intimiteit, kameraadskap, toegeneentheid, versorging, tevredenheid, relatiewe mag, straf en konflik (C1) ge-asseseer is, en die "Quality of Relationships Inventory (QRI)", 'n 25-item Likert-tipe skaal waarmee ondersteuning en konflik (C2) ge-asseseer is (Touliatos, Perlmutter, & Holden, 2001). Dit is bevind dat adolessente die verskillende verhoudingskwaliteite verskillend gerapporteer het vir die verskillende verhoudings. Die volgende is die hoofbevindings vir die verskillende verhoudingskwaliteite:

- Ondersteuning: Adolessente het die meeste en gelyke ondersteuning gerapporteer van hul ma's, beste vriende en romantiese vennote, met die laagste ondersteuning komende van pa's.
- Intimiteit: Intimiteit met romantiese vennote is gerapporteer as die hoogste, gevolg deur beste vriende en dan romantiese vennote, en die minste intimiteit met pa's.
- Kameraadskap: Die hoogste vlak van kameraadskap is gerapporteer vir beste vriende en romantiese vennote wat nie beduidend van mekaar verskil het nie. Kameraadskap met ma's was derde en kameraadskap met pa's was laaste.
- Toegeneentheid: Die hoogste vlak van toegeneentheid is gerapporteer vir ma's, gevolg deur romantiese vennote en dan pa's, met die minste toegeneentheid gerapporteer vir beste vriende.

- Versorging: Romantiese vennote is die hoogste ge-ag vir versorging, gevolg deur ma's en beste vriende, wat nie beduidend van mekaar verskil het nie. Die minste versorging is gerapporteer van pa's.
- Tevredenheid: Adolessente was mees tevrede met hul verhoudings met hul ma's, beste vriende en romantiese vennote, wat nie beduidend van mekaar verskil het nie. Hulle was die minste tevrede met hul verhoudings met hul pa's.
- Relatiewe mag: Adolessente het die meeste mag gerapporteer in hul verhoudings met hul ma's, gevolg deur hul pa's en dan hul romantiese vennote, met die minste mag in hul verhoudings met hul beste vriende.
- Straf: Adolessente is die meeste gestraf deur hul ma's en dan hul pa's, gevolg deur hul romantiese vennote en laastens hul beste vriende.
- Konflik: Konflik was ewe hoog vir ma's, pa's en romantiese vennote, met die minste konflik gerapporteer vir beste vriende.

Buiten bogenoemde resultate, is daar ook analises gedoen tussen die verskillende verhoudingskwaliteite, verhoudings en sekere demografiese faktore. Die resultate word ondersteun deur die ontwikkelings-kontekstuele raamwerk, aangesien dit beklemtoon hoe die verskillende aspekte van adolessente se verhoudings en lewens verbind is.

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GRANTS

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND MOTIVATION

Adolescents currently form the largest age group in the world in terms of numbers and adolescence is viewed as the developmental stage in which the most number of key life-events take place (Richter, 2006). It is acknowledged that "adolescence is a time of rapid change and stress, which is perceived differently by each individual and influenced by personal and demographic characteristics" (Perrin & McDermott, 1997, p.534). These individuals are no longer children and not yet adults, and with their hormonal changes and concerns about their future careers, it is not surprising that this developmental period is described as turbulent.

Relationships play an important role in this challenging developmental phase and adolescents from different cultures report that relationships help them to cope with different situations and stress (Ungar, Brown, Liebenberg, & Othman, 2007). Larson, Wilson, Brown, Furstenberg, and Verma (2002) argue that in fact, relationships are adolescents' most important social resource for their transition into adulthood. Relationships are especially pivotal in one of the major developmental tasks of adolescence: identity formation (Coates, 1999; Compas & Wagner, 1991). According to Compas and Wagner (1991), one of the most significant interpersonal tasks at this time is the need to be more involved with the peer group, while still remaining attached to the family. Erik H. Erikson (1974) explains that adolescent love or relationships is an attempt at identity formation and that the adolescent reflects his/her self-image on the significant other. Janse van Rensburg (1995) refers to the identity formation process in a relationship as a constant redefinition of the self and the other, as well as the relationship in itself.

Three of the most important relationships for adolescents are those with their parents, friends (peer group) and romantic partners. Many studies have confirmed that children and adolescents' relationships with their parents can have an impact on their global self-worth and general well-being (LaBarbera, 2008; Markiewicz, Doyle, & Brendgen, 2001). Not only are parents important for adolescents' well-being but they can also teach their children intimacy skills that they need in other relationships, like how to maintain closeness and companionship in relationships (Larson et al., 2002). It has also been found that when adolescents have warm and trusting relationships with their parents they are more likely to have higher levels of satisfaction in their romantic

relationships when they are older (Möller & Stattin, 2001). Even though adolescents' identity formation process involves a separation from parents, Seiffge-Krenke (1995) found that the family continues to play an important role as providers of social support. Other researchers have concluded that adolescents' relationships with their parents stabilize in this period and are perceived as positive (Larson, Richards, Moneta, Holmbeck & Duckett, 1996).

As adolescents' independence and mobility increase, they can decide for themselves to what extent they want to include their family and friends in their support networks (Gottlieb, 1991). It appears that adolescents become more and more involved with friends and they are exposed to a larger set of peers, who not only serve as sources of emotional support but also provide social capital (Larson et al., 2002). Friendships can teach adolescents how to operate in mature symmetrical relationships (Stanton-Salazar & Spina, 2005), and can serve as templates for their expectations of their romantic relationships (Zimmer-Gembeck, 2002). These friendships can therefore have an impact on mental health. For example, a study with British adolescents found that those who identified with a friendship group had higher levels of self-esteem (Tarrant, MacKenzie & Hewitt, 2006) and Buhrmester (1990) concludes that friendships with high levels of companionship can increase adolescents' mental health.

There is an important link between friendships and romantic relationships in adolescence, as friendship relationships often evolve into romantic relationships in this period (Connolly & Goldberg, 1999). Several studies have shown that as adolescents become more involved in romantic relationships, they tend to rely a great deal on their romantic partners for support (Furman, Ho, & Low 2007; Kuttler & La Greca, 2004). Collins (2003) argues that, "far from being trivial events in development, romantic relationships are significant for adolescent functioning and for longer term outcomes" (p.5). These romantic relationships have been shown to be important in adolescents' identity development and especially in their ability for intimacy with significant others (Erikson, 1974; Feiring, 1996). Romantic relationships are important arenas where adolescents can experience nurturance, intimacy, companionship and affection (Collins, 2003; Furman & Simon, 1999; Shulman & Kipnis, 2001).

South African literature on adolescents' relationships has important limitations: Firstly, it underemphasizes relationships as potential strength and resource, and elects to focus on the negative impact of relationships on adolescent behaviour. Few South African studies were found that investigated the positive aspects of romantic relationships and friendship relationships (e.g. Alberts, Mbalo, Ackermann, 2003; Collier & Bornman, 1999; Thom & Coetzee, 2004). Adolescents' romantic relationships are often investigated in the context of sexual coercion, violence and teenage pregnancy (e.g. Macleod, 2003; Swart et al., 2002; Swart, 2005). Although South African research on parent-adolescent relationships are more frequently conducted with an emphasis on the positive aspects of these relationships (e.g. Greeff & Le Roux, 1999; Lowe, 2005; Mboya, 1998; Peltzer, 2008), issues like conflict, conduct disorder and suicide are still often the main focus of these studies. Furthermore, adolescent samples are mostly from urban communities, or townships on the urban fringe (e.g. Alberts et al., 2003; Collier & Bornman, 1999; Mboya, 1998; Peltzer, 2008). Although a few studies were found that focused on semi-rural communities (e.g. Lesch & Bremridge, 2006; Lesch & Kruger, 2004), there is an overall lack of South African relationship studies focusing on adolescents from rural areas.

In light of the importance of parental, romantic and friendship relationships in adolescents' well-being and the specific neglect of rural adolescents in relationship studies; this study explored certain qualities of a group of semi-rural adolescents' relationships with parents, best friends and romantic partners. The relationship qualities within these three kinds of relationships that were investigated are: social support, companionship, intimacy, nurturance, affection, satisfaction, relative power, punishment and conflict.

In the next chapter the theoretical framework of the present study will be discussed, followed in chapter 3 by the review of the literature on adolescents' relationships. In chapter 4 the methodology for the present study will be explained, followed in chapter 5 by the results and the discussion of these results in chapter 6, along with the limitations of the current study, recommendations for future research and the conclusion.

CHAPTER 2:

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND CONCEPTUALISATION OF CONSTRUCTS

1. Theories of relationships

Brown (1999) refers to relationships as "dyadic associations" (p.291), or an association between two people, or between many people. There is a debate in the literature about which theoretical perspectives are best suited to explain adolescents' relationships. Two of the main contenders are attachment theory and the developmental perspective. The developmental perspective emphasizes adolescents' own phase of identity development as playing a central role in their relationships (Collins & Sroufe, 1999), while attachment theory maintains that adolescents' early attachment relationships is the primary factor in the development of adolescent and later relationships (Moore & Leung, 2002). Some authors support a combination of the two theories. Giordano (2003), for example, argues that "individuals who develop secure early attachment(s) are believed to be more successful in forging later relationships, including close friendships and romantic relationships" (p.259), while acknowledging that every type of relationship has unique developmental roles, meanings, and dynamics specific to that relationship (Giordano, 2003).

These are just two of many relational theories, which all have different functions and goals. None of these theories, however, incorporate the macro-context of community, culture and society. Again, there are many such macro-contextual theories. I have selected developmental contextualism as the most appropriate theoretical framework for this study as it focuses on relationships and how they influence and are influenced by the context in which they occur.

2. Developmental contextualism: A theoretical framework for this study

The developmental contextual framework has been used more and more in recent years for studying relationships (e.g. Brown, 1999; Kenny, Blustein, Chaves, Grossman, & Gallagher, 2003; Vernberg, Greenhoot, & Biggs, 2006). However, most developmental studies purport to use a purely developmental framework although it is clear that they also emphasize the importance of social networks in development, e.g. a Brazilian study on relationships (Van Horn & Marques, 2000).

The theoretical framework of developmental contextualism was first conceptualized mainly by Richard M. Lerner. Developmental contextualism views the individual as living and growing within a changing environment, which has a crucial influence on the individual's development (Lerner, 1991). Human beings are seen as active rather than passive, living in a physical and social environment that is also active and changing (Lerner, 2002). Individuals both shape, and are shaped by their environments and thereby contribute to their own development (Lerner, 2002). The difference between a purely developmental perspective and a contextual perspective is that the emphasis in contextual approaches is on "the relation between the structural and functional characteristics of the organism and the features of the organism's context" (Lerner & Kauffman, 1985, p.317). They equate the term "developmental-contextualism" to the term "probabilistic epigenesis" suggested by Gottlieb (1970) (in Lerner & Kauffman, 1985), which refers to the "synthesis between organismic processes and changes and contextual ones" (Lerner & Kauffman, 1985, p.321). Since the changing context has an influence on development and on relationships, the course of development is not certain and differs from person to person (Lerner, 2002).

An important aspect of the developmental contextual perspective is that the environment or context, which is seen as an integral part of development, is a multi-level one (Lerner, 2002). As the graphic representation (model) of this perspective demonstrates (Figure 1), an individual's context includes social networks, including different people and different personal qualities of these people, the community, societal and cultural contexts, as well as the individual's relationships in time, which implies certain changing historical features (Lerner, 1991). Changes in one aspect are producers as well as products of changes in another aspect of development (Lerner, 1996), which is referred to as the plasticity of human development (Lerner, 2002; Lerner & Kauffman, 1985). The individual or organism is in itself viewed as a distinct level of the context of life, as the influences and experiences that come together in every person are unique (Lerner, 2002). The model investigates the contributions of nature and nurture on the individual's development, whilst emphasizing the active role individuals' have in this process (Lerner, 2002).
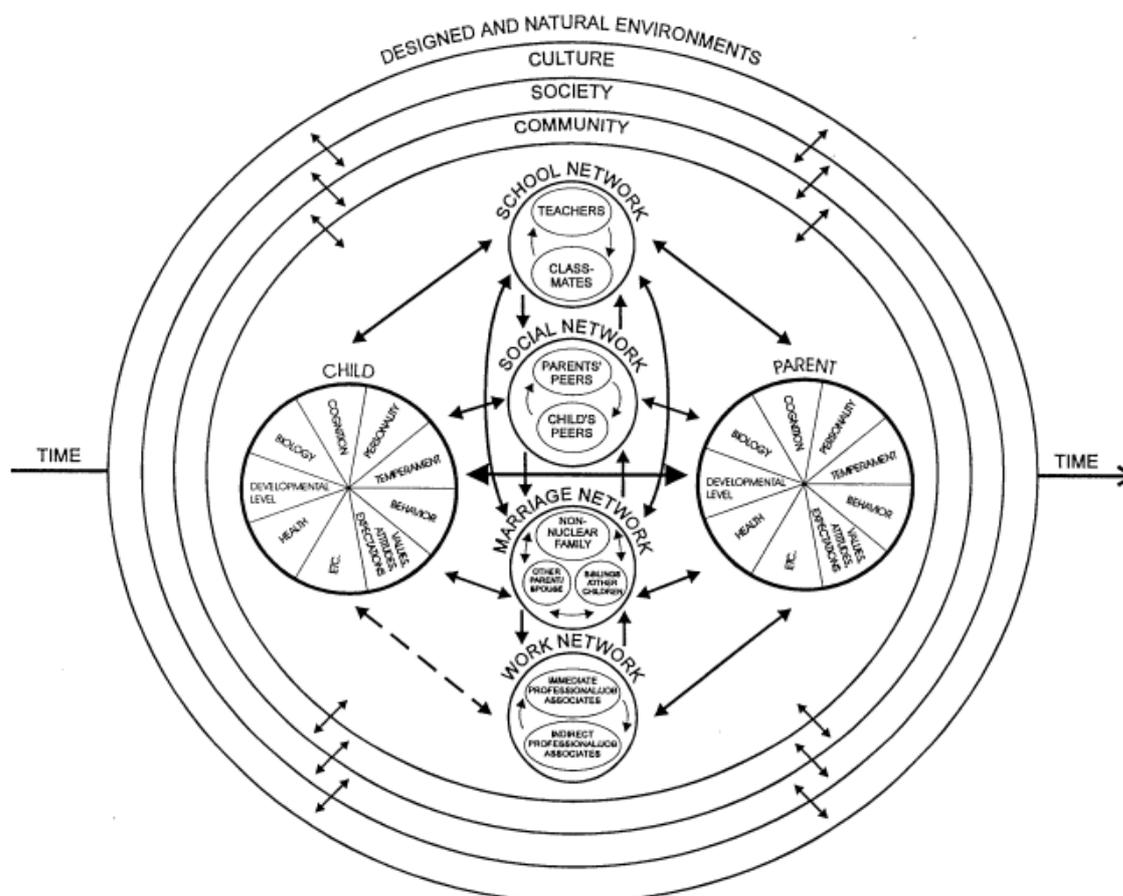
Figure 1. *The developmental-contextual model of human development* (Lerner, 2002)

As development is a process, which brings about change and growth, a study from this perspective can only aim to capture a brief moment in this development. In Figure 1 the bi-directional arrows represent the interaction between the different networks and contexts, as they are all connected and inseparable and integrated within a certain culture, society and community, as shown by the circles on the outside (Lerner, 1991). The bi-directional arrows that connect "child" and "parent" and that also connects them to other networks and relationships, emphasize that the parent-child relationship does not exist in isolation, but each of them are also in other relationships and social roles (Lerner, 2002). It is here where romantic relationships and friendships play a role as they are examples of other social relationships that influence adolescents' development. Although the model focuses specifically on child-parent relationship, this model can also include friendships and romantic relationships, as they form a part of both the adolescent's social and school network. The changing nature of these relationships is shown by

the arrow under "time" that is a factor in all relationships (Lerner, 2002). The circles that represent "child" and "parent" in the model (Fig.1), represent the different dimensions involved in their relationships, including things like personality, behavior and temperament, and emphasizes the individuality and diversity that influences relationships (Lerner, 2002). At this level of the model, it therefore also allows for the incorporation of individual-centered models like attachment theory.

The developmental contextual perspective is reminiscent of Urie Bronfenbrenner's ecological model of human development in which he proposes humans as living within different ecological systems, namely micro-systems, macro-systems, meso-systems, and exo-systems, which represent different developmental contexts (Bronfenbrenner, 1977). His model also emphasizes the context in which humans develop, the developmental process, the uniqueness of the individual, and the role of time in development (Lerner, 2002). The major difference with the developmental contextual model is that this model does not divide the developmental contexts into the different ecological systems. The developmental contextual model focuses specifically on the changing nature of relationships as part of human development, which both influence and are influenced by the individual's environment. The concept of development within developmental contextualism is seen as primarily a relational one (Lerner, 1996).

2.1. Implications for research from a developmental contextual perspective

When conducting research from the developmental contextual perspective, it is important to consider the differences between people and the communities and cultures they live in (Lerner, 2002). Therefore caution must be taken when making generalizations about results (Lerner, 1991), as circumstances in specific cultures can change over time which will effect all aspects of development. There should rather be an appreciation of the differences between communities (Lerner, 2002).

In the South African context it seems especially necessary to approach research from the developmental contextual perspective, as it is a country well-known for its social and cultural diversity. The essential role of race/population group in the history of South Africa has been well-documented in the literature (e.g. Oelofson, 2008; Robus & Macleod, 2006; Stein et al.,

2008). Although South Africans have largely moved past apartheid and the country has been a democracy now for more than 15 years, differences between racial/population groups are still prevalent. For example, apartheid has had a significant effect on the socio-economic status of South Africans, as many formerly disadvantaged people and communities still suffer under poverty and unemployment (Adhikari, 2006). The current study acknowledges the importance of context by investigating, as a secondary objective, whether relationship qualities differ between adolescents from different social contexts (semi-rural Coloured[1] adolescents from lower socio-economical backgrounds and White adolescents from higher socio-economical backgrounds).

Furthermore, the developmental contextual perspective emphasizes diversity and individuality in human development by emphasizing how different cultures, communities and families differentially influence and are influenced by relationships (Lerner, 1991). Therefore it has to be kept in mind that even those adolescents, who belong to the same culture, may experience their relationships differently within the same culture. This complicates the discussion of results, as the researcher has to be careful when making generalizations within a specific group. Although attempts have been made in the present study to explain the group results, the likelihood of individual variations is therefore always implicit.

Although Lerner (1991) argues that the developmental contextual perspective fits better with longitudinal studies, Lerner and Spanier (1980) advises that a cross-sectional design can be used in developmental research. They caution, however, that all the different ages under study should be represented adequately in the sample. This study therefore used a cross-sectional design and included respondents in different phases of adolescence.

2.2. Limitations of the developmental contextual perspective
Several limitations of the developmental contextual perspective have been identified in the literature. Human plasticity, the fact that a change in one aspect of an individual's development, whether functional or structural, causes change on the other aspects of individual's development

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[1] The word "Coloured" is a term that was used under the Apartheid system to refer to people of mixed racial descent and is currently still used to refer to race or ethnicity (Lesch & Bremridge, 2006). I acknowledge that the use of this term is controversial and want to stress that I use it in this study to acknowledge a history of political and economic differentiation between groups in South Africa. The intention is therefore not to perpetuate Apartheid categories, but to see the term as indicative of a certain social and cultural context (Laubscher, 2003).

(Lerner, 2002), is one of the main concepts essential to the developmental contextual perspective. The problem with plasticity is that it is not possible to ascertain exactly how the changes occur within the different levels of development (Lerner & Kauffman, 1985). All aspects of the individual's life are also not equally plastic, as changes in the individual may not cause change at an equal level to another individual (Lerner & Kauffman, 1985). As it is not possible to say at the moment what the limits are of plasticity, it can also not be said what influence science and technology can have on human plasticity in the future (Lerner, 2002). The developmental contextual perspective emphasizes how change in one aspect of development like the school network can have an impact on another aspect of development like culture. Furthermore, this occurs over time, but the time in which this change occurs may not be the same on all levels (Lerner & Kauffman, 1985). Therefore it may not be possible to see or assess this change between levels at the same time, and it is not always clear exactly how the changes in the different levels are connected to one another at one time (Lerner & Kauffman, 1985).

Another possible limitation of the framework is that its broad approach to development makes it impossible to study every aspect of this model in one research effort (Lerner, 1991). If the researcher wants to investigate every aspect of the model, multiple research studies will have to be done. As the model emphasizes the individuality and diversity between individual's development, it is not possible to generalize findings from a research study within this model, as development would be different for individual's from different cultures, families, communities etc. (Lerner, 1991).

A final limitation of this model, and all other macro-contextual theories, is that the model gives a broad depiction of the individual's development and the influence of the individual's context on his/her relationships within this context, but it does not explain certain phenomena in these relationships in development. For example, in the present study, the model urged the researcher to acknowledge the influence of the adolescent's community and culture on his/her relationships, but it did not offer explanations for why adolescents report more conflict with their parents than in their other relationships. If a researcher is interested in explaining such phenomena, other theories, e.g. attachment theory, must be utilized. The aim of the present study, though, was not to explain, but to investigate the differences between adolescents' relationships.

3. Conceptualization of constructs

3.1. Adolescence

Adolescence is regarded as a period in which important social, psychological and biological growth occurs that can cause immense stress to the individual, but can also influence him/her to form new and broader relationships with different people in his/her life (Gottlieb, 1991; Perrin & McDermott, 1997). This developmental period falls between childhood and adulthood and ranges from approximately 11 to 19 years of age. There is some disagreement in the literature of the exact age ranges of early, middle and late adolescence, but for the present study it was divided into the three stages as follows: Early adolescence (11-13 years), middle adolescence (14-16 years) and late adolescence (17-19 years) (Lempers & Clark-Lempers, 1992). This study will focus on the middle and late adolescent developmental periods.

The way in which the word "adolescence" is used in South African literature is investigated by Macleod (2003) in her article on teenage pregnancy in South Africa. Macleod (2003) agrees with international literature that adolescence is seen as a stage of transition between childhood and adulthood, a stage of uncertainty. She argues, however, that the construction of "adolescence in South Africa reflects an intertwining of apartheid ideology, and historical and cultural practice" (p.420). This is important to consider when conducting any South African study involving adolescents, especially with regards to South African adolescents' identity development. Thom and Coetzee (2004) also recognize the importance of identity development in adolescence, and stress that South African adolescents' have the added task of forming "their identities in a society that is undergoing transformation" (p.184).

3.2. Rural and Urban

The major difference between the words "rural" and "urban" is that rural can be defined as "of the country" (Hanks et al., 1993, p.420) and urban as "relating to town or city" (Hanks et al., 1993, p.520). However, due to urbanization, urban and rural communities are not as different from each other as they once were (Flora, Flora, & Fey, 2004). One way to distinguish rural communities from urban communities are to consider the role of farming in rural communities as it has been described as one of the main characteristics of rural communities (York, Denton, & Moran, 1993). Although rural adolescents are not as isolated as they once were due to improved

road systems, technology etc. (Flora et al., 2004), unemployment is still higher in rural areas than urban areas (Francis & Henderson, 1992). This played a role in the present study, as the parents of some of the respondents were farm-labourers with lower socio-economic backgrounds than those of respondents with more affluent parents living in town.

3.3. Qualities of Relationships

The following relationship qualities were investigated as they are the most prominent and important relationship qualities mentioned in the literature on adolescents and their relationships with parents, best friends and romantic partners.

3.3.1. Support- "Social support is usually defined as the existence or availability of people on whom we can rely, people who let us know that they care about, value, and love us" (Sarason, Levine, Basham, & Sarason, 1983, p.127). It can be described as "an individual's perception of how much he or she can rely on others for emotional support, as well as for other forms of valuable interpersonal resources" (Williams & Galliher, 2006, p.859). High levels of social support have been shown to be a buffer against psychological and physical health problems.

3.3.2. Intimacy- Intimacy involves feelings of mutual understanding, support, warmth and closeness (Collins & Sroufe, 1999; Connolly & Goldberg, 1999) and is often featured in different close relationships. There are different kinds of intimacy that feature in different kinds of close relationships, like physical, emotional and spiritual intimacy. Despite many definitions of intimacy, Laurenceau and Kleinman (2006) maintain that the common aspect is "a feeling of closeness developing from a communication process between partners" (p.641).

3.3.3. Companionship- Vernberg, Greenhout and Biggs (2006) refer to companionship as "the amount of time friends spend together in various contexts and activities" (p.511). In this context it also includes family and romantic partners, and also encompasses aspects like sharing feelings, just having the other person present, and the knowledge that one does not have to do things alone.

3.3.4. Affection- The "Dictionary of Psychology" refers to affection as "feelings and emotions of tenderness and attachment especially when such feelings are nonsexual" (Corsini, 2002, p.24).

Affection can be displayed in different ways, for example in private, public and intimate (physical) contact (Vaquera & Kao, 2005). The expression of affection of parents towards their children has been defined as "the degree to which parents report using observable and physical expressions of positive affection and fondness towards the child" (Lanz, Scabini, Vermulst, & Gerris, 2001, p.135).

3.3.5. Nurturance- Nurturance refers to the "provision of affectionate attention, protection, and encouragement to others" (Vandenbos, 2007, p.635). It is behaviour usually associated with parents, as it is generally expected of parents to nurture their children from a young age. Nurturant acts have also been described as "behaviours directed toward another individual with the intent of providing physical or psychological nourishment" (Mackey, 1996). Nurturing behaviours do also occur in other relationships as children become older, e.g. they may experience nurturance from romantic partners or close friends who care for them and want to protect them.

3.3.6. Relationship Satisfaction- In order for a relationship to be maintained, both participants has to be happy with the way in which rewards and costs of exchanges are distributed in the relationship (Laursen, 1995), and how expectations of the quality of the relationship is met or exceeded (Branje, Frijns, Finkenauer, Engels, & Meeus, 2007). These rewards and costs, which are directly linked to relationship satisfaction, can be different things in different relationships, but can include how much assistance someone gets in a relationship compared to how much assistance they give.

3.3.7. Power- "Power is defined as the means by which a person (or group) gets what is desired, despite opposition" (Galliher, Rostosky, Welsh, & Kawaguchi, 1999). In dyadic relationships where there is constant interaction between people, power dynamics will inevitably feature. Equity theory is central in the power dynamics in relationships, as it emphasizes the equal exchange of social resources, in reflecting power structures (Galliher et al., 1999). Another aspect of power dynamics in relationships is the process by which power is enacted in relationships, where boys and girls will often use different tactics to obtain power (Galliher et al., 1999).

3.3.8. Punishment- There is many different kinds of punishment, which refers to any kind of reprimand usually for doing something one is not supposed to. It does not only refer to physical punishment like hitting, but also things like withholding privileges, scolding and disciplining. Adolescence is not a period in which spanking is considered to be normative (Simons, Johnson, & Conger, 1994), but it does appear in the literature. Punishment has to be distinguished from physical abuse in this study, even though it is well known that corporal punishment can escalate to abuse (Simons et al., 1994).

3.3.9. Conflict- Conflict can be described as an "interpersonal disagreement and [can be] distinguished from aggression and negative affect" (Laursen, 1995). There are both overt and covert types of conflict, overt conflict being expressed by disagreements, violence, and arguments, where covert conflict is seen in avoidance, spiteful behaviour and negative body language (Kline, Pleasant, Whitton, & Markman, 2006). Both overt and covert conflict can occur in close relationships, but in this study overt conflict is measured.

4. Conclusion

Developmental contextualism is the theoretical framework used in the present study as it is a macro-contextual perspective that focuses specifically on the role of relationships in development. Viewing development from a contextual perspective is important as all people are influenced by their social, cultural and communal environment. In this study different qualities of three different kinds of relationships were investigated from a developmental contextual point of view. Definitions of these relationship qualities were given. In the next chapter the literature regarding these different relationship qualities and relationships will be reviewed.

CHAPTER 3: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

1. Introduction

This study investigated the qualities of three different adolescent relationships: parent-child, friendship, and romantic relationships; the literature search and review focused on these relationships. An extensive search through a range of different sources was conducted over the two year period in which this thesis was done. Some of the electronic databases used were Ebscohost, Science Direct, ProQuest, PsycArticles, SA e-publications, African Studies and JStor. Searches were done with keywords like "adolescents' relationships", "intimate relationships", "teenagers' relationships", "adolescent romance", "parent-child relationships", "adolescent friendships" and keywords of all the specific relationship qualities, like "companionship", "intimacy" and "power". Studies were excluded that focused on early adolescence as well as studies that were conducted before 1980, except for key works like that of Erikson (1974). The South African literature obtained through these databases was very limited, as most of the South African studies in the databases focused on HIV/AIDS or other health issues.

Additional literature was obtained through a search of the psychological journals in the electronic catalogue of the library of Stellenbosch University, as well as the hard copies of certain psychological journals available at the University library. The popular search engine Google was also used to search for certain articles, but the articles found were difficult to obtain, as often there were only abstracts available. In an attempt to find more South African literature, the electronic databases for theses and dissertations of all major South African universities were searched, with some success. Finally, the library catalogue of Stellenbosch University and other South African universities were searched for literature on adolescent psychology and relationships. The international and South African literature on each of the three relationships is presented separately below with a focus on the negative and positive qualities of interactions. In this overview, the population grouping/community origins of research participants are identified to acknowledge the importance of social context, as demanded by the selected theoretical framework discussed in the following chapter.

2. Parent-adolescent Relationships

"Adolescence is a developmental period in which the capacity increases to form both casual and intimate ties, [that can be weaved] into a network that can ease the passage through this time of life" (Gottlieb, 1991, p.301). Relationships with parents play an important role in developing this capacity. In a longitudinal American study following a group of White adolescents it was found that adolescents became increasingly disengaged from their families, but this was not due to negative interactions within the family, but rather due to outside factors (Larson et al., 1996). Despite this, the time that adolescents and their parents did spend together, became stable in late adolescence and was perceived as positive (Larson et al., 1996).

It is important that both parents are involved in adolescents' lives. Unfortunately this does not always happen, often due to the absence or limited involvement of fathers (Wineburgh, 2000). The literature has shown how absent fathers can negatively influence their children's well-being and academic achievement (Harper & Fine, 2006; Levine Coley & Medeiros, 2007; Mboya & Nesengani, 1999). One of the reasons for this absence or limited involvement is that traditional matriarchal and patriarchal roles prescribe that mothers are more involved in their adolescent children's lives (Forehand & Nousiainen, 1993; Finley & Schwartz, 2008). Such roles, despite increasing gender equality around the world, are still prevalent in many communities, including South Africa (Strebel et al., 2006).

2.1. Parent-adolescent relationships and support

Although peers and romantic partners are important sources of support for adolescents, and despite adolescents' increasing independence, the family continues to play an important role as providers of social support for adolescents (Seiffge-Krenke, 1995). High levels of social support from one's family have also been associated with increased mental health (Klineberg et al., 2006). Other studies also suggest the importance of parental social support for adolescents. Gavazzi (1994) investigated social support from friends and family and adolescents' levels of adjustment in an American sample. He found that adolescents' levels of psychosocial maturity were influenced by the support they received from their families, in that higher levels of social support from the family indicated higher levels of psychosocial maturity in these adolescents (Gavazzi, 1994).

Beyers and Goossens (2008) describe the ideal parent-adolescent relationship as one in which parents encourage their adolescent children to demonstrate autonomous behaviour, but are still available for adolescents as sources of support and encouragement to turn to when they are under pressure or their attempts at independence fail. They encourage parents to remain supportive towards their adolescent children, set boundaries, but adapt their parenting style to accommodate their children through this developmental period (Beyers & Goossens, 2008). Social support from parents was found to be highly relevant, along with support from best friends in a study with 12-18 year olds from the Netherlands (Scholte, Van Lieshout, & Van Aken, 2001). In a Brazilian study with early, middle and late adolescents, it was found that support received from parents were significantly lower for college students (19 and 20 year olds) than earlier in adolescence (Van Horn & Marques, 2000).

2.2. Parent-adolescent relationships, intimacy and companionship

Intimacy and companionship are important relationship qualities that are connected to the levels of closeness experienced in relationships, and therefore often appear in the literature together. Parent-adolescent relationships are not only important for adolescents' well-being and equipping adolescents to feel secure in their relationships, but can also teach them intimacy skills, e.g. how to maintain closeness and companionship in relationships (Larson et al., 2002). Also, students with high levels of parental intimacy tend to have higher self-esteem, lower levels of depression and no suicidal thoughts (Field, Lang, Yando, and Bendell (1995).

In an American study with adolescents who experienced high levels of anger, Silver, Field, Sanders, and Diego (2000) found that they experienced low levels of intimacy in their relationships with their parents. These adolescents were also more likely to be in romantic relationships or have opposite-sex friends, which could indicate that they turn to these individuals for intimacy because they do not have good relationships with their parents. Parents can promote both companionship and intimacy in their adolescent children's relationships by physically transporting their children to their friends, and serving as examples of how to be physically and emotionally available and trustworthy in relationships (Vernberg et al., 2006).

In the study on intimacy by Field et al. (1995), intimacy with mothers were found to correlate with the most psychological and intimacy variables, which demonstrate the importance of a stable relationship between adolescents and their mothers. As is traditionally expected, mothers appear to feature more than fathers in parent-adolescent relationships when it comes to the display of love and care towards their adolescent children. In general, parent-adolescent companionship does not feature as often in the literature as parent-adolescent intimacy does, possibly due to the fact that in adolescence friends are seen as adolescents' main companions and not their parents.

2.3. Parent-adolescent relationships and affection

Affection along with love has been found to be one of the main features of families (Anyan & Pryor, 2002). It was therefore surprising that only a limited number of family studies have investigated this relationship quality. Lempers and Clark-Lempers (1992) found that rural American adolescents ranked their parents as very important sources of affection. According to Field (2002) parental affection can prevent children from becoming aggressive adolescents. Despite the importance of parental affection for adolescents of all ages, a Dutch study found that early adolescents received the highest levels of affection from parents, and that parents were less affectionate to their children as the children grew older (Lanz et al., 2001).

Overall, affection appears to be an important aspect of showing love and care in a relationship, but is currently under-researched. As parents are generally considered to be important givers of love in their relationships with their children, affection should be a more salient feature in the literature on parent-adolescent relationships.

2.4. Parent-adolescent relationships and nurturance

What makes a good parent and what makes a good adolescent child is the question addressed by Xiong, Eliason, Detzner, and Cleveland (2005) in their study with Asian immigrants. Even though there was differences in the opinions of adolescents and parents, nurturance (specifically love and care) was one of the attributes that good parents were rated as demonstrating in their relationships with their children (Xiong et al., 2005). In an American study on materialistic and pro-social values with late adolescents and their mothers it was found that adolescents who

placed high value on money, had less nurturant mothers (Kasser, Ryan, Zax, & Sameroff, 1995). Nurturance may be required from parents to guide adolescents into adulthood while still encouraging their independence (Schwartz, Zamboanga, Ravert, & Kim, 2009).

As with affection, the literature on nurturance is scarce. Again this gap is difficult to explain, as parents are considered to be important sources of nurturance for children. Mackey (1996), for example, emphasizes how important parental nurturance is for adolescents. He advocates for the integration of a nurturance framework into family therapy, as it has been absent in the past.

2.5. Parent-adolescent relationships and satisfaction

Parent-child relationship satisfaction has been linked to children's emotional and behavioural strength. A study with adopted Romanian children found that relationship satisfaction with parent-adolescent relationships most consistently predicted children's emotional and behavioural strength (Pearlmutter, Ryan, Johnson, & Groza, 2008). Another study found that parents were most satisfied with their relationships with their high school children when the relationship was equitable, whereas these adolescents were most satisfied when they over benefited from the relationship (Vogl-Bauer, Kalbfleisch, & Beatty, 1999). A research study focusing on relationship satisfaction with parents in the transition from high school to college, found that maternal relationship satisfaction but not paternal satisfaction increased significantly over the transition (Levitt, Silver, & Santos, 2007). The more support adolescents reported from their parents the higher their relationship satisfaction was over this transition. Adolescents who reported less support from their fathers were therefore less satisfied with their relationships with them (Levitt, Silver, & Santos, 2007).

2.6. Parent-adolescent relationships and power

The correct use of power in parents' relationships with their children is seen as one of the biggest challenges of parenting, as children will learn how to manage power from their parents (Mills, 1999). Tucker, McHale and Crouter (2003) found in their study with White, American adolescents that parent-adolescent relationships were characterized by a change in the power balance as children developed more egalitarian relationships with their parents as their autonomy increased. In a study focusing on adolescents' perceptions of parental discipline, disciplinary

techniques were categorized as power assertion, love withdrawal and induction (Barnett, Quackenbush, & Sinisi, 1996). Power assertion was described as "the use of physical punishment, force, threat, and the removal of privileges or material possessions" (Barnett et al., p.411, 1996), which demonstrates how punishment and power can overlap. The study found that power assertion was seen as a less favourable form of parental discipline, and sons rated the use of power assertion by their fathers more favourably than daughters did (Barnett et al., 1996).

2.7. Parent-adolescent relationships and punishment

Physical punishment of children by their parents has received much attention in the past few decades. The detrimental effect of physical punishment on children's mental health was confirmed in a study with Israeli high school students. Adolescents whose parents used physical punishment, experienced higher levels of psychiatric symptoms and lower well-being than adolescents not being physically punished by their parents (Bachar, Canetti, Bonne, Kaplan Denour, & Shalev, 1997). This study, however, did not consider other forms of punishment and the regularity of physical punishment. A Dutch study with early and middle adolescents indicated that punishment of adolescents by their parents were viewed by both parents and children as decreasing as the children became older (Lanz et al., 2001).

Simons et al. (1994) found that corporal punishment was not related to aggression, delinquency and psychological maladjustment of adolescents. They concluded that it was the lack of interest, disregard and lack of involvement of parents in their children's lives that can accompany corporal punishment that poses the real risk for the child's development. In the present study, the punishment that will be measured refers to discipline in general, including but not exclusively corporal punishment. Unfortunately the punishment referred to in the literature, focuses mainly on physical corporal punishment.

2.8. Parent-adolescent relationships and conflict

A Swedish prospective study found that conflictual relationships in childhood between parents and children were related to conflictual relationships between parents and children in adolescence, and also adversely affected these children's intimate relationships in adulthood (Overbeek, Stattin, Vermulst, Ha, & Engels, 2007). Parent-adolescent conflict also has a significant negative effect on adolescents' social behaviour and it was found in a Chinese study

that father-adolescent conflict had a more pervasive influence on adolescents' social behaviour than mother-adolescent conflict (Shek & Keung Ma, 2001). Another study with Chinese adolescents indicated that fathers used fewer positive parenting practices than mothers (Shek, 2000). According to the authors this may be due to mothers traditionally spending more time with their adolescent children at home in Asian culture and therefore having more opportunities than their husbands to resolve conflicts with their children. As heads of the household, fathers are responsible for disciplining the children (Shek, 2000; Shek & Keung Ma, 2001).

Although adolescents ranked their parents high on certain positive qualities of relationships, they were also ranked highest in the conflict dimension (Lempers & Clark-Lempers, 1992). Ensign et al. (1998) also found that as the conflict between parents increased, the closeness between parents and their children decreased. This could be because as the parents argued more, the children sought support from other sources; and as the parents were so preoccupied by the conflict between them, they were less involved in their relationships with their children (Ensign et al., 1998).

Fuligni (1998) explained the changing nature of parent-child relationships during adolescence as being "instigated by adolescents' growing desire to increase their sense of autonomy and independence" (p.782). This can lead to conflict in some cases. He compared the parent-child relationships of adolescents from Mexican, Filipino, Chinese and European backgrounds and found that in terms of autonomy and conflict these adolescents had generally the same relationships with their parents. Cultural backgrounds played only a modest role (Fuligni, 1998).

2.9. Summary

Despite the major physical and emotional changes adolescents experience in this developmental stage, the above literature demonstrates that their relationships with their parents are still important sources of relationship qualities like support and intimacy. Adolescents in general also experience conflict with their parents quite often, which emphasizes the importance of parents in the lives of adolescents. Parent-adolescent relationships are the relationship on which the most research has been done in terms of all the specific relationship qualities investigated in this study.

3. Adolescent Friendships

During adolescence the time spent with peers generally increase; as friends offer certain personal and social resources that relationships with parents do not (Brown, 1999). Adolescents often feel like they can just be themselves with their friends (Giordano, 2003); while with parents they could sometimes feel like they have to live up to expectations and follow orders. This does not mean that relationships with parents are not important anymore, but just that adolescents generally value their social interactions with friends more in adolescence than in childhood. The emotional engagement with friends has also been found to increase with some adolescents when they enter into romantic relationships in adolescence (Connolly & Goldberg, 1999).

Friendships give adolescents the opportunity to develop different interpersonal skills, as well as accomplish different developmental tasks (Liu, 2002). It provides a relational space in which adolescents can develop maturity and their own identity, as well as learn about the broader cultural world (Giordano, 2003; Zimmer-Gembeck, 2002). Stanton-Salazar and Spina (2005), for example, found that adolescents' friendships provide an important arena where they can learn how to operate in mature symmetrical relationships. These relationships are especially helpful when they are emotionally strong (Stanton-Salazar & Spina, 2005). Tarrant et al. (2006) found that early adolescents who identified with a specific friendship group coped with relational tasks more easily than those who did not identify highly with a friendship group. "Female friendships, i.e. friendships among girls and women, are among the most important relationships that girls and women develop during their lifetimes" (Crothers et al., 2005, p.349).

3.1. Adolescent friendships and support

During adolescence, friends become increasingly significant and therefore many adolescents will consider their best friends as valuable sources of social support (Scholte et al., 2001). Markiewicz et al. (2001) found in their study with Canadian adolescents that social support was one of the main positive characteristics of friendships. The levels of social support that adolescents received were more stable in their relationships with friends and mothers than in their romantic relationships (Laursen, Furman, & Mooney, 2006). Emotional support, intimate counsel and self-disclosure as part of problem-solving have also found to be important features of close and trusting friendships (Stanton-Salazar & Spina, 2005).

In an Israeli study it was found that support from peers along with support from parents had a strong positive correlation with adolescents' levels of self-esteem (Hoffman, Ushpiz, & Levy-Shiff, 1988). A similar finding was found in a study with Finnish visually impaired adolescents, in which having many friends and receiving social support from them was correlated with high levels of overall self-esteem (Huurre & Komulainen, 1999). Azmitia, Ittel, and Radmacher (2005) found that some of the key values and obligations of a group of ethnically diverse early and late adolescents friendships were trust, loyalty and emotional support (Azmitia et al., 2005), which have also been identified in other studies as important relationship qualities for adolescents.

Peer relationships (friendships) and romantic relationships in adolescence have been found to mutually influence each other (Connolly, Furman, & Konarski, 2000), as can be expected from the connected nature of all social relationships in adolescence. Zimmer-Gembeck (2002) maintains that friendships may be important in helping adolescents by providing a template for what to expect in a romantic relationship, as well as offering advice and support about their romantic relationships. Friends are especially important as sources of support when adolescents experience conflict in their romantic relationships (Zimmer-Gembeck, 2002).

3.2. Adolescent friendships and intimacy

Buhrmester (1990) found in his study with preadolescents and adolescents that intimacy in friendships was highly connected to adolescents' interpersonal adjustment and competence. Knowing that they have intimate and supportive friends encourage adolescents to take risks and develop their autonomy in their romantic relationships (Taradash, Connolly, Pepler, Craig, & Costa, 2001). Intimacy does seem to be important to adolescents in their friendships as Johnson (2003) found that when intimacy boundaries were violated in friendships, adolescents would try to regain and maintain the closeness in their friendships. Levels of intimacy in friendships increased through adolescence in an American study, with intimacy levels in friendships surpassing the intimacy experienced in relationships with parents (Hunter & Youniss, 1982). Best same-sex friends were also ranked higher on intimacy levels than parents or teachers in another American study (Lempers & Clark-Lempers, 1992).

3.3. Adolescent friendships and companionship

Adolescents, whose friendships have high levels of companionship, have been linked to better mental health (Buhrmester, 1990). Lempers and Clark-Lempers (1992) found that best same-sex friends were ranked higher for companionship, than parents or teachers and Markiewicz et al. (2001) found that Canadian middle adolescents reported that companionship was one of the characteristics that they valued most in their friendships.

In the study with dating adolescents by Kuttler and La Greca (2004), they found that companionship was one of the positive qualities that casual daters received more of in their relationships with their best friends rather than their boyfriends, but serious daters experienced more of these positive interactions with their boyfriends than with their best friends. In a longitudinal American study with middle adolescents, it was found that children of parents who were involved in and encouraging of their children's friendships, experienced more companionship in their friendships than those adolescents whose parents were not encouraging towards their friendships (Vernberg, Beery, Ewell, & Abwender, 1993).

3.4. Adolescent friendships and affection

Although studies were found in which affection was investigated within adolescents' friendships, no studies were found that investigated this quality in great depth or mentioned its importance within these relationships. As affection is connected to closeness, it is expected that this quality should be important in close friendship bonds. Furman and Shomaker (2008) found that adolescents showed greater affection towards their friends and romantic partners than towards their mothers. However, the sample consisted of only 32 American adolescents in Grade 10 (Furman & Shomaker, 2008) and therefore the results should not be generalised.

Shulman and Scharf (2000) found that the levels of affection (affective intensity) in a sample of Israeli late adolescents' romantic relationships were related to the affection these adolescents experienced in their friendships with close same-sex friends. In the study with dating adolescents by Kuttler and La Greca (2004), they found that casual daters received more affection from their best friends than from their boyfriends.

3.5. Adolescent friendships and nurturance

Nurturance was named as one of the goals adolescents pursued in their peer relationships in a study with White, middle-class, American adolescents (Jarvinen & Nicholls, 1996). It was found that these adolescents associated nurturance with the belief that "sincerity and consideration of other's feelings lead to social success" (Jarvinen & Nicholls, 1996, p.440). This demonstrates the importance of nurturance in peer relationships as it promotes consideration and care towards others. Hunter and Youniss (1982) found that levels of nurturance (giving/helping) in friendships increased through adolescence, but nurturance levels were equally as high for friendship and parent-child relationships by the end of adolescence. The American adolescents in Lempers and Clark-Lempers' (1992) study rated best same-sex friends higher for nurturance than mothers and fathers.

3.6. Adolescent friendships and satisfaction

High levels of satisfaction with friendships, among other positive qualities, are linked to better adolescent mental health (Buhrmester, 1990). Adolescents' satisfaction with friendships is one of the factors that predict continued commitment to a friendship (Branje et al., 2007). The importance of spending time together in order to maintain friendship satisfaction was demonstrated in a study with university first years and it was found that satisfaction with high school best friendships declined during the first year of college (Oswald & Clark, 2003).

A study with dating adolescents found that casual daters were more satisfied with their relationships with their best friends than their boyfriends, (Kuttler & La Greca, 2004). It has also been found that girls would work harder than boys to maintain satisfaction and thereby remain invested in a friendship, as boys would broaden their friendship networks more easily and therefore not be so committed to a single friendship (Branje et al., 2007).

3.7. Adolescent friendships and power

Although studies exploring this component are not plentiful, the few studies which focus on this component indicate that it is an important aspect of adolescent friendships. Giordano (2003) maintains that the biggest difference between parent-child relationships and friendships is that friendships are generally egalitarian; "within friendships, reality is cooperatively co-constructed"

(p.261). Therefore power dynamics are different in adolescents' friendships than in their relationships with their parents. Power and intimacy boundaries in adolescent friendships were investigated in a study with a group of American high school students (Johnson, 2003). Power boundaries refer to the balance of authority in the relationship in so far as a person can establish to what degree he/she is in charge in the relationship (Johnson, 2003). It was found that in friendships in which the power boundaries were violated, younger adolescents were more likely than older adolescents to view conflict as power struggles and try to regain social control (Johnson, 2003). It shows how power dynamics are also important in adolescents' friendships even though studies of this nature are not plentiful. In a study on aggression, power and conflict management in adolescent girls' friendships, it was found that girls viewed indirect conflict management strategies like alliance seeking and rumour spreading as most effective in gaining power and control in these relationships (Crothers et al., 2005). In confrontations between friends, power seems to be important for girls in order to resolve the conflict.

3.8. Adolescent friendships and punishment

Friendships are not generally an arena associated with punishment, but rather with more positive qualities like social support and companionship. The only research focussing on this specific quality that could be located was a study which found that Brazilian adolescents' friendships were relatively more punishing than American adolescents' friendships (Van Horn & Marques, 2000). The goal of this study was to document the nature of Brazilian adolescents' social network relationships and punishment was a characteristic that the authors found to contribute to a negative view of interpersonal relationships (Van Horn & Marques, 2000). Other authors argue that the occurrence of relational aggression could be seen as punishment in friendships. It is not physical aggression, but involves actions like threats, spreading rumours, gossiping, excessive criticism etc. towards the friend (Crothers, Field & Kolbert, 2005; Schad, Szwedo, Antonishak, Hare, & Allen, 2008). Although this relational aggression in friendships is not described as punishment, it must be noted as a negative occurrence within friendships, which are also found in romantic relationships. There is a definite lack in research available on adolescent friendships and punishment, especially since punishment is considered to be a negative quality which can significantly influence adolescents' view of relationships.

3.9. Adolescent friendships and conflict

Even though relationships outside of the family multiply during adolescence, and offer opportunities for positive social development, this expansion also inevitably lends itself to more conflict and stress in adolescents' lives (Compas & Wagner, 1991). If friends are not the source of the conflict, they can serve as buffers against the effects this stress can have on adolescents' mental health (Stanton-Salazar & Spina, 2005). Adolescents' friendships therefore seem to serve as a foundation on which their other relationships can rely on, as friends appear to be a dependable source of comfort when there is conflict in adolescents' other relationships.

Despite evidence that there is conflict in adolescents' friendships, Lempers and Clark-Lempers (1992) found that conflict in friendship relationships were still significantly lower than conflict in parent or sibling relationships. In the study by Van Horn and Marques (2000), conflict between same-sex friends was found to be lower in college than in high school for both Brazilian and American adolescents. This could be due to college students normally making many new friends and having a wider circle of friends, which could cause them to have less conflictual relationships with a specific peer group.

Parents' behaviour towards their children can influence the way that adolescent children treat their friends (Cui, Conger, Bryant, & Elder, 2002). When parents treat their children with hostility, the children are also more likely to portray hostile behaviour towards their friends in adolescence (Cui et al., 2002), which can inevitably lead to conflict. Friendship jealousy is something that can also lead to conflict in adolescents. Friends can specifically feel abandoned, threatened and jealous when adolescents enter into romantic relationships (Parker, Walker, Low, & Gamm, 2005).

A study with American black and white adolescents found that girls experience the conflict in their romantic relationships as more hurtful than in their friendships, while boys experienced the conflict in their friendships as more hurtful than in their romantic relationships. This may be due to boys, often the stronger partner, not experiencing romantic quarrels as serious or as worrisome as girls do (Pagano & Hirsch, 2007).

3.10. Summary

Whereas relationships with parents have already been important in childhood, friendships seem to become especially important in adolescence. International literature indicates that adolescents value positive relationship qualities like companionship and intimacy as much and sometimes more in their friendships than in their relationships with their parents, and they experience less conflict and punishment in their friendships than in their relationships with their parents.

4. Romantic Relationships in adolescence

Adolescents, like all humans, typically possess the need to be close to others, to experience some form of affiliation, social comparison and intimacy (Jackson & Finney, 2002) and romantic relationships play an important role in fulfilling this need. According to Erikson (1974) adolescent love or relationships is an attempt at identity formation. In this way romantic relationships are not just part of what adolescents do, but forms part of who they are. Collins and Sroufe (1999) highlight the importance of adolescent romantic relationships in adolescence by stating that "the advent of romantic relationships is a hallmark transition of adolescence" (p.125). Successful romantic relationships, however, require the acquisition of certain relationship management skills. Larson et al. (2002) emphasize that adolescents "need to be adept at sizing up people, negotiating trust, and seeking support; they need skills for creating communities, managing conflicts, and repairing breaches" (p.51).

The major difference between adolescent and adult romantic relationships is that adolescents' romantic relationships do not usually aspire to be long term relationships (Galliher et al., 1999). This does not make these romantic relationships less important to study. In fact they form a critical part of adolescents' development and grant them opportunities to experience support, intimacy and affection from a new source. Even though romantic relationships in adolescence are not generally viewed as being too serious, Feiring (1996) found in her study with 15-year old adolescents, that they were involved with their romantic partners daily and spoke to their partners on the phone regularly. Romantic partners are therefore important influences in adolescents' lives and potential sources of high levels of intimacy, nurturance, affection, care, attachment and companionship (Shulman & Kipnis, 2001; Furman & Simon, 1999; Collins, 2003). This is different from the care and attachment adolescents receive from their parents.

Adolescent boys and girls seem to experience their romantic relationships differently. Raffaelli (2005), for example, found gender differences regarding most aspects of dating in Latino late adolescents. It has also been found in an American study that girls describe their romantic relationships in terms of intimacy and support a lot more than boys and boys mention physical attraction more often than girls when talking about their romantic relationships (Feiring, 1996). Another American study found that girls reported higher levels of affection and care in their romantic relationships whereas boys viewed their romantic relationships more as game-playing love (Shulman and Scharf, 2000). However, in a study on American boys' dating motives, Smiler (2008) found that boys' interest in romantic relationships was not merely sexual as is stereotypically expected, but was mainly in their partners and relationship concerns. These differences may very likely be related to the existence of more traditional gender roles and gender constructions in certain groupings of people.

4.1. Adolescent romantic relationships and support

Several studies have shown that as adolescents become more involved in romantic relationships they tend to rely much on their romantic partners for support (Furman et al., 2007; Kuttler & La Greca, 2004). Social support was one of the advantages of being in a romantic relationship for adolescents in a sample of 15-year old adolescents (Feiring, 1996). In a study with Mexican-origin adolescents, boyfriends were viewed as special sources of support during times of distress, especially when the distress was caused by family members, or support from family members were absent (Stanton-Salazar & Spina, 2005). Kuttler and La Greca (2004) found that adolescent girls who were in romantic relationships relied more on their boyfriends than on their best friends for support, but they also found that they experienced more conflict and pressure in their romantic relationships than in their friendships. Taradash et al. (2001) found in their study with Canadian high school students, that those adolescents who experienced their romantic relationships as supportive, close, communicative and trusting were more comfortable to express their feelings and set boundaries in their relationships.

4.2. Adolescent romantic relationships, intimacy and affection

Intimacy is one of the advantages of being in a romantic relationship for an adolescent (Feiring 1996). These early romantic experiences "play a central role in the development of the self and

the ability to be intimate with significant others" (Feiring, 1996, p.181). Displays of affection like holding hands, kissing, and being together as a couple in a group, as well as increasing levels of intimacy were found to be common events in adolescents' relationships in a longitudinal American study by O'Sullivan, Cheng, Harris, and Brooks-Gunn (2007). These relationships are not just "practice arenas" for adult relationships, but can provide intimacy (O'Sullivan et al., 2007), as well as affection, that is meaningful, also in terms of personal development.

There appears to be differences between various groups regarding the display of affection. It was found that Latin American couples demonstrated more public affection than Asian couples (Regan et al., 1999). Interracial adolescent couples were also found less likely to display affection towards each other in public and private than intra-racial couples, but they still displayed intimate affection towards each other in the same way as intra-racial couples do (Vaquera & Kao, 2005). Research also indicates gender differences in this regard. For example, Israeli adolescent girls experienced higher levels of affection in their romantic relationships than boys in a study by Shulman and Scharf (2000). The girls in this study valued closeness and attachment to their boyfriends whereas boys viewed their romantic relationships as being less serious (Shulman & Scharf, 2000). Girls were also found to value intimacy in their relationships more than boys (Feiring, 1996). As these studies show, intimacy and affection is often connected in romantic relationships, as both are forms of closeness and demonstrations of love towards a romantic partner.

4.3. Adolescent romantic relationships and companionship

An important aspect of adolescents' romantic relationships is companionship, which Feiring (1996) found to be the biggest advantage for 15-year old adolescents in romantic relationships. Companionship was also seen as an important part of romantic relationships in a review by Furman (2002).

Shulman and Kipnis (2001) found in a retrospective Israeli study that individuals depicted their adolescent romantic relationships in terms of companionship and friendship combined with physical attraction, as compared to young adult relationships that had trust, support and stability as main features. In another Israeli study it was found that early adolescents emphasized

companionship more in their romantic relationships than older adolescents (Shulman & Scharf, 2000).

4.4. Adolescent romantic relationships and nurturance

Only one recent study was found in which romantic relationships were connected to nurturance. This was in a literature review by Murray (2005) in which she mentions that "to feel secure in romantic relationships, people need to believe that their partners see qualities in them that merit attention, nurturance and care" (p.74). She concludes that only when people feel secure in romantic relationships, will they be able to build bonds that will allow them to be nurtured and feel connected to the other person (Murray, 2005). Despite this study highlighting nurturance as an important component of romantic relationships, no adolescent studies were found in which the two were connected.

4.5. Adolescent romantic relationships and satisfaction

Being satisfied with a relationship is important as it impacts on mental health and also generally influences whether the relationship will continue. Experiencing satisfaction with one's relationship often involves other relationship qualities like social support and conflict. Cramer (2003), in a study on conflict and relationship satisfaction with British late adolescents, found that relationship satisfaction depended more on positive attributions like understanding and acceptance, than it was directly influenced by the frequency of conflict between partners. He emphasizes how romantic partners should focus more on increasing their acceptance and understanding rather than only trying to reduce conflict in order to increase the satisfaction with their relationships (Cramer, 2003). In a later study with British university students Cramer (2006) found that there was a positive correlation between social support received and relationship satisfaction in that the more social support adolescents received the higher were their relationship satisfaction.

4.6. Adolescent romantic relationships and power

Relational power has been shown to be connected to aggression and relationship satisfaction in an American study with adolescent couples (Bentley, Galliher, & Ferguson, 2007). This was found to be the case for both males and females (Bentley et al., 2007). Power balance in

adolescents' romantic relationships was found to be related to adolescents' levels of self-esteem in a study with late adolescents (Bouchey, 2007). These adolescents felt good about them, and experienced more social acceptance and less social anxiety when the power balance in their romantic relationships was equal (Bouchey, 2007).

A major difference between adolescents' romantic relationships and those with their parents, are the fact that in their romantic relationships adolescents have relatively equal status, whereas in their parental relationships parents usually have more authority (Furman & Shomaker, 2008). In a study investigating the role of power in adolescents' romantic relationships, Galliher et al. (1999) found that adolescents shared power equally in their romantic relationships, whereas research with adult couples showed their relationships not to be egalitarian. Tuval-Mashiach and Shulman (2006) found in their qualitative study with high school and university students from Israel that adolescents were more directed by equity principles in their relationships than adults, in the way that adolescents wanted to maximise the benefits of their relationships and minimise the costs.

In contrast to stereotypical patriarchal dominance structures, in an American study boys experienced the power balance in their romantic relationships to be in favour of their romantic partners and not themselves (Giordano, Longmore, & Manning, 2006). It was also found that the longer boys were in their romantic relationships the less power they perceived themselves as having (Giordano et al., 2006). Despite these findings, the authors argue that further in-depth studies will probably reveal a power structure in these relationships that are closer to the traditional patriarchal structure (Giordano et al., 2006).

4.7. Adolescent romantic relationships and punishment

Although no studies were found that specifically explored punishment in adolescents' romantic relationships, studies investigating partner violence within adolescents' romantic relationships has been on the increase in the last few years. Although not framed as such, it is possible that part of the motive behind perpetrating violence against a romantic partner could be that the perpetrator feels that the victim deserves some form of punishment. In the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health undertaken in the USA with 7500 adolescents, it was confirmed that a third of these adolescents experienced some form of victimization in their romantic

relationships of which 12% reported being victims of physical violence (Halpern, Oslak, Young, Martin, & Kupper, 2001). These authors conclude that minor physical violence and psychological violence are common in adolescents' romantic relationships (Halpern et al., 2001). Relational aggression in the form of using the romantic relationship to manipulate or psychologically harm a romantic partner (Schad et al., 2008), can also be seen as a form of punishment. Schad et al. (2008) found that adolescents who experienced relational aggression in their friendships were more likely to later be involved in romantic relationships in which this type of aggression was present. In the current study punishment refers to discipline in general and does not only focus on physical punishment.

4.8. Adolescent romantic relationships and conflict

According to Collins (2003), adolescents' romantic relationships "marked by harmonious, affectively positive, and responsive interactions facilitate normative developmental trajectories; whereas those marked by angst, preoccupation, and insecurity may disrupt optimal development" (p.17). In this way conflict in adolescents' romantic relationships can have a negative impact on their development as a whole.

> "When adolescent romantic relationships move from the peer context to the context of the dyad, relationships become deeper, more intimate, and have elements of passion. Yet, it is difficult for adolescent couples to negotiate and integrate self and others' wishes in their relationships" (Tuval-Mashiach & Shulman, 2006, p.584).

Feldman and Gowen (1998) maintain that in adolescents' romantic relationships, as in all relationships, there are bound to be conflict, as there will be moments in which either one of the partners are not satisfied with how their needs are met. Laursen (1995) maintains that it is the quality of adolescents' romantic relationships rather than the amount of time they spend together; combined with relationship characteristics that determine how often conflict occurs.

Feldman and Gowen (1998) found that adolescents from different ethnic backgrounds manage conflict differently and that mental health measures for self-esteem, problem behaviours and defence mechanisms predicted their use of different conflict tactics. Managing conflict

effectively is very important in any relationship, and in adolescents' romantic relationships it may be even more important, as these relationships often form the base of their romantic relationship experiences and expectations throughout their lives (Brown, 1999).

4.9. Summary

The major change in the relational development of adolescents is that in this developmental period romantic relationships are generally more important than they have been before in the developmental process. The literature has shown that these relationships now also become important sources of the relationship qualities investigated here, but the literature focusing on these qualities are generally not as abundant in comparison to the other two kinds of relationships.

5. Adolescent Relationships in South Africa

South African research on adolescents' close relationships is most often conducted in the context of HIV/AIDS, teenage pregnancy, condom use and violence within sexual relationships (e.g. Wood & Jewkes, 1997; Swart et al., 2002). The South African studies reviewed here are only those that focussed on adolescents' relationships with their parents, friends and/or romantic partners and incorporated at least one of the relationship qualities investigated in the present study. For example, some studies which investigated adolescents relationships and HIV/AIDS and sexuality, were not included if they did not include any of these specific relationship qualities. Compared to international research, few South African studies met these requirements. According to Swart (2005), adolescents have in general been under-researched in South Africa which highlights the importance of studies like the current one.

5.1. Parent-adolescent Relationships

Some South African studies have been conducted that investigate South African families (e.g. Greeff & Le Roux, 1999) and specifically parent-adolescent relationships, although they do not always focus on the specific relationship qualities investigated in the present study. Mboya (1995) found that, similar to international trends, as black working-class adolescents grew older, they wanted more independence from their parents. Mboya (1998), however, also established that despite assumptions that peers play the most important role in adolescents' lives, supportive-

nurturing relationships with parents were found to be essential in the development of black adolescents' self-concepts.

In a study by Peltzer (2008), with a sample of Grade 9-11 students, it was found that those who were classified as being at a low risk to commit suicide, experienced more support from their parents than those who were in the high risk group. Richter (2006) emphasizes the importance of adolescents having affectionate and supportive families for their personal and social development. In South Africa, where young people often grow up in difficult circumstances, even just having one supportive friend or parent can make an immense positive difference in an adolescent's life (Richter, 2006). In a study on the trend of urbanisation in South Africa, it was confirmed how important family support is for adolescents' development, specifically when they are faced with stressful circumstances like moving from a rural town to the city (Richter, Panday, Swart, & Norris, 2009).This is echoed by Steyn (2006) who found that resilient adolescents had at least one adult, usually their mothers, who were nurturing and supportive towards them.

A study by Pillay and Wassenaar (1997) investigated family conflict experienced by Indian adolescents who had recently attempted suicide, and found that these adolescents generally perceived their family environments as unsupportive. The conflicts these adolescents experienced with their parents often involved issues regarding dating and socializing with peers (Pillay & Wassenaar, 1997). In a study on the conflict resolution styles of young people from the Western Cape between the ages of 12 and 30, De Kock (1995) established that almost all the participants experienced some form of conflict in their lives, with family and friend conflict being dominant (De Kock, 1995). This study also found that different cultural, language and racial groups reported using different conflict resolution strategies which may be due to different upbringing practices, life circumstances and socio-economic circumstances (De Kock, 1995). This study suggests that possible cultural and socio-economical differences between groups of South Africans should be acknowledged when doing research in South Africa.

5.2. Adolescent Friendships

Surprisingly few South African studies focus specifically on the importance and positive influence of friendship in the adolescent period. Steyn (2006) found in her resilience study, that

resilient adolescents most often had friendships that were emotionally supportive and mutually satisfying which emphasizes the importance of peer social support networks for adolescents' healthy development. Although satisfaction with family was consistently important for adolescents' life satisfaction, satisfaction with friends became increasingly important for adolescents' life satisfaction as they became older (Basson, 2008). The importance of support from family and friends, especially when adolescents are going through difficult ordeals, are also emphasized in the studies by Mosiane (2006) and Peltzer (2008). Alberts et al. (2003) found that Afrikaans, English, and Xhosa-speaking adolescent girls rated their friendships with same sex peers as a higher priority to them than boys.

Leaver (2007) emphasizes the importance of the peer group in adolescents' identity development. He also argues that since relationships are experienced within certain racial, cultural and class contexts, identity is also connected to power insofar as one culture, race or class may be seen as being more powerful as another, which will also influence a person's identity. This also cannot be separated from the context in which the adolescent resides as his or her social context will influence their perception of themselves as powerful or not, by seeing what the norm is in the social context.

5.3. Romantic Relationships in adolescence

According to Swart (2005) there is little information available on how dating relationships emerge and develop among adolescents in South Africa. Nonetheless, she concludes that South African adolescents' dating relationships reflects Western research by focusing on the romantic relationship itself as well as the peer culture in which the relationship is embedded (Swart, 2005). She acknowledges, however, that adolescents' dating relationships differ across cultures, just as the relationship can vary between individuals and throughout the adolescent developmental period (Swart, 2005).

In her review of heterosexual relationship research in South Africa, Conradie (2006) also emphasizes the consideration of factors like race, socio-economic status and culture, as they all influence people's constructions of intimate relationships. Hyson (2007) also stresses that intimacy can mean different things within different contexts. Despite the diversity of the South

African population, Conradie (2006) found that it was not well represented in the research as most participants were White and urban.

A qualitative study on expectations in romantic relationships was conducted by Bedell (1999), in which she did in-depth interviews with five South African women all from different cultural backgrounds. She found that the different parental and cultural influences of the women she interviewed all played a part in the forming of their expectations of and values in romantic relationships (Bedell, 1999). These expectations especially form a part of relationship satisfaction. Despite recent indications that gender roles in term of power are moving away from traditional patriarchal power structures, it has been found that men are generally still more powerful in their romantic relationships than women (O'Sullivan, Harrison, Morrell, Monroe-Wise & Kubeka, 2006).

Kubeka (2003) investigated how black township adolescents interpreted and experienced conflict in their intimate relationships. It was found that the adolescents who experienced conflict at home struggled more to cope with problems and adapt in the social and school environment (Kubeka, 2003). Such conflict also led some of the adolescents to believe that violence is an acceptable way to resolve conflict in their intimate relationships (Kubeka, 2003). A similar finding was made in the study on violence in adolescents' dating relationships by Swart et al. (2002). The researchers emphasize the need for adolescents to learn new skills like how to communicate effectively within their relationships, in order to solve conflict in romantic relationships (Swart et al., 2002).

6. Conclusion

Adolescents' close relationships have inspired research studies all across the world. It has been shown how even though romantic relationships and friendships become increasingly important in this developmental period relationships with parents are still vital as sources of support and care. Each of these adolescent relationships should therefore be considered in adolescents' development and well-being. As the developmental contextual framework posits, the literature review has shown that the parent, friendship and romantic relationships influence each other and

that the different relationships and relationship qualities are influenced by the social contexts in which they occur.

The literature review has highlighted gaps and limitations in international literature regarding specific relationship qualities like nurturance and affection across the different relationships. Relationship qualities like support and intimacy are more prevalent in the international literature and have proven to be important aspects of adolescents' positive relational development. Although adolescent relationships have received a lot more attention in the last twenty years than it has before, it is a research area that still has room for expansion, especially when looking at these specific relationship qualities.

Overall, South Africa seems to lag far behind in the number of research studies that focus on adolescents' relationships, especially studies comparing the different close relationships and focusing on different positive and negative qualities of these relationships. South African studies are needed that not only focus on adolescent relationships in the context of violence, mental illness, deviant behaviour or risky sexual behaviour, but on the spectrum of positive and negative relationship qualities of their various close relationships. When comparing the current available international and South African literature it is apparent that South African studies are generally more focused on the circumstances surrounding the relationship qualities, e.g. domestic violence that will lead to conflict within a relationship, as opposed to just focussing the relationship quality itself. It is therefore difficult to compare South African literature with international literature. By exploring the different relationship qualities of South African adolescents' relationships with their parents, friends and romantic partners, this study aimed to expand the knowledge of adolescents' relationships, which is a vital part of their development.

In the next chapter the methodology used in the present study will be discussed.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

1. Research objective and specific research questions

The goal of this study was to investigate three kinds of adolescent relationships: parent-adolescent, friendship and romantic relationships. The following relationship qualities were focused on: social support, companionship, intimacy, nurturance, affection, satisfaction and relative power (called positive qualities), and punishment and conflict (called negative qualities).

The specific research questions were:

- For which relationship do adolescents report the most and the least positive and negative relationship qualities?
- Is there a difference between girls' and boys' reports of positive and negative qualities in the three relationships?
- Is there a difference between White and Coloured adolescents' reports of relationship qualities?
- Is there a difference between low, middle and high income adolescents' reports of relationship qualities?
- Is there a difference in the relationship quality reports of adolescents who are in romantic relationships and those who are not?
- Is there a correlation between positive and negative relationship qualities and demographic factors (e.g. age and time spend with romantic partners)?

2. Research Design

This was a quantitative, correlational study with a cross-sectional design.

3. Participants

Five secondary schools in a large Western Cape Town were approached to participate in the study. Four schools agreed to participate and the grade 10 to 12 learners attending these schools were asked to participate in the study. Two schools draw their learners from predominantly Coloured semi-rural areas and most of the learners come from working class and farm-worker backgrounds. The other two schools' learners are predominantly White with higher socio-

economical backgrounds. A non-probability sampling method was used, as all participation was voluntary. The learners participated by completing a series of self-report questionnaires as well as informed consent forms in Afrikaans or English. The demographic characteristics for the participants are indicated in Table 1 below.

3.1. Total Sample

Table 1
Demographic Representation of Sample (N = 354)

Variable		*f*	*%*
Gender:	Male	149	42
	Female	205	58
Population group:	Coloured	213	61
	White	129	37
	Black	10	3
Christian religion		332	95
Language:	Afrikaans	311	89
	English	25	7
	Xhosa	8	2
School Grade:	10	13	4
	11	174	49
	12	167	47
Academic average:	40-50%	84	24
	60-70%	67	19
	70-80%	65	19
Leadership position:	Yes	103	29
	No	248	71
Residence:	Town	220	62
	Farm	123	35
Family income:	High	56	16
	Middle	258	75
	Low	31	9

| Live with: | Mother | 312 | 88 |
| | Father | 258 | 73 |

The total sample consisted of 354 adolescents, 205 of which were female and 149 of which were male. The ages ranged from 15 to 20 years, with an average age of 17.00 years. This average would have been lower but there were two outliers on the 19 and 20 years of age marks. In terms of racial representation, most of the sample was Coloured, and the rest was White and only 3% was Black. The predominant language spoken by the sample was Afrikaans.

Most of the adolescents were in Grade 11 and 12, with only a few Grade 10 adolescents, which places them in the middle- and late-adolescent stages of development. The academic profiles of the adolescents were mixed, but the largest number of students had academic averages of between 40 and 50%. There was no significant difference between genders for academic average, and more than half of the sample reported participating in extra-curricular activities at school. Only 29% of the adolescents were in leadership positions at the time of the study and there were no significant gender differences for leadership.

Most of the sample lived in town and the rest lived on farms around the town. Adolescents were asked what income bracket they saw their families as representing, and most of the sample, 75%, said they come from middle income families. It has to be considered that this was a subjective statistic, in that what one adolescent considers as being middle income, may not be what another adolescent considers middle income. Adolescents were asked to indicate with whom they live at home, and it has to be noted that 88% of the sample lived with their mothers in the home and only 73% lived with their fathers in the home. Therefore, there are some cases of absent parents, especially absent fathers, in this sample.

3.2. Difference between population groups

In this section the differences between White and Coloured population groups for the demographic variables will be presented. This differentiation was not made for Black adolescents as they were not represented adequately enough. Chi-square tests were done to assess the differences between Coloured and White adolescents.

Table 2

Demographic Results for Differences between Population Groups and Chi-square Statistics for Differences between Population Groups

Variable		Coloured		White		df	Chi-Square
		f	*%*	*f*	*%*		Between Subjects
School activities		82	38	109	84	1	74.23**
Leadership		57	27	45	35	1	2.82
Residence:	Town	110	52	108	84	2	54.94**
	Farm	101	47	14	11		
Live with:	Mother	169	79	129	100	1	45.54**
	Father	138	65	110	85	1	18.01**
	Grandmother	50	23	5	4	1	27.21**
	Grandfather	25	12	0	0	1	24.86**
	Aunt	29	14	1	1	1	22.08**
	Uncle	26	12	0	0	1	25.91**
	Brother	104	49	70	54	1	0.95
	Sister	107	50	60	48	1	0.15
Income:	High	7	3	49	38	2	80.25**
	Middle	170	83	77	60		
	Low	28	14	2	2		

*p < .05, **p < .01

Regarding place of residence, a larger percentage of White adolescents lived in town than Coloured adolescents, and a larger percentage of Coloured adolescents lived on farms than White adolescents. There were also significant differences between population groups when looking at how many people lived with them at home, with Coloured adolescents living with significantly

more people in the home than White adolescents. There were significant differences between population groups regarding parents living in their home. All of the White adolescents lived with their mothers, while only 79% of the Coloured adolescents lived with their mothers in the home. A similar statistic was found for fathers, as only 65% of the Coloured adolescents lived with their fathers in the home compared to 85% of the White adolescents. There was no significant difference between population groups for living with their brothers and sisters. For the additional family members, namely grandparents, aunts and uncles, Coloured adolescents lived significantly more often with each of them than White adolescents.

Significantly more of the White adolescents participated in extra-curricular activities at school than Coloured adolescents. There was no significant difference between population groups for leadership. There were significant differences between White and Coloured adolescents for income bracket. There were more White adolescents from high income families than Coloured adolescents and more Coloured adolescents were in low income families than White adolescents. Eighty-three percent of the Coloured adolescents said they were from middle income families as compared to 60% of the White adolescents.

3.3. Conclusion

The sample for the present study was Coloured, White and Black adolescents in Grades 10 to 12 ranging in age between 15 and 20 years. The sample consisted of mostly Coloured and then White adolescents, who spoke predominantly Afrikaans at home and belonged to the Christian religion. Participation in activities at school was not very high, with White adolescents participating in more school activities than Coloured adolescents. The adolescents were mostly from middle-income backgrounds, with more White adolescents coming from high-income backgrounds and more Coloured adolescents coming from low-income backgrounds. These adolescents either lived in town or on farms outside of town, with more Coloured adolescents living on farms than White adolescents. Coloured adolescents lived with more people at home than White adolescents and more adolescents in general lived with their mothers in the home than lived with their fathers in the home.

4. Measuring instruments

4.1. Demographic Questionnaire

A demographic questionnaire was completed with questions on different demographic factors like gender, age, race, socio-economic status, living conditions, home language as well as specific questions eliciting relationship information such as duration of relationship, etc. The demographic questionnaire, along with the other two questionnaires, were tested with a group of 20 Grade 10 students to see whether it was understandable and user-friendly, and adjustments to the demographic questionnaire were made accordingly. All questionnaires were answered in English or Afrikaans.

4.2. The Network of Relationships Inventory (NRI)

Additional qualities of adolescents' relationships with parents, best friends and romantic partners were assessed by using the Network of Relationships Inventory (NRI). This measure was designed by Wyndol Furman and Duane Buhrmester in 1985 and consists of 33 items scored on a 5-point Likert scale for each separate relationship (Touliatos et al., 2001). The NRI measures different qualities of relationships referred to as positive and negative qualities. The qualities assessed in this study were companionship, affection, intimacy, nurturance, satisfaction and relative power (positive qualities), and conflict (C1) and punishment (negative qualities) (Touliatos et al., 2001).

Scores are not obtained through the use of a total score, but the different qualities are assessed through specific questions in the questionnaire of which the scores are then averaged to obtain a score for each quality. Each relationship quality was measured with 3 items and scores can therefore range between 3 and 15.

The internal consistency reliability of the NRI has been found to be good at an alpha value of .81, and this value was consistent over different grades (Furman & Buhrmester, 1992). Test-retest reliability over a 1-month period has also been found to be satisfactory (.66 to .70) (Touliatos et al., 2001). In another study the Cronbach alpha values for reliability were found to range from .72 to .92 across different relationships (Kuttler & LaGreca, 2004). The NRI have also been shown to have good convergent validity with the Family Environment Scale, and has been shown to be a

valuable and useful measure to assess different relationships (Creasey & Jarvis, 1989). In the present study the reliability of the NRI was tested using Cronbach coefficient alpha, and scores ranged from .63 to .92. The alpha coefficients for the different relationship qualities and the different relationships are presented in the table below.

Table 3

Cronbach Alpha Coefficients for the NRI

Relationship Quality	Mother	Father	Best Friend	Romantic Partner
Intimacy	.87	.87	.86	.84
Companionship	.81	.84	.78	.67
Affection	.86	.92	.83	.87
Nurturance	.71	.80	.73	.70
Satisfaction	.91	.92	.81	.82
Relative Power	.74	.81	.67	.74
Punishment	.75	.77	.63	.63
Conflict (C1)	.84	.86	.74	.85

Note: NRI= Network of Relationships Inventory

Conflict was the only relationship quality that was measured by subscales of both the NRI and QRI. The validity for these two conflict subscales was calculated and found to be $r = .66$, $p < .01$, which suggest good validity of the two subscales. Overall, the NRI seems to be a good and useful measure. It has been used across different samples and countries e.g. USA, Brazil (Van Horn & Marques, 2000; Kuttler & La Greca, 2004). To the researcher's knowledge it had not been used in South Africa before and an Afrikaans language translation was not available. The NRI was translated using the back-translation procedure.

4.3. The Quality of Relationships Inventory (QRI)

To measure the quality of adolescents' relationships, the Quality of Relationships Inventory (QRI) was used. The QRI is a 25-item Likert-type scale that was designed by G.R. Pierce, I.G. Sarason, and B.R. Sarason (Touliatos, Perlmutter, & Holden, 2001). Each item is answered on a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from "Not at all" to "Very much". The QRI was developed to assess the quality of interpersonal relationships by assessing different relationship qualities. The two relationship qualities assessed in this study with the QRI were social support and conflict (C2) (Pierce, Sarason, & Sarason 1991).

Scores are obtained the same as with the NRI where certain questions measure certain qualities and scores on these qualities are obtained by averaging the scores of the items measuring specific qualities. Support is measured with 7 items and scores for support can therefore range between 7 and 28. Conflict (C2) is measured with 12 items and scores for conflict (C2) can therefore range between 12 and 48. The questionnaire is designed in such a way that the participant can complete the measure with regards to any specific relationship, and in this study relationships with mother, father, best friend and romantic partner were assessed.

The QRI has been proven to be a psychometrically sound instrument, with the alpha coefficient across several samples ranging from .70 to .90 (Touliatos et al., 2001). The QRI has generally been found to have good reliability, validity and test-retest stability (Verhofstadt, Buysse, Rosseel, Peene, 2006), and has been used across a wide range of different samples (e.g. Grissett & Norvell, 1992; Nakano et al., 2002). In the present study reliability was measured using the Cronbach coefficient alpha for the different relationship qualities and the different relationships. Alphas were generally quite high with alpha coefficients ranging from between .83 and .90. The alpha coefficients are presented in the table below.

Table 4

Cronbach Alpha Coefficients for the QRI

Relationship Quality	Mother	Father	Best Friend	Romantic Partner
Support	.81	.84	.78	.67
Conflict (C2)	.85	.88	.85	.89

Note: QRI= Quality of Relationships Inventory

Although this measure was freely available, permission to use it was obtained from the instrument's designers. To the researcher's knowledge the QRI had not been used in South Africa previously and an Afrikaans language translation was not available. The questionnaire was therefore translated into Afrikaans using the back-translation procedure.

5. Procedure

Permission was obtained from the Western Cape Education Department to conduct the study in the schools. Meetings were arranged with the principal and/or life orientation teacher at five schools. One school declined to participate due to a recent negative research experience. After the principals' and teachers' co-operation of the other four schools were obtained, arrangements were made to administer the questionnaires in each school. The learners and their parents had to complete informed consent forms (see Addendum A and B) in order for the learners to participate. The questionnaires, including the demographic questionnaire, NRI and QRI, were completed at the four schools under supervision and collected by the researcher. Questionnaires were either completed in class or in the school hall in life orientation periods, depending on what best suited the teachers. At all times participation was completely voluntary.

6. Statistical procedure

Data was analyzed using the statistical analysis package, Statistica. A probability value (p-value) of .05 was used in all the analyses to test for significance. Two-way repeated measures analyses of variance (ANOVA) using a mixed design was used to see for which relationships adolescents reported experiencing most of the specific relationship qualities, and how they differ, as well as whether there was an interaction effect for gender and the different relationship qualities for the different relationships. In other words it was tested whether the relationship between the

relationship qualities and parents, best friends or romantic partners depended on the gender of the adolescent completing the questionnaire.

Additional one-way analyses of variance were done between the different relationship qualities and certain demographic constructs. (Only demographic constructs with which there was significant variance will be reported.) The demographic characteristics that were measured were population group, socio-economic status and romantic relationship status.

Correlations were done between certain demographic factors and the different relationships qualities, in order to investigate the nature of the relationships that exists between these factors. The Spearman correlation coefficient (r_s) was used. Although correlations were done with many demographic variables, only significant correlations will be reported. The only significant correlations were found for age as well as time spent with romantic partner.

7. Ethical considerations

Apart from the permission obtained from the Western Cape Education Department, ethical clearance was also obtained to conduct the study from the internationally accredited Committee for Human Research at Tygerberg Hospital in Cape Town, also affiliated to Stellenbosch University. Information on the aims, motivation and importance of the research were given to the learners beforehand. Both the participants and their parents signed informed consent forms in which the research procedure, benefits and ethical obligations were explained. Questionnaires were answered anonymously and learners were assured that all results will be treated confidentially. Learners could withdraw themselves from the study at any time, without any negative consequences. They were also assured that in the event that learners became aware of any personal problems whilst participating in the study, information would be given to them on how to obtain help for these problems. Any information obtained through the research will remain confidential and will only be made public with the learners' consent or as the law demands. Furthermore, the data is stored in the researcher's office, and only the researcher and her supervisor has access to it.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

1. Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the present study will be presented. As the bulk of the demographic results were presented in Chapter 4, the demographic results presented in this chapter are the additional analyses that connect the demographic factors to the different relationships and relationship qualities. After these demographic results the statistical results for the different relationship qualities will be presented.

2. Demographic Results

The following demographic results are additional to the results presented in Chapter 4.

Table 5
Demographic Representation of Sample

Variable		f	% of sample
In romantic relationship:	Yes	181	51
	No	173	49
Time with partner:	Weekends	66	35
	Every day	42	22
	3/4 times a week	40	21
Most important person:	Mother	258	73
	Father	120	34
	Best friend	67	19
	Romantic partner	46	13

More than half of the sample was in a committed romantic relationship at the time of assessment. The average duration of romantic relationships up to the point of measurement was 10.69 months. There was a significant difference between genders for romantic relationship duration, $F(1, 175) = 4.49$, $p < .05$, with girls' average relationships lasting for 12.03 months and boys'

average relationships lasting for 8.42 months. The minimum length of relationship in the present study was one week and the maximum was four years.

Girls' romantic partners were significantly older than boys' romantic partners, F (1, 178) = 67.996, $p < .01$. The average age of girls' romantic partners was 19.24 years and the average age of boys' romantic partners was 16.62 years. On average these adolescents had been in 4.57 romantic relationships, including their current relationships. In the present study, boys had been in significantly more romantic relationships than girls at the time of the study, F (1, 266) = 17.131, $p < .01$. The average number of romantic relationships boys had been in was 6.10 relationships, compared to girls who had on average been in 3.53 relationships.

Adolescents frequently spent time with their romantic partners, with most adolescents, 35%, seeing their romantic partners on weekends; 21% seeing partners often during the week and 22% seeing their partners every day. Thirty percent of the adolescents in romantic relationships spoke about personal things a few times a week with their romantic partners, 28% spoke about personal things every day, and 27% spoke about personal things with their romantic partners only once a week. Adolescents were also asked how often they specifically talked about their relationship with their romantic partners, and it was found that 34% spoke about it every day, 28% spoke about it a few times a week, and 23% only spoke about their romantic relationships once a week.

A question at the end of the questionnaire asked whom adolescents viewed as being the most important person in their lives at the time of the study. They could choose more than one person. Adolescents' mothers were the most important for 73% of the sample, with fathers being second most important with 34%. Friends were the most important for 19% of the sample, and boyfriends/girlfriends were the most important for 13% of the sample. There were no differences between genders for who they reported as being the most important person in their lives.

2.1. Difference between population groups and between adolescents who were and were not in romantic relationships

The following results are additional to the differences between population groups presented in Chapter 4, and include the results of the Chi-square tests for adolescents who were and were not in romantic relationships.

Table 6
Demographics for Population Groups and Chi-square Statistics for Differences between Population Groups

Source		Coloured (n = 213)		White (n = 129)		df	Chi-square
		f	%	f	%		Between subjects
In romantic relationship		133	62	41	32	1	30.75**
Important person :	Mother	165	77	85	66	1	5.39*
	Father	61	29	57	44	1	8.50**
	Best friend	20	9	45	35	1	33.10**
	Romantic partner	28	87	15	88	1	0.17

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

There was a significant difference between population groups for being in romantic relationships. More Coloured adolescents were in romantic relationships than White adolescents.

There were significant differences between population groups for who they saw as being the most important person in their lives. Seventy-seven percent of the Coloured adolescents viewed their mother being the most important person in their lives, as compared to 66% of the White adolescents. Fathers were seen as the most important person by 44% of the White adolescents and 29% of the Coloured adolescents. There were significant differences between population groups for reporting best friends as the most important people in their lives. Best friends were reported as the most important person for 35% of the White adolescents, as compared to only 9% of the Coloured adolescents.

Chi-square tests were done to see whether adolescents who were in romantic relationships rated differently who they viewed as being the most important person in their lives as apposed to those who were not in romantic relationships. There were no significant differences for mothers and fathers. Only 11% of the adolescents in romantic relationships reported their best friends as being the most important person in their lives, as compared to 27% of single adolescents reporting their best friends as being the most important person in their lives. There were no differences between genders for reporting any of the four people as the most important person in their lives.

2.2. Conclusion

More than half of the total sample was in romantic relationships and more Coloured adolescents were in romantic relationships than White adolescents. The average romantic relationship duration was 10.69 months, with girls reporting longer relationships than boys. Girls' romantic partners were significantly older than boys' romantic partners, but boys had been in more romantic relationships than girls. The amount of time per week that adolescents spent with their romantic partners differed, as most of them only saw their romantic partners on weekends, but the second highest group saw them every day.

The adolescents rated their mothers as being the most important person in their lives followed by their fathers. Coloured adolescents viewed their mothers as being the most important more often than White adolescents, but White adolescents viewed their fathers as being the most important person in their lives more often than Coloured adolescents. There were no differences between ethnic groups for reporting romantic partners as the most important, but there were for best friends, as White adolescents saw their friends as more important than Coloured adolescents. Being in a romantic relationship did not really change how important adolescents viewed the other people in their lives as being, except that more single adolescents viewed their best friends as being the most important people in their lives as compared to adolescents in romantic relationships.

3. Results for the different relationship qualities

3.1. Support

Respondents were asked to report in which relationship they received the most social support. In Table 7, 8 and 9 as well as Figure 2 below, the results for support, including the ANOVAs with certain demographic factors, are presented.

Table 7
Mean Scores for Support

Source	*M*	*SD*
Mother	22.89	.26
Father	19.77	.26
Best friend	22.78	.26
Romantic Partner	23.24	.35

Table 8
Two-way Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance for Social Support

Source	*df*	*F*
Relationships	3, 844	47.85**
Gender	1, 349	0.54
Relationships × Gender	3, 844	4.46**

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Table 9
One-way Analyses of Variance for Social Support

Source	*df*	*F*
Race – Mother	1, 331	4.02*
Race – Father	1, 320	21.21**
Race – Best Friends	1, 332	6.22*

| Income – Fathers | 2, 321 | 14.44** |
| Income – Romantic Partners | 2, 172 | 3.87* |

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Figure 2
Means for support according to gender
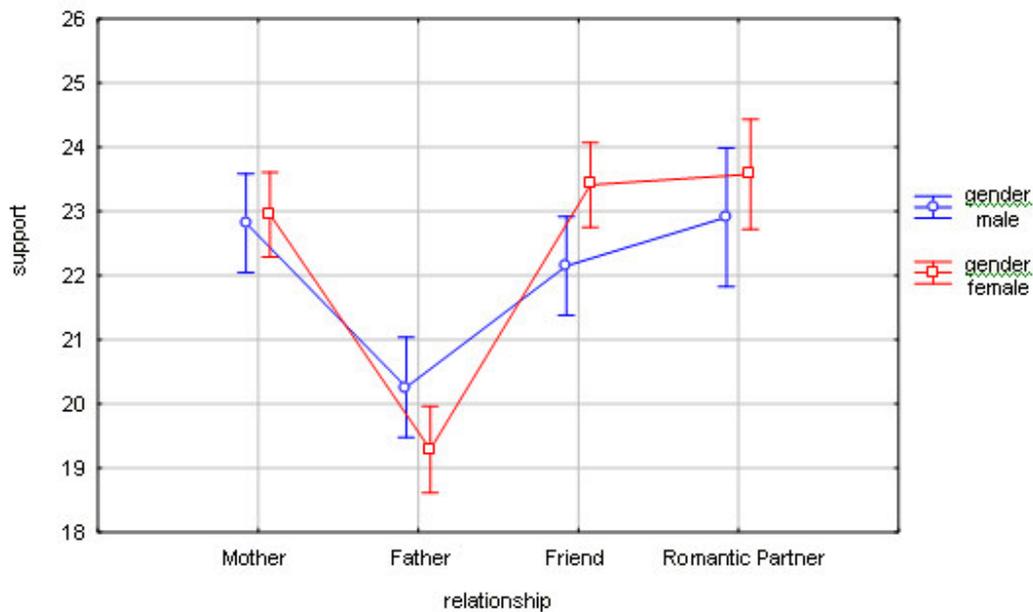
The mean scores for support are shown in Table 7, which indicates how much support adolescents' reported receiving from each relationship. Table 8 demonstrates that there was a significant difference between the four means for support received from mother, father, best friend and romantic partner. Post hoc tests revealed that it was only support from fathers that were significantly lower than the other relationships ($p < .01$). There was a significant interaction effect for gender and the different relationships as is shown in Table 8 and Figure 2. Post hoc tests showed that it was only in relationships with best friends that girls reported significantly more support than boys, $M = 23.41$, ($n = 199$), $SD = .34$, $p < .01$ (girls); $M = 22.15$, ($n = 147$), $SD = .39$, $p < .01$ (boys).

White adolescents reported significantly more support from their mothers, fathers and best friends than Coloured adolescents, as is shown in Table 9. Higher levels of support from fathers

and romantic partners were reported by adolescents from high income families. The only significant correlation for age was found between age and support from mothers. Although it was not a strong positive correlation, ($n = 345$), $r_s = .14$, it was significant ($p < .01$), and shows that as adolescents become older they report increased support from their mothers.

3.2. Intimacy

Respondents were asked in which relationship they received the most intimacy. In Table 10, 11 and 12 as well as Figure 3 below, the results for intimacy, including the ANOVAs with certain demographic factors, are presented.

Table 10
Mean Scores for Intimacy

Source	M	SD
Mother	8.55	.19
Father	6.49	.19
Best friend	10.85	.19
Romantic Partner	11.46	.26

Table 11
Two-way Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance for Intimacy

Source	df	F
Relationships	3, 847	159.03**
Gender	1, 350	0.19
Relationships × Gender	3, 847	4.26*

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Table 12

One-way Analyses of Variance for Intimacy

Source	df	F
Race – Father	1, 322	10.84*
Income – Fathers	2, 323	3.63**

*p < .05, **p < .01*

Figure 3

Means for intimacy according to gender
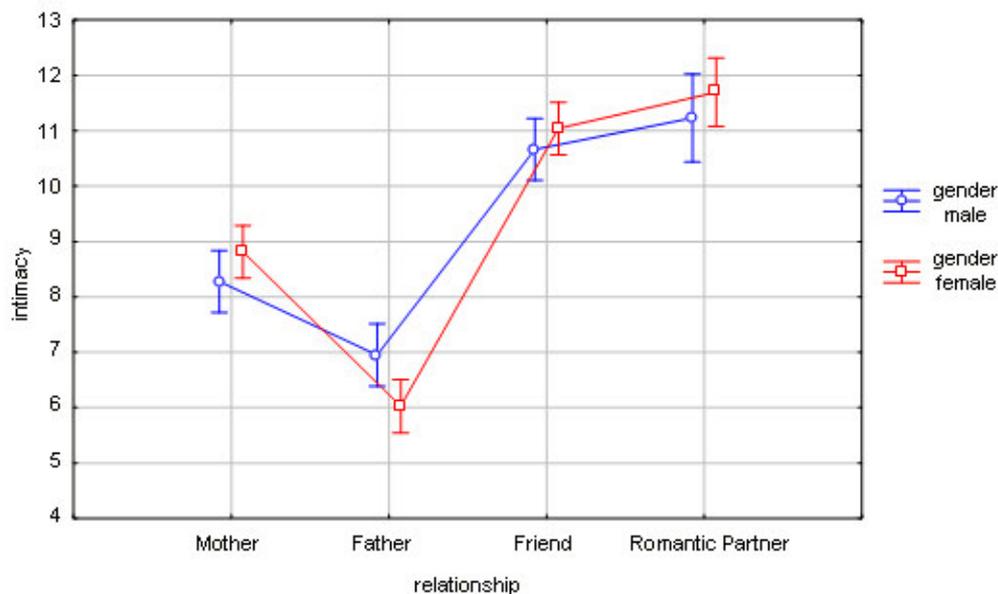
All the relationships differed significantly from each other with the most intimacy reported for romantic partners (see Table 10). There was a significant interaction effect with intimacy between gender and the different relationships, as is mentioned in Table 11 and demonstrated in Figure 3. Post hoc tests revealed that it was actually only in relationships with fathers that boys reported significantly more intimacy than girls, $M = 6.95$, ($n = 142$), $SD = .29$, $p < .01$ (boys); $M = 6.03$, ($n = 192$), $SD = .25$, $p < .01$ (girls).

Table 12 shows that significantly more intimacy with fathers was reported by White adolescents than Coloured adolescents; and by adolescents in high and middle income groups than adolescents in low income groups.

3.3. Companionship

Respondents were asked in which relationship they received the most companionship. In Table 13, 14 and 15 and Figure 4 below, the results for companionship, including the ANOVAs with certain demographic factors, are presented.

Table 13
Mean Scores for Companionship

Source	*M*	*SD*
Mother	9.73	.17
Father	8.09	.17
Best friend	11.54	.16
Romantic Partner	11.48	.23

Figure 4
Means for companionship
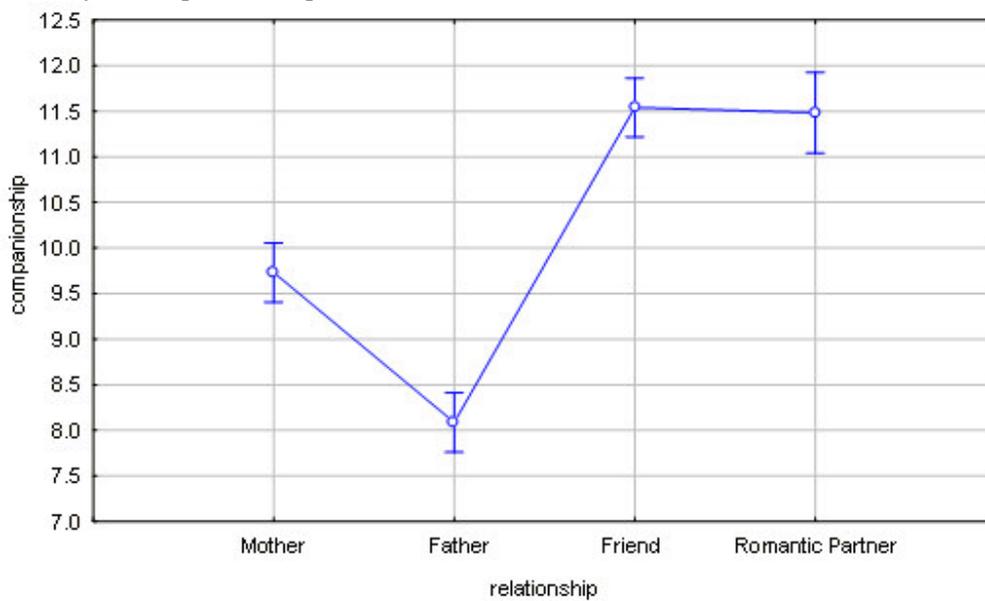
Table 14

Two-way Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance for Companionship

Source	df	F
Relationships	3, 851	115.36**
Gender	1, 351	0.01
Relationships × Gender	3, 851	1.71

*p < .05, **p < .01

Table 15

One-way Analysis of Variance for Companionship

Source	df	F
Race – Friends	1, 335	9.08*
Income – Fathers	2, 324	5.21*
Income – Romantic Partners	2, 174	3.79*

*p < .05, **p < .01

The highest level of companionship was reported with friends and romantic partners, which did not differ significantly from each other (p = .82). Companionship with mothers was second highest, and the lowest level of companionship was reported in relationships with fathers. The different scores for companionship are shown in Table 13 and Figure 4. There was no significant difference between genders, and also no significant interaction effect (see Table 14).

In Table 15 it is shown that significantly more companionship from friends was reported by White adolescents, as compared to Coloured adolescents. Adolescents who were in high- and middle-income families reported significantly higher levels of companionship from their fathers and romantic partners than those from low-income families.

3.4. Affection

Respondents were asked in which relationship they received the most affection. In Table 16, 17 and 18 and Figure 5 below, the results for affection, including the ANOVAs with certain demographic factors, are presented.

Table 16
Mean Scores for Affection

Source	*M*	*SD*
Mother	13.98	.15
Father	12.55	.15
Best friend	11.87	.15
Romantic Partner	13.11	.20

Table 17
Two-way Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance for Affection

Source	*df*	*F*
Relationships	3, 853	51.36**
Gender	1, 352	0.17
Relationships × Gender	3, 853	2.95*

*p < .05, **p < .01

Table 18
One-way Analyses of Variance for Affection

Source	*df*	*F*
Race – Fathers	1, 323	22.91**
Income – Fathers	2, 324	6.90**

*p < .05, **p < .01

Figure 5
Means for affection according to gender
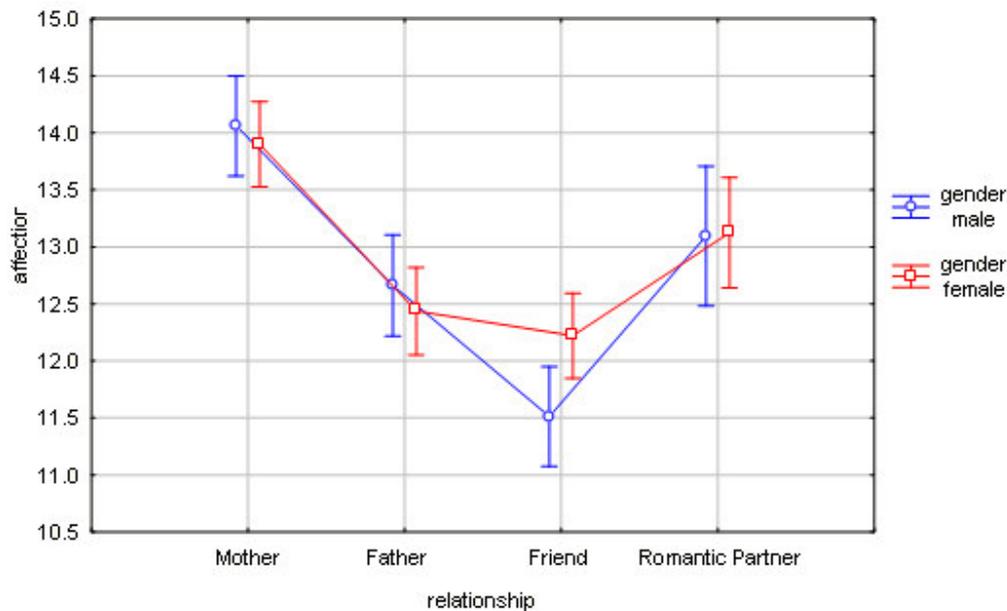
All the relationships differed significantly from each other, with affection from mothers being the highest (see Table 16). There was a significant interaction effect for affection between genders and the different relationships, as is mentioned in Table 17 and shown in Figure 5. Post hoc tests demonstrated that it was only in relationships with best friends that girls reported significantly more affection than boys, $M = 12.22$, ($n = 202$), $SD = .19$ (girls), $p < .02$; $M = 11.51$, ($n = 148$), $SD = 0.22$, $p < .02$ (boys).

Significantly more affection from fathers were reported by White adolescents than Coloured adolescents and adolescents from high and middle income families reported significantly more affection from their fathers than those in low income families (see Table 18).

3.5. Nurturance

Respondents were asked in which relationship they received the most nurturance. In Table 19, 20 and 21 and Figure 6 below, the results for nurturance, including the ANOVAs with certain demographic factors, are presented.

Table 19
Mean Scores for Nurturance

Source	M	SD
Mother	10.80	.17
Father	9.05	.17
Best friend	10.67	.17
Romantic Partner	11.45	.21

Figure 6
Means for nurturance
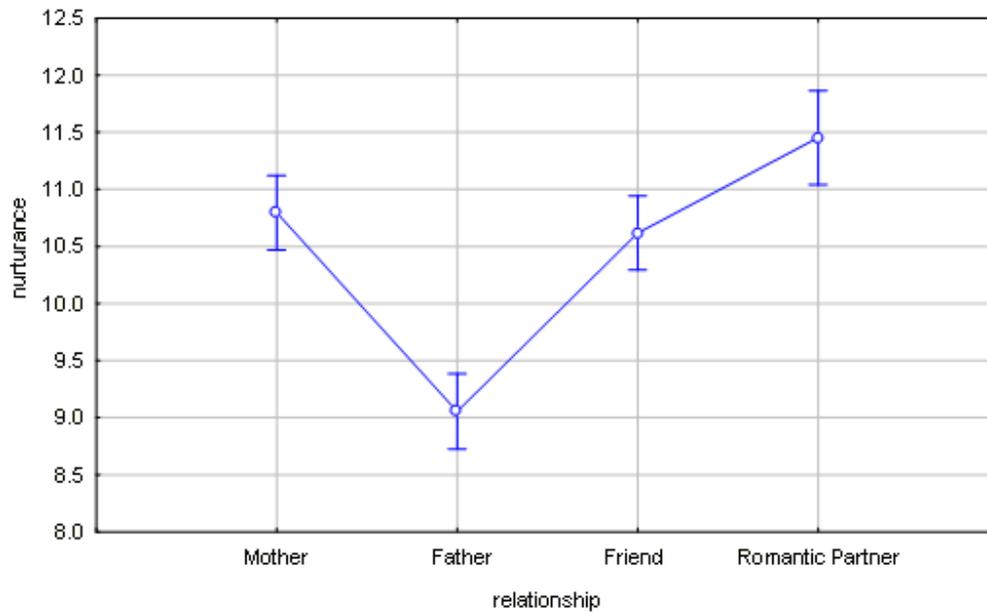
Table 20
Two-way Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance for Nurturance

Source	df	F
Relationships	3, 853	59.96**
Gender	1, 352	0.43
Relationships × Gender	3, 853	1.64

*p < .05, **p < .01

Table 21
One-way Analyses of Variance for Nurturance

Source	df	F
Race – Mothers	1, 333	8.31**
Romantic Status – Mothers	1, 345	7.19**

*p < .05, **p < .01*

The highest level of nurturance was reported in relationships with romantic partners and differed significantly from all the other relationships (see Table 19 and Figure 6). The second highest level of nurturance was reported for relationships with best friends and mothers, that did not differ significantly from each other ($p = .27$). Nurturance from fathers was significantly lower than the other relationships. There was no significant difference between genders for nurturance as is shown in Table 20, and also no significant interaction effect.

Table 21 shows that nurturance from mothers was reported significantly more by Coloured adolescents than by White adolescents and by adolescents who were in romantic relationships as compared to those who were not.

3.6. Satisfaction

Respondents were asked to report with which relationship they were the most satisfied. In Table 22, 23 and 24 and Figure 7 below, the results for satisfaction, including the ANOVAs with certain demographic factors, are presented.

Table 22
Mean Scores for Satisfaction

Source	M	SD
Mother	12.12	.17
Father	10.22	.18
Best friend	12.01	.17

Romantic Partner   12.29   .23

Table 23
Two-way Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance for Satisfaction

Source	df	F
Relationships	3, 850	40.05**
Gender	1, 351	5.40*
Relationships × Gender	3, 850	0.71

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Table 24
One-way Analyses of Variance for Satisfaction

Source	df	F
Race – Fathers	1, 323	5.58*
Race – Best Friends	1, 334	5.61*
Income – Father	2,324	10.36**

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Figure 7
Means for satisfaction according to gender

62
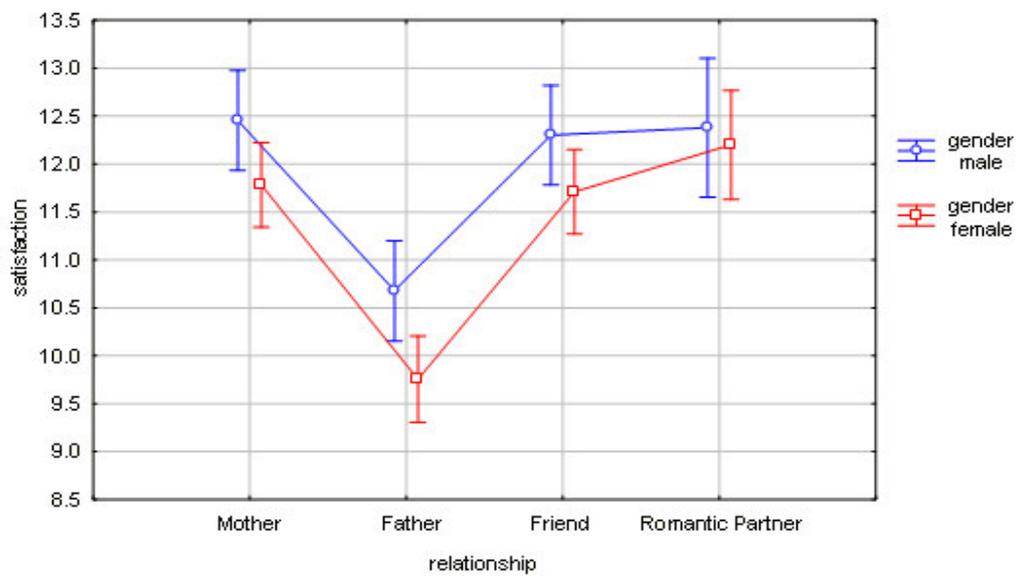
Post hoc tests revealed that relationships with fathers were significantly lower for satisfaction than the other relationships which did not differ significantly from each other. The scores for satisfaction are shown in Table 22. There was a significant difference between genders for satisfaction, with boys reporting more satisfaction in all their relationships than girls, $M = 11.95$, ($n = 502$), $SD = 0.20$, $p < .02$ (boys); $M = 11.36$, ($n = 707$), $SD = 0.16$, $p < .02$ (girls). This is demonstrated in Figure 7. There was no significant interaction effect (see Table 23), which shows that the difference between genders did not have a significant effect on the differences between relationships in general.

White adolescents were significantly more satisfied with their relationships with their fathers than Coloured adolescents, as well as with their best friends (see Table 24). Adolescents from high income families reported significantly more satisfaction with their relationships with their fathers than adolescents from middle and low income families.

3.7. Power

Respondents were asked to report in which relationship they felt the most powerful. In Table 25, 26 and 27 and Figure 8 below, the results for power, including the ANOVAs with certain demographic factors, are presented.

Table 25
Mean Scores for Relative Power

Source	M	SD
Mother	11.09	.17
Father	9.95	.17
Best friend	7.11	.17
Romantic Partner	8.51	.23

Figure 8
Means for relative power
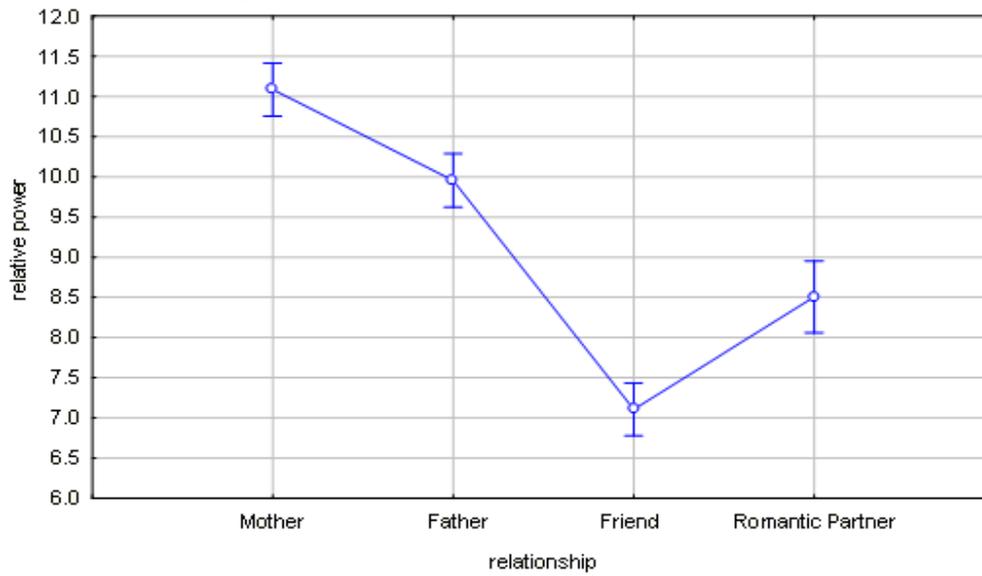
Table 26
Two-way Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance for Relative Power

Source	df	F
Relationships	3, 848	139.84**
Gender	1, 351	0.29
Relationships × Gender	3, 848	0.20

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Table 27
One-way Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance for Relative Power

Source	df	F
Race – Mothers	1, 332	14.10**
Race – Romantic Partners	1, 171	6.15*
Income – Mothers	2, 334	6.54**
Romantic Status – Mothers	1, 344	6.71*

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Significantly different levels of power were reported in the different relationships by the adolescents, as is shown in Table 25 and Figure 8. Adolescents felt most powerful in their relationships with their mothers, and then with their fathers, then their romantic partners and least powerful in their best friendships. There was no significant difference between genders for power, and no significant interaction effect (see Table 26).

There was a significant difference between races for the experience of power in their relationships with their mothers and romantic partners (see Table 27), with Coloured adolescents feeling more powerful than White adolescents. Significantly higher levels of power in relationships with mothers were reported by adolescents from middle and low income families as well as adolescents who were in romantic relationships.

3.8. Punishment

Respondents were asked to report in which relationship they were punished the most. In Table 28, 29 and 30 and Figure 9 below, the results for punishment, including the ANOVAs with certain demographic factors, are presented.

Table 28
Mean Scores for Punishment

Source	*M*	*SD*
Mother	8.96	.16
Father	8.03	.17
Best friend	5.66	.16
Romantic Partner	6.78	.21

Table 29

Two-way Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance for Relative Punishment

Source	df	F
Relationships	3, 853	154.26**
Gender	1, 352	0.38
Relationships × Gender	3, 853	3.34*

*p < .05, **p < .01

Table 30

One-way Analyses of Variance for Relative Punishment

Source	df	F
Race – Mothers	1, 333	40.65**
Race – Fathers	1, 323	9.87**
Race – Best Friends	1, 336	77.52**
Race – Romantic Partners	1, 172	38.11**
Income – Mothers	2, 335	8.72**
Income – Best Friends	2, 338	11.84**
Income – Romantic Partners	2, 175	6.04**
Romantic status – Mothers	1, 345	6.42*
Romantic status – Fathers	1, 333	6.60*
Romantic Status – Best Friend	1, 348	20.01**

*p < .05, **p < .01

Figure 9
Means for punishment according to gender
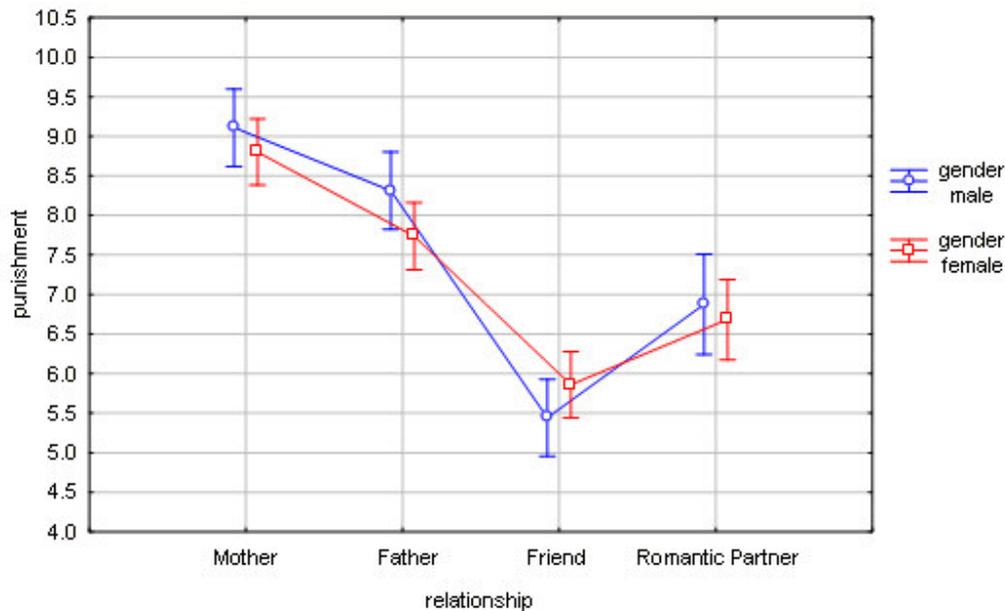
All the relationships differed significantly from each other for punishment (see Table 28). Adolescents were punished most by their mothers and then by their fathers. Although there was a significant interaction between gender and the different relationships for punishment as is mentioned in Table 29, post hoc tests revealed that there were in fact no significant differences between genders for punishment (see Figure 9).

Table 30 shows that Coloured adolescents were punished significantly more in all their relationships than White adolescents. Adolescents from low and middle income families were punished significantly more by their mothers, best friends and romantic partners than those in high income families. Higher levels of punishment from mothers, fathers and best friends were reported by those who were in romantic relationships as opposed to those who were not.

There was a significant negative correlation for punishment from best friends and time spent with romantic partners, with a correlation coefficient of ($n = 186$), $r_s = -.20$, $p < .01$. The more time adolescents spent with their romantic partners, the less they were punished by their friends, and vice versa.

3.9. Conflict (C1 and C2)

Respondents were asked to report in which relationship they experienced the most conflict. In Table 31, 32 and 33 and Figures 10 and 11 below, the results for conflict subscales C1 and C2, including the ANOVAs with certain demographic factors, are presented.

Table 31
Mean Scores for Conflict

Source	Conflict (C1)		Conflict (C2)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Mother	7.23	.17	28.16	.43
Father	6.89	.17	27.79	.44
Best Friend	6.18	.17	24.64	.43
Romantic Partner	7.18	.23	28.00	.56

Figure 10
Means for Conflict C1
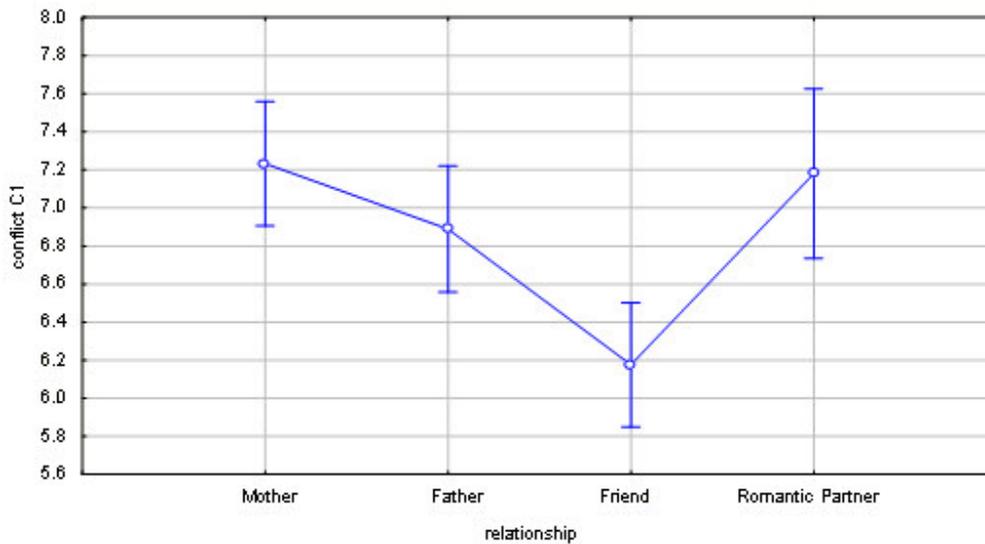
Figure 11
Means for Conflict C2
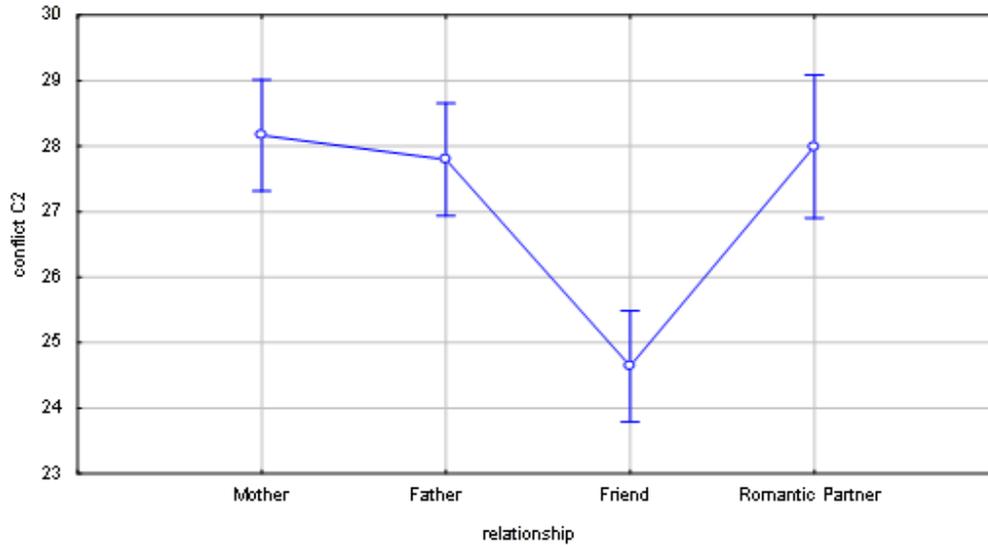
Table 32
Two-way Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance for Conflict (C1) and (C2)

Source	Conflict (C1)		Conflict (C2)	
	df	F	df	F
Relationships	3, 850	10.70**	3, 812	27.15**
Gender	1, 351	1.64	1, 337	0.00
Relationships X Gender	3, 850	0.66	3, 812	0.12

*p < .05, **p < .01

Table 33
One-way Analyses of Variance for Conflict (C1) and (C2)

Source		Conflict (C1)		Conflict (C2)	
		df	F	df	F
Population group:	Mother	1, 332	0.19	1, 318	16.73**
	Father	1, 332	1.27	1, 309	17.12**

	Best Friend	1, 335	24.49**	1, 320	27.23**
	Romantic Partner	1, 171	7.58*	1, 161	7.25*
Income:	Mother	2, 332	0.27	2, 321	10.06**
	Father	2, 332	1.41	2, 311	6.32**
	Best Friend	2, 337	5.48**	2, 323	8.45**
	Romantic Partner	2, 174	4.22*	2, 164	6.16**
Romantic status:	Mother	1, 344	1.51	1, 330	6.06*
	Father	1, 337	11.14**	1, 319	12.11**
	Best Friend	1, 347	6.42*	1, 164	1.59

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

As there were two subscales measuring conflict, they will be reported here as Conflict subscales 1 (C1) and Conflict subscale 2 (C2). Results for the two conflict scales were very similar. The mean scores for both subscales are shown in Table 31 and Figures 10 and 11. Both subscales C1 and C2 showed that it was only conflict with friends that was significantly lower than the other relationships. There were no significant differences between genders for conflict, and also no significant interaction effects (see Table 32).

Table 33 shows that results for the ANOVA with conflict and certain demographic factors. Coloured adolescents reported significantly more conflict (C1) with their best friends and romantic partners than White adolescents. More conflict (C2) was reported by Coloured adolescents than White adolescents in all their relationships. Adolescents from middle and low income families reported significantly higher levels of conflict (C1) with their friends, and their romantic partners and significantly higher levels of conflict (C2) in all their relationships. Adolescents who were in romantic relationships reported significantly more conflict (C1) with their fathers and their best friends and significantly higher levels of conflict (C2) with their mothers and fathers. A significant negative correlation was found for conflict (C2) with best friends and time spent with romantic partners, with a significant negative correlation of ($n = 177$), $r_s = -.21, p < .01$.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION, LIMITATIONS, FUTURE DIRECTIONS, CONCLUSION

In this chapter the results will be discussed, followed by the limitations of the study, future directions and conclusions.

1. Relationship variables

More than half of the total sample was in romantic relationships. This is not surprising as romantic relationships form a central part of many adolescents' lives (Furman & Simon, 2008). In an American survey with adolescents, Furman and Simon (2008) found that 41% of ninth graders and 59% of eleventh graders reported having been in romantic relationships in the past year.

The duration of the average romantic relationship in the present study was 10.69 months. This is similar to Furman and Simon's (2008) study in which the average duration of adolescents' relationships was 10.79 months In an American study with high-school students (Brown, 1999), it is reported that the late-adolescents' relationships in that sample lasted on average between 2 and 10 months, similar to the present study. In the current study, girls' romantic partners were significantly older than boys' romantic partners. This is in keeping with societal expectations as it is reported that it has generally been more accepted in society for boys to have girlfriends who are younger than themselves as it has been for girls to have boyfriends younger than themselves (Furman & Simon, 2008). Boys had been in more romantic relationships than girls, but girls' romantic relationships lasted longer than boys'. Girls' romantic relationships also lasted longer than boys' relationships in another South African study on sexual relationships (O'Sullivan et al., 2006). This could be explained by girls' tendency to form relationships that are more intimate than boys (Maccoby, 1990) and boys often have a more playful and less serious attitude towards their romantic relationships (Shulman & Scharf, 2000). This can also explain why boys had been in more romantic relationships than girls in this study, as boys take their relationship less seriously they are more likely to have shorter relationships than girls. Most of the participants in this study only saw their romantic partners on weekends, but the second highest group saw them every day.

The participants rated their mothers as being the most important person in their lives followed by their fathers. There were no differences between population groups for reporting romantic partners as the most important. Being in a romantic relationship appears not to change how important adolescents viewed the other people in their lives, except that more single adolescents viewed their best friends as being the most important people in their lives as compared to adolescents in romantic relationships. This finding is expected given the importance of peers in adolescence (Brown, 1999; Stanton-Salazar & Spina, 2005).

More Coloured adolescents were in romantic relationships than White adolescents. It is possible that the culture of Coloured adolescents places higher value on romantic relationships for identity development than the culture of White adolescents does (Coates, 1999), and therefore more Coloured adolescents are in romantic relationships. Coloured adolescents viewed their mothers as being the most important more often than White adolescents, but White adolescents viewed their fathers as being the most important person in their lives more often than Coloured adolescents. White adolescents reported their friends to be more important than Coloured adolescents.

2. Parent-adolescent Relationships

2.1. Support

Participants reported that support was received most and equally from mothers, romantic partners and best friends. Fathers were rated lowest for support. This finding differs from Kawaguchi et al. (1998) who found no differences between parents regarding social support. It has to be taken into account, however, that the sample in this study was European. These parents are likely to share parental roles more equally than parents in developing countries (Raabe, 1998; Sorensen, Rachlew, Wiesner, & Engblom, 2005). Traditional gender roles are still largely adhered to in South Africa (Strebel et al., 2006), and mothers are expected to nurture and care for their children more than fathers. In developing countries like South Africa, "the expectation of males as providers, remain a defining element of masculinity" (Lindeggar & Maxwell, 2007, p.101). Women are generally expected to care for the family (Lindeggar & Maxwell, 2007). It also has to be considered that in the present study more adolescents (88%) lived with their mothers, than lived with their fathers (73%), which suggest that fathers were more absent in these adolescents' lives. Similarly, more adolescents viewed their mothers as being the most important person in

their lives, than viewed their fathers as being the most important. Mothers are therefore more likely to be involved in their children's daily lives than fathers and that could be why children view them as better sources of support.

A significant positive correlation was found between social support and age, which indicates that as adolescents become older they report experiencing increased support from their mothers. This is contrary to what was expected, as it is expected that adolescents depend more on their friends and romantic partners during the late-adolescent period, as was found in the developmental German study by Seiffge-Krenke (2003). It is possible that independence from parents is encouraged more in Europe than it is in South Africa, as it has been shown that in Western individualistic cultures adolescents are more independent from their parents than in other more traditional, collectivistic cultures (Tamar et al., 2006).

Population group differences: White participants reported that they received more support from their parents, as well as more support from their fathers than Coloured adolescents. This could be explained by the demographic finding that White adolescents more often lived with both their parents than Coloured adolescents and that both parents were home and more readily available to provide support. Another possible explanation is that the Coloured participants in this study were more often from lower income backgrounds than White adolescents. It has been shown in the literature that higher income and employment rates are connected to higher levels of education (Offer, 2004). In its turn, higher levels of education are often associated with higher involvement of both parents in their children's lives and the sharing of parental roles (Ozgun & Honig, 2005). The reverse would be true in families of lower income rates and employment levels, which can serve as an explanation for the reported lower level of support from Coloured fathers.

In an American study with a low-income, ethnically diverse sample, it was found that fathers' employment stability was positively related to their involvement with their children (Levine Coley & Hernandez, 2006). They explain the tendency of unemployed or inconsistently employed fathers to be less involved with their children, as stemming from the fact that these fathers feel inadequate in terms of providing resources for their children and fulfilling societal expectations of fathers (Levine Coley & Hernandez, 2006). It is possible that this explanation

could also apply to the low-income fathers of the adolescents in this sample, who were more often Coloured than White.

2.2. Intimacy

Intimacy with mothers and fathers were rated the lowest in all adolescents' relationships. This result is the same as in the study by Hunter and Youniss (1982) with American, White, middle-class adolescents which found that intimacy levels in friendships surpassed that of parental intimacy in late adolescence. Contrary to this, was the study by Field et al. (1995) with a mostly Hispanic sample, where it was found that intimacy from mothers were associated with the most positive variables. This could indicate that intimacy from mothers may be more important to Hispanic adolescents than those in the present sample.

The only gender difference that was found with intimacy, was that boys reported more intimacy with their fathers than girls did, which fits with traditional patriarchal roles. The importance of father-daughter relationships were assessed in a study with low-income African American adolescents (Levine Coley, 2003). It was found that "daughters' perceptions of anger and alienation from fathers were related to greater emotional and behavioural problems for adolescents" (Levine Coley, 2003, p.867). It was interesting in the present study however, that girls did not report significantly more intimacy with their mothers than boys did, as was found in the study by Field et al. (1995). This could again be due to the fact that fathers were absent more and therefore mothers made a point of providing equal intimacy to both boys and girls.

In the present study White adolescents reported significantly more intimacy with their fathers than Coloured adolescents. It was also found that adolescents in high and middle income groups experienced more intimacy with their fathers than adolescents from low income groups. This is supported by the finding that White adolescents were more often from higher income groups than Coloured adolescents. This is similar to the American study by Field et al. (1995), in which it was found that adolescents from middle- and upper-class backgrounds experienced more intimacy with their parents than adolescents from lower-class backgrounds. According to these authors this difference is due to low-income families often being bigger and having more absent fathers (Field et al., 1995). In the present study, the number of people who lived at home was higher for

Coloured adolescents. This can also affect intimacy with fathers, as there are more people at home and therefore the father's attention may be more divided.

2.3. Companionship

Mothers were ranked third and fathers were ranked lowest for companionship, but this was not surprising for this late adolescent sample, as friends and romantic partners tend to be the main companions at this stage of development. Although it has been found that parents can promote companionship in their adolescent children's relationships (Larson et al., 2002; Vernberg et al., 2006), no studies were found in which companionship with parents surpassed that of companionship with romantic partners or best friends in adolescence.

Participants from high and middle income backgrounds experienced more companionship with their fathers and romantic partners than adolescents from low income backgrounds. This finding with fathers is similar as with intimacy and support, as it has been shown that low-income participants in this study were more often Coloured than White, and Coloured adolescents' fathers were more often absent from home than White adolescents'.

2.4. Affection

Participants reported the most affection from their mothers and the third highest level of affection from fathers. This finding differs from Lempers and Clark-Lempers (1992) who found no differences between parents regarding affection which could again be explained by the possibility that the American parents in Lempers and Clark-Lempers' study share parental roles more equally than South African parents who generally adhere more to traditional gender parenting roles with mothers taking the primary responsibility for child care (Strebel et al., 2006).

White participants reported significantly more affection from their fathers than Coloured adolescents. This can again be related to socio-economic circumstances, as it was found that adolescents from high and middle income families received significantly more affection from their fathers than low income adolescents, and in this sample Coloured adolescents were more often from low-income backgrounds than White adolescents. It has already been mentioned how low-income or unemployed fathers are more likely to be absent in their children's lives (Ozgun &

Honig, 2005; Levine Coley & Hernandez, 2006), which means that they are not available to provide affection. Coloured lower-income South African fathers may also adhere more to traditional male gender roles (Strebel et al., 2006) than White middle-class fathers.

2.5. Nurturance

Mothers, along with best friends, were ranked second for nurturance and fathers were ranked lowest. Nurturance has been found to be an attribute of good parents in an Asian study (Xiong et al., 2005), but in the present sample adolescents' experienced more nurturance from their best friends and romantic partners. A possible explanation for this is offered by Hunter and Youniss (1982) who found that nurturance from parents remained consistent over the ages, but nurturance from friends increased with age. Even though the correlation in the present study between age and nurturance was not significant, it is possible that adolescents view their best friendships and especially their romantic relationships as novel and new (Connolly & Goldberg, 1999; Furman & Simon, 1999), and therefore specifically notice the nurturance they receive in these relationships, as compared to the parental nurturance that they have experienced throughout their whole lives.

Coloured adolescents reported significantly more nurturance from their mothers than White adolescents which could be related to the finding that Coloured adolescents reported significantly less nurturance from fathers. The findings indicate that fathers were rated lower regarding most positive relationship qualities than other significant people in their adolescent children's lives. These findings are worrisome if it is viewed in the light of research which has shown that father involvement is important for children's well-being (Harper & Fine, 2006). Forehand and Nousiainen (1993) assessed the importance of paternal parenting in an American study and found that the most important part of fathers' parenting was their acceptance of and closeness with their adolescent children. Nurturance has been shown to be part of accepting parental behaviours (Schwartz et al., 2009) and is very important for adolescents' healthy behaviour. Although parenting styles of mothers and fathers work together, fathers' roles as parents was shown to be the critical factor in adolescent functioning

2.6. Satisfaction

Adolescents in the present study were equally satisfied with their relationships with their mothers, best friends and romantic partners. They were least satisfied with their relationships with their fathers. The principle of over-benefitting could explain this finding in that participants could be dissatisfied with their father relationships because they are not over-benefiting from these relationships, while perhaps they are over-benefiting from their relationships with their romantic partners, best friends and mothers (Vogl-Bauer et al., 1999). In their American study Vogl-Bauer et al. (1999) found that adolescents were most satisfied with their relationships with their parents when they were over-benefiting from these relationships, whereas they were dissatisfied when they were under-benefiting or benefiting equally from these relationships.

White adolescents were significantly more satisfied with their father-relationships and their best friendships than Coloured adolescents. The greater lack of satisfaction with father relationships by Coloured adolescents is supported by the finding that adolescents from low-income families were less satisfied than adolescents from middle and high income families, as Coloured adolescents were more often from low-income families than White adolescents in this sample. This dissatisfaction could be due to the absence of the father in the home, as has been mentioned previously and shown in the demographic results. These low-income adolescents could also be dissatisfied with their fathers' limited financial provision as it is traditionally expected of the father, more than the mother, to provide financially for the family. It has been shown in the international literature that income does have an influence on life and relationship satisfaction (Ball, 1993; Schyns, 2001; Smith & Alston, 2009). This is not surprising as having a lower income can create stress and conflict (Ceballo, Ramirez, Caastillo, Caballero, & Lozoff, 2004), which can have a negative effect on satisfaction. In the present study White adolescents were also significantly more satisfied with their best friendships than Coloured adolescents, which can also be explained by the fact that White adolescents were generally of higher socio-economic status than Coloured adolescents in this sample, which can cause more stress and conflict and thus less satisfaction.

2.7. Power

In the present study adolescents felt the most powerful in their relationships with their parents; mothers were rated highest and fathers were rated second highest for power. Tucker et al. (2003) emphasize how the power balance between parents and their children change during adolescence, as adolescents gain more power. They maintain that conflict in parent-adolescent relationships is often a result of power shifts in the relationships as parents try to assert their authority, while adolescents constantly thrive to be more autonomous (Tucker et al., 2003). It is likely that adolescents feel more powerful in their relationships with parents as they feel more secure in their relationships with their parents to challenge them and to disagree with them without fearing that they may lose these relationships or be rejected as may be the case with best friends and romantic relationships.

Coloured adolescents felt more powerful in their mother-relationships and romantic relationships than White adolescents. Since Coloured adolescents more often only have their mothers present as parental influences, they feel more powerful than White adolescents, as White adolescents also have to contend with the relationship between mother and father. The fact that adolescents from middle and low income families reported more power in their mother-relationships than high income adolescents, can also be connected to the above findings as middle and low income groups are more likely to include more Coloured adolescents than White adolescents in the present sample.

2.8. Punishment

Adolescents were punished most by their mothers and then their fathers. This could be because adolescents' mothers, adhering to traditional gender roles, were the primary caregivers who were at home more often (Strebel et al., 2006), and while they are stronger sources of positive qualities like support, they are also often the parent responsible for disciplining the child. A Dutch study with high school adolescents found that punishment from parents decreased as adolescents became older (Lanz et al., 2001), but the correlation between age and punishment, was not significant in this study.

Coloured adolescents reported more punishment in all of their relationships than White adolescents. This could be related to Coloured adolescents in this sample more often living in difficult socio-economical circumstances which could contribute to more stress and thereby more punishing behaviour (Clement & Chamberland, 2009. This hypothesis is supported by the finding that adolescents from low and middle income families reported more punishment from their mothers, best friends and romantic partners than adolescents from high income families. A similar result was found in a Brazilian study, in which Brazilian lower income adolescents reported more punishment in their relationships than American adolescents (Van Horn & Marques, 2000). Other studies have also shown that financial stress can contribute to parents punishing their children more often (Bolen, McWey, & Schlee, 2008; Burbach, Fox, & Nicholson, 2004; Clement & Chamberland, 2009).

2.9. Conflict

In the present study adolescents experienced equally high levels of conflict in their relationships with their parents and romantic partners, and the lowest amounts of conflict with their best friends. Conflict with parents has been found to have a negative effect on the emotional states of both parents and adolescents (Laursen & Collins, 1994). The significant influence of conflict on adolescents' development was shown in an American study focusing on father involvement, in which it was shown that the more distressed fathers were and the higher inter-parental conflict was, the lower were their children's well-being (Harper & Fine, 2006). Another study with middle-class African American families found that although adolescents did report conflict with their parents, this conflict was only temporary in the late-adolescent period and would eventually develop into more harmonious relationships (Smetana, Abernethy & Harris, 2000). The implication is that although the participants in this study reported conflict with their parents at the time of the study, it does not mean that it will be long-term and has serious negative consequences.

Coloured adolescents reported more conflict in all their relationships than White adolescents. The higher level of conflict with parents for Coloured adolescents, could also be due to the fact that because parents have more economic hardship their opportunities to concentrate on their family

relationships are less (Vanoy & Cubbins, 2001), and therefore conflict more readily occurs between parents and children.

As with conflict (C1), adolescents from high income families experienced significantly lower levels of conflict (C2) in all their relationships than adolescents from middle- and low-income families. Feldman and Gowen (1998) explain in their study with a diverse American population, that adolescents from different ethnic backgrounds manage conflict differently and use different conflict tactics, which could suggest that in the present study White adolescents managed conflict more efficiently than Coloured adolescents. The demographic results also show that Coloured adolescents lived with more people in their homes, additional to the nuclear family, than White adolescents, which could cause more stress in the home and create more conflict. Low socio-economic status, family conflict and stress have all been shown to be negative family factors that have negative outcomes on children and relationships (Prevatt, 2003). When considering this, it is not surprising that Coloured adolescents from lower socio-economic backgrounds experiences more conflict in most of their relationships than White adolescents.

3. Adolescent Friendships
3.1. Support
Adolescents reported that they received the most support from mothers, romantic partners and best friends. The importance of support from romantic partners and best friends has also been reflected in international studies (Feiring, 1996; Stanton-Salazar & Spina, 2005; Degirmencioglu, Urberg, Tolson & Richard, 1998) which emphasises that the contribution of each of these sources of support for adolescence should receive equal acknowledgement. Friendship relationships have been found to become more supportive during adolescence (De Goede et al., 2009), which supports the present findings.

As girls are generally seen as more emotionally open than boys, it was no surprise that they reported more support from their best friends than boys did. In the study by Feiring (1996) it was found that girls more often base their friendships on "mutual support and self-disclosure" (p.184) than boys, "who rely on joint activities and companionship" (p.184) in their friendships. Girls' friendships have been found to be more supportive and focused on equality than boys' friendships (De Goede, Branje, & Meeus, 2009). Girls' friendships are more exclusive, close and

intimate than boys' friendships, as boys often have wider friendship networks than girls (Branje et al., 2007; Pagano & Hirsch, 2007). It makes sense therefore that the girls in the present sample reported higher support from their best friends than boys, as they are closer to these friends than boys and they would more readily support each other. A similar finding was reported in the study with middle to low-income Mexican-origin families by Stanton-Salazar and Spina (2005), in which girls were more likely to refer to their friends as sources of support than boys.

3.2. Intimacy

Intimacy has been reported as being especially meaningful for adolescents' development in general (O'Sullivan et al., 2007) and in the present study, friendships were the relationships in which adolescents reported the second most intimacy. The high ranking for intimacy with best friends is not surprising, as these relationships have been found to be egalitarian with strong feelings of intimacy and affiliation in other studies as well (Brown, 1999; Furman, 2002). In a study with adolescents from Israel it was found that intimacy in adolescents' friendships involved a balance between closeness and individuality, and emphasizes how important intimacy is adolescents' friendships for social development (Shulman, Laursen, Kalman, & Karpovsky, 1997).

In an American study, Urberg, Değirmencioğlu, Tolson and Halliday-Scher (1995) found that best friends were highly connected to friendship groups, but they also acknowledge the complexity of adolescents' peer networks. The nature of having a "best" friend, "implies some exclusivity compared to other friendships" (Branje et al., 2007, p.588), and brings about the expectation that this friend is somehow different and more special than the rest of the peer group, which leads one to believe that an adolescent would more likely share intimate thoughts and feelings with a single best friend than a whole group of friends. It has been mentioned in the literature how best friends are important for the development of intimacy and empathy and can also serve as protection against social anxieties (La Greca & Harrison, 2005). Best friendships are also more stable than other close friendships (Degirmencioglu et al., 1998).

3.3. Companionship

International studies have shown the importance of companionship for adolescents in their friendships and romantic relationships (e.g. Feiring, 1996; Markiewicz et al., 2001; Shulman and Kipnis, 2001). This was also demonstrated in the present study, as adolescents ranked these relationships highest for companionship. White adolescents reported more companionship from their best friends than Coloured adolescents in this sample. This can be linked to the demographic finding that White adolescents more often viewed their best friends as being the most important person in their lives than Coloured adolescents, and also that Coloured adolescents were more often in romantic relationships than White adolescents. Since the Coloured adolescents are more involved in romantic relationships and do not value their friends as highly as White adolescents, they value the companionship in their romantic relationships more than the companionship in their best friendships.

3.4. Affection

Adolescents reported the lowest levels of affection from their best friends. This result proved to be different than the study by Furman and Shomaker (2008) in which friends were ranked higher than romantic partners for affection. In fact, in their study, affection from friends were ranked the highest (Furman & Shomaker, 2008), whereas in the present study it is ranked lowest. Furman and Shomaker (2008) maintain that the affective responsiveness in friendships were higher in their study, because their adolescents' close friendships were longer lasting than their romantic relationships and therefore friends have had more opportunities to develop sensitivity towards each other. When compared to the present study, the sample in the study by Furman and Shomaker (2008) only consisted of 32 adolescents who were mostly White Americans. It is not clear whether the same results would have been found if it was a bigger sample with more ethnic diversity.

It was not surprising that girls reported that they received more affection from their best friends than boys, as it has been mentioned how girls view their friendships as more important for closeness and care than boys, whereas boys rather view their friendships in terms of shared activities (Feiring, 1996; Giordano, 2003; Shulman & Scharf, 2000). This finding is also in

accordance with traditional patriarchal and matriarchal roles in which girls are expected to be more affectionate, whereas boys are expected to express their emotions less regularly.

3.5. Nurturance

Mothers, along with best friends, were ranked second for nurturance and fathers were ranked lowest. In the American study by Lempers and Clark-Lempers (1992) with middle-class and working-class White adolescents, best friends were also ranked higher than fathers for nurturance. A need for nurturance have been found to be an especially important part of girls' friendship in international studies (De Goede et al., 2009), even though there were no significant gender differences in the present study.

3.6. Satisfaction

Adolescents' satisfaction with their friendships was equally as high and highest in their relationships with their mothers and romantic partners. This result is expected as friendships are voluntary relationships and therefore if adolescents are dissatisfied with these relationships they can simply end them.

It is unclear why White adolescents would be more satisfied with their best friendships than Coloured adolescents, as no studies were found with similar findings, but the demographic results in the present study did show that White adolescents more often viewed their friends as being the most important person in their lives than Coloured adolescents. A possible explanation could be the fact that the White adolescents would more likely have more finances available and could do more fun things with their friends than Coloured adolescents, who would more likely be from low income backgrounds than White adolescents. The increased economic stress that Coloured adolescents' parents experience could also influence their children's friendships, as parents who experience economic stress would more likely treat their adolescent children with hostility and contempt (Burbach et al.,2004), which can influence the adolescents to treat their friends badly as well. Such hostile behaviour would detrimentally influence the satisfaction and quality of adolescents' friendships (Ciu et al., 2002).

3.7. Power

Adolescents reported feeling the least powerful in their relationships with their best friends. It has been found in international studies that in friendships and romantic relationships adolescents share power equally (Galliher et al., 1999; Giordano, 2003), and even though adolescents felt least powerful in their friendships in the present study, which can seem to be a negative thing, the adolescents' friends' views of power in their relationships were not assessed here, so it is possible that they could experience equally low amounts of power from their side.

De Goede et al. (2009) found in their American study that power issues become less prevalent over time in adolescents' friendships, which could serve as an explanation for the present findings in the way that adolescents are not as concerned about power in their friendships as they are in their other relationships and therefore rate these relationships as lowest for power. It was also found in the study by De Goede et al. (2009) that higher levels of power are related to high levels of negative interaction like conflict, which is echoed in the present study as these adolescents rated their friendships lowest for power and lowest for conflict.

3.8. Punishment

As expected, adolescents experienced the least amount of punishment from their best friends, as these are usually the relationships in which adolescents can just be themselves (Giordano, 2003) and do not have to follow specific commands. Even though punishment was ranked lowest and there was no gender difference in this study, the role of the "mean girl" as reported by Fallon (2010) has to be acknowledged. This refers to the trend in which girls survive in their friendships on basis of popularity which sometimes causes certain girls to alienate and insult other girls in order to gain popularity (Fallon, 2010). This could also be seen as a form of punishment in friendships.

3.9. Conflict

Similarly, in the present study adolescents experienced the lowest conflict with their best friends. This result is similar to international studies in which conflict with friends was found to be significantly lower than conflict with parents (Lempers & Clark-Lempers, 1992; Tucker et al., 2003). Lempers and Clark-Lempers (1992) highlight how important friendships are for self-

disclosure and trust, and therefore there is less conflict. Friends are generally viewed as sources of fun and support. In friendships adolescents are equal in authority and share common goals and therefore do not experience high levels of conflict. Laursen and Collins (1994) mention in their review on conflict in adolescents' relationships that friends manage conflicts through compromise and disengagement, which is healthier for relationships than handling conflict through submission. In a Dutch study it was found that adolescents preferred to use problem-solving strategies in managing conflict which has a more positive effect on the relationships than conflict engagement (De Wied, Branje & Meeus, 2007). Even though conflict resolution strategies were not specifically investigated in the present study, this could be a possible reason why friendships were ranked lowest for conflict.

Coloured adolescents reported more conflict (C1) with their best friends and romantic partners than White adolescents, which can be related to the finding that adolescents from middle- and low-income families experienced significantly more conflict (C1) in their friendships and romantic relationships than adolescents from high income families. It has been found that ethnic groups use different conflict negotiation tactics and that African-Americans were more likely to resort to violence or aggression when conflict occurred, instead of trying to reach a compromise (Feldman & Gowen, 1998). This violence is often connected to interpersonal problems and stress (Feldman & Gowen, 1998), aspects that are associated with financial problems. This could serve as another explanation why Coloured adolescents experienced more conflict with their best friends and romantic partners than White adolescents as they were more often from lower socio-economic backgrounds than White adolescents.

4. Romantic Relationships in adolescence
4.1. Support
Adolescents received the most support from romantic partners, mothers and best friends. As already mentioned, this result has also been found in international studies (Feiring, 1996; Stanton-Salazar & Spina, 2005; Furman & Simon, 2008). In a study on delinquency and support it was found that in adolescence, partner support had a bigger role in reducing delinquency (Meeus, Branje, & Overbeek, 2004). They concluded that when adolescents become involved in romantic relationships the support they receive from their romantic partners become the most

influential in their lives (Meeus et al., 2004), which is in line with the present high ranking for support from romantic partners.

4.2. Intimacy

Intimacy has been seen as one of the advantages of being in a romantic relationship for adolescents in the international literature (Feiring, 1996), and in the present study, romantic relationships and friendships were the relationships in which adolescents reported the most intimacy. The similar ranking for intimacy for romantic partners and best friends are not surprising, as these relationships significantly influences each other in adolescence (Brown, 1999; Furman, 2002). Romantic relationships are reported to shape intimacy and identity development in adolescence (Furman & Simon, 2008). It has been found that although girls tend to have more intimate and integrated relationships than boys, boys just value different aspects of intimacy in their relationships (Maccoby, 1990).

4.3. Companionship

Adolescents ranked their romantic relationships and friendships as highest for companionship, which is similar to the findings of international studies (e.g. Feiring, 1996; Markiewicz et al., 2001; Shulman and Kipnis, 2001). It is also not surprising that adolescents reported similar levels of companionship from friends and romantic partners, as it is mentioned in the literature how adolescents' friendships often evolve into their romantic relationships (Connolly & Goldberg, 1999; Shulman & Scharf, 2000), which suggests that it is likely that the same levels of companionship adolescents experience in their friendships would also be carried over into their romantic relationships.

It is unclear why adolescents from high and middle income backgrounds would report more companionship from their romantic partners than those from low income backgrounds. No studies were found on the topic, but it can be speculated that because high and middle income adolescents had more finances available and can therefore do more special things together like going to the movies or going shopping, they feel more companionship towards each other than those adolescents who can not afford to do many exciting things together.

4.4. Affection

Adolescents reported the second most affection from their romantic partners after affection from their mothers. The high level of affection from romantic partners is not unexpected as these relationships are areas where adolescents can experience physical affection, love and care, as affection has been mentioned to be an important aspect of romantic love in adolescents (Bryan, Fitzpatrick, Crawford, & Fischer, 2001). The present finding is different than the study mentioned earlier by Furman and Shomaker (2008) in which friends were ranked higher than romantic partners for affection. A possible explanation for this difference is that the romantic relationships in their study may not have been as serious or long-lasting as the relationships in the present study.

4.5. Nurturance

The most nurturance was reported with romantic partners for these adolescents, and it has been mentioned as an important quality in romantic relationships in international studies as well (e.g. Murray, 2005). Adolescents felt most nurtured by their romantic partners, this could be due to the fact that these relationships are often new in adolescence and characterised by intense involvement and attention.

An interesting finding was that adolescents who were in romantic relationships experienced more nurturance from their mothers than those who were single, although both these groups viewed their mothers as the most important person in their lives. The above finding is encouraging as the older literature has shown that when adolescents, especially girls, do not have close relationships with their parents, they are more likely to engage in premature sexual activity as an attempt to experience nurturance in their romantic relationships to make up for the lack of nurturance in their relationships with their parents (McWhirter, 1998).

4.6. Satisfaction

Adolescents in the present study were equally and most satisfied with their relationships with their mothers, best friends and romantic partners. Again, romantic relationships are usually voluntary relationships and therefore when adolescents are not satisfied with these relationships

they will simply end them. Therefore the satisfaction of adolescents who were currently in romantic relationships was high.

Boys were more satisfied with their relationships in general than girls. In the study with Mexican-origin low-income adolescents by Stanton-Salazar & Spina (2005), it was found that girls were more dissatisfied with their romantic relationships than boys, which is reflected in the present study. The authors found that girls described their romantic partners as deficient in many different areas and wanted them to be more supportive, trustworthy etc. (Stanton-Salazar & Spina, 2005). In that study as well as the present study, this gender difference could be explained by girls expecting more from their relationships than boys, and having higher standards, which would always make girls less satisfied with their relationships than boys. A study would first have to be done on adolescents' expectations of their different relationships in order to confirm this speculation, as no studies were found to confirm this.

4.7. Power

Adolescents had the third most power in their romantic relationships and reported the least power with their best friends. This is surprising as it has been found in international studies that in friendships and romantic relationships adolescents share power equally (Galliher et al., 1999; Giordano, 2003). In the study by Galliher et al. (1999) power in romantic relationships was investigated with 61 White American couples. A reason for the difference with the present study could be the way in which they were assessed. The couples were interviewed together in the study by Galliher et al. (1999) and their interactions were video-taped and observed by an independent party. Through the combination of the results from the interview, and the observations of the power dynamics between each couple, the power balance in the relationships was established (Galliher et al., 1999). When comparing this comprehensive technique to that used in the present study, it is apparent that because power was only assessed through the opinion of one party in the relationship in the present study, the adolescents could in fact share power equally in their romantic relationships, as well as in their friendships.

Adolescents in romantic relationships felt more powerful in their relationships with their mothers, as compared to those adolescents who were not in romantic relationships. Since no studies were

found that could explain why this result was found, the following explanation is only a speculation. As these adolescents are in romantic relationships, that are often a new phenomenon for them and their families in adolescence (Giordano, 2003), they can feel more powerful in their parental relationships as they feel like they are now more mature by being in romantic relationships and therefore are becoming more egalitarian with their parents.

Coloured adolescents felt more powerful in their romantic relationships than White adolescents. This could perhaps be explained by the fact that Coloured adolescents were more often in romantic relationships than White adolescents and they therefore have had more experience in negotiating heterosexual relationships.

4.8. Punishment

Adolescents reported the third highest level of punishment in their romantic relationships, which shows that even though they are disciplined by their romantic partners, it is not as prominent as in their parental relationships. This is also as expected, as adolescents still live at home and would therefore be punished most by their parents. This is not to say that there was no partner violence in this sample, but the punishment measured in this study was not investigating violence specifically, but rather less drastic forms of discipline.

In a study focusing on interference of different relationships on each other, it was found that interference from family or friends in adolescents' romantic relationships had negative romantic outcomes for adolescents (Bryan et al., 2001), which is reflected in the present study with the finding that adolescents in romantic relationships were punished more by their friends than those who were single. A possible explanation for this finding could be that because their friends now see them less they are jealous because they feel like they are being replaced by their friends' boyfriends/girlfriends (Parker et al., 2005), and therefore punish them more when they do see them. The same was also found for mothers and fathers, which can also be attributed to the fact that they feel abandoned (Brown, 1999; Connolly & Goldberg, 1999), as their children now have another person in their lives on whom to focus their attention, which can lead to jealousy and punishment. To parents who were formerly the most important people who adolescents depended on, it can be especially difficult.

There was a significant negative correlation between time spent with romantic partners and punishment from best friends. This shows that the more time adolescents spend with their romantic partners, the less they are punished by their friends, and the more they are punished by their friends, the less time they spend with their romantic partners. This finding is unexpected and since no results were found to explain this, it can be speculated that as adolescents are feeling guilty about the declining amount of time they now spend with their friends, they then spend less time with their romantic partners. These results with punishment could explain why with the demographic results, adolescents' who were in romantic relationships did not view their best friends as equally important as their romantic partners, not only because their romantic partners fulfil more emotional needs, but also because they are punished more by their best friends. It was difficult to find any studies to support the results on punishment, as punishment mostly appear in the literature in the form of corporal punishment or physical abuse, which is not the kind of punishment that was measured in the present study.

4.9. Conflict

In the present study adolescents experienced equally high levels of conflict in their relationships with their parents and romantic partners, and the lowest amounts of conflict with their best friends. The fact that adolescents rated their romantic relationships as highest for conflict is not that surprising, as these are generally considered to be relationships full of heightened emotionality and passion which can lead to jealousy and conflict (Collins & Sroufe, 1999; Connolly & Goldberg, 1999; Giordano, 2003), and adolescents are often still learning how to manage this conflict. Despite the incidence of conflict in romantic relationships, it has been found that social interaction usually still continues in romantic relationships after conflict has occurred, as compared to relationships with parents with whom exchanges usually end after conflict (Laursen & Collins, 1994).

It was found that adolescents in romantic relationships experienced more conflict (C1) with their fathers and best friends than those who were single. With conflict (C2) it was found that adolescents in romantic relationships experienced more conflict with their parents than those who were single. This could be due to the fact that because adolescents now have another person in their lives to care for and concentrate on, their parents and best friends feel like they are

neglecting them (Brown, 1999), and thereby conflict occurs. Another study offers the explanation that if the friends are also in relationships they may be more supportive of their friends' romantic relationships, but when the friends are single they may interfere more with their friends' romantic relationships (Bryan et al., 2001), which will inevitably lead to conflict.

A significant negative correlation was found between time spent with romantic partners and conflict from friends, which indicates that the more time adolescents spend with their romantic partners, the less conflict they experience with their best friends, and the more conflict they experience with their best friends, the less time they spend with their romantic partners. As adolescents' best friends would formerly have been the person, other than their parents, with whom they spent the most time, the best friends could now be jealous of the time these adolescents spend with their romantic partners, and therefore cause more conflict. Friends can also not control the romantic relationships of their friends as much anymore as they could earlier in adolescence (Brown, 1999), which can lead to frustration and conflict. Adolescents can feel abandoned and jealous when their friends enter into romantic relationships (Brown, 1999), and they are not as important anymore as they were before (Connolly & Goldberg, 1999). Friends can become jealous when they feel like they are being replaced in their relationships or when they feel like their relationship is being threatened (Parker et al., 2005). Brown (1999) acknowledges though that it is difficult to get adolescents to admit their feelings of jealousy towards their friends, as "such feelings violate the norms of friendship" (p.320).

The reason why high ratings for conflict were found for more relationships with subscale C2 than with subscale C1 could be because conflict was measured with more items in subscale C2 and therefore present a more thorough picture of the conflict in the different relationships than with subscale C1.

5. Summary and Implications

Table 34
Summary of Results

Variable	Mother	Father	Best Friend	Romantic Partner
Support	1	4	1	1
Intimacy	3	4	2	1
Companionship	3	4	1	1
Affection	1	3	4	2
Nurturance	2	4	2	1
Satisfaction	1	4	1	1
Power	1	2	4	3
Punishment	1	2	4	3
Conflict	1	1	4	1

Table 34 above provides a summary of the findings of the importance of the different relationship qualities for each relationship. The relationships are rated from 1 to 4 in the table to demonstrate which relationship was the most important and which relationship was the least important for each relationship quality. When the same number is allocated for two different relationships for the same variable, it indicates that these relationships were rated as equally important for the specific relationship quality.

The present study investigated adolescents' perceptions of different relationship qualities in four different relationships. Although relationships were rated differently for the different relationship qualities, the low ratings that fathers received on most positive qualities and the high ratings they received on most negative qualities, is the finding that was most prominent. This could be connected to the demographic finding that only 34% of the adolescents viewed their fathers as being the most important person in their lives at the time of the study, as compared to 73% who viewed their mothers as being the most important. This implies that the present sample generally had less connected relationships with their fathers. It has been mentioned in the discussion how detrimental this can be for adolescents' development. Conversely mothers were very important to these adolescents, and although mothers are very important influences in adolescents' lives, the

ideal parenting relationship is one in which both parents play active roles in the child's life (Ozgun & Honig, 2005).

Another important finding was the way in which Coloured and White adolescents' experiences of the different relationship qualities and relationships differed. Coloured adolescents generally experienced more conflict and punishment and less satisfaction in their parental relationships and friendships, but they felt more powerful than White adolescents in their romantic relationships and mother-relationships. Although the explanations suggested for these findings have revolved around socio-economic status and stress, it would be valuable to conduct in-depth, qualitative studies to explore the reasons for these differences in White and Coloured adolescents' relationships.

Since it has been widely accepted that boys and girls experience adolescent development differently, the few gender differences found in the present study were surprising. The gender differences that were found, were somewhat predictable, e.g. boys experienced more intimacy from fathers than girls, girls experiencing more support and affection from their best friends than boys and boys being more satisfied with their relationships in general.

In the discussion of each relationship quality it was shown how the different relationships are integrated in adolescents' lives and influenced by social factors like income and ethnicity. This is in accordance with the developmental contextual perspective as it emphasizes how all relationships are interrelated and embedded within a wider social network (Lerner, 2002). It was attempted to demonstrate that even though at specific moments in development, certain relationships are more important to the individual than others, all relationships have significant influences on human development.

6. Limitations and Future Directions for Research

Although the present study covers a broad area of adolescents' relationships, it is recognised that this study is not without its limitations. Firstly, it is recognised that there are other relationships apart from adolescents' relationships with their parents, best friends and romantic partners, which can also be important in adolescents' lives. These specific relationships were chosen as they were

shown in the literature to be important to adolescents, and due to time constraints other relationships like relationships with siblings and grandparents were not included in this study.

Similarly, it is acknowledged that there are other so-called relationship qualities that could also play important roles in adolescents' relationships. Relationship qualities like trust and jealousy could also be important, but the relationship qualities investigated in the present study was specifically chosen because of its representation in the literature and its availability in measuring instruments.

Another limitation, which could hopefully be rectified in future, is that in the present study adolescents' relationships were only assessed from the adolescents' perspectives and it would be valuable to see whether adolescents' parents, best friends and romantic partners had the same view of these relationships as the adolescents had themselves. Although adolescents' subjective experiences of the relationship qualities are important (Degirmencioglu et al., 1998), a dual perspective would portray a clearer picture of the role of the different relationship qualities in the different relationships. A dual perspective would demonstrate the mutual influence individuals have on each other, as is emphasized within the developmental-contextual framework (Lerner, 2002).

The sample of adolescents used in the present study is from a specific town in the Western Cape, South Africa. It is therefore not possible to generalise these findings to other countries or even to the rest of South Africa, as these results are influenced by the specific cultures and communities these adolescents represent. It would be valuable if similar studies were done in other parts of South Africa, and across different cultures, in order to get a complete picture of South African adolescents' close relationships. Although the sample did include some Black adolescents, the group was not big enough to be included in the analyses of comparisons between races. It would be valuable to include a significant group of Black adolescents in future.

As this was a quantitative study in which adolescents rated their different relationships for different relationship qualities, the study can only speculate as to why exactly adolescents rate

their relationships in this way. A qualitative investigation with regards to these ratings would be able to address this problem.

A qualitative investigation is also needed to investigate the role of absent fathers in this sample, as fathers were more absent than mothers, and fathers were ranked lowest for most of the positive relationship qualities. The possible significant negative effects off having an absent father has been documented in the research (Wineburgh, 2000), but it is important to consider the reasons for the father's absence and whether the child in fact does still see the father at some level. A limitation in the present study was that although it was assessed whether adolescents lived with their fathers or not, it was not assessed whether this absence was due to death or divorce or estrangement, and how often these adolescents still see their fathers, despite not living with them.

As this study has shown how important adolescents' relationships are in their development, future studies are needed to investigate how to improve these relationships in these specific communities, by investigating their problems and ways to eradicate it. The results have specifically shown how low-income Coloured adolescents often report more of the negative relationship qualities like punishment and conflict in many of their relationships. The reasons and circumstances behind these results need to be investigated empirically in the South African context, and steps need to be taken to improve these relationships.

7. Conclusion

The present study used a macro-contextual perspective to investigate three different kinds of relationships through investigating the experience of different relationship qualities within these relationships. Adolescents rated their parental relationships, romantic relationships and best friendships on the following relationship qualities: support, intimacy, companionship, nurturance, affection, satisfaction, power, punishment and conflict. There were many different findings, but especially important was the findings for different population groups, as well as the generally low ratings of fathers. This study will hopefully lead to more in-depth micro-contextual studies in which each of the findings for each relationship is investigated.

UNIVERSITEIT STELLENBOSCH

INWILLIGING OM DEEL TE NEEM AAN NAVORSING

Jong mense se ervarings in hul nabye verhoudings

U word gevra om toestemming te gee dat u kind mag deelneem aan 'n navorsingstudie deur Nadia de Jager (MA sielkunde student, Departement Sielkunde aan die Universiteit Stellenbosch). Dit uitgevoer sal word onder die leiding van Dr Elmien Lesch (DPhil), lektor in die Departement Sielkunde, Universiteit Stellenbosch. Die Wes-Kaapse Onderwys Department het reeds hierdie studie goedgekeur en toestemming gegee dat dit uitgevoer mag word.

DOEL VAN DIE STUDIE

Soos u miskien reeds weet, speel verhoudings 'n belangrike rol in die lewens van die meeste tieners. Daar is egter te min inligting beskikbaar oor hoe Suid-Afrikaanse tieners voel en optree in hul verhoudings. Die doel van hierdie studie is daarom om meer kennis te kry oor tieners se gevoelens oor hul verhoudings met hul beste vriende, ouers en hul romantiese verhoudings.

1. PROSEDURES

Indien u toestemming gee dat u kind aan die studie mag deelneem, sal die volgende prosedure gevolg word:

Die leerders sal vraelyste kry om te voltooi op 'n tyd en geleentheid wat met die skoolhoof gereël is. Die vraelyste sal sekere algemene lewensinligting soos ouderdom en deelname aan aktiwiteite insluit, asook spesifieke vrae oor hul romantiese verhoudings, en hul verhoudings met hul ouers en beste vriende. U kind sal die vraelys anoniem voltooi en geen van u kind se persoonlike inligting sal op die vraelys verskyn nie.

2. MOONTLIKE RISIKO'S EN ONGEMAKLIKHEID

Ek glo dat u kind se deelname aan die navorsing vir hom/haar interessant en leersaam sal wees. So 'n studie kan jongmense die geleentheid bied om bietjie na te dink oor hulle ervarings in verhoudings. Dit is egter moontlik dat sommige vrae u kind ongemaklik sal laat voel of vir u kind te persoonlik voel. Onthou egter dat u kind enige tyd kan weier om vrae te beantwoord en enige tyd hom/haar van die navorsing kan onttrek.

Dit is moontlik dat u kind gedurende sy/haar deelname bewus word van probleme wat hy/sy in die verlede beleef het of tans beleef en waarvoor u kind hulp benodig. Die navorsers sal u kind nie van hierdie hulp kan voorsien nie, maar sal u kind verwys na 'n persoon of organisasie wat hom/haar wel sal kan help.

3. MOONTLIKE VOORDELE VIR DEELNEMERS EN/OF VIR DIE SAMELEWING

Die meeste mense kry baie selde die geleentheid om in meer diepte oor hulle nabye verhoudings te dink en vrae te beantwoord. U kind se deelname aan die navorsing gee hom/haar so 'n geleentheid en dit mag vir haar/hom waardevol wees. Verder het ons tans 'n baie beperkte begrip van hoe jongmense in u gemeenskap dink, voel en doen in verhoudings en sal u kind se bydrae ons help om 'n beter begrip te ontwikkel. Hierdie inligting wat ons van u kind en die ander deelnemers kry, kan ook help om meer effektiewe programme oor verhoudings in u gemeenskap te ontwikkel.

4. VERGOEDING VIR DEELNAME

Nie u of u kind sal vergoeding vir deelname ontvang nie.

5. VERTROULIKHEID

Enige inligting wat deur middel van die navorsing verkry word en wat met u kind in verband gebring kan word, sal vertroulik bly en slegs met u kind se toestemming bekend gemaak word of soos deur die wet vereis. Verder sal alle data in die navorser se kantoor bewaar word, met slegs die navorser en haar studieleier wat toegang sal hê tot die data.

Die resultate van die studie sal in 'n tesis verskyn en terugvoer sal gegee word aan die skoolhoof. Daar word beplan om die resultate van die studie te publiseer. Die vertroulikheid van u kind se inligting sal beskerm word deurdat geen van die deelnemers se name genoem sal word nie, en nie eens die skool se naam genoem sal word nie.

6. DEELNAME EN ONTTREKKING

U kind kan self besluit of hy of sy aan die studie wil deelneem of nie. Indien u kind inwillig om aan die studie deel te neem, kan hy of sy te eniger tyd daaraan onttrek sonder enige nadelige gevolge. U kind kan ook weier om op bepaalde vrae te antwoord, maar steeds aan die studie deelneem.

7. IDENTIFIKASIE VAN ONDERSOEKERS

Indien u enige vrae of besorgdheid omtrent die navorsing het, staan dit u vry om in verbinding te tree met Dr. Elmien Lesch by tel. no. 021-8083466. Die adres is: Departement Sielkunde, Universiteit van Stellenbosch, Privaatsak XI, Matieland, 7602.

8. REGTE VAN PROEFPERSONE

U kind kan te eniger tyd sy of haar inwilliging terugtrek en hy of haar deelname beëindig, sonder enige nadelige gevolge. Deur deel te neem aan die navorsing doen u kind geensins afstand van enige wetlike regte, eise of regsmiddel nie. Indien u vrae het oor u kind se regte as proefpersoon by navorsing, skakel met Me Maryke Husselman-Hunter by die Eenheid vir Navorsingsontwikkeling (021-8084623).

VERKLARING DEUR OUER

Die bostaande inligting is deur my, _____ gelees en ek is Afrikaans magtig.

Ek willig hiermee in dat my kind _____ mag deelneem aan die studie.

Handtekening van ouer:_____ Datum:_____

<u>VERKLARING DEUR PROEFPERSOON (KIND)</u>

Die bostaande inligting is deur my,_____ gelees en ek is Afrikaans magtig.

Ek willig hiermee in om aan die navorsing deel te neem.

Handtekening van deelnemer (kind):_____

Datum:_____

ADDENDUM B: ENGLISH CONSENT FORM

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR RESEARCH

Adolescents' experiences in their close relationships

This consent form requests that you, as parent, will give permission for your child to participate in a research project by Nadia de Jager (MA Psychology student, from the Psychology Department of Stellenbosch University). The research is being done under supervision of Dr Elmien Lesch (DPhil), lecturer in the Psychology Department of Stellenbosch University. The Western Cape Education Department have already given their approval and permission for this research project to be conducted.

AIM OF THE STUDY

As you probably already know, relationships play an important role in the lives of most teenagers. Despite this, there is currently very little information available on how South African teenagers feel about and behave in their relationships. The aim of this study is therefore to obtain more knowledge on how teenagers feel about their relationships with their best friends, parents and romantic partners.

1. PROCEDURE

If you grant permission for your child to participate in the study, the following procedure will be followed:
The learners will receive questionnaires to complete at school at a time organised with the principal and teachers. The questionnaires include certain general demographic information like age, participation at school etc., as well as specific questions about their romantic relationships, their relationships with their parents and their best friends. Learners will complete the questionnaires anonymously and no personal contact information will appear on the questionnaire.

2. POSSIBLE RISKS AND DISCOMFORT

A study like this can give young people the opportunity to think about their experiences in their relationships. Although there are no risks involved for your child to participate in the research, it is possible that certain questions could make your child feel uncomfortable. However, it is important to know that your child can refuse to answer certain questions at any time and can also withdraw themselves from the research study at any time.

It is possible that during the study your child may become aware of problems that he/she has experienced in the past or at the present moment for which help is required. The researcher will not be able to provide this assistance herself, but will refer your child to a person or organisation that can be of help.

3. POSSIBLE ADVANTAGES FOR PARTICIPANT AND SOCIETY

Most people do not often get the opportunity to think about and answer questions about their close relationships. Your child's participation will give him/her such an opportunity, which may be valuable to him/her. Furthermore, we currently only have a limited understanding of how young people in your community think and act in their relationships and your child's participation will help to increase this understanding. This information can also help to develop more effective programs for relationship improvement.

4. COMPENSATION FOR PARTICIPATION

Neither you nor your child will be compensated for participation in this study

5. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information obtained through the research will remain confidential and will only be made public with your child's consent or as the law demands. As the questionnaires will be answered anonymously it will not be possible to connect a specific questionnaire to a specific participant. All the data will be stored in the researcher's office, with only the researcher and her supervisor having access to it.

Results of the study will appear in a thesis, a copy of which will be given to the principal upon completion as well as a report about the information obtained from the questionnaires. It is aimed to have the results of the study published in a psychological journal. Confidentiality will be maintained, as no information of your child, or even the name of the school, will be mentioned in the publication.

6. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your child can decide for him/herself whether they want to participate in the study, without any pressure from teachers or the researcher. If your child does decide to participate he/she can withdraw from the study at any time, without any negative consequences. Your child can also refuse to answer certain questions, while still participating in the study.

7. IDENTIFICATION OF THE RESEARCHERS

In case you have any questions of concerns regarding the research, you are free to contact Dr.Elmien Lesch at 021-8083466. The postal address is: Psychology Department, Stellenbosch University, Private Bag X1, Matieland, 7602.

8. RIGHTS OF PARTICIPANTS

By participating in the research, your child in no way departs from any legal right, claim or representation. If you have any questions regarding your child's rights as participant in research, phone Mrs Maryke Husselman-Hunter at the Unit for Research Development (021-8084623)

DECLARATION BY PARENT

The above information was read by me, _____ and I am fluent in English.

I hereby give consent that my child, _____ may participate in this study.

Signature of parent:_____ **Date:** _____

DECLARATION BY PARTICIPANT (CHILD)

The above information was read by me, _____ and I am fluent in English.

I hereby give consent that I will participate in the research.

Signature of participant (child):_____ **Date:** _____

ADDENDUM C: AFRIKAANS QUESTIONNAIRE

AFDELING A

Die vrae in hierdie afdeling fokus op aspekte van jou alledaagse lewe. Voltooi asseblief al die onderstaande vrae so eerlik as moontlik.

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
❑   Indiër
❑   Ander (spesifiseer asseblief)_____

5.) Aan watter geloof behoort jy?_____

6.) Hoe dikwels woon jy kerkbyeenkomste by:

Een keer 'n week	
Twee keer 'n week	
Een keer 'n maand	
Twee keer 'n maand	
Een keer 'n jaar	
Twee keer 'n jaar	

7.) Watter taal praat jy by die huis?

❑   Afrikaans
❑   Engels
❑   Xhosa
❑   Ander (spesifiseer asseblief)_____

8.) In watter graad is jy vanjaar in die skool?

Graad 8	
Graad 9	
Graad 10	

Graad 11	
Graad 12	

9.) Wat is jou gemiddelde akademiese uitslae op skool die afgelope jaar? (Wat is die punt wat jy die meeste kry vir al jou vakke saam?)

30 – 40%	
40 – 50%	
50 – 60%	
60 – 70%	
70 – 80%	
80 – 90%	
90 – 100%	

10.) Neem jy deel aan enige aktiwiteite by die skool? (soos bv. Sport, Drama ens.)
　□ Ja　□ Nee

11.) Indien wel, merk asseblief af watter aktiwiteite jy aan deelneem:

Sport	
Drama	
Kuns	
Koor	
Musieklesse/ Orkes	
Ekstra klasse	

Ander (spesifiseer asseblief)_____

12.) Hoeveel tyd spandeer jy altesaam per week aan hierdie aktiwiteite?

1-2 uur per week	
2-3 uur per week	
3-4 uur per week	
4-5 uur per week	
Meer as 5 ure per week	

13.) Het jy enige leierskapsposisies in die skool/kerk?　□ Ja　□ Nee

14.) Wat is hierdie posisie/s?_____

15.) Waar woon jy?
❑　　Dorp
❑　　Plaas
❑　　Ander(verduidelik) _____

16.) In watter soort huis woon jy?

❑　　Baksteenhuis op 'n aparte standplaas

❑　　　Huis/struktuur in agterplaas
❑　　　Informele hut/blyplek in agterplaas
❑　　　Informele hut/blyplek NIE in agterplaas nie
❑　　　Ander (spesifiseer asseblief) _____

17.) Saam met wie woon jy in die huis? (Jy kan meer as een opsie kies)

❑　　　Ma
❑　　　Pa
❑　　　Ouma
❑　　　Oupa
❑　　　Tannie
❑　　　Oom
❑　　　Broer(s)
❑　　　Suster(s)
❑　　　Voog

18.) Hoeveel mense leef in julle huis? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Meer □

19.) Hoeveel mense slaap in julle huis? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Meer □

20.) Hoeveel broers en susters het jy? 1 2 3 4 5 Meer □

21.) Wie is die hoof van julle huis?_____

22.) Wie se huis is dit?_____

23.) Hoeveel mense wat in julle huis leef/slaap werk op die oomblik en kry 'n inkomste waarvan julle moet leef? 1 2 3 4 5 Meer □

24.) Verdien enigiemand in julle huis enige ander vorm van 'n inkomste soos 'n toelaag?
　　□ Ja　□ Nee

25.) Hoeveel kamers het die huis waarin jy bly? 1 2 3 4 5 6 Meer □

26.) Wie slaap saam met jou in een slaapkamer?_____

27.) Met wie deel jy saans 'n bed?_____

28.) Is daar 'n badkamer in jou huis? □ Ja　□ Nee

29.) Is daar elektrisiteit in jou huis? □ Ja　□ Nee

30.) Werk jy? □ Ja　□ Nee

31.) Indien jy werk, watter werk doen jy?

_____

32.) Hoeveel geld verdien jy per maand?
_____

33.) Weet jy hoeveel geld jou ouers verdien per maand? □ Ja □ Nee

34.) Indien jy weet, wat is die inkomste van jou ma per maand? _____

35.) Indien jy weet, wat is die inkomste van jou pa per maand? _____

36.) As jy moet sê, in watter inkomstegroep val jou huisgesin?
❑   Hoë inkomstegroep
❑   Gemiddelde inskomstegroep
❑   Lae inkomstegroep

37.) Het jy enige siekte of gestremdheid? □ Ja □ Nee

38.) Watter behandeling ontvang jy vir hierdie siekte of gestremdheid?
_____

39.) Rook jy? □ Ja □ Nee

40.) Indien wel, hoeveel sigarette rook jy per dag?

1-5	
6-10	
11-20	
21-30	
Meer as 30	

41.) Hoe oud was jy toe jy die eerste keer gerook het? _____

42.) Gebruik jy alkohol? □ Ja □ Nee

43.) Hoe gereeld gebruik jy alkohol?

Elke dag	
Een keer 'n week	
Twee keer 'n week	
Net oor naweke	
Net by partytjies	

44.) Hoe oud was jy toe jy die eerste keer gedrink het?_____

45.) Gebruik jy ander dwelmmiddels of substanse? □ Ja □ Nee

46.) Hoe dikwels gebruik jy hierdie dwelmmiddels of substanse?

Elke dag	
Een keer 'n week	
Twee keer 'n week	
Net oor naweke	
Net by partytjies	

47.) Hoe oud was jy toe jy vir die eerste keer hierdie middel/s gebruik het?_____

48.) Gaan jy op die oomblik uit met iemand? (Het jy op die oomblik 'n ou of 'n meisie?)
  □ Ja □ Nee

49.) Indien wel, vir hoe lank gaan jy al uit met hierdie ou of meisie?_____

50.) Hoe oud is jou ou/meisie?_____

51.) Met hoeveel ouens of meisies het jy al uitgegaan? (Hoeveel ouens of meisies het jy al gehad?)_____

52.) Waarvan hou julle die meeste om te doen wanneer julle saam is?
_____
_____

53.) Hoe gereeld spandeer jy en jou ou/meisie tyd saam?

Elke dag	
Drie/Vier keer 'n week	
Twee keer 'n week	
Net oor naweke	
Een keer 'n maand	
Twee keer 'n maand	

54.) Waar spandeer julle die meeste van julle tyd wanneer julle saam is?
_____

55.) Hoe dikwels doen julle elkeen van die volgende:

a.) Gesels oor meer ernstige persoonlike goed?

Elke dag	
Een keer per week	
'n Paar keer per week	
Een keer per maand	
Nooit	

b.) Gesels spesifiek oor julle verhouding?

Elke dag	
Een keer per week	
'n Paar keer per week	
Een keer per maand	
Nooit	

56.) Wie is op die oomblik vir jou die belangrikste persoon in jou lewe?

Ma	
Pa	
Broer	
Suster	
Ander Familielid	
Onderwyser	
Ou/meisie	
Vriend/vriendin	

AFDELING B

Instruksies: Almal het 'n aantal mense wat belangrik is in hul lewens. Byvoorbeeld, jou ouers, vriende en ou/meisie is mense wat dalk vir jou belangrik is. In hierdie afdeling vra ons oor jou verhouding met elkeen van hierdie mense. Daar moet dus 4 kruisies per blok (vraag) gemaak word.
Let wel: As jy nie op die oomblik in 'n romantiese verhouding is nie, laat daardie kolom leeg en beantwoord asseblief die vrae vir ma, pa en beste vriend/vriendin. Met ander woorde, dan sal jy net 3 kruisies per blok maak. Beantwoord asseblief al die vrae.

1. Hoe baie vrye tyd spandeer jy saam met hierdie persoon?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

2. Hoe baie word jy en hierdie persoon ontsteld met of kwaad vir mekaar?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

3. Hoe baie leer hierdie persoon vir jou hoe om dinge te doen wat jy nie weet nie?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

4. Hoe tevrede is jy met jou verhouding met hierdie persoon?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

5. Hoe baie vertel jy hierdie persoon alles?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

6. Hoe baie help jy hierdie persoon met dinge wat hy/sy nie op sy/haar eie kan doen nie?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

7. Hoe baie hou hierdie persoon van jou of is lief vir jou?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

8. Hoe baie straf hierdie persoon jou?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

9. Hoe baie behandel hierdie persoon jou asof jy bewonder en respekteer word?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

10. Wie sê meer dikwels vir die ander persoon wat om te doen, jy of hierdie persoon?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

11. Hoe seker is jy dat hierdie verhouding sal aanhou, maak nie saak wat nie?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

12. Hoe baie pret (fun) het jy saam met hierdie persoon?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

13. Hoe baie verskil jy en hierdie persoon van mening en stry julle?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

14. Hoe baie help hierdie persoon jou om dinge op te los of reg te maak?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

15. Hoe gelukkig is jy met hoe dinge is tussen jou en hierdie persoon?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

16. Hoe baie deel jy jou geheime en private gevoelens met die persoon?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

17. Hoe baie beskerm jy en kyk jy uit vir hierdie persoon?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

18. Hoe baie gee hierdie persoon regtig vir jou om?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

19. Hoe baie dissiplineer hierdie persoon jou omdat jy hom/haar nie gehoorsaam nie?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

20. Hoe baie behandel hierdie persoon jou asof jy goed is met baie dinge?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

21. Tussen jou en hierdie persoon, wie is geneig om die baas te wees in die verhouding?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

22. Hoe seker is jy dat jou verhouding sal hou ten spyte van bakleiery?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

23. Hoe dikwels gaan jy na plekke en doen lekker dinge saam met hierdie persoon?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

24. Hoe baie stry jy en hierdie persoon met mekaar?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

25. Hoe dikwels help hierdie persoon jou wanneer jy nodig het om iets gedoen te kry?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

26. Hoe goed is jou verhouding met hierdie persoon?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

27. Hoe baie praat jy met hierdie persoon oor dinge wat jy nie wil hê ander mense moet weet nie?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

28. Hoe baie sorg jy vir hierdie persoon?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

29. Hoe baie het hierdie persoon 'n sterk gevoel van omgee vir jou (hou van jou of is lief vir jou)?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

30. Hoe baie skel hierdie persoon jou uit omdat jy iets gedoen het wat jy nie veronderstel was om te doen nie?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

31. Hoe baie hou hierdie persoon van jou of keur die dinge goed wat jy doen?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

32. In jou verhouding met hierdie persoon, wie is geneig om beheer te neem en te besluit wat behoort gedoen te word?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

33. Hoe seker is jy dat jou verhouding sal aanhou in die jare wat kom?	Min of geen	Ietwat	Baie	Uiters baie	Die meeste
Ma	1	2	3	4	5
Pa	1	2	3	4	5
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4	5
Ou/Meisie	1	2	3	4	5

Let wel: Die volgende vrae verwys na die kwaliteit van jou verhouding met jou ouers, beste vriend/vriendin en jou ou/meisie. Daar moet dus weer 4 kruisies per blok(vraag) gemaak word, behalwe as jy nie op die oomblik in 'n romantiese verhouding is nie, dan moet daar net 3 kruisies per blok(vraag) gemaak word. Beantwoord asseblief al die vrae.

1. Tot watter mate kan jy na hierdie persoon toe draai vir advies oor probleme?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

2. Hoe dikwels het jy nodig om hard te werk om konflik met hierdie persoon te vermy?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

3. Tot watter mate kan jy op hierdie persoon reken vir hulp met 'n probleem?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

4. Hoe ontsteld laat hierdie persoon jou soms voel?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

5. Tot watter mate kan jy op hierdie persoon reken om vir jou eerlike terugvoer te gee, selfs al wil jy dit nie hoor nie?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

6. Hoe baie laat hierdie persoon jou skuldig voel?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

7. Hoe baie moet jy ingee in hierdie verhouding?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

8. Tot watter mate kan jy op hierdie persoon reken om jou te help as 'n familielid baie na aan jou sou doodgaan?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

9. Hoe baie wil hierdie persoon hê jy moet verander?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

10. Hoe positief is die rol wat hierdie persoon in jou lewe speel?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

11. Hoe betekenisvol is hierdie verhouding in jou lewe?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

12. Hoe naby sal jou verhouding wees met hierdie persoon oor tien jaar?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

13. Hoe baie sal jy hierdie persoon mis as die twee van julle nie vir mekaar kan sien of met mekaar kan praat vir 'n maand nie?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

14. Hoe krities van jou is hierdie persoon?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

15. As jy sou wou uitgaan en iets doen vanaand, hoe vol vertroue is jy dat hierdie persoon bereid sal wees om iets saam met jou te doen?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

16. Hoe verantwoordelik voel jy vir hierdie persoon se welsyn?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

17. Hoe baie maak jy staat op hierdie persoon?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

18. Tot watter mate kan jy reken op hierdie persoon om na jou te luister wanneer jy kwaad is vir iemand anders?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel- wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

19. Hoe baie wil jy hê dat hierdie persoon moet verander?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel- wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

20. Hoe kwaad laat hierdie persoon jou voel?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel- wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

21. Hoe baie stry jy met hierdie persoon?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel- wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

22. Tot watter mate kan jy regtig reken op hierdie persoon om jou aandag af te trek van jou bekommernisse wanneer jy stres ervaar?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel- wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

23. Hoe dikwels laat hierdie persoon jou kwaad voel?	Glad nie	'n Bietjie	Heel- wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

24. Hoe dikwels probeer hierdie persoon om jou lewe te beheer of te beïnvloed?	Glad nie	’n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

25. Hoeveel meer gee jy as wat jy kry van hierdie verhouding?	Glad nie	’n Bietjie	Heel-wat	Baie
Ma	1	2	3	4
Pa	1	2	3	4
Beste vriend/vriendin	1	2	3	4
Ou/meisie	1	2	3	4

ADDENDUM D: ENGLISH QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A

The questions in this section focus on certain aspects of your everyday life. Please answer all the following questions as honestly as possible.

Date:_____

1.) Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

2.) Date of birth: (DD/MM/YYYY) _____

3.) Age:_____

4.) To what racial category would you say you belong?

☐   Black
☐   Coloured
☐   White
☐   Indian
☐   Other (please specify)_____

5.) What religion do you belong to? _____

6.) How often do you attend church:

Once a week	
Twice a week	
Once a month	
Twice a month	
Once a year	
Twice a year	

7.) What is your home language?

☐   Afrikaans
☐   English
☐   Xhosa
☐   Other (please specify)_____

8.) In what grade are you at school this year?

Grade 8	
Grade 9	
Grade 10	

Grade 11	
Grade 12	

9.) What is your average academic result that you have achieved at school in the past year? (What is the mark that you get most often for all your subjects?)

30 – 40%	
40 – 50%	
50 – 60%	
60 – 70%	
70 – 80%	
80 – 90%	
90 – 100%	

10.) Do you take part in any extra curricular activities at school? (e.g. Sport, Drama etc.)
□ Yes   □ No

11.) If yes, please mark the activites you take part in:

Sport	
Drama	
Art	
Choir	
Music lessons/ Orchestra	
Extra lessons	

Other (please specify)_____

12.) How much time do you spend all together on these activities per week?

1-2 hours per week	
2-3 hours per week	
3-4 hours per week	
4-5 hours per week	
More than 5 hours per week	

13.) Do you hold any leadership positions at school/church? □ Yes □ No

14.) What are these positions?_____

15.) Where do you live?
❑   Town
❑   Farm
❑   Other (please specifiy) _____

16.) In what type of house do you live?

❑   Brick house on a seperate plot
❑   House/structure in a backyard
❑   Informal structure in backyard
❑   Informal structure NOT in backyard
❑   Other (please specify) _____

17.) Who lives at home with you? (You can choose more than one option)

❑   Mother
❑   Father
❑   Grandmother
❑   Grandfather
❑   Aunt
❑   Uncle
❑   Brother(s)
❑   Sister(s)
❑   Guardian

18.) How many people live in your house? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 More ☐

19.) How many people sleep in your house? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 More ☐

20.) How many brothers and sisters do you have? 1 2 3 4 5 More ☐

21.) Who is the head of your household?_____

22.) Who owns your house?_____

23.) How many people who live/sleep in your house works at the moment and earns an income of which you must live? 1 2 3 4 5 More ☐

24.) Does anyone in your house earn any other form of income like a grant?
☐ Yes ☐ No

25.) How many rooms does the house in which you live have?
1 2 3 4 5 6 More ☐

26.) Who sleeps in the same bedroom as you?_____

27.) Who sleeps in the same bed with you?_____

28.) Is there a bathroom in your house? ☐ Yes ☐ No

29.) Is there electricity in your house? ☐ Yes ☐ No

30.) Do you work? (Have a job?) ☐ Yes ☐ No

31.) If you do work, what kind of work do you do?

_____

32.) How much money do you earn per month?

_____

33.) Do you know how much money your parents earn per month? □ Yes   □ No

34.) If you do know, what is the income of your mother per month? _____

35.) If you do know, what is the income of your father per month? _____

36.) If you have to say, into which income bracket does your family fit?
❑   High income bracket
❑   Average income bracket
❑   Low income bracket

37.) Do you have any illness or disability? □ Yes □ No

38.) What treatment do you receive for this illness or disability?
_____

39.) Do you smoke? □ Yes □ No

40.) If you do, how many cigarettes do you smoke per day?

1-5	
6-10	
11-20	
21-30	
More than 30	

41.) How old were you when you smoked for the first time? _____

42.) Do you use alcohol? □ Yes □ No

43.) How often du you use alcohol?

Every day	
Once a week	
Twice a week	
Only on weekends	
Only at parties	

44.) How old were you when you drank alcohol for the first time?_____

45.) Do you use any other drugs or substances? □ Yes □ No

46.) How often do you use these drugs or substances?

Every day	
Once a week	
Twice a week	
Only on weekends	
Only at parties	

47.) How old were you when you used these substances for the first time? _____

48.) Are you going out with anyone at the moment? (Do you have a boyfriend or girlfriend at the moment?)
    □ Yes □ No

49.) If you are, for how long have you been going out with this girlfriend or boyfriend? _____

50.) How old is your boyfriend/girlfriend?_____

51.) How many boys or girls have you dated? _____

52.) What do you like to do the most when you are together?
_____
_____

53.) How often do you and your girlfriend/boyfriend spend time together?

Every day	
Three/four times a week	
Twice a week	
Only on weekends	
Once a month	
Twice a month	

54.) Where do you spend most of your time when you are together?
_____

55.) How often do the two of you do each of the following:

c.) Talk about more serious personal things?

Every day	
Once a week	
A few times a week	

Once a month	
Never	

d.) Talk specifically about your relationship?

Every day	
Once a week	
A few times a week	
Once a month	
Never	

56.) Who is the most important person in your life at the moment?

Mother	
Father	
Brother	
Sister	
Other family member	
Teacher	
Boyfriend/Girlfriend	
Friend	

SECTION B

Instructions: Everyone has a certain number of people who are important in their lives. For example, your parents, friends or girlfriend/boyfriend are people who may be important to you. In this section we are asking questions about your relationhip with each of these individuals. Therefore, 4 crosses must be made per block (question).

Please note: If you are not in a romantic relationship at the moment, or one of your parents are deceased, leave that column empty and answer the questions for the other people. In this case, you will then only be making 3 crosses per block. Please answer all the questions.

1. How much free time do you spend with this person?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

2. How much do you and this person get upset with or mad at each other?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

3. How much does this person teach you how to do things that you don't know?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

4. How satisfied are you with your relationship with this person?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

5. How much do you tell this person everything?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

6. How much do you help this person with things he/she can't do by him/herself?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

7. How much does this person like or love you?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

8. How much does this person punish you?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

9. How much does this person treat you like you're admired and respected?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

10. Who tells the other person what to do more often, you or this person?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

11. How sure are you that this relationship will last no matter what?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

12. How much do you play around and have fun with this person?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

13. How much do you and this person disagree and quarrel?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

14. How much does this person help you figure out or fix things?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

15. How happy are you with the way things are between you and this person?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

16. How much do you share your secrets and private feelings with this person?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

17. How much do you protect and look out for this person?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

18. How much does this person really care about you?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

19. How much does this person discipline you for disobeying him/her?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

20. How much does this person treat you like you're good at many things?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

21. Between you and this person, who tends to be the boss in this relationship?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

22. How sure are you that your relationship will last in spite of fights?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

23. How often do you go places and do enjoyable things with this person?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

24. How much do you and this person argue with each other?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

25. How often does this person help you when you need to get something done?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

26. How good is your relationship with this person?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

27. How much do you talk to this person about things that you don't want others to know?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

28. How much do you take care of this person?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

29. How much does this person have a strong feeling of affection (love or liking) toward you?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

30. How much does this person scold you for doing something you're not supposed to do?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

31. How much does this person like or approve of the things you do?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

32. In your relationship with this person, who tends to take charge and decide what should be done?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

33. How sure are you that your relationship will continue in the years to come?	Little or none	Some-what	Very much	Extremely much	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Best friend	1	2	3	4	5
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5

Please note: The following questions address the quality of your relationship with your parents, best friend and your boyfriend/girlfriend. Again 4 crosses per block(question) must be made, except if you are not in a romantic relationship at the moment or one of your parents are deceased, in which case 3 crosses per block will be made. Please answer all the questions.

1. To what extent could you turn to this person for advice about problems?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

2. How often do you need to work hard to avoid conflict with this person?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

3. To what extent could you count on this person for help with a problem?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

4. How upset does this person sometimes make you feel?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

5. To what extent can you count on this person to give you honest feedback, even if you might not want to hear it?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4
6. How much does this person make you feel	Not at	A little	Quite	Very

guilty?	all		a bit	much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

7. How much do you have to "give in" in this relationship?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

8.To what extent can you count on this person if a family member very close to you died?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

9. How much does this person want you to change?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

10. How positive a role does this person play in your life?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

11. How significant is this relationship in your life?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

12. How close will your relationship be with this person in 10 years?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

13. How much would you miss this person if the two of you could not see or talk with each other for a month?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

14. How critical of you is this person?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

15. If you wanted to go out and do something this evening, how confident are you that this person would be willing to do something with you?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

16. How responsible do you feel for this person's well-being?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

17. How much do you depend on this person?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4
18. To what extent can you count on this person to	Not at	A little	Quite	Very

listen to you when you are angry at someone else?	all		a bit	much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

19. How much would you like this person to change?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

20. How angry does this person make you feel?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

21. How much do you argue with this person?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

22. To what extent can you really count on this person to distract you from your worries when you feel under stress?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

23. How often does this person make you feel angry?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4
24. How often does this person try to control or	Not at	A little	Quite	Very

influence your life?	all		a bit	much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

25. How much more do you give than you get from this relationship?	Not at all	A little	Quite a bit	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4
Father	1	2	3	4
Best friend	1	2	3	4
Boy/Girlfriend	1	2	3	4

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