

PARENTING STYLE AND FIRST YEAR STUDENTS' ADJUSTMENT AT UNIVERSITY:  
MEDIATION VIA TRAIT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION  
INSTITUTIONS- A DIMENSIONAL AND TYPOLOGICAL APPROACH

By

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## **ABSTRACT**

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the potential mediating effect of TEI on the relationship between parenting style/dimension and first year students' university adjustment in higher education institutions of Ethiopia. The study sought to test a model where parental responsiveness, parental demandingness and the TEI interactively and individually, relate to adjustment. A total of 464 first year university students from three public universities participated in this study. The results of preliminary analyses pertaining to the predominantly practiced parenting style in the families of Ethiopia revealed that if gender is ignored, the most common parenting style is the neglectful style followed very closely by the authoritative style. However, parenting styles varied as a function of students' gender. A statistically significant TEI score difference was found among the four parenting style categories. Results also revealed that a statistically significant difference on adjustment mean score was found among the four parenting style categories. The t-test result revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between male and female first year university students with regard to TEI score but there was no a statistically significant difference between male and female first year university students with respect to the adjustment score. The path analysis result also revealed that parental dimensions (responsiveness and demandingness) and TEI had a statistically significant and positive direct effect on adjustment. The multiple regression result showed that TEI, parental responsiveness and parental demandingness interactively explained 31.9 percent of the variance on adjustment. Finally, the mediation analysis results revealed that TEI plays a mediation role, but only partially, in the parental demandingness and adjustment relationship, and in the parental responsiveness and adjustment relationship, which potentially confirms that the adjustment scale can explain the relationship between the demandingness and responsiveness dimension-variables of parenting style and TEI. Based on the results of the present study, some practical, theoretical and methodological implications of the study for designing interventions to maximize students' adjustment in higher education institutions are addressed. Moreover, recommendations, limitations and future directions are addressed for researchers to take lesson in undertaking this or similar types of research in the future.

**Key Words:** Adjustment, Demandingness, Parenting style, Responsiveness, TEI

## DECLARATION

I declare that **Parenting Style and First Year Students' Adjustment at University: Mediation via Trait Emotional Intelligence in Higher Education Institutions– A Dimensional and Typological Approach** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. In addition, I hereby declare that this work has not been submitted to any other degree at this University or any other institution of higher learning so far.

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to be 'Tarekegn Desalegn Fenta', written over a horizontal line.

TAREKEGNDESALEGNFENTA

APRIL 2018

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## **SUMMARY**

### **PARENTING STYLE AND FIRST YEAR STUDENTS' ADJUSTMENT AT UNIVERSITY: MEDIATION VIA TRAIT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS– A DIMENSIONAL AND TYPOLOGICAL APPROACH**

The present study sought to test a model where parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, and TEI, interactively and individually, relate to adjustment. The literature revealed that attending to university for the first time is a significant transition accompanied with challenges and difficulties for students, thereby, the problems' students' faced at the initial stage have to be addressed accordingly. For instance, an early EI programme for the first year students' help them to adjust their transition successfully. EI, that the ability to recognise, understand, use, and manage emotions contributes to adaptation at various realms of life, including adjustment at university. It is when students actually perceive their emotional abilities, skills, personality and behavioural characteristics that they can cope with the environmental demands and pressures that exist in the university context.

From the literature, the investigator came to note that TEI as a learned behaviour is influenced by the social context in which an individual grows up, in particular. TEI is believed to be more sensitive to parental behaviours. Parenting style has both positive and negative outcomes for children's overall development and is influenced by the culture. Therefore, there is a need to critically question the parenting-style paradigm, thereby; the limitations that existed in the earlier literatures were managed in this thesis.

The proposed model was tested and the research questions of the study were examined based on the data obtained from 464 (Male=282 & Female=182) first year university students recruited via a stratified random sampling technique selected from 3 public universities in Ethiopia. In this study, questionnaires that have been used in other studies were employed for data collection. Piloting was undertaken on the main data collection instruments: the TEIQue, the SACQ, and the PDQ.

Whether the model fits the empirical data was tested using path analysis and mediation analysis. In addition, critical evaluation was undertaken on the limitations of the study. Based on the findings of this thesis, interventions for future practice should include more the incorporation of parenting practices, university officials, teachers, and students' guidance and counsellor in the effort to beef up the adjustment level of first year university students.

Key Words: Adjustment, EI, EI program, Learned behaviour, Model, Parenting behaviour, Parental demandingness, PDQ, Parental responsiveness, Parenting style, SACQ, TEI, TEIQue.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EI	Emotional Intelligence
SACQ	Student Adjustment to College Questionnaire
TEI	Trait Emotional Intelligence
MoE	Ministry of Education
AEI	Ability Emotional Intelligence
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
CEE	College Entrance Exam
TEIQue-ASF	Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Adolescent Short Form
EQ-I	Emotional Quotient Inventory
TEIQue	Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire
BarEQ-I	Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory
TMMS	Trait Meta-Mood Scale
EQ	Emotional Quotient
PDQ	Parenting Dimension Questionnaire
PAQ	Parental Authority Questionnaire
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Science
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
RMSR	Root Mean Square Residual
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
NFI	Normed Fit Index
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index
CMIN	Minimum Discrepancy
DF	Degrees of Freedom
AGFI	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index
PGFI	Parsimony-adjusted Goodness of Fit Index

NPAR	Number of Parameters
P	Probability Value
RFI	Relative Fit Index
IFI	Incremental Fit Index
$\chi^2$	Chi-square
e1	Error term 1
e2	Error term 2
PCLOSE	P for Test of Close Fit
LO 90	Lower 90% Confidence Limit
HI 90	Upper 90% Confidence Limit
<i>M</i>	Mean
<i>SD</i>	Standard Deviation
Sig.	Significant
SE	Standard Error
MS	Mean Square
F	F-statistic
SoSs	Sum of Squares
N	Number of Cases
SED	Standard Error Difference
MD	Mean Difference
RS	R-Square
ARS	Adjusted R-Square
RSC	R-Square Change
$\beta$	Beta

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **STATEMENT OF PROBLEM, AIM AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

This chapter focuses on the background and motivation, problem statement and aim of the study. It also stipulates the conceptual framework, research questions, research objectives, operational definition of terms, significance, assumptions and scope of the research, and chapter divisions.

#### **1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION**

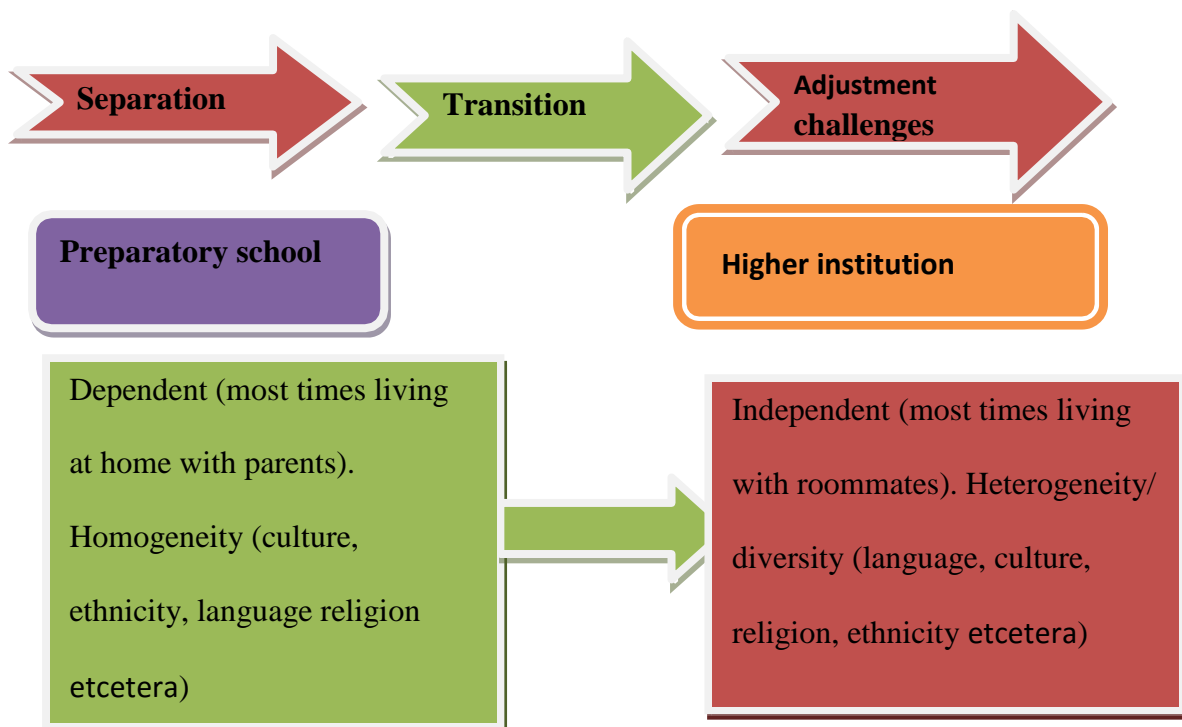
Life at university for first year students can be both stimulating and demanding (Habibah, Noordin, & Mahyuddin, 2010). This is because, on the one hand, it increases personal independence (Habibah et al., 2010) while on the other, it may be a source of stress (Friedlander, Reid, Shupak, & Cribbie, 2007). The transition may lead to decreased academic performance and increased psychological distress (Friedlander et al., 2007) underscoring that students deal differently with the transition to university life, and making it important to address this issue.

Students' entry into a university engrosses numerous challenges (Doyle & Walker, 2002). However, intrapersonal, adaptability, and stress management abilities are vital elements to make transition from high school to university successful (Parker, Summerfeldt, Hogan, & Majeski, 2004). On the other hand, inept in those skills escort them to confront, for example, social problems (Raj, 2012), a multitude of new personal and interpersonal challenges that include the desire to make new relationships, alter existing relationships and have to become skilled at study habits for a quite fresh academic setting (Parker et al., 2004). Moreover, university students' used to experience financial and academic pressure (Cooke, Bewick, Barkham, Bradley, & Audin, 2006). In the event that students do not cope with the wider challenges demanded of them during their transition from secondary to tertiary education, their learning outcomes will be negatively impacted (Burgess, Crocombe, Kelly, & Seet, 2009).

In Ethiopia, students who successfully graduate from preparatory school enroll in universities to undertake their tertiary level education. Within the past few years in Ethiopia, in addition to regional and private colleges, the number of public universities has grown to 43 (Ministry of

Education (MoE, 2014). Following this, the yearly public universities' acceptance rate of new students has dramatically increased from somewhat less than ten thousand (two decades ago) to nearly four hundred thousand, of whom 28 % were female students (MoE, 2013). However, the attrition rate of first year university students in the country, Ethiopia is high. In this regard, a study on this rate in Bahir Dar University, reported that the overall attrition rate of male students was 34.2 % while that of female students was 56.8 % (Yalew, 2003).

Many first year university students encounter adjustment difficulties and challenges during the transition to higher levels of education and have the greatest difficulty adjusting to the various demands of the university (Tinto, 1996). In a similar vein, Ethiopian university and college level students undergo various challenges; for instance, Yusuf (1998), found that while students in higher education institutions encounter all types of problems, the economic, psychosocial, educational, and health issues are the dominant ones. In particular, first year students suffer from either multiple or at least one form of the commonly reported problems more frequently than the seniors (Yusuf, 1998). As it is noted above, the transition from preparatory school to tertiary is a dramatic, challenging and transformational event and is graphically described here in Figure 1.1 below.



**Figure 1.1: Preparatory-University Transition Schemes**

### **1.1.1 Academic, social, personal-emotional, and institutional attachment adjustments**

Adjustment in the first year of study at university is vital to the overall success of students (Friedlander et al., 2007). To make transition easier, first year university students require adaptive behaviours in many areas; such as time management, effective study skills, the capacity to complete courses and the ability to consider transition as a normative shift rather than a crisis (Birnie-Lefcovitch, 2000). Thus, orientation programmes and transition activities have to be geared to the needs of the university students, especially those who have difficulties in adjusting to the new environment (Habibah et al., 2010). Therefore, it is apparent that problems faced by students at the initial stage have to be addressed accordingly.

The issue of adjustment was intensively studied by (Baker & Sirk, 1986, 1989, 1999) who developed the Student Adjustment to College Questionnaire (SACQ) - a measure to assess student levels of adjustment to college. They divided adjustment into four distinct dimensions: academic adjustment, social adjustment, personal-emotional adjustment and institutional attachment. Briefly:

- Academic adjustment-It involves students' perceived ability to achieve the demands of university academic work and acceptance of the academic environment. It includes motivation (attitudes towards academic goals, motivation for doing academic work while being in university), application (how well the motivation is transformed into academic work and meets academic requirements), performance (success and effectiveness in academic functioning), and academic environment (satisfaction with the academic environment).
- Social adjustment- It refers to dealing with a new social environment effectively, such as by establishing positive and accepting friendships and being involved in social activities on campus. It covers general (scope and social activities and functioning in general), other people (relationship with others), and social environment (satisfaction with the social aspects of a university environment).
- Personal-emotional adjustment- It refers to the well-being of students. It is divided into two aspects: the psychological aspect (sense of psychological well-being) and the physical aspect (sense of physical well-being).
- Institutional attachment- It refers to students' feelings of commitment to university and satisfaction at attending a particular university; i.e. it encompasses general

feelings and satisfaction of being in university and specific feelings and satisfaction at being at the particular university where they are enrolled.

In this study, university adjustment is defined as a process by which first year university students fulfil the academic, social, personal-emotional and institutional attachment demands at a higher institution in an acceptable manner, while adjustment difficulty refers to first year university students' failure to cope successfully with the demands faced at higher institutions. Overall, the current study follows the definition provided by Baker and Siryk (1989, 1999). In other words, the important components of adjustment to university considered in this research include first year university students' academic adjustment, social adjustment, personal-emotional adjustment, and institutional attachment/commitment.

### **1.1.2 Emotional Intelligence (EI) as a tool for adjustment**

In section 1.1.1, adjustment and its indicators were described in detail, in order to provide a preliminary view regarding the notion of adjustment. This portion of the introduction offers an introduction to Trait Emotional Intelligence (TEI) alongside with its dimensions and its relationship with adjustment. To begin, as noted, first year students' adjustment to university life is essential for their overall success at university. In this regard, EI plays an important role that fosters students' maintaining their adjustment successfully during their transition to university (Engelberg & Sjoberg, 2004; Low & Nelson, 2005). Other research results have also revealed the importance of EI. For instance, Mayer, Roberts, and Barsade (2008) studied the role of EI in predicting success in personal adjustment and social behaviour.

In addition, EI is also considered a driving force behind the factors that affect personal success and everyday interaction with others (Engelberg & Sjoberg, 2004; Punia & Sangwan, 2011). Emotionally intelligent individuals are described as well adjusted, warm, genuine, persistent and optimistic (Mayer & Salovey, 1990). Taking into account of the importance of EI, Austin, Evans, Goldwater, and Potter (2005) also underscored an early EI programme for the first year students in order to help them to adjust their transition successfully. Overall, EI helps people in handling challenges in a wide range of domains, including education, clinical interventions and the workplace (Punia & Sangwan, 2011).

Since EI is pivotal in the ways humans interact with each other and perform in home, school, and work settings, the need to understand it is vital. Therefore, for an improved future, it is necessary to equip first year students with EI because they will be the next generation's leaders, doctors, artists, business people, and politicians who can make wiser judgments and solve problems for the benefit of all people.

In the literature on EI research, two dominant dimensions have been investigated:

- The Ability Emotional Intelligence (AEI)- refers to cognitive abilities which are measured through performance measurements, and
- The TEI-refers to behavioural dispositions and self-perceptions concerning one's ability to recognise process and utilise emotion-laden information and is measured with a self-report questionnaire (Bar-On, 1997, 2000; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000; Petrides & Furnham, 2000, 2001, 2003).

### **1.1.3 Correlations between AEI and TEI**

TEI and AEI are considered as the two different dimensions of EI, and their level of empirical and methodological variation is described in this section. In this regard, empirical research has revealed low correlations between AEI and TEI (Gohm, Corser, & Dalsky, 2005), thus substantiating the conceptual and methodological differences between the two constructs (O'Connor & Little, 2003; Petrides, 2010). There is also a fundamental difference in the measurement of EI constructs (AEI vs. TEI) (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

Concerning TEI, definitions are quite diverse, and sometimes this factor appears to include anything other than Intelligence Quotient (IQ) that might contribute to success. Research results have depicted that high TEI individuals are believed to regulate their emotional reactions over time, manage their stress, and are thought to be assertive (Petrides & Furnham, 2001), while displaying fewer negative stress responses, i.e. they make fewer negative appraisals and feel more able to cope with situations (Mikolajczak & Luminet, 2008).

For purposes of this research, the focus is on TEI rather than on AEI because, as has been revealed in various literary studies, TEI has been measured via self-reports (Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Mayer & Salovey, 1995). Therefore, one may state that self-report tests of EI measure

self-perceptions of emotional abilities and emotional dispositions, which are more connected to personality traits than to cognitive abilities. While abilities can be trained, personality dispositions may need more nurturing; therefore, TEI is believed to be more sensitive to parental behaviours than actual emotional abilities. In this research, TEI is treated as encompassing the four dimensions: well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability (Petrides, 2001).

#### **1.1.4 TEI as a learned behaviour**

From the literature, the investigator came to note that TEI as a learned behaviour is influenced by the social context in which the individual grows up. In other words, there seems to be evidence of a connection between parenting and children's TEI. For example, Alegre and Benson (2010) found that parental availability and control were related to late adolescents' TEI. Besides, parents perform a key role in EI training (Fonte, 2009), because they play an important part in raising children.

TEI as learned behaviour is influenced by parental relationships; as noted in the literature, parental relationships have been found to affect many different aspects of development of children, including the range and depth of emotions which parents display to their children (Baumrind, 1991; Dornbusch et al., 1987 cited in Sharma & Sahni, 2013). Hence, the importance of parental rearing style and early social interactions for later development is widely recognised (Liem, Cavell, & Lustig, 2010).

Parenting style not only contributes positively to development; it also has negative effects on children's development. In relation to this Mayer and Salovey (1997) indicated that parental withdrawals may well influence children and adolescents' ability to attend to, understand, and regulate their own emotions and the emotions of others. In turn, the lack of EI could place individuals at a disadvantage because they are given insufficient resources to deal with social and personal challenges, resulting in internalising or externalising problems (Goleman, 1995).

#### **1.1.5 Parenting style**

In the previous section, the relationship between AEI and TEI, and the influence of parenting style on TEI were demonstrated. This section provides an introduction on parenting style and



how the four parenting styles were classified using parental responsiveness and demandingness dimensions.

The concept of parenting style has appeared in the international arena since the 1920's, though it is Baumrind's research in the 1960's which provides the basis for the notion of parenting style used in much of today's research. Primarily, Baumrind (1967) introduced the concept of parenting styles based on two important dimensions of parenting: parental responsiveness (warmth/support) and parental demandingness (behavioural control). Therefore, Baumrind's three parenting styles were classified as: authoritarian parenting (highly demanding and directive; not responsive), permissive (highly responsive, not demanding), and authoritative (both demanding and responsive). However, Maccoby and Martin (1983) reviewed Baumrind's work, updated her parenting styles and included a fourth: uninvolved or neglectful (neither responsive nor demanding).

Previous research on parenting styles, for instance, by Darling (1999), documented some important findings regarding parental responsiveness and parental demandingness. According to Darling (1999), parental responsiveness predicts social competence and psychosocial functioning, while parental demandingness is associated with instrumental competence and behavioural control.

In this research, the four parenting styles along with their two dimensions (parental responsiveness/involvement and parental demandingness/strictness/control/) that have been appearing in many research documents for the last three decades are considered.

### **1.1.6 Parenting style as a tool for college adjustment**

Parenting style does result in both positive and negative outcomes for children's development. Therefore, the task of adjustment to any situation cannot be an exception. In this regard, Whittaker and Cornthwaite (2000) boldly asserted that parental rearing styles could be either facilitative, promoting higher levels of psychosocial adjustment or aversive, promoting lower levels of psychosocial adjustment in later life. Positive parental rearing styles are associated with adjustment to college (Schnuck & Handal, 2011), and socially competent behaviour (Baumrind, 1991; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991). Therefore, one of the recommendations for preventing social problems is the further investigation of parenting style and related factors (Dwairy & Menshar, 2006).

More specifically, college students with a high level of dependence on parents could result in a feeling of mutual reciprocity between the parent and a child (Wintre & Yaffe, 2000). In sum, adolescents with uninvolved parents are generally less socially competent and present adjustment problems in all domains (Baumrind, 1991), whereas adolescents who have been brought up by means of an authoritative parenting style display better psychosocial and behavioural adjustment than the rest of the parenting styles (Beyers & Goossens, 1999).

After having provided an introduction to the major variables to be included in this thesis and insights about them, the next section reports on the theoretical and empirical aspects and the gaps existing in the literature by drawing attention to them in the section addressing statement of the problem, below.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

As noted, attending to university for the first time is a stressful experience for many college or university students (Dyson & Renk, 2006), and the adjustment to university life is a significant transition accompanied with challenges and difficulties for students (ACT, 2002). Some college students feel overwhelmed and, as mentioned before, experience various adjustment problems (Bernier, Larose, & Whipple, 2005) that lead them to drop out of university (Estrada, Dupoux, & Wolman, 2005). Consolvo (2002) also stipulated about the dropout of college students, more specifically, nearly 30-40% of them do so without achieving a college degree, and many of them not capable to come again to college to complete their degrees.

In even worse findings, Tinto (2000) indicated that approximately 60% of first year students who enter college do not graduate; the majority of these could leave college within their first two years. Here, as intimated, the importance of the issue of adjustment should not be overlooked; that is, more research is needed to examine the context of university adjustment, especially during students' first year there (Grant-Vallone, Reid, Umali, & Pohlert, 2004). Boulter (2002) also reported that about 75 % of students who had dropped out of college do so within their first two years because of adjustment problems during their first year. Therefore, serious attention needs to be given to students who face problems in the first year at university (Azar & Reshadatjoo, 2014).

A study by Habibah et al. (2010) disclosed that university students, irrespective of their year of study, generally report moderate levels of adjustment. But, when a comparison between the senior and junior ones was considered, there was a significant difference between their levels of adjustment, with senior students being better adjusted than the juniors. The study established that students encounter difficulties regarding their academic studies as well as personal, emotional, social matters and coping with the learning tasks. Sharma (2012) also indicated that first year students are less emotionally mature and thus faced more difficulty in adjusting emotionally to the demands of the new environment than did the senior students.

The expansion of higher education in Ethiopia, with the resulting large numbers of student admissions, has also led me (the investigator) to be motivated to support the diverse student population admitted to university. Therefore, it is justifiable to investigate first year university students' adjustment experiences in Ethiopian higher institutions. Researchers (Baker & Syrik, 1999) also recommended evaluating student adjustment to university as it is always a sensitive issue. This implies that there is a need to conduct further research in this area.

While there are many studies examining adjustment to university, there are two major gaps, to my knowledge, that I have noted. First, the majority of investigations were undertaken in the West, particularly with US students, and little is known about first year students' adjustment to university in Ethiopia. Given the cultural differences regarding student entry into universities in the West, we should not assume that transition to university is the same for students in the West as it is for those in Ethiopia. Secondly, previously published literature also indicated that little research has been carried out with respect to the acculturation problems of the local students who came from diverse cultures such as those in Ethiopia.

As is well-known, Ethiopia is a multi-ethnic and multi-religious country with a population of about 90 million (Central Statistical Agency, 2012). It is home to more than 80 ethnic groups who speak different languages and follow different religions, and there are definite variations in customs and traditional beliefs and practices. Thus, complexity increases as university roommates come from different ethnic/cultural backgrounds and hold different values. Despite this, there is a paucity of research on adjustment processes of first year students and related interventions in the universities of Ethiopia. Consequently, studying the adjustment of students who came from diverse cultures to life in the university, in particular, Ethiopia is necessary. Hence, to the best of my knowledge, this study is the first to approach such a task.

Most importantly, adjustment difficulties among students need serious attention as they can lead to students' failure to complete their studies (Abdullah, Elias, Mahyuddin, & Uli, 2009). Sanoff (2006) also indicated that first year students are ill prepared for college life, hence, need a good orientation programme to prepare them for the challenges they will encounter in all areas of life at the campus.

The students' successful transition into a university is evidenced as being associated with variables or a combination of variables consisting of academic and non-academic/non-cognitive factors. Among the non-cognitive factors responsible for contributing to college adjustment is the TEI, and its role in students' academic performance, which has already been well-studied (Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004; Slobodskaya, Safronova, & Windle, 2005), while its significance in solving students' emotional and social difficulties at university still remains unanswered. Nonetheless, researchers have linked TEI to a host of criteria relating to individuals' social, emotional and behavioural well-being (Greven, Chamorro-Premuzic, Arteché, & Furnham, 2008; Mikolajczak, Luminet, & Menil, 2006; Petrides, Furnham, & Mavroveli, 2007).

Therefore, it is proposed that TEI can predict adjustment and therefore, using TEI as a base to solve certain students' adjustment problems is acceptable. Meanwhile, researchers claim that students need early EI programmes in order to adapt in their environment because these incorporate a number of abilities, including the ability to be aware of one's own and others' emotions, to be able to manage those emotions, and to understand the complex relationships that can occur between emotions and emotional transition (Austin et al., 2005; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Consequently, there is a need to identify adjustment difficulties experienced by first year students who encounter problems in coping with the demands and challenges that could produce stress and tension in their campus life, meaning that appropriate intervention programmes should be planned for them. In addition, students who have low adjustment levels and who are experiencing difficulties with their studies should be given the appropriate counselling (Habibah et al., 2010). Therefore, it is vital to address the relationship between TEI and the adjustment experiences of first year university students.

TEI is also believed to be more sensitive to parental behaviours. The mediating role of EI between past parental behaviours and late adolescents' adjustment has been indirectly suggested in some publications (Goleman 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Nevertheless, the

mediating effect of TEI on the relationship between parenting style/dimension and adjustment of first year students to university life has not been well studied. Because detailed empirical evidence is lacking in this regard, there is a need to carry out research in this area.

The present study, using a Parenting Dimension Questionnaire (PDQ), therefore, focuses on whether past perceived parenting style/behaviour have a significant influence on first year students' adjustment to university life, mediated via TEI. This was based on the data collected from the first year students' Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) and the SACQ respectively. To the best of this researcher's knowledge, there is no study that has investigated the integrated effects of past perceived parenting style/dimension and TEI on first year students' adjustment to university life in higher education institutions, in Ethiopia.

More importantly, minimal empirical examination has been done on the mediation process, in which parenting style/dimension relates to students' university adjustment through TEI. As a result, the intention of the present study was to examine the mediation processes and provide more empirical information regarding the mediation pathways from TEI to parenting styles, and subsequently to adjustment.

Deductions from those essentials above, and the paucity of research addressing the relationship between parenting style/dimension and TEI and their roles in explaining first year students' adjustment at university, comprised the main motivation in conducting this research. By focusing on the area under consideration, the study is believed to contribute by suggesting possible remedial strategies and implications to further understand the problem. This study also attempted to explore whether students' university adjustment and TEI varies according to gender, because this information is considered essential in order to help, assist and support first year students to better adjust to university.

### **1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY**

The central aims /goals of the present study were twofold:

- To test the mediated effect of TEI on the relationship between parenting style/dimension and first year students' university adjustment, and
- To develop an explanatory theory that associates parenting style/dimension with TEI and adjustment at university of first year students in institutions of higher education in Ethiopia.

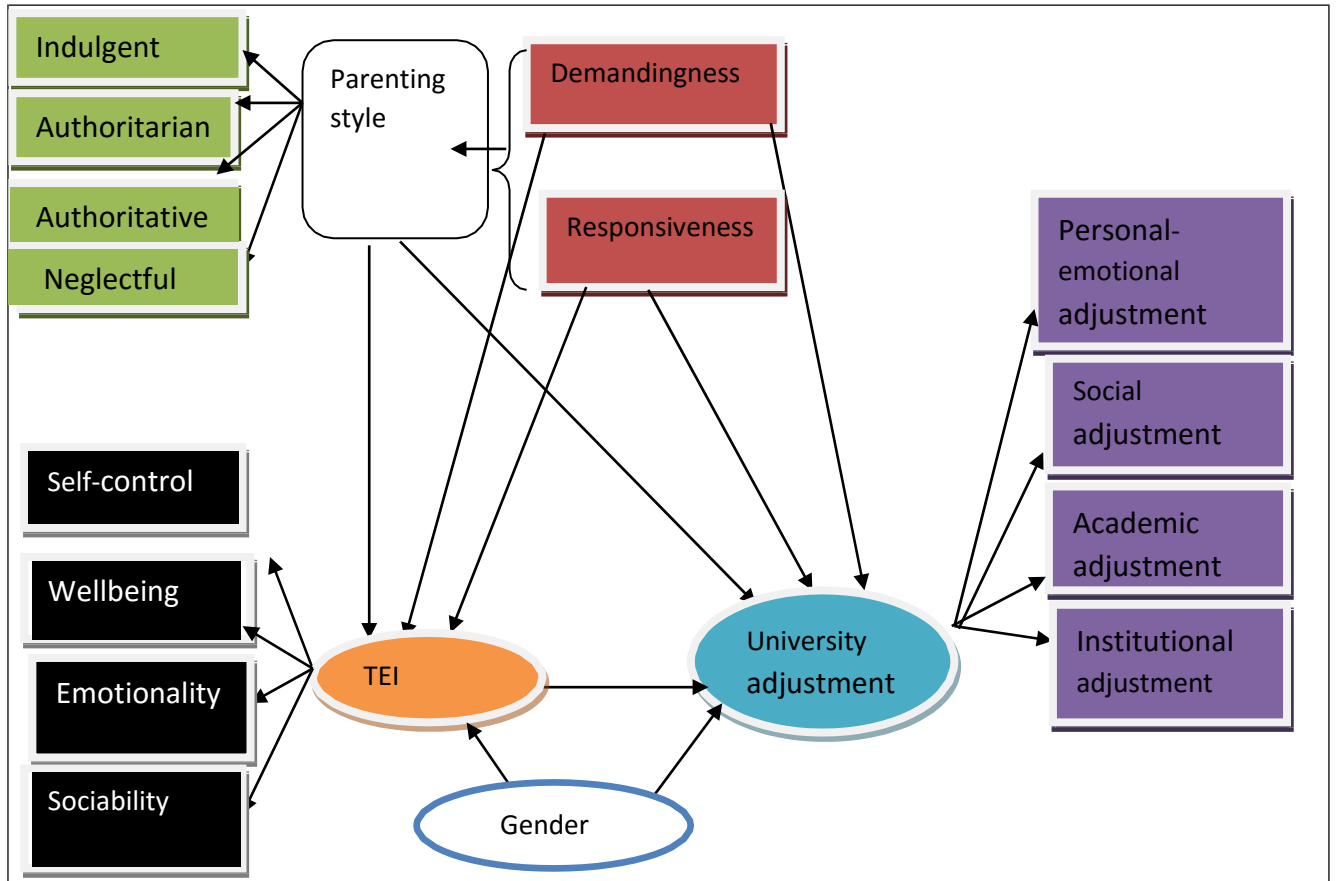
### 1.3.1 Conceptual framework

As mentioned above, the student's successful transition into a university is evidenced as being associated with variables and TEI is one of these factors. The construct TEI is implicated in many important life domains. For instance, there is evidence of a link between parenting style and an adolescent's TEI (Alegre & Benson, 2010; Liau, Liau, Theo, & Liau, 2003; Martinez-Pons, 1999). To be specific, Liau et al.'s (2003) study of 203 Malaysian secondary school students found that parental monitoring and supervision related to children's TEI. According to Martinez-Pons (1999), adolescents' perceptions of their parents' reinforcement, praise and education of emotion-related behaviours were likewise related to the adolescents' self-reported TEI.

Longitudinal research has investigated the predictive role that maternal and paternal characteristics and parenting styles play in individuals' adjustment during development (Maggio & Zappulla, 2014). Similarly, a research indicated a relationship between adolescents' adjustment problems and their parents' parental behaviours (Jackson, Pratt, Hunsberger & Pancer, 2005). Research results also revealed the importance of EI to students' adjustment, for instance, a study by Yip and Martin (2006) pointed to the existence of a relationship between EI and overall student adjustment, as well as predicting college adjustment (Elias, Mahyuddin, & Noordin, 2007; Parker, Hogan, Eastbrook, Oke, & Wood, 2006).

Concerning the parenting style, the investigator chose both a typological and dimensional approach. With regard to the typological perspective, on the basis of existing literature (Garcia & Gracia, 2009), it is hypothesised that university students from authoritative and/or indulgent families would report lower levels of adjustment problems and higher levels of life satisfaction than students with authoritarian and neglectful parents did. With regard to the dimensional perspective, as an alternative to the predominant categorical conceptualisation of parenting styles, researchers have suggested the use of dimensions instead. For instance, Stewart and Bond (2002) theorised that parenting dimensions are universal and are thus better indicators of parenting behaviours, especially in ethnic cultural groups where the culture-specific meaning of the behaviour may differ. They further assert that parenting styles are optimally useful in research and practice because they accurately describe naturally occurring clusters of parenting behaviours.

As deduced from the above research findings, TEI, parenting style/dimension, and adjustment to university are related to one another; therefore, it is possible to posit that TEI may have a mediating effect on the relationship of parenting style/dimension and adjustment to university life. In this regard, although more research in this area is needed, the available research provides initial support for this relation. In addition, whether first year students' TEI and adjustment to university life are influenced by gender is also displayed in the conceptual framework of this research as illustrated in Figure 1.2 below.



**Figure 1.2: The Conceptual Framework of a Hypothesized Integrated Parenting Style/Dimension, TEI, and Students' University Adjustment Model**

### **1.3.2 Research questions**

Based on the aforementioned literature, in the current study it was expected that parenting style/dimension would have significant and positive direct effects on TEI and positive direct and indirect effects on adjustment to university. In particular, the current study scrutinised the following research questions:

#### **Main research question**

- How are TEI and parenting style/dimension affecting adjustment at university of first year students in institutions of higher education?

#### **Sub-research questions**

- How does TEI mediate the relationship between demandingness and responsiveness dimension-variables of parenting style and adjustment at university of first year students?
- Does the combined effect of the independent variables (demandingness and responsiveness dimension-variables of parenting style and TEI) predict adjustment at university of first year university students?
- Is there a statistically significant gender difference with respect to TEI and adjustment level of first year university students?
- Does the university life adjustment scale explain the relationship between TEI and demandingness and responsiveness dimension-variables of parenting style controlling for the level of degree of adjustment with university life?
- Which type of parenting style is predominantly practiced in the families of Ethiopia?
- Are there significant differences in adjustment and TEI as a function of first year university students' perceived parenting style (authoritative, authoritarian, neglectful, and indulgent types)?



### 1.3.3 Research Objective

This section consists of two parts: a general one which states the objective in a general form while the second one encompasses the specific objectives' list.

#### 1.3.3.1 General objective

The main objective of this research study is to develop an explanatory theory that associates parenting style/dimension with TEI and adjustment at university of first year students in institutions of higher education in Ethiopia.

#### 1.3.3.2 Specific objectives

Considering the research questions posed, the objectives were as follows:

- To identify how TEI and the demandingness and responsiveness dimension-variables of parenting style affect adjustment at university of first year students in institutions of higher education in Ethiopia.
- To investigate how TEI mediates in the relationship between demandingness and responsiveness dimension-variables of parenting style and adjustment of first year students to university in Ethiopia.
- To determine the combined effect of the independent variables (demandingness and responsiveness dimension-variables of parenting style and TEI) in predicting adjustment of first year students to university in Ethiopia.
- To check if there is a statistically significant difference between genders with respect to TEI and adjustment at university.
- To determine whether the university life adjustment scale explains the relationship between TEI and demandingness and responsiveness dimension-variables of parenting style.
- To identify the types of parenting style predominantly practiced in the families of Ethiopia.

- To investigate whether there are significant differences in adjustment and TEI as a function of first year university students' perceived parenting style (authoritative, authoritarian, neglectful, and indulgent types).

#### 1.4 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Operational definition of terms is considered to be the compass and backbone of the research which basically plays two roles (1) delimiting the research, and (2) relating the research to the measurements. Hence, in this section very important constructs are operationally defined, considering the research objective, measurements, and scope of the study.

**Adjustment:** In this research it refers to a process by which first year students meet the academic, social, personal-emotional, and institutional attachment demands in an acceptable manner as measured using the SACQ developed by Baker and Siryk (1984, 1989).

**First year university students:** In this research it refers to those undergraduate students, who enrolled in the regular programmes during the 2016/2017 academic year in the three Ethiopian public universities.

**Higher education institution:** In this research it denotes those governmental educational institutions (universities) in Ethiopia where preparatory level students scored at least the minimum requirement on the higher education College Entrance Exam (CEE) to be admitted to it for a degree programme.

**Parenting style:** In this study it refers to the undergraduate first year university students' recalled evaluation of their parents' parenting style, using the parental responsiveness/involvement and parental demandingness/control/strictness dimensions to consider parents as practicing one of them (i.e., authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent/permissive, and neglectful/uninvolved parenting styles), as measured using the PDQ.

**Parenting dimensions:** In this thesis it encompasses the parental responsiveness and parental demandingness using both their sample medians values (high & low combination simultaneously) to assign the parents into four categories based on their parenting style, namely, authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent/permissive, and neglectful/uninvolved.

**Parental responsiveness:** In this research it denotes the level of warmth, responsiveness, acceptance, involvement, and closeness offered by maternal and paternal figures, as perceived /reported by first year university students and measured using the parental responsiveness sub-scale.

**Parental demandingness:** It refers to the level of demands, supervision, requirements, monitoring, standards, control, restrictiveness, and firmness implemented by maternal and paternal figures, as perceived by first year university students about their parents and measured using the parental demandingness sub-scale.

**Dimensional approach:** It signifies the parental responsiveness-demandingness aspect of parenting style in which these two dimensions are separately and interactively used to serve to analyse research questions whose nature is that of continuous variables.

**Typological approach:** It refers to the categories of parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and uninvolved) which are basically formed using the responsiveness and demandingness dimensions and served to analyse research questions which were categorical in nature.

**TEI:** It denotes first year students' self-perceptions of their emotional abilities, skills, and personality characteristics that influence their ability to cope successfully with environmental demands and pressures as they are measured through TEIQue, categorised into the four broader factors: well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability.

## **1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

This research was designed to address the following contributions:

- It is believed that the findings of the current study would be of importance in building new empirical findings that would be replicated and referred to by others in the future.
- This study would provide new knowledge regarding the relationship among parenting style/dimension, TEI, and first year students' adjustment to university. Since there is a paucity of empirical studies of this kind locally and internationally, it is believed that

the findings and implications of this study would be of great importance for higher education institutions, educational practitioners, parents, and university students.

- The outcome of this study is expected to strengthen the need to establish an EI and adjustment based counselling intervention programme to mitigate the transition trauma of university students' encounters as they enter higher institutions.
- The current study would provide decision makers and higher institution managers with information about first year students' adjustment to university life, in order to use it to enhance the university climate so as to achieve optimal rates of adjustment.
- Finally, it was anticipated that the findings of this study could be fruitful for parents and family members to explain the roles played by parents in mentoring, loving, and nurturing their youths with greater EI to make them well adjusted, productive, and competent. Thus, interventions, counseling, and prevention areas will receive greater support.

## **1.6 ASSUMPTIONS AND SCOPE OF THE RESEARCH**

In this section, the major assumptions and the scope/delimitation of this research are described.

### **1.6.1 Assumptions of the research**

There are three key assumptions underlying the current research:

- First, it was assumed that students in higher education institutions would have clear and accurate perceptions of their parents' past parenting style, their TEI, and their adjustment level at university. In other words, information which would be provided by the respondents, via questionnaire, on the respective constructs could be genuine.
- Second, it was also assumed that the measures of parenting style/dimension, TEI, and university adjustment developed in other cultural contexts and which would be adapted to the Ethiopian cultural context would be cross-culturally valid. In other words, the models of parenting style, TEI, and adjustment at university would be applicable in the Ethiopian cultural context as well.

- Third, it was also assumed that higher institution students find it challenging to adjust socially and academically to the university environment.

### **1.6.2 Scope of the research**

This research is focused on testing the mediation effect of TEI on the relationship between parenting style/dimension and first year undergraduate students' adjustment to university in higher institutions of Ethiopia.

## **1.7 CHAPTER DIVISION**

Over and above this chapter, the study comprises the following chapters:

**Chapter 2, *Review and related literature***, encompasses the following aspects: Adjustment, adjustment model/s, theories and empirical results, history, concept, models, and theories of EI, the concept, theoretical, and empirical review of TEI, parenting style, models, and empirical findings about parenting style, the relationship between and or among major study variables including parenting style and TEI, parenting style and adjustment, adjustment and TEI, the relationship between gender and TEI, and the relationship between gender and adjustment.

**Chapter 3, *Research methodology***, outlines the specific research design (quantitative research will be motivated), sample and sampling techniques, the instruments used for collecting the data, data collection procedure, the validity and reliability of the instruments, ethical considerations, and methods of data analysis.

**Chapter 4, *Results of the study***, discusses the analysis, summary of the collected data and evaluation of the results in relation to each research objective.

**Chapter 5, *Discussion***, presents a discussion of the present research findings in line with the previous research results in the order in which the research objectives were analysed in Chapter4.

**Chapter 6, *Summary and conclusions of the study***, reports the summary, conclusion, the strengths, limitations, and future directions, the practical, theoretical, and methodological contributions, recommendations for future interventions/implications, and recommendations for future research.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

This chapter provides the reader with a summary of the literature on adjustment, EI, TEI, parenting style and other variables related to the main study. In particular, the review is presented in the following manner. First, a conceptual overview is undertaken on adjustment, adjustment model/s, theories, and empirical results on adjustment. Second, the history and concept, models and theories of EI are discussed. Third, the concepts, theoretical and empirical reviews of TEI are addressed. Fourth, a comprehensive review of parenting style, models, and empirical findings is presented. Fifth, the relationships between parenting style and EI, parenting style and TEI, parenting style and adjustment, and adjustment and TEI are considered. Sixth, a review on the background variable (gender) in relation to TEI and adjustment to university is provided in line with the objectives stated in this study. And finally, a conclusion on the review as a whole is offered.

#### **2.1 ADJUSTMENT**

This section encompasses very important aspects of adjustment, including the concept of adjustment, the adjustment model in this research context, empirical results on adjustment reviewed in previous research findings and the perceived social support contribution to students' adjustment at university.

##### **2.1.1 Concept of adjustment**

Adjustment is so complex a concept that, depending on the context, it has been defined in different ways by various researchers and writers. Among the few that are mentioned here, Sufian (2004) defined adjustment as the individual's ability to fulfil his/her psychological needs and his/her self-acceptance as well as enjoying life without any types of conflicts and participation in social activities; while Ramsay, Jones, and Barker (2007) describe adjustment as a dynamic process that could ultimately lead to the achievement of an appropriate fit between the person and the environment. According to Salami (2011) it can also be defined as a condition or state in which the students feel that their needs have been fulfilled and that their behaviour conforms to the needs of the environment. In this study, adjustment is considered a

process by which first year students meet their academic, social, personal-emotional, and institutional attachment demands in an acceptable manner, which is in line with the description provided by Baker and Siryk (1984,1999).

### **2.1.2 Adjustment models in the context of life at university**

The definitions given by scholars regarding adjustment were reported in section 2.1.1. Here in this section, the model of adjustment in the context of life at university is discussed. In this regard, there have been different adjustment models developed by researchers and practitioners over almost the last sixty years, as per the contexts researchers wish to investigate. But, for my research purposes, I came to note the following important dimensions of adjustment to university already mentioned: the academic adjustment, social adjustment, personal-emotional adjustment, and institutional attachment developed by (Baker & Siryk, 1989). Conceptually, each dimension of adjustment to university was described in Chapter 1 (section 1.1.1). The empirical results in relation to adjustment are discussed next.

### **2.1.3 Empirical results on adjustment to university life**

Most first year students in their transition at university have experienced autonomy for the first time. Despite this transition being a positive and exciting period, it has been found to be quite challenging for some students (Wintre &Yaffe, 2000) as this event is accompanied by their facing adjustment difficulties and challenges (Tinto,1996).

Various authors have described the types of demands and challenges faced by first year university students. For example, Salami (2008) noted students face a variety of new demands and challenges, such as developing study habits for the new academic environment, coping with new evaluation systems and developing new patterns of mature interpersonal relationships with professors and classmates. Raj (2012) underscored the challenges emanate from encountering new cultures, separation from family, disengaging from high school friends, financial pressures, making decisions about how to dress and eating foods to which they are not accustomed. In addition to these, personal autonomy, social relationships, compatibility amongst roommates, accessing support services, eating habits and adjustment to the academic programme are some of the other transitional challenges (Wangeri, Kimani, & Mutweleli, 2012).



Therefore, it is evident that adjustment to university is multidimensional and demanding; aspects differ in kind and degree and need diverse adjustment strategies (Baker & Siryk, 1984, 1989). Research results have indicated that on average, more than half of first year students who join higher education experience difficulties during the transitional period (Briggs, Clark & Hall, 2012). Raj (2012) and Sharma (2012) mentioned that they experience many academic difficulties as well as emotional difficulties such as isolation, loneliness, stress, and depression because of the complexity of the transition they have to make (Dyson & Renk, 2006; Friedlander et al., 2007; Wintre & Yaffe, 2000).

The literature makes it clear that there are different adjustment patterns in the transition to university. Previously published cohort studies have found that the first year is a difficult time for university students (Cooke et al., 2006). However, Cooke et al. (2006) described patterns of adjustment as a 'U' shape of adjustment, with students starting the first year displaying elevated well-being, but deteriorating towards the middle of the year, yet recovering by the end of that first year at university. In contrast, Gall, Evans, and Bellerose (2000) found a pattern characterised by poor adjustment at the start of year one, with gradual improvement over the course of that year that progresses in an upward line.

Sharma (2012) also discovered significant differences in the adjustment processes of first and final year students concerning the social, emotional and educational areas (first year students faced psychosocial adjustment problems after entering college, as compared to the final year students who had adjusted to the social milieu of college and had thus become more emotionally stable). In the study, results also indicated that due to different kinds of unexpected pressures, first year students became emotionally regressed and experienced social maladjustment.

How a student adjusts during his/her first year of college life lays a foundation for other events during his/her college life (Baker & Siryk, 1984). For example, a study by Abdullah et al. (2009) indicated that adjustment significantly predicted students' academic performance, especially academic adjustment, and personal-emotional adjustment. In particular, their study showed that students who are well adjusted to university perform better academically. They further reported that academic and personal-emotional adjustment together explained 32% of the variance in students' academic performance.

Considering the level of students' adjustment across the adjustment dimensions, a study by Azar and Reshadatjoo (2014) on Iranian university students indicated that 88% of the respondents' overall adjustment was at the moderate level, while only 7% obtained a high level of overall adjustment and 5% were found to be in the low category for their overall adjustment. Similarly, a study by Al-khatib, Awamleh, and Samawi (2012) on Al-balqa university students indicated that students had an average level of adjustment, while considering the specific domains, students had a better adjustment to the commitment to goals followed by the social domain, but the academic and the personal domains were placed in the last rank.

Therefore, as indicated there is a need to identify adjustment problems experienced by students and appropriate intervention programmes should be planned for them. In this regard, students who have a low adjustment level and who are encountering difficulties with their studies should be given the appropriate counselling (Habibah et al., 2010). This is especially true for new students who face problems in coping with the demands and challenges of campus life.

#### **2.1.4 Perceived social support and students' adjustment at university**

Developing new and effective relationships represents an important element of social adjustment. In relation to this, Enochs and Roland (2006) found that students who are able to connect with others in their new environment and gain social support adjust better than those who are not able to build a new support system. Similarly, Salami (2011) also established significant linear correlations between adjustment to college and social support ( $r = .36, *p < .05$ ).

Raj (2012) also reported that students who maintain compatible relationships with their families are more likely to do well at university. Likewise, Winter's and Yaffe's (2000) study found that good relations with parents help both male and female students to adjust. There is a positive significant relationship between higher levels of social support from family (specifically parents) and global, emotional and academic adjustment when first starting university (Friedlander et al., 2007).

A study by Paramo, Martinez, Tinajero, and Rodríguez (2014) also confirmed that perceived social support is a good predictor of adjustment to university (results ranged from 8.8% for institutional attachment to 16.3% for social adjustment).

Surprisingly, students who experienced stress but reported high social support evidenced relatively high adjustment compared to their low social support counterparts (Salami, 2011). This is because the presence of social support gives them confidence which, in turn, helps them in handling the academic, social, and personal-emotional challenges that they may have faced as new students in their college. This implies that first year students need to obtain actual social support from significant others or should be assisted to think that significant others are by their side to make them feel confident when they are not alone. In the following section the notions of, and theoretical and empirical explanations concerning, EI, and TEI are discussed.

## **2.2 NOTIONS ABOUT EI**

In the previous sections discussions were held on adjustment (theoretical and empirical), and the importance of perceived social support for first year university students' adjustment to university. In this section, a discussion is first carried out on EI, followed by a consideration of TEI. The rationale of raising the issue of EI is that it is the root from which TEI is derived. Thus, informing readers about EI is pivotal. As a consequence, a discussion on EI begins from its historical development.

### **2.2.1 History and background of EI**

The distal root of EI was related to Thorndike's (1920) concept of social intelligence. Thorndike (1920) developed and used the concept social intelligence to refer to the ability to understand and manage people and to act wisely in human relations. In fact it was later that the construct was introduced in the form in which one of its current manifestations appears (Mayer & Salovey, 1990). EI was brought into prominence in both the academic and popular press in the past few decades by Daniel Goleman's (1995) best-selling book: he defined EI as a person's ability to know his/her own emotions, to control him/herself, to motivate him/herself, to understand other people's feelings and to positively handle interpersonal relationships.

## 2.2.2 Definition of EI

In this section, definitions are provided for EI. Currently, although there are several definitions and measures of EI, basically, there are certain elements that many of the attempts share. For instance:

- The competencies of perception, understanding, utilising and managing emotions effectively in the self and others comprise the core of EI (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004, 2008).
- Bar-On (2006) defined EI in terms of emotional and social skills that influence our understanding and expression of ourselves, our understanding of others and interaction with them, and the ability to deal with every day demands.
- Additionally, Bar-On (1997, p.14) defined EI as “an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures.”
- EI- it is associated with adaptability, stress management, self-awareness, resiliency and interpersonal relationships (Bar-On, 2004).
- It is the capability of monitoring one’s emotions and others’ emotions and manipulating the information for managing one's thoughts and actions, regulating emotion in self and others, and utilising suitable emotions for solving, actively and effectively, daily difficulties and obstacles (Mayer et al., 2004).
- EI- it refers to the mental processes involved in recognising, using, understanding, and managing one’s own and others’ emotional states to solve problems and regulate behaviour (Mayer & Salovey, 1990, 1997).

As one noted in the above definitions provided by EI theorists there seem to be shared elements, but the most salient feature of EI is that it can be viewed as the reason why individuals differ to the extent that they do and with respect to the way in which they process and use emotional information from within themselves and from others during interaction (Petrides & Furnham, 2003).

The theory of EI presented by Mayer and Salovey (1990, 1997) posits that the ability to recognise, understand, use, and manage emotions contributes to adaptation in various realms of life. Here, in this thesis, EI as conceptualised by Mayer and Salovey (1990, 1997) was taken

as a benchmark for investigating TEI. Based on the said definition, EI theories are discussed below.

### **2.2.3 EI theories**

While there are disagreements about the exact nature of EI, several theories exist. When researchers initially developed measurement tools for EI, they assumed that they were measuring a single, uniform construct. Currently, there are two major theoretical perspectives on the nature of EI: ability-based and trait-based. As a result, the assessment tools are constructed in one of two ways—either as a self-report measure or as an ability measure. The ability-based approach conceptualises EI as a set of emotion-related cognitive skills located comfortably with other aspects of cognitive intelligence involving cognitive processing of emotional information (Mayer et al., 2008). Like other mental abilities, AEI is measured through maximum-performance tests, where respondents are asked to solve problems involving reasoning about emotions and using emotional information to facilitate reasoning.

On the other hand, the trait-based approach conceptualises EI as a set of emotion-related dispositions, attitudes and self-perceptions located at the lower levels of the hierarchical personality taxonomy (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). The most influential trait-based theories of EI include Bar-On's (2000) model of emotional-social intelligence, operationalised with the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) (Bar-On, 1997), and the TEI theory by (Petrides et al., 2007), operationalised with the TEIQue (Petrides, 2009). Similar traits are measured by the TEIQue under the broad factors of emotionality, self-control, sociability and well-being.

Under the umbrella of EI, for this research purpose the trait model is accounted for, especially traits that are measured using the TEIQue's four factors. For instance, research on the Bar EQ-I, one of the most widely used self-report EI measures (Bar-On, 1997) is consistently linked with established personality and cognitive ability constructs. In fact, trait measures using the TEIQue are also linked with established personality factors but not, or only to a minimal degree, with cognitive ability constructs which are a little more meaningful in the context of this thesis than the Bar EQ-I.

To conclude this section, I consider that the information provided to the readers of this thesis will allow them to comprehend the difference between AEI and TEI theories and how TEI is

measured using the given four factors. In the following section, the definitions of and empirical studies on TEI are discussed.

#### **2.2.4 TEI: Conceptualisation and empirical studies**

Basically, the concept of TEI was described so as to make the difference between it and the performance-measured emotional skills AEI explicit (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). TEI can be defined as follows:

- *It is the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and /or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p.35)*

The construct TEI can also be defined as:

- A constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies, and it is measured via self-reports (Petrides et al., 2007).

Moreover, it is also defined as:

- Emotion-related behavioural dispositions and abilities related to personality (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

TEI can also be broadly defined as:

- Emotional self-efficacy involves individuals' subjective evaluations of their abilities to understand and manage emotion (Mikolajczak, Menil, & Luminet, 2007; Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

TEI is also defined as:

- It concerns peoples' self-perceptions of their emotional abilities and skills, personality characteristics and behavioural dispositions that influence their ability to cope successfully with environmental demands and pressures (Petrides, 2010).

Given the information from all above definitions, therefore, the last definition could be regarded as the most viable one in the context of this study because, from experience and as has been stated above and in much of the literature, university students encounter new demands and pressures as they enter the new university environment. Therefore, it is when students actually perceive their emotional abilities, skills, personality characteristics, and behavioural characteristics that they can cope with the environmental demands and pressures that really exist in the university context, the subject of this thesis.

TEI essentially concerns individual differences in one's self-perceptions of one's emotional abilities. Both theoretically and empirically, a number of factors have been related to TEI. For instance, researchers have suggested that people (adults) with higher TEI are considered to have a better capability to perceive, recognise, and manage emotion, which in turn facilitates their emotional development (Mayer & Salovey, 1997); they tend to display less negative stress responses than people with low TEI (they make less negative appraisals), feel more competent to cope with situations (Mikolajczak & Luminet, 2008), and report fewer somatic complaints as well (Mavroveli, Petrides, Rieffe, & Bakker, 2007). There is also evidence that TEI is associated with better mental/physical resistance to stress (Salovey, Stroud, Woolery, & Epel, 2002, using the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS), and mental well-being (Andrei & Petrides, 2013).

## **2.3 PARENTING STYLE**

In the previous sections, TEI (definitions, theoretical and empirical studies on it) characteristics are highlighted. In this section a similar procedure is followed: that is, a definition of parenting style is presented first, followed by a discussion of theoretical and empirical studies on this style.

### **2.3.1 Conceptualisation of parenting style**

Parenting style is viewed by different researchers and scholars in a very similar way. Thus, in this research the common definition of it is taken into account, so that it is defined as follows:

*“A constellation of attitudes toward the child that are communicated to the child and that taken together, create an emotional climate in which the parent's behaviors are expressed”* (Darling & Steinberg, 1993, p. 488).

Basically, Baumrind's (1971) work and Maccoby and Martin's (1983) work later asserted four unique parenting styles representing the predominant parenting style typologies (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive/indulgent, and neglectful/uninvolved) characterised along two parenting dimensions: responsiveness (warmth) and demandingness (strictness). Each of these parenting styles reflects different patterns of parental values, practices, and behaviours, along with a distinct balance between responsiveness (warmth) and demandingness (strictness). Responsiveness is operationalised using measures of parental warmth and acceptance whereas demandingness is conceptualised as the standards and demands set by parents.

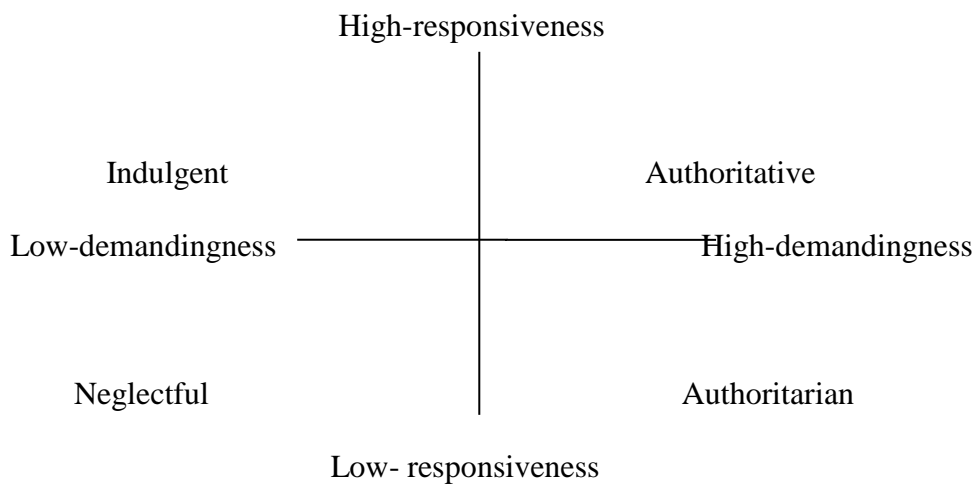
Having gained an understanding about the two dimensions of parenting, it is important to discuss the four parenting styles using the said dimensions.

- Authoritative parents – these are parents who are high on demandingness and high on responsiveness, and attempt to direct their children's activities using warmth and positivity during communication. In other words, the authoritative style maintains a balance between high levels of demandingness and affection. Such parents reinforce socially responsible and mature behaviour through praise and manifestations of affection, offering support, encouraging communication and valuing their children's points of view (Karavasilis, Doyle, & Markiewicz, 2003).
- Authoritarian parents- these are parents who are high on demandingness and directive, but low on responsiveness, and attempt to shape, control, and evaluate their children's behaviours and attitudes. In short, the authoritarian parenting style is a pattern of power-assertive behaviours of the parents. They are highly demanding but unresponsive (low affection), emphasising obedience, respect for authority and the maintenance of order through discipline based on power and severe (usually physical) punishment, expecting that rules will be complied with without offering their children a chance to negotiate (Baumrind, 1997).
- Permissive/indulgent parents- these parents are characterised by being low on demandingness, high on responsiveness and are highly accepting, making few demands, and allowing their children fundamental self-regulation. The permissive/indulgent style offers a pattern of warmth and acceptance, but lacks adequate monitoring of a child's behaviours. In other words, parents are more likely to exhibit responsiveness than demandingness (Baumrind, 1997).



- The rejecting/neglectful parents- these parents are characterised by being low on both demandingness and responsiveness. Neglectful parents are uninvolved in their children's lives and react to their child in a belligerence manner, even worse, they do not respond at all (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

In conclusion, the most optimal style, authoritative parenting, is characterised by high responsiveness and demandingness. Authoritarian parenting combines low responsiveness with high demandingness. Indulgent parents are high on responsiveness and low on demandingness; neglectful parents are low on both dimensions. The theoretical framework that depicts the way parenting styles are formed using a demandingness-responsiveness scheme is illustrated in Figure 2.1 below.



**Figure 2.1: The Hypothesised Model of Parenting Style Used in the Thesis**

### 2.3.2 The role of culture in shaping parenting style

After the explication of parenting style and of how the four parenting styles are defined, in section 2.3.1, this section presents a review on whether parenting styles differ across cultures.

To begin, it is obvious that cultural context has a substantial influence on parents' beliefs and behaviours. For instance, in Western culture, parental control often implies parents' desire to dominate their children's lives, whereas in Chinese American families, parental control is often interpreted as a sign of parental caring and involvement and therefore considered positive for children's development (Huang, 2007). There were also differences between

African American and European American parenting styles (Baumrind, 1972; Steinberg, Dornbusch, & Brown, 1992), while Asian-American parenting was found to be highly authoritarian (Steinberg et al., 1992).

Super and Harkness (1986) also observed that parents socialize their children in line with the cultural values and norms prescribed by their respective cultures. Thus, parents from different cultural contexts may endorse different socialization goals for their children (Tamis-LeMonda et al., 2008). Rudy and Grusec (2006) also indicated that parenting behaviour exhibited by members of different cultural groups is associated with different parental beliefs and cultural values because cultural values are transmitted to the next generations through the values families adopt in child rearing.

Parenting styles could also differ from one culture to another depending on whether these are individualistic or collectivistic ones. In this regard, an authoritative parenting style is more consistent in the Western culture, whereas an authoritarian parenting style is consistent in the Asian culture- which allows for the parents to become authority figures and gives them an important role as parents (Keshavarz & Baharudin, 2009). Similarly, a study by Jambunathan and Counselman (2002) reported that authoritative parenting is more common in Western cultures than in the Eastern cultures, where authoritarian parenting is most common.

Contrary to the above hypotheses, another study by Garcia and Gracia (2009) was undertaken with Spanish (an individualistic culture) adolescents aged 12 to 17 years old to identify whether an authoritative parenting style is the best parenting style for children development.

In the study, adolescents were classified in terms of their experience of four parenting styles (authoritarian, authoritative, permissive, and neglectful), but the results of this research showed that most Spanish parents have adopted a permissive parenting style.

While considering the parenting styles practiced in the Ethiopian cultural context i.e. a collectivist culture), Habtamu (1995) concluded that an authoritarian parenting style was predominantly employed among the families of Ethiopia. However, certain studies found that the authoritative parenting style was predominantly practiced in the families of the country (Seleshi, 1998; Seleshi & Sentayehu, 1998; Yekoyealem, 2005). Nevertheless, some other studies revealed that the most commonly practiced parenting style in Ethiopian families differed according to the child's gender. For example, studies by (Kassahun, 2005; Seleshi,

1998; Seleshi & Sentayehu, 1998), undertaken with a sample of junior secondary school students indicated that parents were authoritative towards their daughters, but authoritarian as regards their sons.

Another study by Kassahun (2005) on a sample of high school students reported that an authoritative parenting style was most frequently employed for daughters, whereas a neglectful parenting style was the most commonly adopted parenting style for sons. He observed the predominance of a neglectful parenting style for high school males: that when males enter high school the parents were of the opinion that their sons could manage themselves, and as a result they reduced their control as well as their close relationships, whereas for females a caring relationship and follow up is predominantly practiced.

Overall, the differences between treatment of sons and daughters is not unique to Ethiopia but in accord with other research findings as well. For instance, considering gender differences, girls perceived both mothers and fathers as less accepting and involved and stricter with boys than with girls. In other words, females are more often and better supervised by parents than their male peers are (Maggio & Zappulla, 2014).

Consequently, the studies conducted so far in Ethiopia do not provide clear evidence to conclude which parenting style is most commonly adopted by the families of that country. This calls for further study, to fully grasp which type of parenting style is dominantly practiced in the families of Ethiopia, with or without considering gender. Therefore, the current study attempted to assess the type of parenting style predominately adopted in the families of Ethiopia.

### **2.3.3 Reasons to question the parenting style paradigm**

As may be understood from section 2.3.2 of the review, parenting style is influenced by the culture (individualistic vs collectivist, western and Asian) and by gender. Therefore, there is a need to critically question the parenting style carried out in other research and there are thus compelling reasons to revisit and question the parenting-style paradigm. In the previous parenting style studies, there were gaps which I found that needed to be addressed. In this regard, the majority of the previous research on the effects of parenting was focused on maternal parenting styles, due to the assumption that mothers were primarily responsible for the child-rearing process. Be that as it may, the role of the father in caring for children has

increasingly been recognised as being important in family life (Cabrera, Tamis-LeMonda, Bradley, Hofferth, & Lamb, 2000). Therefore, the fathers' role in parenting was also considered in the present research; i.e., the role that each parent's parenting style plays was taken into account in this thesis.

There are differences between maternal and paternal parenting styles which, in turn, have different effects on children. In this regard, previous research by Winsler, Madigan, and Aquillino (2005) on the association between maternal and paternal parenting styles reported low levels of similarity between parents' parenting styles. This dissimilarity between parenting styles can be taken as a factor in the development of emotional and behavioural problems in children. For example, Dwairy (2010) also investigated the effect of dissimilarity in parental authoritarianism on the psychological well-being of adolescents and found that parental dissimilarity was associated with higher scores on a global measure of psychological problems.

Another reason to revisit the parenting-style paradigm concerns methodology. The present study focuses on retrospections by respondents on how parents have treated them since each respondent's childhood period. Use of retrospective reports of parental values and practices is of interest to researchers for understanding parenting styles (Sabattini & Leaper, 2004). Therefore, the present study advances the current body of work by assessing whether established parenting styles from childhood—authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful - as remembered by university students, predict university adjustment and TEI.

As indicated, there seems to be a gap on the issues of parenting styles in the existing literature. Therefore, it is important to check the effect of both parents' parenting styles on first year university students' TEI and their adjustment to their university life rather than to focus on just one parent's influence. For this reason, it was anticipated that the present research would overcome and fill-in the abovementioned gaps and provide insight on the effects on their university-life adjustment as well as on their TEI through collecting data from university students based on their memories of both parenting styles'.

Generally, the present study focuses on (a) assessing the association between remembered parenting styles and university-life adjustment and TEI; (b) the research utilised the four established parenting styles from the child development literature; and (c) focused on two

dimensions of parenting (i.e., responsiveness and demandingness) and both parents' parenting styles (maternal and paternal parenting styles).

## **2.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MAJOR STUDY VARIABLES**

The previous sections described how the parental dimensions form the four parenting styles and the type of parenting styles practiced in the West, in Asian culture and in Ethiopia. Moreover, with regard to the parenting style paradigms, the limitations that existed in the earlier literatures and the strategies considered to overcome the existing limitations in this thesis were discussed. This section, however, reports on the relationship between parenting style and TEI, parenting style and adjustment to university life, and adjustment and TEI, in this order.

### **2.4.1 Parenting style and TEI**

In this section the review is presented first, using the relationship between parenting style and EI as an introduction, and moves on to consider the relationship between parenting styles and TEI. To begin with, in recent years programmes which increase emotional and social skills that acknowledge the importance of togetherness and cooperation have been prepared and implemented at workplaces and schools in many developed countries (Alegre, 2011). When one notes the results of these programmes and the increase in social interaction/cooperation in the new generation the importance of EI is revealed.

One of the benefits of EI is that it can be acquired, because individuals can learn, develop, and improve their EI (Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Harms & Crede, 2010). Therefore, the role parents play in the improvement of children's EI should not be overlooked.

As regards the specific influence of perceived parenting style on TEI, a study was carried out by Herzog, Hill-Chapman, Hardy, Wrighten, and El-Khabbaz (2015) to investigate the relationships between parenting styles and emotion regulation, trait emotion, and general well-being of 153 adolescents. The results revealed that perceived parenting styles contribute to both emotional regulation and trait emotionality.

A study was undertaken by Schnuck and Handal (2011) to see if the relationships that were found between perceived parenting style and student adjustment were mediated by personality

traits. Analysis revealed that these traits were not found to do so. In their study it became apparent that the mechanism by which parenting is related to adjustment and adaptation to college is largely not due to personality traits. Since TEI is something found in the lower level of personality dimensions, this finding may hold true for the mediating effect of TEI on the relationship between perceived parenting style and adjustment. However, Liao et al. (2003) demonstrated that TEI moderates the relationship between parental behaviours and children's adjustment.

To conclude, EI and its aspect of TEI are directly or indirectly related to parenting styles. The following section presents the relationship between parenting styles and adjustment to university, which suggested that it would be possible to establish an overall link among the major variables included in this thesis.

#### **2.4.2 Parenting style and students' university adjustment**

One of the prime objectives of this research was to discover whether adjustment is influenced by parenting styles. Consequently, in this section, reporting the relationship between parenting style and adjustment is pivotal: this, in turn, helps to compare and contrast the existing findings with the present research results in the discussion section later in this thesis. In this regard, previous studies were devoted to exploring the different parenting styles and the related outcomes for children. For instance, the Wintre and Yaffe (2000) model proposed a developmental sequence determining students' adjustment at university.

It was theorised that students' pre-entry characteristics and experiences (with a focus on relations with parents) influence participation in the formal and informal aspects of the academic and social systems of the university, thereby shaping their academic and social integration. Accordingly, the students' pre-entry attributes include gender and parents' parenting styles; as mentioned, these attributes impact on academic and social integration into the university, as well as personal- emotional adjustment, to such issues as university goals and school commitment.

In particular, parenting styles are associated with children's levels of well-being (Lamborn et al., 1991). Furthermore, positive/supportive parenting, characterised by high levels of warmth, democratic discipline and involvement/supervision, has been reported to be associated with lower levels of depressive symptoms and adjustment problems in Chinese American youth

(Kim & Ge, 2000) and associated with positive adjustment to college (Mounts, 2004; Mounts, Valentiner, Anderson, & Boswell, 2006).

Considering the specific parenting typologies/styles, developmental research demonstrates that authoritative parenting predicts many positive outcomes for children and adolescents when compared with authoritarian, indulgent, and uninvolved parenting (Coplan, Hastings, Lagace-seguin, & Moulton, 2002; Steinberg, 2001). Among the parenting styles, authoritative parenting is related to adolescents' social competence (Garcia & Gracia, 2009; Kazemi, Ardabili, & Solokian, 2010); they encounter fewer behavioural problems (Lamborn et al., 1991), attain better academic and socio-emotional competence (Steinberg, 2001; Winter & Yaffe, 2000), and have greater success in their academic adjustment in a college setting (Hickman, Bartholomae, & Mc-Kenry, 2000).

Schnuck and Handal (2011) in their study attempted to determine if perceived parenting style was related to adjustment as reported by college freshmen in their first semester of school. These authors established that such a style was associated with different adjustment variables: for example, permissive parenting was correlated with negative adjustment whereas authoritative parenting was correlated with positive adjustment. Despite the statistically significant relationships between parenting style and adjustment, the magnitude of the relationships was generally found to be low.

On the other hand, a study by Garcia and Gracia (2009) reported that both the indulgent and authoritative parenting styles, rather than authoritarian and neglectful parenting, were associated with higher self-esteem and social competence. In addition, a study by Kazemi et al. (2010) on Iranian girls similarly found that permissive parenting, rather than authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles, was associated with high social competence scores. Yet the positive relationship between permissive parenting and adolescents' social competence contradicts some studies (Groot, 2009). A study by Wintre and Yaffe (2000) also indicated that the authoritative parenting style was shown to positively contribute to students' ability to successfully adjust to university life, whereas the authoritarian parenting style negatively contributed to this transition.

Beyers and Goossens (2003) indicated that regardless of students' grade, gender or perceived parenting style, high levels of independence from parents predicted higher levels of adjustment to university. This finding implies that a certain degree of independence in the relationship

with parents and positive feelings associated with this separation predict better adjustment at university for males and females; for freshmen and juniors. In the research high levels of independence from parents (.37,  $*p < .001$ ) and positive separation feelings (.60,  $*p < .001$ ) also predicted significantly higher levels of adjustment to university (Beyers & Goossens, 2003).

Although there are abundant studies that have examined the associations between parenting styles and developmental outcomes at a younger age, just a few studies have investigated the parenting influences on adjustment outcomes at late adolescence. In this regard, for example, retrospective reports by those in the late stage of their adolescence about the positive parenting they had experienced as children were significantly related to the quality of their current relationship with others and adjustment outcomes (Dalton, Frick-Horbury, & Kitzmann, 2006; McKinney & Renk, 2008). There is also a clear and well established relationship between parents' parental behaviours during their children's childhood and early adolescence and their children's maladjustment during late adolescence (Parmar & Rohner, 2005).

More importantly, a study on parenting styles in relation to adjustment associated with the authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful parenting styles, using Analysis of variance (ANOVA), indicating differences in youth adjustment (Kerr, Stattin, & Ozdemir, 2012), and post hoc tests confirmed that youths with authoritative parents were significantly better adjusted on all measures than those with neglectful parents.

From the typological approach, regarding the variations in adolescent adjustment as a function of maternal and paternal parenting styles, the results indicated that parenting styles are related to adolescents' adjustment. For both parents, a neglectful parenting style seems to play a role which increases risk in adolescents' adjustment (Maggio & Zappulla, 2014). The results also showed that parental strictness/supervision performs the most protective role for boys' adjustment: both fathers and mothers promote this by monitoring and controlling their children rather than by providing affection and emotional support. The results also suggest the importance of focusing particular attention on the dimension of parental strictness/supervision and on its relationship with adolescents' adjustment (Maggio & Zappulla, 2014).

### **2.4.3 Adjustment to university and TEI**

In section 2.4.2, the role of parenting style/dimension in students' adjustment to university was



presented. This section focuses on the investigation into whether TEI predicts adjustment which in turn, paves the way to examine the mediating effect of TEI on the relationship between parental dimension and adjustment. A detailed discussion follows in the chapter dealing with the result and the discussion chapters that follow in the thesis. This section presents the overall importance of the relationship between EI and adjustment first, followed by the relationship between TEI and adjustment.

To begin with, there is a significant positive relationship between students' level of EI and academic adjustment among first year university students (Abdallah et al., 2009; Yip & Martin, 2006), and EI contributes positively to social competence (Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner, & Salovey, 2006; Yip & Martin, 2006). Furthermore, studies carried out with adolescents further suggest that the capacity to decode, understand, and regulate emotions, manage interactions with other people, and manage relationships were associated with social and academic adjustments (Goleman, 1998; Low & Nelson, 2005; Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Furthermore, a review of literature pertaining to EI suggests that individuals with a higher than average EQ are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures (Bar-On & Parker, 2000), are more likely to be successful academically and also in demanding interpersonal situations (Grehan, Flanagan, & Malgady, 2011). A possible explanation for this finding could be that the students possessed the ability to access, understand, express and regulate emotions, which resulted in promoting their emotional and intellectual growth. This resulted in helping them to cope adaptively with their academic, social and personal-emotional challenges in their new environment.

Considering on the specific TEI, a study by Poulou (2010) on the relationship between TEI and students' emotional and behavioural strengths and difficulties demonstrated that the emotion-related self-perceptions and dispositions included in the TEI inventory predicted adolescents' emotional and behavioural strengths and difficulties. In the study, compared to their low TEI counterparts, students with high TEI scores were less likely to present emotional, conduct, hyperactive and peer problems and were more likely to report pro-social behaviour.

Building on previous empirical work on the influence of self-efficacy and skills knowledge (Bandura, 1986), both TEI, specifically emotional self-efficacy, and AEI have independent effects on academic outcomes because there are differences between beliefs about the ability

to perform a behaviour and actually performing that behaviour. TEI is important for university adjustment, primarily because emotional self-efficacy is an important aspect of that construct (Petrides et al., 2007), which should influence how students persevere in the face of academic difficulties and how resilient they are to academic stressors.

TEI could also predict the academic achievement of university students (Austin et al., 2005; Parker et al., 2004), first-year undergraduate retention (Parker et al., 2006; Qualter, Whiteley, Morley, & Dudiak, 2009) and their successful social adjustment at university (Engelberg & Sjoberg, 2004), which in turn, might aid adjustment (Christie, Munro, & Fisher, 2004). Most importantly, TEI is correlated with social competency (Mavroveli et al., 2007); and measures of social adjustment in older adolescents and adults (Chapman & Hayslip, 2005; Engelberg & Sjoberg, 2004).

## **2.5 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER AND MAJOR STUDY VARIABLES**

In section 2.4.3 the relationships between EI and adjustment, TEI and adjustment and their associated implications were reported. In this section, the relationship between TEI and gender is considered first, followed by that between adjustment and gender. The rationale for focusing on the background variable of gender *per se* in this section of the review, in relation to TEI and adjustment is that one of the objectives of this study was to examine whether TEI and the adjustment score difference exists in terms of gender. Therefore, presenting reviews of literature in this section regarding the issue under consideration is appropriate; later in the discussion an attempt is made to compare the present study with the previous findings.

### **2.5.1 Gender and TEI**

So far researchers have undertaken studies on demographic variables (such as age, sex, family income, education level of parents, and place of residence) of individuals in relation to EI. For instance, a study by Yelkikalan et al. (2012) revealed that EI scores differ according to sex, which is that men display higher averages in wellbeing, self-control and sociability factors and that this difference is statistically significant ( $*p < .01$ ) in wellbeing and sociability factors. Women have higher averages than men in terms of emotionality factors: there is a significant ( $*p < .05$ ) difference. Similarly, research by (Austin et al., 2005; Harrod & Scheer, 2005) revealed that EI scores were significantly different between females and males, with females

reporting higher EI levels, thereby, Austin et al. and Harrold's and Scheers's researches differ from those of Yelkikalan et al. (2012) in that theirs revealed that female students possess an overall higher level of EI in comparison to male ones.

Similarly, a study on TEI revealed gender differences, in which girls scored higher than boys (Downey et al., 2008; Mavroveli et al., 2008). A study by Mikolajczak, Luminet, Leroy, and Roy (2007) also reported that with the exception of the factor well-being, their findings revealed significant gender differences i.e. women scored significantly higher on emotionality, whereas men scored significantly higher on self-control and sociability. However, in the global TEI score, men had higher scores than women (Mikolajczak et al., 2007). Such a result was consistent with the one obtained using the English version of the TEIQue (Petrides & Furnham, 2000).

On the other hand, a study by Antoniou, Kaprara, and Drosos (2016) on the relationship between TEI and the vocational interests of Greek 10th and 11th grade students indicated that no demographic variables (gender, place of residence, family salary) were found to have an effect on the scores of their TEI; the only demographic variable that had significant effects on TEI levels was the fathers' educational level. Similarly, irrespective of the measurement tool used, a result in a study by Poulou (2010) indicated that there were no significant differences between gender and TEI. To conclude, though the relationship between TEI and gender seems mixed, it is cautiously concluded that TEI seems influenced by gender.

## **2.5.2 Gender and students' adjustment to university**

In section 2.5.1 the relationship between gender and EI/TEI was noted, where most sources depicted that the relationship between TEI and gender is somehow mixed, implying that further consideration of the issue is necessary. In this section, the relationship between gender and adjustment is considered.

With regard to gender, there was no significant difference in the adjustment problems of male and female college students (Sharma & Kermane, 2015). Similarly, Salami (2011) indicated that gender did not predict adjustment to college ( $r = .09, p > .05$ ). More importantly, Al-khatib et al. (2012) determined that adjustment to college life is not based on gender, study level, college or interaction between them; rather, it was related to other factors such as future

anxiety about jobs after finishing the university or emotional instability or other problems related to academic achievement.

A study by Clinciu (2013) also found that the difference between male and female students was not statistically significant for the total score on the SACQ, in the research. Nevertheless, when the adjustment of the specific dimensions was considered, the males were much better at adaptation for social and personal-emotional dimensions, whereas female students compensate for this gap with better scores at academic adjustment. A similar result revealed that women show poorer emotional and social adaptation, although they are better adjusted academically (Abdullah et al., 2009). However, a statistically significant gender difference was not discovered with respect to social and academic adjustment among undergraduate students at university (Kyalo, 2011).

Moreover, a study by Wang and Zhang (2015) indicated that there was no significant difference between male and female college students with regard to adaptability, but the males' score was significantly higher than that of female students in terms of their physiological adaptability, learning adaptability and social adaptability factors; however, on the interpersonal adaptability factor, the score of the female students was higher than that of the male ones.

Even when taking the moderating effect of gender on the relationship between EI and social adjustment and EI and academic adjustment into account (Ishak, Jdaitawi, Ibrahim, & Mustafa, 2011) found that gender was not an important moderating factor in the relationship between these research variables.

On the other hand, the factor of gender difference supports the argument that male students adapted to the new university environment better than their female counterparts (Abdullah et al., 2009; Enochs & Roland, 2006; Winter & Yaffe, 2000) because separation anxiety seemed to affect females more than male students (Raj, 2012); thus, males tend to isolate themselves and escape, whereas females are more likely to seek emotional assistance (Enochs & Roland, 2006).

## 2.6 CONCLUSION

In this part, basic issues from each part of the review are emphasised so that readers are able to gain insights into the implications of the review of related literature. To begin with, various definitions of adjustment were discussed. Many first year students are challenged by a variety of new demands. Due to transitional challenges, therefore, adjustment to university life appears difficult.

The theory of EI proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1990, 1997) was emphasised in this thesis; it posits that the ability to recognise, understand, use and manage emotions contributes to adaptation in various realms of life. There are two major theoretical perspectives on the nature of EI: AEI and TEI. Among them, the TEI model would account for, in particular, traits that are measured using the TEIQue four factors of emotionality, self-control, sociability, and well-being. The definition of TEI considered in this research context focuses on Petrides' concept (2010) - people's self-perceptions of their emotional abilities and skills, personality characteristics and behavioural dispositions that influence their ability to cope successfully with environmental demands and pressures. Since university students encounter new demands and pressures as they join in the new university environment, adopting this definition in this research context is admissible.

The other variable which was accorded due attention in this research is the parenting style/dimension. Thus, attention was given to the definition of parenting style, and to how to form the four parenting style categories using both the median values of the two parenting dimensions: responsiveness (warmth) and demandingness (strictness) employed for this research. Moreover, attention was also paid to whether culture shapes parenting styles; hence, empirical studies were reported, specifically taking the experiences of the collectivist and individualistic countries into account. Due to the limitations noticed from previous literature on the parenting style model, it was thoroughly evaluated and possible remedies were suggested and implemented in this thesis.

For some authors, EI is considered as a learned characteristic, while for others it is an innate one. In relation to the first notion, studies have shown that EI is often expanded and developed by training (Bar-On, 2000) and it is an ability that can be learned. Therefore, one of the benefits of EI is that it can be acquired, because individuals can learn, develop and improve their EI. Thus, the roles which parents played in the improvement of children's EI in general,

and TEI in particular, were considered in this thesis. Therefore, there it seems logical to recognise the relationship between parenting style and TEI.

One of the prime objectives of this research is to investigate whether adjustment is influenced by parenting style. To examine this issue critically, a review was conducted on the two variables under consideration that pave a way to compare and contrast the present findings with the previous ones. Furthermore, in line with one of the objectives of this thesis, the relationship between TEI and adjustment was thoroughly reviewed.

In addition, the relationship between gender and TEI and adjustment was discussed because the issue of gender in relation to the mentioned variables was one of the motivations of this study. A study on TEI revealed gender differences in some research results whereas no differences between gender and TEI were identified in other research, while sometimes the differences were small and insignificant; therefore, the results of the existing literature are mixed. This implies that there is a need to undertake further study on this issue. Concerning gender and students' adjustment at university, most previous research results underscored that gender did not predict adjustment. Finally, the next chapter gives emphasis on the research methodology.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This chapter focuses on research design, population, sample and sampling methods, data collection instruments, pilot testing, ethical issues, the data collection procedure, and methods of data analysis.

#### **3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN**

In this study, the relationships between perceived parenting style/dimension, TEI, and university adjustment amongst first year students were examined. The study employed descriptive survey research in which parenting dimensions (parental demandingness and responsiveness) stood as the independent(exogenous) variables, while TEI as the dependent (in the one way ANOVA and Independent sample T-test analysis), the independent (in the case of regression analysis), endogenous variable (in the path and mediation analysis), and presumed mediated variable (in the mediation analysis), and adjustment was considered as the dependent(in the case of regression, one way ANOVA, and independent sample T-test analysis), and endogenous variable (in the case of the path and mediation analysis). A descriptive survey research design was chosen because it is a very appropriate one to examine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

In addition, this study employed a quantitative (positivist) approach method. A quantitative research approach was chosen especially over the qualitative (interpretivist) one due to the following reasons. The data in quantitative research is basically used to compare and contrast other research and can be used to create new theories and/or test existing hypotheses, which are the very objective of this research and which cannot be explored using qualitative methodology. Nonetheless, quantitative data has a limitation, amongst others, in that it does not recognise the individuality of participants under normal conditions.

Qualitative research, on the other hand, rejects the notion of there being a simple relationship between our perception of the world and the world itself, instead arguing that each individual assigns different meanings to different events or experiences. Due to the individual, subjective nature of qualitative data, it is often inappropriate or not even possible to make predictions for

the wider population. Most importantly, because of the open ended approach used in qualitative research, it may be difficult to test hypotheses of a study like the present one. This research by its nature employed constructs with sub variables in them which cannot be fully explored using a qualitative method; as a consequence, the quantitative approach was chosen over the qualitative method.

### **3.2 POPULATION**

Once a decision was made about the method of research to be employed in this thesis (quantitative), defining the population to be used in this thesis for the readers was logical. This study was conducted in public universities in Ethiopia. This country has 43 such higher institutions (MoE, 2014). Of them, only 33 public universities have been functioning while the construction of the remaining 10 universities was not completed so that there were no students registered in them during the period of data collection for this research. Of the remaining 33 universities, three universities (Adama Science and Technology University, Addis Ababa University, and Debre Berhan University) were selected randomly using a lottery method.

Basically, there are several approaches that are aimed to minimize bias in the process of random sampling selection, however, for this research purpose a lottery method was chosen among them. In the selection process of research sites, each of the 33 public universities was assigned using random numbers, between 1 and 33. Thus, each university were numbered systematically and in a subsequent manner by writing each number on a separate piece of paper. These pieces of papers were folded and mixed up into a box and then numbers were drawn out of the box in a random manner. Lastly, three sample universities were selected randomly from the box by choosing folded pieces of papers in a random manner. Since there were no duplicates in numbers, each university was only sampled once i.e. such selection was sampling without replacement.

First year university regular undergraduates were the research population for this study because the investigator specifically wanted to examine the particularly stressful time of university life as these students transit from preparatory school and life at home to life at a university. Moreover, regular first year undergraduates, since they originated from diverse areas of the country, could face more challenges of adjusting to a university than the weekend students who mostly came from the local districts.



### 3.3 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING METHODS

The sampling frame for this study was first year regular undergraduates who had enrolled in the academic year 2016/2017 at 3 public universities of Ethiopia. The samples, from which statistical inferences were drawn, were randomly selected from the accessible populations; thus, generalising the findings from selected samples to the population was feasible. Random sampling assumes that the units to be sampled were included in a list, therefore, list were numbered in sequential order from one to the total number of units in the population.

Concerning selection of colleges and departments, a simple random sampling technique (lottery method) was employed. A simple random sample is a probability sampling method that provides an equal probability of each member of the population being selected. In other words, simple random sampling ensures an unbiased representation of a population under considerations. In a simple random sample, a couple of methods can be used, among them; a lottery method is one and was used in this research. Although a lottery method seems mechanical, in this research context it was applied and used without difficulty. Since the population was manageable, this method was applicable in this sense. In this lottery method, each member of the population (in this research, colleges, departments, and participant's names who were chosen from the selected departments after stratification was made) was numbered systematically in a consequent manner and writing each number on a separate piece of paper of same size, shape, and colour followed. Then after, those pieces of papers were folded and mixed up in a box and lastly, samples were drawn out of the box in a blindfold random manner, until the required samples were taken for granted. Since the random numbers were mutually exclusive, each sample was only sampled at once or draw a sample, without replacement, means that once an individual was sampled, that sample was not placed back in the population for re-sampling.

In this regard, in the Adama Science and Technology University, there were two divisions in the first-year programmes during the data collection period. These were the Pre-engineering freshman programme and the Applied Natural Science division. From these two divisions, the Pre-engineering division was selected randomly using a lottery method.

In the case of Addis Ababa University there were 14 colleges and institutions during the data collection period, but the Institute of Engineering was excluded since it had been selected in

the Adama Science and Technology University; thus, only 13 colleges and institutions were included in the selection process. Of these, two colleges, the Social Science and Natural Science colleges, were chosen using a simple random sampling technique. Again from the two colleges, 3 departments were chosen randomly using a lottery method. In the Social Science College, there were 9 departments during the data collection period: of them, Geography and Environmental studies, History and Heritage Management, and Sociology were chosen randomly using simple random sampling techniques (a lottery method). There were 9 departments under the Natural Science College; of them, three departments, namely Geology, Sport Science, and Computer Science, were chosen randomly using a lottery method.

Concerning Debre Berhan University, there were 9 Colleges during the data collection period. Of them, three colleges (Pre-engineering, Social Science and Natural Science) were excluded due to being included in the selection process in the two universities (Adama Science & Technology and Addis Ababa University mentioned above). Therefore, out of the 9 colleges six were left to be included in the sample. Thus, two colleges: College of Business and Economics and College of Health Sciences were chosen randomly using a lottery method. In the college of Business and Economics, there were five departments: of them, the Accounting and Finance, Management and Logistic and Supplies Management departments were chosen randomly using a lottery method. Once more, in the College of Health Sciences, out of the six departments, three: Midwifery, Nursing Science, and Health Officer were chosen randomly using a lottery method.

In selecting participants from each of the departments chosen, caution was taken to ensure the proportionality of the number of students to be included. For instance, in some departments there were numerous students enrolled and they contained many sections; therefore, greater numbers of participants were chosen than from a department having lower numbers of students in a section. Moreover, in choosing the colleges from the selected universities, randomisation of the colleges was not carried out haphazardly; rather, caution was taken to avoid double selection of colleges across the three universities. For instance, if an Engineering college had an opportunity to be chosen once at one university, it was excluded from the selection process applied in other universities.

It is obvious that the quality of the sample affects the quality of the research generalisations. Accordingly, obtaining an unbiased sample is the main criterion when evaluating the adequacy

of a sample. An unbiased sample is one in which each individual of the population has an equal chance of being selected. In other words, all members of the population have essentially the same probability of being included. A good sample is also comprehensive in nature as well. This feature of a sample is closely linked with true representativeness. Therefore, the probability sampling technique was applied in this research because it was an objective method of sampling and permitted the application of statistical devices as planned. In probability sampling, the error due to sampling can be estimated. This also maintains the accuracy of the analysis of results as compared to the non-probability sampling technique.

Among the probability sampling techniques, a stratified random sampling method was employed in selecting the participants of this study. This technique was chosen because it was believed to adequately represent the subgroups as well as to ensure a proportional number of the population in the sample. Thus, the stratified sampling technique helps to avoid over or under representations of a segment of the population in the subgroups. Overall, the process of selection was carried out in the following manner. First, participants were stratified based on the required demographic variable of sex, since gender was identified as one essential component for the study. Thereafter, the required number of participants was selected from each distinct stratum via a simple random sampling technique using a lottery method. The number of participants to be selected was determined by a proportional method. This proportional stratified random sampling should ensure whether or not the subgroups (in this case male and female first year university students) were represented in the correct proportions. In this regard the same percentage of participants, not the same number of participants, was drawn from each stratum.

Once the probability sampling type was determined, the next step was to establish the number of participants included in the sample. In survey studies, a sample should be representative of the population. Therefore, the size of the sample is an important aspect for representativeness. Basically, in determining the sample size, a number of factors need to be considered, such as population size, margin of error (confidence interval), confidence level, and number of variables used in the research and the statistical analysis technique to be used as well as time, money, and effort.

Generally, the best answer to the question of size is to use as large a sample as possible. A larger sample is much more likely to be representative of the population (such a sample provides greater confidence to the general population). Other things being equal, the larger the sample, the greater the precision and accuracy of the data it provides as well as the smaller the standard error. Despite those facts, sample size alone does not qualify the ability to generalise. A small sample may effectively represent the population, if the participants of the study are selected randomly or if members of the population of the study are accorded an equal chance to be included in the selection. Basically, there is no single rule that can be used to determine sample size. The exact procedure by which to determine the sample size required varies with the nature of the variable and its sampling distribution, but the basic procedure can be illustrated in connection with the mean of random samples based on normal probability distribution.

There are several approaches to determining the sample size: a census for small populations, copying a sample size of similar studies and applying formulas to calculate a sample size.

- The first approach is to use the entire population as the sample. Here, the entire population would have to be sampled in small populations to achieve a desirable level of precision. In this research, this approach would have been highly impractical because the population size was too large to accommodate in this research.
- The second approach is to use the same sample size as those of studies similar to the one the investigator plans for. Without reviewing the procedures employed in those studies, one may run the risk of repeating errors that were made in determining the sample size for another study. For this reason, this approach was not chosen for this study.
- The third approach is to use a formula to determine the sample size. In this regard, Yamane (1967) provides a simplified formula to calculate this size. This formula was used to calculate the said size.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where,            n is the sample size  
                       N is the population size and

e is the level of precision (acceptable margin of error at 5% (STD value of .05)  
A 95 % confidence level,  $P = .5$  are assumed for equation

Therefore, by integrating the above formula and an anticipation of non-use questionnaires (considering rule of thumb), the sample size for this research was determined. In this regard, the total number of first year students enrolled in the academic year 2016/17 in the 3 randomly selected universities was 9,711 (female=2,340, male=6,547). To be precise, there were 1,555 (female=304, male=1,251), 4,822 (female= 1,991, male=2,831), and 3,334 (female=1,362, male=1,972) such students registered in the 2016/17 academic year at the Adama Science & Technology University, Addis Ababa University and Debre Berhan University respectively. Thus, using the above formula, the participants to be included in the study would be approximately 384.

Sometimes using the formula alone may not be adequate to conduct statistical procedures such as path analysis. Therefore, increasing the sample size beyond the formula does not produce a problem but rather creates a chance to increase the adequacy of sampling. Therefore, the sample size in this research with a reserve of non-used questionnaires was totalled to 550 participants (150 participants from Adama Science and Technology University, 210 participants from Addis Ababa University, and 190 from Debre Berhan University). However, out of the total 550 selected students who filled-in the questionnaire, only 464 first year students did so properly; 86 questionnaires (49 male, 37 female) were discarded, some of them were returned completely blank and some were partially answered (i.e. some questions and/or some parts such as demographic questions were left blank). Therefore, the remaining 464 questionnaires were used for the main data analysis. In this regard, the female and male university students' choice was proportionate and this was checked using chi-square method ( $\chi^2_{(1, N = 464)} = 21.55, *p < .05, 01$ ). The Table below (Table 3.1) depicts the summary of the selected Universities, their respective Colleges, Departments, and participants included in the study.

**Table 3.1: Summary of the Universities, the Respective Colleges, Departments, and Participants Included in the Study**

University	College/School	Department	Sex		
			M	F	T
Adama Science & Technology University	Engineering	Pre-Engineering	36	84	120
		<b>Total</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>120</b>
Addis Ababa University	College of social Science and Humanities	Geography & Environmental Studies	16	10	26
		History & Heritage Management	13	12	25
		Sociology	9	17	26
	College of Natural Science	Sport Science	19	7	26
		Geology	18	17	35
		Computer Science	29	16	45
		<b>Total</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>79</b>	<b>183</b>
Debre Berhan University	College of Business and Economics	Accounting and Finance	31	22	53
		Management	22	18	40
		Logistic & Supplies Management	9	4	13
	College of Health Science	Midwifery	11	8	19
		Health officer	11	7	18
		Nursing	10	8	18
		<b>Total</b>	<b>94</b>	<b>67</b>	<b>161</b>
		<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>282</b>	<b>182</b>	<b>464</b>

### 3.4 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

In this research, the survey method was used for collecting the primary data. The broad area of survey research encompasses any measurement procedures that involve asking questions of the respondents. The said survey method was employed rather than, for example, an experimental method because survey research has the following advantages over the experimental method:

- It is a better way of retrieving information about a respondent's past history than experiments
- It is a method where generalised information could be collected from almost any human population, unlike experimental research
- It has access to a wider range of participants than experimental research has, and
- It uses the methods and settings of the study of the real-life situation.

However, the survey method displays serious limitations as compared to the experimental one in that the data may be sometimes superficial and the data may not have internal validity. Despite this, one of the research tools in survey research, the questionnaire, which typically qualifies the characteristics of survey research, is specifically organised with the precise intention of obtaining information from participants. In this regard, Kothari (2004) stated that questionnaires offer a considerable advantage in administration, present an equal opportunity to a large numbers of people simultaneously and provide the investigation with an easy means to accumulate data. However, I considered that warnings needed to be attached to the use of quantitative surveys, and care has been taken before distributing the questionnaire. The following issues have been noted in the preparation of the latter:

The careful approach began with the covering letter of the questionnaire that was drafted in a friendly tone, indicated its importance to the respondents, and contained directions which were clear and complete. The other issue was that of appearance: it was designed to be attractive in appearance, neatly arranged, and free from typesetting errors. Furthermore, each question dealt with a single idea defined in unambiguous terms and was reasonably short, though comprehensive enough to secure all relevant information.

Concerning the questionnaire item formats, both the open ended and close ended form items were used. Basically, closed ended items were dominantly employed to gather information because the investigator believed that these were more likely to yield the data needed in this research project. Since the present research was purely quantitative, and was to be analysed using SPSS, the close form item facilities the tabulation and analysis of data more easily than responses obtained through open ended form items. Even if close ended items have the above mentioned qualities, I have also identified the weaknesses of this kind of item format. The respondents do not have the opportunity to explain why they have given certain responses and this format also limits the scope and depth of responses, so that its use in measuring attitudes, feelings and certain aspects of behaviour may sometimes be limited.

Basically, all tools have strengths and weaknesses, but the choice of a tool depends on the nature and purpose of the research; hence, the questionnaire was chosen for this thesis. The following Table 3.2 depicts some strengths and weaknesses of the various data collection tools.

**Table 3.2: Summary of the Strengths and Weaknesses of the Various Data Collection Tools**

	<b>Sample Tools</b>	<b>Strength</b>	<b>Weakness</b>
1	Questionnaire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is cheaper than other methods.</li> <li>• Even national level surveys can be conducted very rapidly.</li> <li>• Uniformity in responses can be ensured.</li> <li>• It ensures anonymity.</li> <li>• It provides freedom to the respondents.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Poor response rate – thus generalisations are sometimes affected.</li> <li>• Ambiguous replies &amp; omission of replies to certain questions may occur.</li> <li>• It is inadequate to understand some forms of information – i.e. changes of emotions, behaviour, feelings and the situation.</li> </ul>
2	Interview	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Detailed information can be collected.</li> <li>• Spontaneous responses of the interviewee can be gathered.</li> <li>• Misinterpretation of questions by the interviewee can be controlled.</li> <li>• The interviewer can collect personal &amp; supplementary information about the respondent's personal characteristics, which is of great value in interpreting results.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Time consuming method when a large sample is taken into account.</li> <li>• Sometimes difficult to get hold of the selected sample respondents.</li> <li>• Reaching the appropriate persons and training them in the field is difficult.</li> <li>• The presence of the interviewer on the spot may over-stimulate the respondent, sometimes even to the extent that s/he may give imaginary information just to make the interview interesting.</li> <li>• May seem intrusive to the respondent.</li> </ul>
3	Observation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The information obtained under this method relates to what is currently happening; therefore, it is not complicated by either past behaviour or future intentions or attitudes of respondents.</li> <li>• Collect data where and when an event or activity is occurring.</li> <li>• Directly see what people do rather than relying on what they say they do.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is an expensive method.</li> <li>• Information gathered might be limited.</li> <li>• Unforeseen factors may interfere during observations.</li> <li>• Observation could be biased if it is not understood in proper perspective.</li> <li>• This method is not applicable in inquiries where large samples are concerned.</li> <li>• Susceptible to observer bias.</li> </ul>
4	Focus group discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can provide information that individual data collection does not provide.</li> <li>• Useful in gaining insight into a topic that may be more difficult to gather</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Susceptible to facilitator bias.</li> <li>• Discussion can be dominated or sidetracked by a few individuals.</li> <li>• Data analysis is time consuming and needs to be well planned in advance.</li> </ul>



		information through other data collection methods.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Does not provide valid information at the individual level.</li> </ul>
5	Document analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Good source of background information.</li> <li>May bring up issues not noted by other means.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Information may be inapplicable, disorganised, unavailable or out of date.</li> <li>Information may be incomplete or inaccurate.</li> </ul>

Source: (Finn & Jacobson, 2008; Jacobson, Pruitt & Rugeley, 2009)

In this study, questionnaires that have been used in other studies were employed for data collection. The survey instruments were also drawn up by considering the significant role of each item, and the concept or variables supposed to be measured. Before deciding which instruments to use, detailed evaluations were carried out on the items relevant to the research questions. The instruments which were used in the present study were all self-report measures. The following section presents detailed descriptions of the instruments which were used in this thesis namely; demographic variables, Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Adolescent Short Form (TEIQue-ASF), PDQ, and the SACQ.

### 3.4.1 Demographic data

This part sought to gather general information or demographic data about the participants. The demographic variables for this study were; gender, age, field of study, mothers' and fathers' education level, residence, and parents' household income.

### 3.4.2 The TEIQue-ASF

In this study the instrument that I chose to measure the TEI of first year students was the TEIQue-ASF. TEIQue- is a simplified version of the adult form of the TEIQue, designed to measure global TEI (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). The TEIQue index provides an overall snapshot of an individual's general emotional functioning. It is an index of an individual's self-perceived ability to understand, process and utilise emotion-related information in his/her everyday life. Primarily, the inventory consisted of 30 items before piloting; all 30 of the items of TEIQue-ASF were sampled from the 15 subscales of the adult TEI sampling domain (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Petrides, 2009). Across the scale, negatively stated items were considered. A higher score on the TEIQue-ASF indicates higher levels of TEI. Evidence of the TEIQue-ASF criterion and incremental validity comes from its administration in British, New Zealand and Spanish populations (Petrides & Furnham, 2001, 2003). Again, to provide

interpretational and developmental focus, the fifteen subscales have been clustered into four broader factors such as: well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability (Petrides, 2001). Next, the four clustered factors of TEI in the context of this thesis are discussed.

- The well-being factor- refers to an evaluation about oneself as to how positive, happy, fulfilled one is. High scores on this factor reflect a generalised sense of wellbeing, extending from past achievements to future expectations. Overall, individuals with high scores feel positive, happy, and fulfilled and vice versa. Sample items from well-being factors are “I often feel good about myself; I generally find life enjoyable”.
- The self-control factor- refers to one’s degree of control over his/her urges and desires. Individuals with a high self-control score have a healthy degree of control over their urges, desires, and they are good at regulating external pressures and stress. In contrast, individuals with a low score tend to display impulsive behaviours and are unable to properly manage stress. Sample items from the self-control factors are “I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions; I am able to deal with stress”.
- The emotionality factor- refers to the ability to recognise emotional states in others, express emotions and use these abilities to develop and sustain close relationships with others. In this regard, individuals with a high emotionality score possess a wide array of emotion-related skills: recognising internal emotions, perceiving them and expressing them. In turn, these skills are often used to form and nurture close relationships with family and friends. On the hand, individuals with a low emotionality score have difficulty recognising their own emotions and conveying their feelings to others. In turn, these individuals generally experience less gratifying personal relationships with others. Sample items from emotionality factors include, “it is easy for me to talk about my feelings to other people; I often pay a lot of attention to my feelings”.
- The sociability factor, where the focus falls on the individual’s social relationships and social influence, rather than on personal relationships with family and close friends. This factor differs from the emotionality factor above in that it emphasises social relationships and social influence. Individuals with a high sociability score are good listeners and effective communicators, whereas individuals with a low score are not as effective at social interaction, believe they are unable to affect others’ emotions and are less likely to be good negotiators and networkers. They appear unsure of themselves in social interactions and are not able to influence others’ emotions (Petrides, 2001). Sample items from the sociability factor include, “I am good at

interacting with my classmates; I can make other people feel better when I want to”.

The internal consistency of the TEIQue-ASF based on the pilot testing of the study was .85 (Petrides, 2001). Petrides and Furnham (2003) argue that TEI self-perceptions were accurate to some extent because they found the individuals who perceived themselves as emotionally adjusted, with good social skills and self-control, were rated by their peers as more cooperative and less disruptive.

Favourable psychometric properties have been reported for the TEIQue-ASF (Petrides & Furnham, 2003). Scores are also stable over time. The TEIQue includes validity checks for social desirability, honesty and random responding (Petrides & Furnham, 2003). Importantly, the latest version of the TEIQue-ASF is available, free of charge, for research purposes from [www.psychometriclab.com](http://www.psychometriclab.com).

In general, the TEI Questionnaire possesses a number of key features, amongst others:

- A psychometrically validated measure of TEI
- It is supported by a world-class research programme based at University College London, and it is
- UK normed

### **3.4.3 The PDQ**

The PDQ was used for measuring parenting styles perceived by first year university students. Items were designed to measure the responsiveness/ involvement and control/demandingness of parents as perceived by the said students. So far, there have not been a fixed number of items repeatedly and consistently used by different research studies in the PDQ. Rather, as observed across diverse journals and dissertations there have been variations in the number of items included. For example, the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) (Buri, 1991), employed to measure the perceived parenting style consisted of 30 items, 10 for each of the three different styles of parenting (authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive) in a five point Likert format, ranging from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). The reliability of the PAQ was found to be .77 to .92 in a test re-test check over a two-week period of time (Buri, 1991).

On the other hand, Ayele (2012) in the study employed 25 items; of them, 13 items measured the acceptance/involvement sub-scale whereas 12 measured the strictness/supervision sub-scale. For the acceptance/involvement sub-scale, the reliabilities were Cronbach's alpha = .88, .87, and .88 for the overall sample and the sub-samples of female and male students, respectively. For the strictness/supervision sub-scale, the reliabilities were Cronbach's alpha = .86, .83, and .85 for the overall sample and the sub-samples of 80 female and male students, respectively. In the Ayele's research the reliabilities were greater than the recommended Cronbach's alpha  $\geq .70$ .

Moreover, Tigist (2013) in her study employed a total of 19 items to measure parenting style. In this study, the reliabilities were also determined by means of Cronbach's alpha. The results were as follows: parental acceptance for male parents/guardians was .807; parental acceptance for female parents/guardians was .779; parental control for male parents/guardians was .782; while parental control for female parents/guardians was .76.

In addition, Gafoor and Kurukkan (2014) designed a questionnaire primarily to use 40 items to measure the parenting style, 20 items for the parental responsiveness sub-scale whereas the rest, 20 of them, measured parental control; in a later version there were 19 items used for each subscale with a total of 38 items being used for main data collection. The reliability of the scale was established by the test-retest method after an interval of one week. The test-retest coefficient of the reliability of responsiveness variable in the scale was .81 while for control it was .83. The items were constructed in light of the socio-cultural and educational circumstances of adolescent students in Kerala, India. The tool was suitable for scaling the four parenting styles among south Asian adolescent students. The tool displayed good criterion related validity and test-retest reliability.

Moreover, Gracia, Garcia, and Lila (2008) developed a parenting style index to assign the parents into four categories based on their parenting style, namely, authoritative, authoritarian, neglectful and indulgent. This measures parental warmth and control as perceived by the adolescents, with alpha coefficients .9 and .81 respectively. The tool was developed for Spanish speaking people.

Parenting style instruments up until the present have been developed in other cultures; some consider only three parenting styles whereas some are meant for parents, rather than children. Consequently, the investigator sensed the need for contextualising a scale of parenting in the Ethiopian parenting practices and cultural contexts. Obviously, parenting behaviour is influenced by the culture in which one is brought up. The culture decides the limits of behaviour that have to be controlled and praised. Therefore, contextual validity is highly relevant for constructs like parenting styles as the instruments incorporate statements, which reflect cultural preferences of the respondents. Hence, the validity of measures of parenting styles where instruments are solely developed in foreign cultures are applied is questionable.

In general, there have been significant inconsistencies concerning the use of instruments measuring parenting style; most of the existing instruments have been widely criticised in terms of lacking contextual/ecological validity. In spite of these critiques, therefore, I used and managed to contextualise the Gafoor and Kurukkan (2014) tool to measure the parenting style which was constructed in the light of socio-cultural and educational circumstances of adolescent students in Kerala, India. The items were modified to assess retrospective accounts of parental rearing style prior to attending university. I chose this scale over those developed in the West because the tool developed in the East (in this case, India) is more adaptive to the Ethiopian context since both of these countries are collectivist in nature.

In fact, all the items were prepared as matching for the involvement of both parents. When items were contextualised, consideration was given to all areas, where the parents were interacting with their children with respect to physical, social, emotional, educational, personal and behavioural dimensions. Equal numbers of items were used to measure parental responsiveness (16 items) and parental demandingness/control (16 items), with responses on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = uncertain (in between), 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree).

The self-report questionnaires of this study contained 32 items on parenting practices that, as mentioned, were taken from Gafoor's and Kurukkan's (2014) parenting style measures and contextualised to an Ethiopian milieu. The university students completed these measures, answering in separate columns for a mother and a father. Through the gross scores reached, the responsiveness and demandingness scales were used to measure the paternal and maternal demandingness and responsiveness as perceived by the university students.

The responsiveness/involvement sub-scale in this research consisted of 16 items on parental closeness to their university students. It measures the extent to which first year university students perceive their parents as loving, responsive, and involved; sample items are “listens to my ideas and opinions; points out ways I could do better.” On the other hand, the parental control/demandingness sub-scale consisted of 16 items assessing parental monitoring of their university students: sample items are “exerts firm control on me; sets high standards for me to meet”.

With regard to scoring, the scores for the responsiveness/involvement sub-scale and for the demandingness/control sub-scale ranged from 16-80. Participants rated their mother and father separately, but a combined score averaging both ratings was created to reflect the general parenting style within the family. For each student, the scores for the items of each sub-scale was summed to create a total score for each sub-scale, so that there was one score for the responsiveness /involvement sub-scale and another for the parental control/demandingness sub-scale. Thus, there were six separate scores for each participant, namely mother’s responsiveness, father’s responsiveness, mother’s demandingness, father’s demandingness, parental responsiveness, and parental demandingness.

The four styles: authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved, proposed by Baumrind (1971) are scaled based on a quadrant of high and low levels of parental responsiveness and control suggested by Maccoby and Martin (1983). Specifically, the sample median of the two indices of parenting dimensions (i.e., acceptance/involvement and control/demandingness) and an examination of these two parenting dimensions simultaneously was used in this thesis to categorise the four parenting styles, as an approach similar to that used in previous studies in Western countries (e.g., Steinberg et al., 1992b cited in Ayele, 2012) as well as in Ethiopia (Ayele, 2012; Abesha, 1997 cited in Ayele, 2012).

Therefore, parents who were rated by their first year university students with a score above or equal to the sample median on the responsiveness and demandingness indices, were considered as authoritative parents and assigned a parenting style score of “1”. Parents who were rated by their first year university students with a score below the sample median on the responsiveness index but above or equal to this median on the demandingness index, were considered as authoritarian parents and assigned a parenting style score of “2”. Parents who were rated by their first year university students with a score above or equal to the sample

Median on the responsiveness index but below that on the demandingness index, were considered as indulgent parents and assigned a parenting style score of “3”. And finally, parents who were rated by their first year university students with a score below the sample median on both responsiveness and demandingness indices were considered as neglectful (uninvolved) parents and assigned a parenting style score of “4”.

#### **3.4.4 The SACQ**

To reiterate, the SACQ developed by Baker and Siryk (1989) was used to measure the quality of first year students’ adjustment to university. The SACQ is made up of four sub-scales that measure four different types of university adjustment dimensions (Baker& Siryk, 1999). The description of the four sub-scales is provided below.

- The academic adjustment sub-scale- it assesses students’ ability to cope with the various educational demands and college experiences they will encounter (e.g., students’ motivation, academic performance, and satisfaction towards the academic environment offered in college). Here, respondents were asked to evaluate their attitudes towards academic goals and the academic work they are required to do. Sample items from the academic adjustment were “I am interested to do any of my course work at university; I am enjoying my academic work”.
- The social adjustment sub-scale- it measures the students’ ability to cope with the interpersonal-societal demands inherent in college/university experiences (e.g., students’ involvement in social activities and relationships with other persons on campus, and satisfaction with the social aspects of the college environment). Sample items include “I am highly involved in social activities in the university; I feel I fit in well as part of the university environment”.
- Personal-emotional adjustment sub-scale- it focuses on a student’s psychological and physical state during his or her adjustment to university and the degree to which he or she is experiencing general psychological distress and problems (e.g., tense, uncomfortable, and homesick). Respondents were asked to indicate the nature of their emotion since the beginning of their stay in university. For instance, respondents were asked sample items such as “I have trouble coping with the stresses in university” which referred to the psychological aspect and “I have been having lots of headaches”, which referred to the physical aspect. From these questions, we can deduce how the respondents perceive their personal emotions since they are in a new

environment.

- Finally, the institutional attachment subscale- it assesses a student's degree of commitment to educational-institutional goals and the degree of attachment to the particular university he or she is attending. Sample items include, "I am happy now about my decision to attend in this university; I am happy now with my decision to go to university".

The SACQ in this research, after content validation and pilot testing were undertaken, was composed of a 40-item self-report questionnaire assessing four aspects of first year students' adjustment to university. These four sub-scales are: academic adjustment (16 items), social adjustment (8 items), personal-emotional adjustment (9 items) and institutional attachment (7 items). Participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain (in between), 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree). Negatively stated items were considered. Higher scores indicate success in adjustment to university. The sum of the above four scales yielded a full-scale score, which was an index of the overall adjustment to university.

All data collection instruments were administered in the English language because the medium of communication at Ethiopian universities is English so that there was no need to translate the questionnaire into a local language, and I therefore decided against doing so.

### **3.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

After the proposed research was submitted to UNISA for approval, it was evaluated for adherence to Ethical standards as required by the psychology department. Thereby, the application was approved by the ethical committee of the department of psychology on 2014/11/04, assuming that this researcher would consider all the necessary cautions in the research process.

Taking the suggestions given by the ethical committee into account, for instance, prior to commencing with distributing the questionnaire, written consent was obtained from the higher officials of the university, and in particular, from the academic vice presidents of the three randomly selected universities. The investigator submitted a research protocol that set out in detail the procedure to be followed during the survey. The protocol highlighted the proposed research design, methodology and explanatory procedures for ensuring confidentiality,



voluntary participation, anonymity and details of the study's purpose. Written consent was also obtained from participants prior to the study. After obtaining their consent, participants were briefed on the issue and the need for mutual understanding and respect, with the researcher discussing ethical concerns of the study, informed consent, anonymity, confidentiality, and voluntary participation. Because respondents were above the age of 18, there was no need to obtain written consent from their parents.

### **3.6 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE**

In this research, the collected data served the following purposes: substantiation of the various arguments in the research findings, and the obtaining of definite direction and clear answers to the research inquiry. The data were collected in the following two stages: during pilot testing and during the main study.

#### **3.6.1 Pilot testing**

Piloting was undertaken on the data collection instruments. In this regard, three of the instruments: TEIQue, the SACQ, and the PDQ were tested through piloting. Therefore, it was essential to check the appropriateness and reliabilities of the instruments. Hence, by means of piloting, the relevance of the instruments, identifying any ambiguity in them, and ascertaining the workability of the instruments (improving the items, formats and instructions) was assessed. Overall, the pilot test which was undertaken had ensured the reliability and validity of each instrument used in this study.

In this study, both content and construct validity were considered for the purposes of answering what the instruments really measure. To address content validity in this study, I thoroughly reviewed several relevant scales used in previous studies. In addition, I obtained opinions of experts, for instance of an assistant professor from the English Language Department to check whether there were language issues in the instruments or not. Two (2) assistant professors from the Education College and three (3) assistant professors from the Psychology Department were asked to comment on any item that they found ambiguous or difficult to understand. In addition, attention was paid to the nature of the items in each instrument, taking the socio-cultural context of participants into account.

The comments collected from those experts mentioned above focused on two areas. First, on the language and instruction related aspects. Second, experts were concerned about the number of items included in the questionnaire at large and about the SACQ (67 items) in particular. They all agreed that the items were too numerous to be properly read and responded to by the participants. They also noticed that there were similar types of items on the questionnaire. They suggested that the items must be reduced in quantity; otherwise, participants would lose patience in filling in the questionnaire properly. Based on the feedback obtained from the professors, the number of items in the SACQ was reduced from 67 to 44 before piloting. For instance, 2 experts from the Psychology Department underscored the presence of redundant items expressed in different ways but measuring the same thing, such as on the academic adjustment sub-scale they noticed, e.g., “I am satisfied with university courses, I do not feel smart enough for the course work, I am enjoying my academic work, I find academic work at university difficult” and others. From the social adjustment scale, they observed items such as, “I am satisfied with which I am participating in social activities at university, I am quite satisfied with my social life at university” and others. From the personal-emotional adjustment scale they pointed to, e.g., “I have been feeling tense or nervous lately, I have been getting angry too easily lately”) and others. From the institutional attachment scale they identified, e.g., “Lately, I have been giving a lot of thought to dropping out of university, I am thinking about taking time off from university and finishing later”). Therefore, items which were identified as similar in nature but expressed in different ways as mentioned above, were dropped before piloting. Consequently, there were 44 items left to measure the student adjustment to university life instead of administering the 67 items which consisted of some similar and a few identical items as mentioned above.

Similarly, Ali (2003) cited in Al-khatib et al. (2012), and Al-khatib et al. (2012) themselves administered 36 items to measure the college adjustment scale distributed on four domains: academic adjustment, social adjustment, emotional adjustment and institutional commitment rather than the 67 item scale mostly used by many researchers. Regarding reliability coefficients on the 67 items, Baker and Siryk (1989) reported the alpha coefficients for the full versions of the sub-scales to range from .81 to .90 for academic adjustment, from .83 to .91 for social adjustment, from .77 to .86 for personal-emotional adjustment and from .85 to .91 for institutional attachment.

Furthermore, previously the SACQ employed a 9 point Likert scale, ranging from 1= does not apply to me at all, to 9 = applies very close to me. Thus, from experience the professors who

were consulted were commenting on the importance of scale range adjustment to make all the tools used in this thesis similar. Therefore, the 9 point Likert scale was adjusted in to a five point Likert scale, ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree to make the range similar with the other two tools (TEIQue and PDQ). The reason for the reduction of the scale from the 9 point Likert to the 5 point Likert scale type was to decrease the outlier problem and to avoid confusion amongst the participants. For instance, this was where parts of the questionnaire such as TEIQue and the PDQ were presented on a 5 point Likert scale. Hence it was justifiable to make the Likerts' scales homogenous for ease of response. It was recommended as advisable to reshuffle the Likert scale so as to take account of the participants' patience, motivation and experience. In all of the cases, the intention was to solicit the best information from the participants by reducing the irrelevant questions for the participants while avoiding fatiguing them.

In this study, the instrument chosen to measure the TEI of the first year university students was the TEIQue. In the TEIQue, experts offered suggestions on language use and the presence of too many negatively stated items as compared to the PDQ where there were none and the SACQ, with just certain items stated negatively. Regarding language use, some items that were regarded as too vague by the English language experts, were corrected. The scale originally had 30 items, and all 30 of these were administered for piloting, with the exception of some structural adjustment and language editing.

Concerning the PDQ, the experts notified their concern regarding the situation if a participant is only brought up by one parent, while the scale requires the participants to respond for both parents simultaneously (the mother/female guardian and the father/male guardian) on the responsiveness and demandingness scales. Thus, in answering the suggestion offered, the investigator ensured in the questionnaire instructions that the participants should respond to each item for those who have both parents; those who were brought up by a single parent had the option to respond accordingly. With regard to the number of items included in the PDQ, there were no significant comments by the experts. Thus, all 32 items of the scales were administered for piloting and all the items were prepared for the involvement of both parents. An equal number of items were prepared to measure parental responsiveness and parental control/demandingness. Half of the items on the scale were responsiveness items whereas the other half were demandingness items using a 5-point Likert scale (1= Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain (in between), 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree). Once all comments offered by the experts on the questionnaires and subscales had been considered, the final,

improved instruments were administered in the following manner.

Firstly, initial permission was requested from Debre Berhan University's Academic Vice President (where I am working) for conducting the pilot study. With permission granted, the researcher communicated with the department's coordinators for permission to recruit students for the purpose of running a pilot test of the research instruments. A pilot study was conducted by the researcher in December 2016 using 56 (male=28, female=28) randomly selected undergraduate first year students from the Social Science and Humanities and the Engineering Colleges located in Debre Berhan University, Ethiopia.

Once participants were gathered in their respective classes, it was clearly stated in the questionnaire, and it was explained to the participants, that confidentiality of information supplied by them would prevail at all times. In addition, the participants were informed that they could give their informed consent freely and voluntarily, and that they had the full right to refuse to participate or to withdraw from participation in the study at any stage. Furthermore, explanations about the study were provided to the participants as were the instructions. Participants were also informed that they could ask for further clarification for any vague item/s during their filling-in of the questionnaire.

After the responses of the participants were collected, each questionnaire was checked as to whether or not a proper response had been made. Thus, the responses of 6 (4 male, 2 female) participants were discarded, because they had failed to fill-in the questionnaire properly. Therefore, just the responses of 50 (24 male, 26 female) respondents were analysed for piloting. The response was computed using Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) version 20.0. To determine the reliability of the instruments, Cronbach's alpha and the exploratory analyses of variance were computed, which are the most widely reported reliability statistics and useful estimates which researchers utilise to observe whether several items measuring a single construct are correlated. Besides, inter-item total correlation was computed using Cronbach's alpha to establish the internal consistency of items in each of the instrument. Therefore, item/s that might adversely affect inter-item correlation or the total reliability value in each scale was eliminated.

Hence, the Cronbach's alpha value of the TEIQue was .661 (total), which was lower than expected. However, when the inter-item total correlation was computed for the TEIQue items,

item 7 (selfc7) had a weak negative correlation to most of the internal items in the groups as well as across the total items. Thus, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was checked if an item was deleted. Hence, when item 7 "I change my mind often" was deleted and checked, the Cronbach's alpha for the TEIQue was increased from .661 to .685 (total). This was not enough; again Cronbach's alpha for the TEIQue was checked when item 13 (emo13) "Sometimes, others close to me often complain that I treat them badly" was dropped and its Cronbach's alpha value was increased from .685 to .70. Finally, the Cronbach's alpha value for the TEIQue was checked if item 17 (emo17) "I am able to 'get into someone's shoes' and feel their emotions" was dropped, when the deletion of the item caused the reliability value to alter from .700 to .711. Therefore, from the original 30 items 27 items were left for final administration because of the deletion of items from the questionnaire. For the details, see the attached addendum 'G'.

Similar procedures were applied to the SACQ: its alpha value was checked and it had a Cronbach's alpha of .775(total). Moreover, the Cronbach's alpha value was checked if an item/s was deleted. Hence, when item 22 (soc22) was deleted, the Cronbach's alpha value increased to .786. And again when item 27 (per27) and item 25 (soc25) were deleted, the total reliability value showed an increment from .786 to .799. Finally, when item 31 (per31) was deleted; the Cronbach's alpha value displayed an increment from .799 to .805. Due to the deletion of four items, from the 44 items, 40 were left for the final administration. For the details see the attached addendum 'H'.

Again similar procedures were applied for the PDQ: the Cronbach's alpha value was checked for parental demandingness sub-scale, parental responsiveness sub-scale, paternal responsiveness, paternal demandingness, maternal responsiveness, and maternal demandingness dimensions.

Concerning the Cronbach's alpha value of parental demandingness and parental responsiveness and, the former had a Cronbach alpha value of .944 whereas the latter had a value of .920. In both of these two subscales (parental demandingness and parental responsiveness) the Cronbach's alpha value in their respective subscales was checked when an item/s was deleted but no increment was observed in the alpha value of each subscale. Thus, .944 and .920 were taken respectively as the Cronbach's alpha values of parental demandingness and parental responsiveness. For the details see the attached addendum 'I and J respectively'.

The Cronbach's alpha  $\alpha$  (value for paternal responsiveness) subscale was .889 (total). Although a similar step was followed, to check whether there was an increment in the Cronbach's alpha value if item/s was/were deleted, no increment was observed; hence, there was no need to go into item deletion so that .889 was taken for granted. The detail is located at the attached addendum 'K'.

Concerning paternal demandingness, the Cronbach's alpha value was checked; it was .873 (total). It was checked to see if this increased when an item/s was deleted but again, no increment on the Cronbach's alpha value was observed. Therefore, no item was deleted from the subscale; hence .873 was taken as the final such value. See the details from the attached addendum 'L'.

Regarding maternal responsiveness the Cronbach's alpha value was .921(total) but no significant increment was observed in its value except when one item was deleted: that its value increased from .921 to .922. Therefore, with this insignificant increment there was no need to go into dropping the item; rather, .921 was taken as the final such value for maternal responsiveness. See the details from the attached addendum 'M'.

With respect to maternal demandingness the Cronbach's alpha value was .850 (total). This value was checked whether it showed an increment or not when an item/s was dropped but no increment was observed; therefore, there was no need to delete the item so that .850 was taken as the final Cronbach's alpha value. See the details from the attached addendum 'N'.

In addition, the items of all the completed instruments were evaluated for wording and phrasing; thus, certain amendments were made on many items to make the items more understandable and suitable for use in the main study. In sum, all of the measures used in the pilot study with correction showed an adequate reliability with Cronbach's alpha values, which ranged between .711 to .944. These were considered to be good and acceptable.

### **3.6.2 Main data collection**

Data collection for the main study was conducted at the beginning of December 2016, immediately after the first year students' enrolment for the first semester of the academic year 2016/17. In order for research to be conducted on these students, initial permission was obtained from the university managers and first year students themselves who were selected

for the study. The university managers were then requested to communicate the purpose of this research to the deans and department heads of their respective universities, who arranged for the researcher and the data collectors to gather participants in a hall. Subsequently, departmental coordinators and staffs of the respective universities were asked to inform and encourage students to participate in the research and in setting up times for the researcher to access students in the halls.

After all the preliminary activities were organised and all the participants were in the hall, the researcher introduced himself to the participants as a doctoral research student who intended to conduct a research study that involved first year students in this university to meet the requirements for the doctoral degree at the University of South Africa (UNISA). After this, a detailed briefing was given to the participants about matters such as the purpose and aim of the study, including the focus of the questionnaire, and benefits of the research to society and possibly to the individuals. Once the participants' approval was obtained, they (the participating students) were informed that participation was voluntary, they could exercise the right to withdraw without any consequences or any loss of benefits and that their responses would be kept strictly confidential.

Following this, participants from the respective universities were requested to agree to become part of this research study and to sign a letter of consent. Subsequently, the informed consent form was distributed. After collecting the signed informed consent forms, the participants were asked to complete the questionnaire. Participants were also requested to spend time and respond to all items in the survey and not to provide any identifying personal information such as their name. Finally, with the help of six data collectors in each university, the questionnaires were administered. At the end of the data collection process, the research assistants were paid. However, research participants did not receive payment or extra credit except that the investigator addressed a special word of acknowledgement and gratitude to them, for their permission and cooperation in making the study successful.

### **3.7 METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS AND STATISTICAL PROCEDURES**

This section describes the data processing procedures employed in the data analysis. It began with an examination of data, for there were missing responses. Questionnaires not properly answered were rejected. Then coding was done on the remaining questionnaires. Thereafter, data entry was performed on an Excel Spreadsheet and later imported into SPSS.

Subsequently, the data entered was cleaned to eliminate all possible errors due to incorrect coding. Further, other checks were undertaken to ensure the accuracy of the data entry process and measurement scale screening. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 20 and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) 18. Thereafter, data collected from respondents for the main study was tested for outliers, normality, skewness and kurtosis to check whether the data was at a normal level. The test of significance for all statistical procedure was .05.

In order to answer the research questions of the study, several analyses were undertaken, including percentages, one-way ANOVA, independent sample T-test, bivariate correlation, path analysis, multiple regression and mediation. For instance, preliminary data analysis included obtaining frequency distributions and descriptive statistics: these were used to analyse demographic variables and to identify the types of parenting styles predominately practiced in the families of Ethiopia. The one-way ANOVA was used to answer research questions such as whether TEI and adjustment were significantly different from each other with respect to the first year university students' reported perceptions of parenting.

In addition, an independent sample T-test was used for answering research questions such as whether there was a statistically significant difference between female and male first year university students on TEI and adjustment scores.

In addition, Pearson correlations were calculated to assess the direction and strength of the relationships among major study variables included in the study. This correlation was undertaken because it is a pre-requisite for performing multiple regressions, path analysis, and mediation. Moreover, path analysis was undertaken to test model fits to the empirical data and to examine the strength of the paths across parental responsiveness, demandingness, TEI and adjustment. Next to path analysis and after the correlation was checked, a multiple regression analysis was carried out to analyse the following research questions (how are the TEI and demandingness and responsiveness dimension-variables of parenting style affecting adjustment to university of first year students in higher education institutions? Here, parenting dimensions and TEI were the independent variables (predictors) whereas adjustment acted as the dependent variable (predicted variable) to establish their combined effect on adjustment. An analysis of the multicollinearity was also carried out to check whether there was a similarity effect (strong correlation) that existed among the variables considered.



Finally, mediation analysis was performed to answer research questions such as whether TEI mediated the relationship between parental demandingness and adjustment on the one hand, and parental responsiveness and adjustment on the other. To do this, (Baron & Kenny, 1986) four steps recommendations were considered and the details as discussed later in section 4.5.

### **3.8 CONCLUSION**

The aim of this chapter was to discuss and choose the appropriate methodology and statistical techniques used in this study. The relationships between perceived parenting style/dimension, TEI, and students' university adjustment were examined. The study employed a descriptive survey research as it is a very appropriate design to examine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, such as parenting style/dimension acted as the independent variable, TEI as a mediator and a dependent variable, and adjustment as the dependent variable.

The research design was identified as quantitative rather than a qualitative approach. With regard to the study population, this study was conducted at public universities in Ethiopia. The sampling frame for this study was first year regular undergraduates who were enrolled in the academic year 2016/2017 at three public universities of Ethiopia. The samples, from which statistical inferences were drawn, were randomly selected from the accessible populations; accordingly, generalising the findings from selected samples to the population was feasible.

In selecting the samples, all members of the population essentially have the same probability of being selected or included. Among the probability sampling techniques, a stratified random sampling method was employed in selecting the participants of this study. After the probability sampling type was determined, the decision was made to determine the number of participants included in the sample. In this research, by integrating the formula with considering a reserve of non-used questionnaires, 550 participants were chosen. Hence, out of the total 550 students selected to fill-in the questionnaire only 464 questionnaires were properly completed, whereas 86 questionnaires (M=49, F=37) were discarded: some of them were returned completely blank while some were partially answered.

In this study, questionnaires used in other studies were adapted and employed for data collection. Concerning the questionnaire item formats, both the open and closed end form

items were used. Before deciding which instruments to use, detailed evaluations were carried out on the items relevant to the research questions. The instruments used in the present study were all self-report measures. The instruments used in this research investigated the demographic variables encompassing: age, gender, mothers' and fathers' education levels, parents' household income, and field of study and residence. The TEIQue, clustered into four broader factors such as: well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability, was used to measure the TEI of first year university students. The PDQ was used for measuring the perceived parenting styles reported by these students. And finally, the SACQ consisting of academic adjustment, social adjustment, personal-emotional adjustment, and the institutional attachment subscale developed by Baker and Siryk (1989) was used to measure how well first year students adjusted to university life.

Thereafter, a decision was made to pilot the questionnaires. Through piloting, all of the measures with correction showed an adequate reliability with Cronbach's alpha values, which ranged between .711 to .944 that were considered to be good and acceptable. In addition, the items of all the completed instruments were evaluated for wording and phrasing and as a result, certain amendments were made on many items to cause the items to be more understandable and suitable for use in the main study. The researcher did his utmost to keep the questions quite simple and easy to read and comprehend. Subsequently, prior to the start of distributing the questionnaire, consent was obtained from the relevant bodies after which the questionnaire was administered to the users personally.

For analysing the main data, SPSS 20.0 and AMOS 18.00 were used. Using the SPSS software package the data were screened, outliers and normality (i.e. using kurtosis and skewness) statistics were also tested. In order to answer the research questions of the study, several analyses were undertaken such as percentages, one-way ANOVA, independent sample t-test, bivariate correlation, path analysis, multiple regression, and mediation. Finally, the results are considered in the following chapter.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESULTS OF THE STUDY**

This chapter presents the results of the study. It begins by noting and describing the demographic characteristics of the study sample. This is followed by the results of the preliminary analysis of variance and means-comparisons test results pertaining to parenting styles in the Ethiopian cultural context. Following this, the results of the correlations among the study variables are provided. Finally, the path model of student adjustment to university as explained by the mediating effect of TEI and the effect of demandingness and responsiveness dimension variables of parenting style are presented. The path analysis results are backed by multiple linear regression analyses which consider the effects of demandingness and responsiveness dimension-variables of parenting style and the mediator variable of TEI on the criterion variable of adjustment to university.

#### **4.1 DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE STUDY SAMPLE**

This section notes the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants with respect to gender, residence, educational level of participants' parents and their parents' income level. These characteristics are reported in the form of frequency Tables that report the distribution of observations over each category/or level of each socio-demographic variable (e.g. 'male' and 'female' categories of the 'gender' socio-demographic variable). The proportion of observations per category is also reported as a percentage. These results are displayed in Table 4.1a & b.

**Table 4.1a & b: Demographic Characteristics of the Study Sample**

<b>Table 4.1a: Participants' Gender and Residence, and the Education Level of the Participants' Parents</b>				
<b>Variables Frequency (row %)</b>		<b>Category n<sub>i</sub> (percentage)</b>		<b>Total</b>
<b>Gender</b>		<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	
		282 (60.8)	182(39.2)	
<b>Residence</b>		<b>Rural</b>	<b>Urban</b>	<b>Total</b>
		240(51.7)	224(48.3)	464 (100)
		<b>Total</b>	<b>464</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Freq. (row %) (column %)</b>		<b>Father</b>	<b>Mother</b>	<b>Row total</b>
<b>Parental Education Level</b>	<b>No Formal Education</b>	176 (45.0) (37.9)	215 (55.0) (46.4)	391
	<b>Primary</b>	88 (46.0) 19.0)	103 (54.0) (22.2)	191
	<b>Junior</b>	27 (52.9) (5.8)	24 (47.1) (5.2)	51
	<b>Secondary</b>	45 (60.0) (9.7)	30 (40.0) (6.5)	75
	<b>Diploma</b>	35 (39.7) (7.5)	53 (60.3) (11.4)	88
	<b>First Degree</b>	60 (68.2) (12.9)	28 (31.8) (6.0)	88
	<b>Master</b>	21 (91.3) (4.5)	2 (6.7) (0.4)	23
	<b>PhD &amp; above</b>	12 (57.2) (2.6)	9 (42.9) (1.9)	21
	<b>Col. total (row %) (col. %)</b>	<b>464 (50) (100)</b>	<b>464 (50) (100)</b>	<b>928</b>

<b>Table 4.1b: Frequency Distribution of Parental Income as Perceived by First Year University Students</b>			
	<b>Categories</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Frequency %</b>
<b>Parental Income</b>	<1000	142	30.6
	1001-2000	96	20.7
	2001-3000	70	15.1
	3001-4000	42	9.1
	4001-5000	35	7.5
	5001-6000	18	3.9
	6001-7000	12	2.6

	7001-8000	8	1.7
	8001-9000	7	1.5
	9001-10000	15	3.2
	10001& above	19	4.1
	<b>Total</b>	<b>464</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 4.1a indicates that 60.8% of the respondents were male first year university undergraduates while 39.2% were female first year university undergraduates. In other words, the majority of students were males, which reflects the proportion of male and female students in the Ethiopian higher education institutions. With respect to residential area, 51.7% of the respondents resided in the rural part of Ethiopia whereas 48.3% of the respondents live in the town.

Concerning education of respondents' parents, it was reported that, respectively: 37.9% and 46.4% of the fathers and mothers, had no formal education; 19% and 22.2% held a primary school qualification; 5.8 and 5.2% had received junior school level education; 7.5% and 11.4% held a diploma ; and respectively, 20% and 8.3% held a first degree qualification.

Table 4.1b further indicates that 30.63% of the parents of respondents earn an average monthly income below 1000 Ethiopian birr; 20.7% of respondents' parents monthly earn between 1001-2000 Ethiopian birr, 15.1% of parents earn between 2001-3000 Ethiopian birr, and 9.1%, 7.5%, 3.9%, 2.6%, 1.7%, 1.5%, 3.2%, 4.1% (a total of 34.5%) of respondents' parents respectively earn between 3001-4000, 4001-5000, 5001-6000, 6001-7000, 7001-8000, 8001-9000, 9001-10000, and 10001 and above, Ethiopian birr monthly. The conclusion can be drawn that the majority of the participants reported their monthly average parental income was below 1000 Ethiopian birr. This implies that the majority of respondents included in the study came from poor families.

The results presented in the remainder of this chapter should thus be evaluated and interpreted in the context of this research sample: first year Ethiopian students that mostly come from poor families and parents (mostly) with limited educational exposure. This might affect the parenting styles these parents exhibit.

## **4.2 RESULTS OF THE PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS**

This section considers the results of exploratory analysis on participants' responses. The results pertain to verification of student adjustment-parenting dimensions-and TEI constructs; the calculation of the relevant construct scores; the parenting styles adopted by Ethiopian families; and indications of influential effects on student adjustment and TEI. The first subsection reports the internal consistency reliability of the students' adjustment, TEI and parental dimension construct. The second subsection discusses the frequency distribution of parenting styles while the subsequent subsections present analysis of variance results. These one-way ANOVA results investigated:

- How parenting style affects TEI?
- How parenting style affects students' adjustment at university?

Next to the ANOVA analysis, independent sample T-test analysis was undertaken to examine:

- How gender affects TEI?
- How gender affects adjustment to university life?

### **4.2.1 Verification of the internal consistency reliability of the adjustment-TEI-parental dimension constructs**

Scale reliability test results on the pilot study data, discussed in Chapter 3, indicated that the constructs and sub-constructs of student adjustment, TEI and parental responsiveness and demandingness dimensions complied with the criteria of internal consistency reliability. The rationale for the scale reliability tests and the exploratory analyses of variance was to verify the internal consistency reliability of the constructs measured in the research, as well as obtaining an initial indication of factors influencing adjustment and TEI. Therefore, Table 4.2 reports on the scale reliability tests conducted on each subset of questionnaire responses that describe a construct or sub-construct of TEI, student adjustment and parental style dimensions.

**Table 4.2: Scale Reliability Results of the Constructs and Sub-constructs Used in the Main Study**

Provisional results of scale reliability tests to verify the internal consistency reliability of the various dimensions and overall constructs of TEI, student adjustment and parental dimensions (Each row reports the results of a separate analysis)					
Construct/ dimension	Items included	Items reversed	Items removed	Cronbach alpha (standardised)	Mean construct score (standard deviation)
<b>TEI construct and sub-constructs</b>					
<b>TEI</b>	Self-control 4,12, 13, 16, 19, 27, Sociability 6, 9, 10, 18, 22, 23, 25, 26 Emotionality 1, 2, 7, 14, 20 Wellbeing 3, 5, 8, 11, 15, 17, 21, 24	Item 4,9,11, 20, 22,& 25	-	.67 (approx..7)	3.3784 (.3382)
Self-control	Self-control 4,12, 13, 16, 19, 27,	item 4	-	.19	
Sociability	Sociability 6, 9, 10, 18, 22, 23, 25, 26	item 9, 22, 25	-	.38	
Emotionality	Emotionality 1, 2, 7, 14, 20	item 20	-	.19	
Well-being	Well3, 5, 8, 11, 15, 17, 21, 24	item 11	-	.56	
<b>Student adjustment construct and sub-constructs</b>					
<b>Adjustment</b>	Academic 1-16, Personal-emotional 25-33, Social 17-23,institutional attachment 34-40	item 22,25-33,35,37,39	-	.81	3.4735 (.3884)
Personal-emotional	Personal-emotional 25-33	item25-33	-	.60	
Social	Soc17-soc 23	item22	-	.63	
Academic	Aca1-aca16	-	-	.80	
Institutional – attachment	ins-att34-att40	item 35,37, 39	-	.75	

Parental dimensions constructs and sub-constructs					
Paternal-responsiveness	father1-father16, mother1-mother16	-	-	.91	3.8406 (.5744)
Paternal-demandingness	fatherd17-fatherd32, motherd17-motherd32	-	-	.86	3.4796 (.5389)
Mother-responsiveness	mother1-mother16	-	-	.87	
Mother-demandingness	motherd17-motherd32	-	-	.81	
Father-responsiveness	father1-father16	-	-	.86	
Father-demandingness	fatherd17-fatherd32	-	-	.81	

Since the Cronbach alpha values of the sub-constructs of TEI are rather small (well below .7), internal consistency reliability could not be verified for the sub-constructs *per se*, but it could be verified for the general construct of TEIQue with a Cronbach alpha value of .67– which is approximately .7. The results furthermore indicated that internal consistency reliability could be verified for all sub-constructs of adjustment as well as for the general concept of student adjustment. The same deduction as applies to student adjustment could be made for PDQ: internal consistency reliability could be established for all constructs/ sub-constructs.

The above results therefore suggested that it would be a statistically more reliable option to focus attention on the overall TEIQue construct and conduct further analysis on a TEI score derived from all TEI question responses listed in Table 4.2 above. With regard to SACQ measurement, it was decided that, although measures for the individual sub-constructs of academic adjustment and institutional attachment dimension could be deemed reliable, only an overall student adjustment measure/ score would be derived from the responses of items listed for the overall adjustment construct. Furthermore, the decision was taken to use only overall parental responsiveness and parental demandingness dimension-scores in advanced analysis, as discussed later in section 4.3. It was argued that this approach would ensure that analysis results and discussion were manageable in this thesis.



With internal consistency reliability of the mentioned constructs verified, research could proceed by calculating reliable measurement (scores) for these constructs. All construct scores (TEI, student adjustment, parental responsiveness and demandingness) were calculated for each participant as the mean rating score a specific respondent awarded the question-items that describe a particular construct. In further discussions, these sets of variables are referred to as TEI scores (indices), student university adjustment scores (indices) and parental responsiveness and demandingness dimension scores. Table 4.3 reports the frequency distribution of perceived parenting styles in a categorical manner while Table 4.4 presents the overall mean of the concept of TEI and adjustment scores and standard deviation.

#### **4.2.2 Parenting style in the Ethiopian cultural context**

As indicated in the methodology discussion in Chapter 3, section 3.4.3, two parenting dimension-measures were calculated from specific questionnaire responses for each respondent: the mean of PDQ consisted of questions 1-16 which formed a parental responsiveness dimension measure, while the mean of PDQ consisted of questions from 17-32, which formed a parental demandingness-dimension measure.

The median value for both the demandingness measure and the responsiveness measure were calculated: the parenting style of a participant's parents combined, was classified as either '1' (authoritative) if both demandingness and responsiveness measures of a participant exceeded the two relevant median-values; or this style was classified as '2' (authoritarian) if a participant's responsiveness score/or index fell below the responsiveness-median and the demandingness score/or index fell above (or equalled) the demandingness median; or, the said style was classified as '3' (indulgent) if a participant's responsiveness score/or index fell above (or was equal to) the responsiveness-median and the demandingness score/or index fell below the demandingness median; or this style was classified as '4' (uninvolved/neglectful) if a participant's responsiveness-and demandingness scores both fell below the medians for each dimension. In this manner an ordinal categorical variable (parenting style) was derived from two continuous parental dimension variables.

This section presents the frequency Table of the parenting styles for all respondents as well as parenting style-frequencies according to the male and female research respondents that participated in this research. The purpose of this classification exercise was to identify the

parenting style predominantly practiced in the Ethiopian cultural context, in general. Furthermore, the research needed to establish whether the type of parenting style commonly practiced in the families of Ethiopia is perceived by male and female respondents differently. The frequency counts and percentages of parenting styles per gender of the students are provided in Table 4.3 below.

**Table 4.3: Frequency Distribution of Perceived Parenting Styles: Male and Female Student Response Groups**

Gender of the respondents	Parenting styles Frequency (row %)				Row total
	Authoritative	Authoritarian	Indulgent	Neglectful	
Female	70 (38.5)	33 (18.1)	22 (12.1)	57 (31.3)	182 (39.2)
Male	90 (31.9)	42 (14.9)	43 (15.3)	107 (37.9)	282 (60.8)
Total	160 (34.5)	75(16.2)	65(14.0)	164(35.3)	464(100)

From the above Table it is evident that first year female university students perceived the authoritative style as dominant (38.5%), whereas for males the neglectful parenting style was dominant (37.9) in the Ethiopian households. Thus, the perceived most dominant parenting style seems to differ for male and female first year university students. This indicates that Ethiopian families are perceived to be close, responsive, and involved and at the same time have greater control over/ place more demands on females than their male counterparts.

If gender is ignored, the parenting style that is indicated in general is the neglectful one (35.3% of all classifications), followed very closely by the authoritative one (34.5% of all classifications). The deduction can therefore be made that both the neglectful and authoritative parenting styles are perceived to dominate in Ethiopia according to the perceptions of first year university students. This implies that these students in general recall parenting experiences and practices in the Ethiopian culture that are dominated by either a low demanding/ low responsive type of parenting (neglectful), or a high demanding and high responsive parenting style (authoritative). The recorded data in Table 4.3 above also suggests that, if gender is not brought into consideration, all parenting styles (i.e., neglectful, authoritative, authoritarian, and indulgent parenting styles) were perceived to be practiced in Ethiopian households.

### **4.2.3 Differences in TEI and adjustment to university by parenting styles**

With the probable effect of gender on perceptions of parenting styles/dimension indicated in section 4.2.2, discussion in this section moves on to an evaluation of:

- Whether perceived parenting styles ('parenting styles' categorical classification variable, section 4.2.2 above) are statistically significantly influencing TEI ('TEI' scores)
- Whether students' university adjustment is statistically significantly influenced by perceived parenting styles (i.e., neglectful, authoritative, authoritarian, and indulgent parenting styles).

The rationale for these analyses is an initial assessment of the mediatory role of TEI in students' university adjustment and the provisional assessment of the direct effect of perceived parenting style on students' college adjustment. The statistical significance of the mentioned effects is investigated by means of one-way ANOVA. In these analyses, TEI scores and student adjustment scores are respectively entered as the dependent (continuous) variables in the two analyses and the categorical perceived parenting style variable as the independent variable in both analyses of variance.

Table 4.4 below presents the descriptive statistics of the variables (M, SD, and SE), and Tables 4.5–4.8 will report the ANOVA results and multiple-comparison-of-means test results of TEI and students' adjustment score means for the four groups of parenting styles.

**Table 4.4: Number of Cases, Mean, Standard Deviation and Standard Error for the Dependent Variables by Parenting Styles**

<b>Dependent variables</b>	<b>Independent variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>SE</b>
TEI scores	Authoritative	160	3.5241	.32053	.02534
	Authoritarian	75	3.3422	.30650	.03539
	Indulgent	65	3.4399	.29539	.03664
	Neglectful	164	3.2283	.31954	.02495
	<b>Total</b>	<b>464</b>	<b>3.3784</b>	<b>.33817</b>	<b>.01570</b>
Adjustment scores	Authoritative	160	3.6328	.35191	.02782
	Authoritarian	75	3.5227	.42922	.04956
	Indulgent	65	3.5192	.39845	.04942
	Neglectful	164	3.3113	.36245	.02830
	<b>Total</b>	<b>464</b>	<b>3.4855</b>	<b>.39</b>	<b>.01850</b>

The results of the descriptive statistics in Table 4.4 above suggest that the means of the TEI scores and students' adjustment scores, calculated for the four parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful parenting styles) seem to differ. This suggestion of possible statistically significant differences, however, has to be confirmed by means of analyses of variance (which will confirm whether parenting style does statistically significantly affect TEI score and/or student adjustment score), as well as by multiple comparisons of means tests which will show whether parenting styles on TEI mean scores/or adjustment mean scores differ statistically significantly from one another). Tables 4.5 and 4.6 report the analysis of variance results. In these Tables, the 'between group'-entry represents the effect of parenting style source-of-variation in the data, while the 'within groups'-entry represents the error source-of-variation in the data. The F value reported (the means square parenting style variation divided by the mean square error variation) serves as the F statistic with 3 and 460 degrees of freedom (refer to Table 4.5). Significance is indicated if the tabulated F value for the relevant degrees of freedom is less than .05(5%).

**Table 4.5: One-way ANOVA results: TEI Score Entered as Dependent Variable and Parenting Style Classification as Independent Variable in the Model**

	SoSs	DF	MS	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7.433	3	2.478		
Within Groups	45.514	460	.099	25.042	.000***
Total	52.947	463			

Significance on the 5 % (probability is <.05)

Normality- and homogeneity of variance assumptions were checked (HOV-Levine's test = .22, with an associated probability of .87. Therefore, homogeneity of group variances was satisfied).

As the one-way ANOVA result in Table 4.5 above indicated, a statistically significant TEI score difference was found among the four parenting style categories; the tabulated F-value,  $F(3; 460; .05) = 2.63$ , which is far less than the test F value of 25.042 (column 4, Table 4.5), was indicated with a probability of less than .05. This result implies that parenting style statistically significantly impacts TEI. However, analysis of variance does not indicate which parenting style TEI mean differs from other parenting style TEI means. To determine the latter, multiple comparisons of means tests have to be conducted (Tukey's test). Therefore, Table 4.6 reports the results of a multiple means comparison test conducted on the TEI mean scores calculated for the four parenting style groups.

**Table 4.6: Tukey Post Hoc Test for TEI Mean Scores across Parenting Style Groups**

(I) Parenting styles	(J) Parenting styles	MD (I-J)	SE	Sig.
Authoritative	Authoritarian	.18185*	.04402	.000***
	Indulgent	.08419	.04627	.265
	Neglectful	.29575*	.03495	.000***
Authoritarian	Indulgent	-.09766	.05331	.260
	Neglectful	.11390*	.04385	.048***
Indulgent	Neglectful	.21157*	.04610	.000***
The indicator, '*', indicates statistical significance on at least the 5% level of significance				

The above Tukey test results demonstrate that a statistically significant difference in TEI means score could be identified between:

- The authoritative and authoritarian groups (the two extremes of the supportive dimension).
- The mean TEI scores of the authoritative and neglectful parenting style groups.
- The mean TEI scores of the authoritarian and neglectful parenting style groups, and
- The mean TEI scores of the indulgent and neglectful parenting style groups (the two extremes of the demandingness parenting dimension).

The mean score results make clear that first year university students who perceive their parents as either authoritative or indulgent scored higher in TEI (means of respectively 3.5241 and 3.4399), than those who perceive their parents' style to be neglectful (mean TEI score of 3.2283) or authoritarian (mean TEI score of 3.3422). Thus, it can be deduced that especially the authoritative and indulgent parenting styles (the mean scores of these two styles) do not differ statistically significantly.

In a manner like the procedure undertaken to answer the question of a statistically significant effect of parenting style on TEI, analysis of variance (Table 4.7) and Tukey multiple comparisons-of-means tests (Table 4.8) were conducted on the student adjustment scores (as dependent variable) and parenting style classification variable (as independent variable) to assess whether parenting styles have a statistically significant effect on students' adjustment to university. This research argued that, if statistical significance can be established in this case, the groundwork has been laid for the student adjustment model of a direct effect of parenting style, and mediatory effect of TEI on adjustment. (This issue will be explained further in section 4.3.)

Once the Tukey multiple comparisons-of-means tests on which of the parenting styles mean statistically significantly differ or not on the TEI score, following the ANOVA and homogeneity of variance assumed confirmed in Table 4.7 intends to discover:

- Whether students' university adjustment is statistically significantly influenced by perceived parenting styles (i.e., neglectful, authoritative, authoritarian, and indulgent parenting ones).

In these analyses, student adjustment scores are entered as the dependent (continuous) variables in the analyses and the categorical perceived parenting style variable as an independent variable in the analyses of variance. The results of the descriptive statistics in Table 4.4 above suggest that the means of the students' adjustment scores, calculated for the four parenting styles, seem to differ. Statistical significance of possible differences, however, has to be confirmed by analyses of variance (which will confirm whether parenting style does statistically significantly affect the student adjustment score, and by multiple comparisons of means tests which will identify whether parenting style on adjustment mean scores differ statistically significantly from one another). Tables 4.7 and 4.8 report the analysis of variance results. In these Tables, the 'between group'-entry represents the effect of parenting style source-of-variation in the data, whereas the 'within groups'-entry represents the error source-of-variation in the data. The F value reported (the means square parenting style variation divided by the mean square error variation) serves as the test statistic with 3 and 460 degrees of freedom (refer to Table 4.7). Significance is indicated if the tabulated F value for the relevant degrees of freedom is less than .05. Table 4.7 below presents the results of the one-way ANOVA for students' adjustment score means for the four parenting style groups.

**Table 4.7: Summary of One-way ANOVA: Adjustment Score Entered as Dependent Variable and Parenting Style Classification as Independent Variable in the Model**

<b>Adjustment</b>	<b>SoSs</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>MS</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Between Groups	7.957	3	2.65		.000***
Within Groups	61.903	460	.014	19.71	
Total	69.524	463			

\*  $P < .05$

Normality- and homogeneity of variance assumptions were checked (HOV-Levine's test =.44, with an associated probability of .7273. Therefore, homogeneity of group variances is confirmed).

The ANOVA results in Table 4.7 above indicate a statistically significant difference in adjustment mean scores between the four parenting style categories. (The tabulated F-value - F (3; 460; .05) = 2.63– which is far less than the calculated F value of 19.71 displayed in column 5, Table 4.7; a calculated F-statistic have a value of 19.71 to be less than .0001

(indicated in the last column of Table 4.7) – which is of course less than .05 and highly significant.)

The mean score (in Table 4.4 above, M= 3.6328, M=3.5227, M=3.5192, and M=3.3113) results for authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful parenting styles respectively indicate that first year university students who perceive their parents as authoritative (M= 3.6328) have a higher score than those who perceived their parents as authoritarian (M=3.5227), indulgent (M=3.5192) and neglectful (M=3.3113). This implies that first year university students who perceive their parents as authoritative have a significantly high students' adjustment to university score. In other words, such students who rated their parents as authoritative better meet the academic, social, personal-emotional, and institutional attachment demands of a higher education institution compared to those students in this group who perceive their parents as authoritarian, with indulgent and neglectful parenting styles; therefore the former was more important for adjustment to university than other parenting style classifications.

This result implies that parenting styles impact first year students' adjustment to university life statistically significantly. However, an analysis of variance does not indicate which parenting style adjustment mean score differs from other parenting style adjustment score means. To determine this, multiple comparisons of means tests have to be conducted (Tukey's test). Table 4.8 records the results of a multiple means comparison test conducted on the students' adjustment mean scores calculated for the four parenting style groups.

**Table 4.8: Tukey Post Hoc Test for Adjustment Mean Scores across Parenting Style Groups**

(I) Parenting styles	(J) Parenting styles	MD (I- J)	SE	Sig.
Authoritative	Authoritarian	.11015	.05256	.156
	Indulgent	.11358	.05525	.169
	Neglectful	.32153*	.04174	.000***
Authoritarian	Indulgent	.00344	.06365	1.000
	Neglectful	.21139*	.05236	.000***
Indulgent	Neglectful	.20795*	.05505	.001***



The above Tukey test results indicate that statistically significant differences in adjustment means scores were identified between:

- The authoritative and neglectful groups (the two extremes of the supportive dimension).
- The mean adjustment scores of the authoritarian and neglectful parenting style groups, and
- The mean adjustment scores of the indulgent and neglectful parenting style groups (the two extremes of the demandingness parenting dimension).

The mean score results confirm that first year university students who perceive their parents as authoritative scored higher in adjustment ( $M= 3.6328$ ), than those who perceive their parents' style to be authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful (mean adjustment score of respectively 3.5227, 3.5192, and 3.3113).

Nevertheless, no statistically significant mean difference in adjustment score was found between those first year university students who perceive their parents as practicing:

- Authoritative and authoritarian (.11015),  $p>.05$
- Authoritative and indulgent (.11358),  $p>.05$  and
- Authoritarian and indulgent parenting styles (.00344),  $p>.05$ .

Once the influence of parenting style on TEI and adjustment using one way analysis of variance was ensured, the following section (4.2.4) justifies this; (Table 4.9-4.12) reports the influence of gender on TEI and adjustment as investigated using the independent sample t-test.

#### **4.2.4 Differences in TEI and adjustment by gender of the participants**

In section 4.2.3, emphasis was accorded to whether the dependent variables (TEI and adjustment to university) differed statistically significantly in relation to the independent variable parenting style classifications. In this part, attention is paid to determining whether there is a statistically significant difference on the TEI and students' adjustment means score in terms of the research participants' gender. To answer these questions an independent sample T-test was employed and results reported in the subsequent Tables (4.9-4.12). In these

analyses, TEI and student adjustment scores are entered as the dependent (continuous) variables in the analyses and the categorical gender variable as an independent variable.

The rationale for this analysis is an initial assessment of the type of parenting styles adopted by the Ethiopian households by taking gender into account (in Table 4.2): this displayed differences, i.e. the perceived most dominant parenting style seems to differ for male and female first year university students. That is, Ethiopian families are perceived to be close, responsive, and involved and at the same time have greater control over/more demand for female children than male children, hence, results suggest that more controls/or demands are exerted over females in the Ethiopian culture than over their male counterparts. Parenting style also has an influence on TEI (refer Table 4.5) and on students' university adjustment (Table 4.6). The statistical significance of the said effects was investigated by means of one-way ANOVA. One may deduce that gender influences parenting style and parenting style influences both TEI and adjustment; therefore, it is quite logical to determine the effect of gender on TEI and adjustment using independent sample T-test. Here, the TEI score and the student adjustment score are respectively entered as the dependent (continuous) variables in the two analyses and the categorical gender variable as an independent variable in both analyses of the independent sample T-test. Considering the above rationale, the decision was taken to carry out independent sample T-test analysis: Table 4.9 presents the descriptive statistics of the TEI and students' adjustment (M, SD, and SE) for the two groups.

**Table 4.9: T-test Statistics (Mean, Standard Deviation, and Standard Error) for the Two Groups**

	<b>Gender of the Respondents</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>SE</b>
TEI	Male	282	3.3826	.36288	.02161
	Female	182	3.3718	.29669	.02199

The output from the independent sample T-test contains just two Tables. The first Table (SPSS output Table 4.9 above) provides summary statistics for the two groups, whereas the second Table of output (SPSS output Table 4.10 below) contains the main test statistics. From the above Table 4.9, one may observe that there are two groups (male and female), the male one containing 282 participants (column labelled N) whereas the female one consisted of 182 participants. The male group had a mean TEI score of 3.3826, with a SD of .36288; the SE of

that group (the SD of the sampling distribution) was .02161. In addition, Table 4.9 informs us that the average TEI of the female group was 3.3718, with a SD of .29669, and a SE of .02199. Note that the means for the two groups look somewhat different. This might be due to chance, so there is a need to assess this with the independent sample T-test, as reported in the next Table. Table 4.10 displays the summary statistics, for the two groups, of the main test statistic.

**Table 4.10: T-test Results: TEI Means Score by Gender of the Research Participants**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	DF	Sig.(2-tailed)	MD	SED
TEI Equal variances assumed	6.141	.014	.335	462	.738	.01079	.03218
TEI Equal variances not assumed			.350	436.897	.727	.01079	.03083

\* $p < .05$

The independent-samples T-test evaluates the difference between the means of two independent groups. That is, it is applied to determine whether the means for the two groups are significantly different from each other. In this case, the T-test evaluates whether the mean value of the variable TEI score for males differs significantly from the mean value of the test variable for the second group females. The independent samples T-test provides two statistical tests. In the left hand column of numbers, Levene's Test for equality of variances records the assumption that the variances of the two groups are equal (i.e., assumption of homogeneity of variance). If Levene's F test is not significant, the assumption is met; therefore, use of the equal variances assumed line for the t-test and related statistics is justifiable. In this regard, if Levene's F test is statistically significant ( $*p < .05$ ), then variances are significantly different and the assumption of equal variance is violated. In Table 4.10, the equal variances not assumed line would be used. Here, because the significant value is less than a priori alpha of .05 ( $*p < .05$ ), the null hypothesis (no difference) is rejected in support of the alternative hypothesis, and it is concluded that males and females differed significantly on their TEI as well as that there is a significant difference between the two group's variances. For Table 4.10,

on average, males recorded greater TEI scores ( $M = 3.3826$ ,  $SD = .36288$ ) than females ( $M = 3.3718$ ,  $SD = .29669$ ). This difference was significant  $t(436.897) = .350$ ,  $*p < .05$ . By examining the group means for this sample of participants, one could observe that males had higher scores on the TEI score than did females. The next Table (Table 4.11) presents the summary statistics (M, SD, and SE (SPSS output)) for the two groups (male and female) score on adjustment.

**Table 4.11: T-test Statistics (Mean, Standard Deviation, and Standard Error) for the Two Groups**

	Gender of the Respondents	N	M	SD	SE
Adjustment	male	282	3.4674	.40854	.02433
	female	182	3.5135	.38184	.02830

From the above Table (4.11), we may note that there are two groups (male and female): as before, the male group had 282 participants (column labelled N) whereas the female group contained 182 participants. The male group recorded a mean adjustment score of 3.4674, with a SD of .40854 and a SE of .02433. In addition, the table tells us that the average adjustment score of the female group was 3.5135, with a SD of 38184, and a SE of .02830. That is, the means for the two groups look somewhat different. This might again be due to chance; hence there is a need to evaluate this with the independent sample T-test in the next Table. Table 4.12 displays the summarised main test statistics for the two groups.

**Table 4.12: T-test Results: Adjustment Means Score by Gender of the Research Participants**

	Levene's Test for equality of variances	T-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	DF	Sig. (2-tailed)	MD	SED
Adjustment	Equal variances assumed	.142	.706	-1.217	462	.224	-.04609	.03787
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.235	404.89	.218	-.04609	.03732

\* $P < .05$

The independent-samples T-test evaluates the difference between the means of two independent groups. In the left hand two columns of numbers, Levene's Test reports the equality of variances for the assumption that the variances of the two groups are equal (i.e., assumption of homogeneity of variance). Here, Levene's F test is not significant, the assumption is not violated (that is, the assumption is met), and one may use the equal variances assumed line for the T-test and related statistics without adjusting the t, DF, and sig. as appropriate. Here, because the significant value is greater than the a priori alpha of .05 ( $p > .05$ ), this supports the alternative hypothesis, and one may conclude that males and females do not differ significantly on their adjustment score and also that there is not a significant difference between the two group's variances. That is, the assumption of homogeneity of variance is met. If this is the case, we must use the data results associated with the equal variances assumed, and interpret the data accordingly. That is, we would use the top line of information for the T-test. For the above Table 4.12, the males' adjustment score was ( $M = 3.4674$ ,  $SD = .40854$ ) while the females had ( $M = 3.5135$ ,  $SD = .38184$ ). This difference was not significant  $t(462) = -1.217$ ,  $p > .05$ . As Table 4.12 also confirmed, there is no statistically significant adjustment score difference between female and male first year university students. To sum up: explaining all variables used in analyses at this point is crucial so as to increase the reader's understanding. To begin with, after the demographic variables were discussed to gather status information about the research participants, the Cronbach's alpha values of the constructs and sub-constructs and internal consistency reliability were verified. With internal consistency, the reliability of all construct scores (TEI, students' university adjustment, parental responsiveness and demandingness) was calculated and it was argued that this approach would ensure that the analysis results and discussion were manageable in this thesis. The rationale for the scale reliability tests and the exploratory analyses of variance was to verify the internal consistency reliability of the constructs measured in the research as well as to obtain an initial indication of factors influencing adjustment and TEI.

Subsequently, the parenting styles for all respondents as well as parenting style-frequencies according to male and female research respondents were observed. The purpose of this classification exercise was to identify the parenting style predominantly practiced in the Ethiopian cultural context, in general, and gender-wise issues in particular. Thus, if gender is ignored or considered, all parenting styles (i.e., neglectful, authoritative, authoritarian and indulgent parenting styles) were perceived to be practiced in the Ethiopian households.

Once this was perceived as being the case, it is important to see whether statistically significant differences exist on TEI and the adjustment mean scores using analysis of variance (since the normality and homogeneity of group variances were satisfied using Levene's test). The results of this analysis show that students' TEI and university adjustment mean scores were statistically significantly influenced by perceived parenting styles. This result implies that parenting style statistically significantly impacts first year students' TEI and adjustment to university life.

The rationale for these analyses is an initial assessment of the mediatory role of TEI on students' university adjustment as well as the provisional assessment of the direct effect of perceived parenting style on their university adjustment. Moreover, how gender affects TEI and adjustment to university was assessed using the independent sample T-test. The rationale for this analysis was an initial assessment of parenting style by gender, indicated in Table 4.3 above, which displayed differences and the influence parenting styles exert on EI (see Table 4.5) and students' university adjustment (Table 4.7). Therefore, it was logical to examine whether gender influences TEI and adjustment to university in Tables 4.9-10 and 4.11-12, respectively. In the analysis, homogeneity of variance assumptions was checked and homogeneity of group variances was satisfied for adjustment, but not for TEI. All these analyses and their correlations that are discussed below (Table 4.13) thereby pave the way to undertake the path analysis discussed later in the thesis.

#### **4.2.5 Correlation between variables to be included in path analysis model**

The Pearson correlation is executed in order to understand the significant relationship and the multicollinearity level of the study variables which would be used in the path analysis to be conducted in section 4.3. Thus, the results of this correlation are presented in Table 4.13 below. The rationale for undertaking correlation in particular, in this thesis, stems, therefore, from the correlation results and the associated values of multicollinearity which are preliminary determinants to undertake subsequent path analysis, multiple regression analysis, and mediation analysis as considered later in the thesis; Table 4.13 reports the results.

**Table 4.13: Correlation between Study Variables used in the Path Analysis**

Correlation matrix: the Proposed Path analysis variables				
Pearson correlation (significance)	Adjustment	TEI	Parental responsiveness	Parental demandingness
Adjustment	1	.524**	.404**	.300**
TEI	.524**	1	.411**	.295**
Parental responsiveness	.404**	.411**	1	.612**
Parental demandingness	.300**	.295**	.612**	1

(< .05\*\*, .01\*\*)

Table 4.13 discloses the results that adjustment was positively significantly correlated with TEI ( $r=.52$ ,  $*p <.05$ ), parental responsiveness ( $r= .40$ ,  $* p <.05$ ) and parental demandingness ( $r=.30$ ,  $*p<.05$ ). The mediator TEI significantly correlated with parental responsiveness( $r=.41$ ,  $*p<.05$ ), and parental demandingness ( $r=.30$ ,  $*p<.05$ ). Moreover, a strong statistically significant correlation was found between parental responsiveness and demandingness ( $r=.61$ ,  $*p < .05$ ). From the correlation analysis, the correlation matrix indicates that multicollinearity between variables to be included in the path and regression analysis does not exist (multicollinearity is indicated by a very high statistically significant correlation between variables – e.g. a correlation of .8). In the above analysis of all cases, statistically significant correlations were found in all major variables. Again, the signs between variables are all positive and thus in the predicted direction, thereby providing a means of paving the way for a path-analysis and multiple regression analysis, discussed later in the thesis. The next section, 4.3, justifies the decision to include path analysis in the thesis.

#### **4.3 VARIABLES TO BE INCLUDED IN A PATH ANALYSIS AND THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THESE VARIABLES**

As indicated in Chapter 3, and in section 4.2.3 of this chapter, it was indirectly argued that path analysis would be a suitable means of verifying the effect of TEI as mediator and parenting behaviour as direct/indirect effect on student adjustment to university. Provisional analysis and results of section 4.2.3 proved that this argument was a viable option. However, prior to conducting a path analysis, the variables to be entered into the analysis was considered; thereafter, the possibility of multicollinearity among model variables had to be

investigated and was confirmed in Table 4.13 above.

#### **4.3.1 Decision on variables to be entered into a path analysis**

The research argument up to this point has indicated that variables of importance in a path analysis would include a measure of TEI (TEI scores), a measure of student adjustment (adjustment scores) as well as a measure of parenting dimensions. Since the parenting style variable used in initial analyses of variance classified perceived parenting style into just one of four categories, the researcher reasoned at this stage that more accurate measures of parenting style were ‘available’ in the parental demandingness and responsiveness dimension scores which had been derived from participant responses (section 4.2.2). It was argued that both these measures, and a combined measure of these scores, should rather be used in path analysis to render a more accurate and ‘precise’ model of student adjustment<sup>1</sup>. Serious consideration was given to a derived combined responsiveness/demandingness parenting score. However, this researcher realised that the two dimensions have been proven over time to represent two separate factors or dimensions of parenting and cannot be combined: factor analysis results in numerous studies provide proof for this statement. For instance, Martinez, Cruise, Garcia, and Murgui (2017) in an English validation of the parental socialisation scale; Gafoor and Kurkkan (2014), Gracia, Garcia, and Lila (2008); Maccoby and Martin (1983) and Baumrind (1971) to name but a few. Therefore, the decision was taken in this study to include the parental demandingness and responsiveness dimension scores (discussed in section 4.3.2) in the path analysis investigations.

Similar to the above, in an alternative to the predominant categorical conceptualisation of parenting styles, researchers have suggested the use of dimensions instead. For instance, Stewart and Bond (2002) theorised that parenting dimensions are universal and are consequently better indicators of parenting behaviours especially in ethnic cultural groups where the culture-specific meaning of the behaviour may differ. Deduced from those facts, parenting behaviour dimensions (parental responsiveness-demandingness dimensions) instead of parenting style categories (i.e., neglectful, authoritative, authoritarian, and indulgent styles) are employed in the path analysis, multiple regression analysis and mediation to follow.

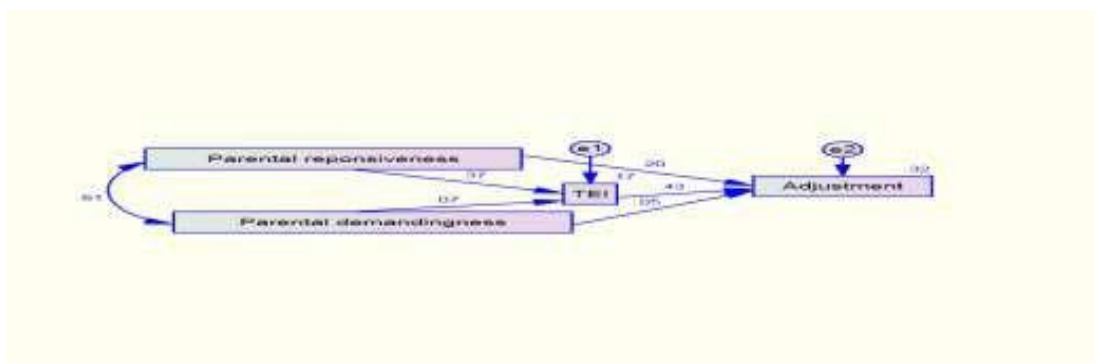


The variables of interest included in the parenting dimensions-TEI-student adjustment path analysis model (results presented in section 4.3.2) include:

- Student adjustment scores
- TEI scores
- Parental responsiveness scores
- Parental demandingness scores

#### 4.3.2 Path analysis on the study variables (TEI, adjustment, parental responsiveness, and parental demandingness)

To construct a path diagram, the following pieces of information are required. The first is the correlation matrix among the variables. Thereafter, one begins the path analysis by writing down the exogenous variables and connecting each pair with a double-headed arrow. The second piece is writing the endogenous variable. From each exogenous variable, one draws a straight, single headed arrow shooting into the endogenous variable. After doing that, one makes a notation for a residual variable and draws an arrow from it into the endogenous variable. Finally, path coefficients are used to decompose correlations in the model into direct and indirect effects, reflected in the arrows in the model. Moreover, the total effects are calculated—the aggregate effect of direct and indirect effects shooting into the endogenous variables. All these paths, with their respective endogenous, exogenous, and error terms, were derived from AMOS. The resulting model is illustrated in Figure 4.1 below.



**Figure 4.1: The Demandingness-Responsiveness Dimensions of Parenting Style-TEI-Adjustment Model**

**The above Path model 4.1 contains the following variables (Group number 1)**

**Observed, endogenous variables**

Adjustment and TEI

**Observed, exogenous variables**

Parental responsiveness and Parental demandingness

**Unobserved, exogenous variables**

e1 and e2

**Variable counts (Group number 1)**

Number of variables in the model: 6

Number of observed variables: 4

Number of unobserved variables: 2

Number of exogenous variables: 4

Number of endogenous variables: 2

**Computation of degrees of freedom (Default model)**

Number of distinct sample moments: 10

Number of distinct parameters to be estimated: 10

DF (10-10): 0

**Result (Default model)**

Minimum was achieved

Chi-square=.000, Degrees of Freedom (DF) = 0, and probability level, cannot be computed

### **4.3.3 Evaluation of the Model Fit**

Here, in the above model, I included all direct and indirect relationships between the exogenous variables, the mediator, and endogenous variable. This process left me with a model which was a just-identified one: that is, one with no DF, a model with DF = 0 (number of data variances and covariances equals the number of parameters). The existence of a DF makes it possible to test the model fit, but the model in Figure 4.1 above shows no DF and, without this, the model can never be rejected. Therefore, rendering the model for scientific use is not possible.

In addition, overall model fit is determined among others using Chi-square, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Root Mean Square Residual (RMSR), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), and the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI).

In this respect, good fit was defined as CFI values  $\geq .95$ , RMSEA values  $\leq .06$ , RMSR values  $\leq .08$ , the NFI value of .9 or higher, and the GFI, a value of  $>.9$  (Hu & Bentler, 1999). See the index outputs in the addendum attached 'O'.

Generally, the overall model fit index was checked using the following parameters:

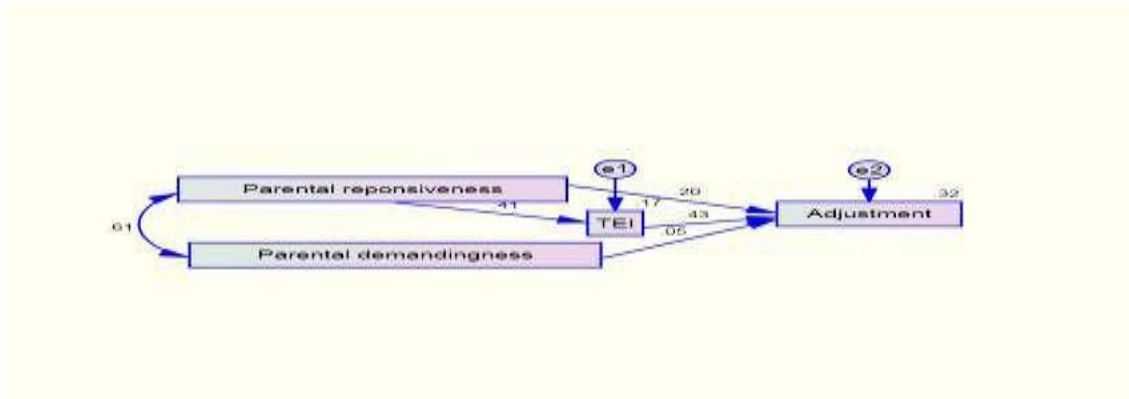
- **The chi-square test**—indicates the amount of difference between expected and observed covariance matrices, where a value close to zero indicates little difference between the expected and observed covariance matrices. For the above model 4.1, since the probability value of the chi-square test is smaller than the .05 level, thereby, it is to reject the null hypothesis that the model fits the data perfectly. Due to this reason the model cannot satisfy chi-square fit index parameter.
- Another method of evaluating the fit of the model is to look at the **GFI**— which tells us what proportion of the variance in the sample variance covariance matrix is accounted for by the model; since the above model's GFI value was (1.00) which is above the recommended value of  $> .9$  (Hu & Bentler, 1999), there is no problem in this index measure.
- **RMSR**— which is an index of the amount by which the estimated model variances and covariances differ from the observed variances and covariances; this was a value of .000 which is significantly below the recommended value of  $\leq .08$ ), again, there is no problem in this fit index measure (Hu & Bentler,1999).
- **NFI**— is simply the difference between the two models' chi-squares divided by the chi-square for the independence model; it has a value of 1.00 which is in the range of the recommended value of .9 or higher and therefore indicates a perfect fit in this parameter.
- **CFI**—analyses the model fit by examining the discrepancy between the data and the hypothesised model, while adjusting for the issues of sample size inherent in the chi-squared test of model fit and the norm fit index. In this case it has a value of 1.00 so that it is a perfect fit.
- **Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)** – result of .993 is considerably above the .95 threshold, denoting satisfactory model fit.
- The other method of evaluating the fit of the model is to look at the **RMSEA**— it is related to residual in the model, and the value of it in the above model was .414, which exceeded the recommended guideline for a good-fitting model value of  $\leq .06$  (Hu & Bentler, 1999), indicates a poor fit.

As may be noticed from those indices, the model partially satisfies some requirements but not all, therefore, it is not a fitted model to the empirical data. Consequently, it was mandatory to take a decision to re-specify the model so as to modify it until it satisfies the very basic requirements/parameters.

#### **4.3.4 Decision on modifying a model to check for fit by freeing a path/s**

In the just-identified model which was displayed as Figure 4.1, the chi-square has a value of zero. Therefore, a necessary step is deleting or freeing one or more of the paths until one obtains an over-identified model having a chi-square value different from zero and a positive degree of freedom. For any model, elimination of any nonzero path will reduce the fit of the model with data, thereby, increasing the value of the chi-square. If an unacceptable model fit like the above one is found, the model could be revised when the modifications are meaningful. In the upcoming model, modification involves beginning by freeing a parameter that was fixed. Thus, the above analysis indicated relational links that I could exclude in the second analysis (the direct effect of parental demandingness on TEI). The re-specification to a second model on the baseline model was done, based on knowledge of the nature of the variables.

Once I did this, I re-ran it to see if the model is fit at this level; therefore, I modify the original model until it is better fitting. The model used for the second analysis was an over-identified one, drawn in Figure 4.2 below. An over-identified model ( $DF > 0$ ): number of covariances  $>$  number of model parameters which are necessary for identification and model fit to the indices available, has a positive DF (as opposed to the previous model which was described as just identified). Having a positive DF allows us to examine the fit of the model using the chi-square test of model fit, along with fit indices: for example, CFI, GFI, and TLI, are some incremental fit indices, which should be greater than .90 for a goodness of fit model, while RMSEA and RMSR should be less than .06/.08 respectively for a goodness of fit model. Moreover, a non-significant chi-square value in path analysis indicated the goodness of fit model. The chi-square value is no longer zero and can be used to evaluate model fit. Having a positive DF, hence providing informative values of the fit indices, allowed me to better evaluate how well the model fits. The specific coefficient estimates from this model are generally interpreted accordingly, following the illustrated model displayed in Figure 4.2 below.



**Figure 4.2: The Re-specified Demandingness-Responsiveness Dimensions of Parenting Style-TEI-Adjustment Model**

**The above Path model 4.2 contains the following variables**

**Observed, endogenous variables**

Adjustment and TEI

**Observed, exogenous variables**

Parental responsiveness and Parental demandingness

**Unobserved, exogenous variables**

e1 and e2

**Variable counts (Group number 1)**

Number of variables in the model: 6

Number of observed variables: 4

Number of unobserved variables: 2

Number of exogenous variables: 4

Number of endogenous variables: 2

**Computation of degrees of freedom (Default model)**

Number of distinct sample moments: 10

Number of distinct parameters to be estimated: 9

DF (10-9): 1

### Result (Default model)

Chi-square=1.725, DF = 1, and probability level =.189

#### 4.3.5 Model fit summary using fit index parameters

In reporting path analyses it is a good idea to report multiple-fit indexes, the fit-index parameters discussed here are good choices to report as they examine fit in different but related ways. Generally, results following the modified model can be summarised in the following manner:

- **Chi-square**– the non-significant chi-square indicates that the fit between the over-identified model and the data is significantly better than the fit between the just-identified model and the data. While one might argue that non-significance ( $p>.05$ ) of this chi-square indicates that the reduced model fits the data well.
- Another method of evaluating the fit of the model is to look at the Minimum Discrepancy (**CMIN**) – it is a chi-square statistic comparing the tested model and the independence model to the saturated model. CMIN is an index of how much the fit of data to the model has been reduced by dropping one or more paths. One rule of thumb is to decide to drop too many paths if this index exceeds 2 or 3; but in this model (Figure 4.2) the CMIN index is less than 2, so there is no need to drop many paths. For the details see addendum ‘P’.
- The **RMSR**– is an index of the amount by which the estimated model variances and covariances differ from the observed variances and covariances. Smaller is better. The recommended value of RMSR is  $\leq .08$  (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Therefore, a value of .003 indicates an adequate fit. Addendum ‘P’ verifies the result.
- The other fit index is the **GFI** – this tells us what proportion of the variance in the sample variance covariance matrix is accounted for by the model. This should exceed .9 for a good model. For the over-identified model it was .998; therefore it approached a perfect fit and the result is displayed well in the addendum attached ‘P’.
- The other fit index parameter is the **NFI** –which is simply the difference between the two models’ chi-squares divided by the chi-square for the independence model. For this data, that is .996. Values of .9 or higher indicate good fit. Hence in this case there seems a perfect fit. Addendum ‘P’ gives a proof of it.

- Another method of evaluating the fit of the model is to look at the **CFI** – this is equal to the discrepancy function, adjusted for sample size. Acceptable model fit is indicated by a CFI value of .90 or greater (Hu & Bentler, 1999). In the over-identified model above its CFI value is .998; therefore, it is closer to 1 which is the best fit. Its output is displayed in the addendum 'P'.
- The other fit index parameter is **RMSEA** – an acceptable model fit is indicated by an RMSEA value of .06 or less (Hu & Bentler, 1999). In the above model (Figure 4.2), the RMSEA value is .040 so that it indicates a good fit to the empirical data (this is very small and is indicative of a good fitting model; the result is located at addendum 'P').

As may be noticed from those indices displayed above, model 4.2 fully satisfies all the index requirements; hence, the model is a fit one. As a consequence, re-specification of this model was unnecessary. Given the information from all above fit indexes, we can conclude that our hypothesized path model is reasonable.

Generally, the fit indices and model comparison revealed that the re-specified model which was designated on the baseline model showed a good overall fit to the empirical data, with  $\chi^2(1) = 1.725$ ,  $p > .189$ , NFI = .996, CFI = .998, RMSEA = .04, whereas the base line model displayed rather misfits, with  $\chi^2(0) = .000$ ,  $*p < .000$ , NFI = 1.00, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .414. This implies that the two models have different fitness levels, indicating that undertaking modification on the base line model to obtain the model to fit the empirical data was a logical step, which in turn, could be useful to replicate the findings in future research.

While interpreting the re-specified path model 4.2, parental demandingness had only a statistically significant direct effect on adjustment ( $\beta = .055$ ,  $*p < .05$ ). Nevertheless, parental responsiveness had a direct, positive statistically significant effect on TEI (standardised,  $\beta = .411$ ,  $*p < .05$ ), had a statistically significant direct ( $\beta = .196$ ,  $*p < .05$ ) and indirect ( $\beta = .176$ ,  $*p < .05$ ) effects on adjustment. In addition, TEI had a statistically significant, positive and direct effect on adjustment ( $\beta = .428$ ,  $*p < .05$ ). This, in turn, implies that first year university students who perceive their maternal and paternal figures as loving, responsive, involved, displaying warmth, acceptance, and closeness as measured using the responsiveness scale, were found to have significantly higher self-perceptions on their emotional abilities, skills, and personality characteristics. These, in turn, influence their ability to cope more successfully with environmental demands and pressures inherent at university than their counter parts.

Generally, from the above Path model 4.2 one can infer that adjustment is a function of parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, and TEI. When comparisons of the strength of the paths from the predictors (parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, and TEI) to the endogenous (adjustment) were taken into account, the path from TEI to adjustment was stronger, followed by the path from parental responsiveness and demandingness to adjustment. However, parental responsiveness is a strong predictor and has a relatively stronger effect on the TEI development than was the case for adjustment (see also the path diagram of Figure 4.2). This result indicates that there was a significant direct effect between TEI and adjustment, and between parental responsiveness and adjustment, which potentially confirms that the adjustment scale is able to explain the relationship between parenting dimension/style and TEI.

Having tested the model fit index and ensuring that the path model 4.2 is quite adequately fit to the data, the next section presents the multiple regression analysis examining the predictive effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable, which in turn, paves the way to undertaking mediation analysis.

#### **4.4 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS**

In the previous section, the path analysis was carried out to check if the data was fit with the parent-TEI-adjustment path model using the absolute fit index measures. In the path analysis model designation, model 4.1 contained parental responsiveness and demandingness as exogenous variables, while the path draws in to the endogenous–mediator variable (TEI) and to the predicted endogenous variables (adjustment). Moreover, there were circles with an arrow pointing to the dependent variables (TEI and adjustment), known as the disturbances/error terms. Thereafter, path model 4.1 was checked using absolute fit parameters; in doing so, the model left me with a zero degree of freedom, a zero chi-square value, and a probability which could not be computed. In addition, the RMSEA value was not in the recommended range of  $\leq .06$  (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Therefore, the path model 4.1 was not fitted well to the empirical data so that there was a need to re-specify it, based on knowledge of the variables. Hence, the paths from parental demandingness to TEI were omitted and the model was checked using the absolute fit index parameters. As a consequence, path model 4.2 was fitted against the absolute fit index parameters explained above (section 4.3.5). In this section, multiple regression is conducted in order to answer the research questions, which, in turn, paved the path to undertake mediation analysis. But, before



conducting the multiple regression analysis, several main assumptions were considered and examined in order to ensure that the multiple regression analysis was appropriate: (1) outliers, (2) normality and linearity and (3) multicollinearity were all checked. There was no problem related to outliers, the data was normally distributed, there was linearity of relationship, and multicollinearity did not exist in the study because no correlation coefficient values of the studied variables were above .8 (see Table 4.13). Once the assumptions were met, a multiple regression analysis was undertaken and reported in this section, after which mediation followed. The multiple regression was carried out using:

- Parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, and TEI, all interactions accounted for as predictors, and
- The variable adjustment was considered as a criterion (outcome) variable.

#### 4.4.1 Explaining the predictive effect of parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, and TEI on adjustment

In this section, multiple regression analysis is conducted to test the predictive effect of the three variables combined (TEI, parental demandingness, and parental responsiveness) on adjustment. The results are displayed in Table 4.14 below.

**Table 4.14: Results of the Regression Analysis: TEI, Parental Demandingness, and Parental Responsiveness served as the Predictor Variables and Adjustment as the Predicted Variable**

Model	R	RS	ARS	SE	Change Statistics		
					RSC	F-Change	Sig. F-Change
1	.565 <sup>a</sup>	.319	.315	.32983	.319	71.943	.000***

a. Predictors: (constant), TEI, parental demandingness, parental responsiveness

b. Dependent variable: Adjustment

\* Significant at the .05 level

The results from the model summary in Table 4.14 reveal that the RS is found to be .319, indicating that 31.9 % of the variance in adjustment is explained by the three variables (TEI, parental demandingness, and parental responsiveness). Therefore, the three predictor variables combined explained 31.9 percent of the variance in the dependent variable of adjustment. In

Table 4.14, it should be noted that the F-statistic (71.943) was also significant at  $*p < .05$  level, implying that the variance explained was also statistically significant. The F-value of 71.943 shows that it is very unlikely that the results were computed by chance, and was highly significant ( $*p < .05$ ). Thus, it could be argued that the results could be interpreted as significantly improving our ability to predict the outcome variable. Next, the adjustment of the relative standardised beta weight ( $\beta$ ) values of the three predictor variables on the dependent variable is reported in Table 4.15.

**Table 4.15: Regression Weights/Coefficients for the Predictor Variables**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		$\beta$	SE	$\beta$		
1	(Constant)	1.125	.164		6.845	.000***
	Parental demandingness	.040	.036	.054	1.117	.264
	Parental responsiveness	.135	.035	.195	3.827	.000***
	TEI	.504	.050	.428	10.116	.000***

a. Dependent variable: adjustment

\* Significant at the .05 level

From Table 4.15 it should be noted that the standardised beta coefficient for parental demandingness was not found to achieve statistical significance at the .05 alpha level ( $\beta = .054$ ,  $p > .05$ ) whereas parental responsiveness was found to achieve a statistical significance ( $\beta = .195$ ,  $*p < .05$ ), and TEI was confirming a statistically significant value ( $\beta = .428$ ,  $*p < .05$ ). This indicated that except for the variable parental demandingness, parental responsiveness, and TEI had significant effects on the outcome variable (adjustment). Specifically, this result indicates that a one unit increase in parental responsiveness is associated with a .195 unit increase in adjustment while a unit increase in TEI is associated with a .428 unit increase in adjustment. From the regression analysis, it is indicated that the beta coefficients ( $\beta$ ) for the predictor variables on the predicted variables are shown to be positively and statistically significant at the .05 level of the variable. After regression analysis and get valuable information, then mediation follows.

## 4.5 MEDIATION ANALYSIS

In section 4.4.1 the combined predictive effect of parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, and TEI on adjustment when these variables were entered together, and their respective weight/coefficient on adjustment, were discussed. The result showed that all three variables combined predicted 31.9 percent of the variance on the dependent variable of adjustment, indicating that these three variables are strong predictors for students' university adjustment. When their beta weights are taken into account, parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, and TEI respectively account for ( $\beta = .195$ ,  $\beta = .054$ , and  $\beta = .428$ ). While parental demandingness was entered into a regression model together with parental responsiveness and TEI, its regression weight was not very small *per se* when compared to the other two predictors, but it also had no statistically significant effect on the predicted variable adjustment at (.05). Once again, in the path analysis (section 4.3.4) the path from parental demandingness to TEI was omitted since in path model 4.1 unless the path from parental demandingness to TEI is deleted the model was not fit against the absolute fit index parameters. On the contrary, all four variables had statistically significant correlations at (.05) level though parental demandingness had a weak correlation with TEI and adjustment respectively, with values of (.295 and .300) as compared to the correlation value which parental responsiveness had with TEI and adjustment respectively (.411 and .404), see Table 4.13). Due to the above facts, it seems pretty controversial to undertake mediation analysis using parental demandingness. On the other hand, it is also a premature decision to drop mediation analysis using parental demandingness as a predictor and TEI as a mediator between parental demandingness and adjustment. It was decided instead to carry out a series of regression analyses between parental demandingness and TEI (mediator), and parental demandingness and adjustment (predicted) and see if the outcome was more accommodative and logical. In relation to this, Baron and Kenny (1986) suggested in their guidelines that to establish mediation, a series of regression analyses must be performed. Based on this, it is essential to consider whether parental demandingness affects the adjustment through the mediator TEI by using subsequent multiple regression analysis. In a basic mediation analysis an independent variable is hypothesised to influence a mediator which, in turn, influences the dependent variable. To this effect, Baron and Kenny (1986) indicated that there must be a significant relationship between the predictors and the dependent variable before testing for a mediating effect. This was adequately checked (see Table 4.13).

After significant correlations have been established among the variables considered, as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), mediation is generally present when the requirements of four steps are met, in the following order:

- The first condition is that the predictor variable (parental demandingness and parental responsiveness separately) must be significantly correlated with the presumed mediating variable (TEI).
- The second condition of mediation is that the predictor variable (parental demandingness and parental responsiveness separately) must be significantly correlated with the dependent variable or criterion (adjustment).
- The third condition is that the mediating variable (TEI) is significantly correlated with the dependent variable or criterion (adjustment).
- The fourth condition states that when mediating variable (TEI) is controlled, the coefficient of correlation between the predictors (parental demandingness and the predicted variable (adjustment) and parental responsiveness and the predicted variable (adjustment) is reduced. In the case of full mediation, the independent variable must no longer significantly predict the dependent variable when the mediator is controlled; hence the path from the independent to the dependent variable must be zero. Whereas, in the case of partial mediation, the path from the independent to the dependent variable is reduced in absolute size, but still different from zero when the mediator is controlled.

Using those (the above) steps, the following two mediation analyses together with the regression analysis are discussed in the following order:

- The mediation effect of TEI on the relationship between parental responsiveness and adjustment.
- The mediation effect of TEI in the relationship between parental demandingness and adjustment.

#### **4.5.1 TEI mediates the relationship between parental responsiveness and adjustment**

To answer this question as has been suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), a mediation effect is generally present when the requirements of the four steps, in order, can be met. Basically, the first three conditions were met (tested) through the Pearson-correlation analysis conducted

(see Table, 4.13). Nonetheless, to explore whether the TEI fully mediates the relationship between parental responsiveness and adjustment or only partially, a series of multiple regression analyses must be conducted. To check the above situation thoroughly, a series of regression analyses as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), was undertaken and results depicted below in Tables 4.16-4.19.

**Regression analysis I: Explaining the predictive effect of parental responsiveness on TEI**

One of the prerequisites for mediation as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), the predictor variable significantly affects the mediator. Based on this, therefore, multiple regression analysis is employed to test the predictive effect of parental responsiveness on the presumed mediator TEI; Table 4.16 reports the result.

**Table 4.16: The Predictive Effect of Parental Responsiveness on TEI (Regression Weights/ Coefficients)**

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		$\beta$	SE	$\beta$		
1	(Constant)	2.455	.096		25.455	.000***
	Parental responsiveness	.240	.025	.411	9.680	.000***

a. Dependent variable: TEI

\* Significant at the .05 level

From the regression analysis Table 4.16, it may be understood that the relationship between the independent and dependent variables was statistically significant at ( $*p < .05$ ). The value of parental responsiveness standardised was ( $\beta = .411$ ,  $*p < .05$ ) indicating that parental responsiveness positively contributes to TEI. Specifically, this result indicates that: a one-unit increase in parental responsiveness was associated with a .411 unit increase in TEI, suggesting that a relationship between parental responsiveness and TEI was supported, as this result achieves statistical significance. Next, the predicative effect of parental responsiveness on adjustment is discussed.

## Regression Analysis II: Explaining the predictive effect of parental responsiveness on adjustment

Table 4.16 confirmed that parental responsiveness had a positive direct effect on TEI; this meets the demands of the first suggestion given by Baron and Kenny (1986). In this section, their suggestion was that the predictor must significantly influence the outcome variable. In order to test this, a multiple regression analysis was executed taking parental responsiveness as the predictor and adjustment as the predicted variable; Table 4.17 discloses this result.

**Table 4.17: Results of the Predictive Effect of Parental Responsiveness on Adjustment (Regression Weights/Coefficients)**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		$\beta$	SE	$\beta$		
1	(Constant)	2.414	.114		21.176	.000***
	Parental responsiveness	.279	.029	.404	9.501	.000***

a. Dependent variable: adjustment

\* Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.17 reported that the coefficient for parental responsiveness was found to achieve statistical significance at the .05 alpha level ( $\beta = .404$ ), indicating that there is a significant positive relationship between the predictor (parental responsiveness) and outcome variable (adjustment). The following section focuses on explaining the predictive effect of TEI on adjustment.

## Regression Analysis III: Explaining the predictive effect of TEI on adjustment

As noted in Table 4.17, the multiple regression analysis was executed in between parental responsiveness and adjustment. Thus, the second suggestion given by Baron and Kenny (1986) was satisfied. In this section, attention is paid to testing the third suggestion by Baron and Kenny (1986) who stated that the presumed mediator variable must significantly influence the predicted variable. In order to assess this, a multiple regression analysis is executed taking TEI as the predictor and adjustment as the predicted variable, where Table 4.18 records this result.

**Table 4.18: Results of the Predictive Effect of TEI on Adjustment (Regression Weights/ Coefficients)**

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$		
(Constant)	1.400	.159		8.829	.000***
1 TEI	.617	.047	.524	13.220	.000***

a. Dependent variable: adjustment

\* Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.18 depicts that the coefficient for TEI was found to achieve statistical significance at the .05 alpha level ( $\beta = .524$ ), indicating that there is a significant relationship between the predictor (TEI) and outcome variable (adjustment). Specifically, this result makes it clear that a one-unit increase in TEI was associated with a .524 unit increase in adjustment.

To conclude, parental responsiveness significantly influences both TEI and adjustment, and TEI significantly predicts/influences adjustment (see Table 4.16-4.18), which confirmed steps 1-3 of Baron and Kenny's (1986) recommendation. Therefore, the next phase was to examine step 4, which would testify whether there is partial or full mediation of TEI on the relation between parental responsiveness and adjustment. This will be discussed in the regression analysis section IV.

**Regression Analysis IV: Explaining the mediating effect of TEI, when parental responsiveness and TEI were entering in a stepwise respectively as a predictor and a mediator variable in explaining adjustment**

At this point, step 4 would be tested if statistical significance was in fact found. Here, the mediator (TEI) and the predictor (parental responsiveness) were both included as independent variables in the analysis, while the outcome variable (adjustment) was included as the dependent variable. In other words, simultaneous entry, rather than hierarchical entry, was employed. This would then serve to determine whether partial or full mediation is present. Table 4.19 below presents the result.

**Table 4.19: Regression Weights/Coefficients for Predictor and Mediator Variables Regressed on Adjustment**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		$\beta$	SE	$\beta$		
1	(Constant)	1.400	.159		8.829	.000***
	TEI	.617	.047	.524	13.220	.000***
2	(Constant)	1.169	.160		7.315	.000***
	TEI	.507	.050	.430	10.201	.000***
	Parental responsiveness	.157	.029	.228	5.392	.000***

a. Dependent variable: Adjustment

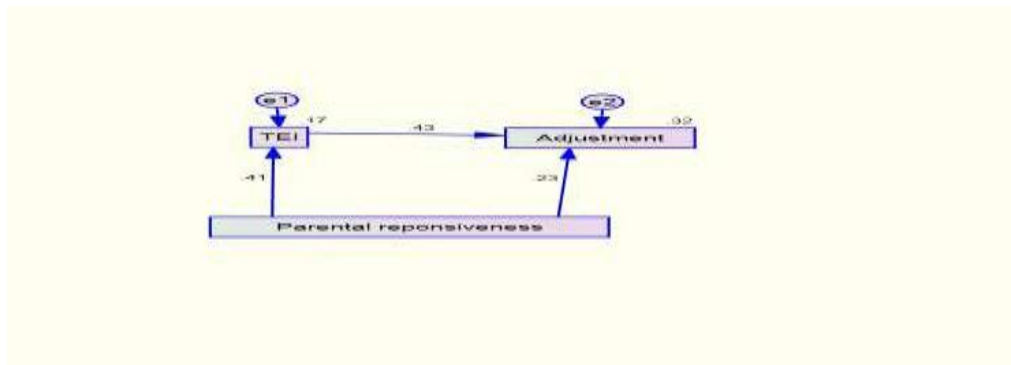
\* Significant at the .05 level

The results in Table 4.19 report mediation analysis. In the above Table, the effect of parental responsiveness on adjustment when TEI is controlled is disclosed so that comparison is possible regarding the effect of parental responsiveness on adjustment when TEI is not controlled in (Table 4.17). Thus, if the path from parental responsiveness to adjustment was reduced to zero while TEI was controlled in (Table 4.19), this provides strong evidence for full mediation. However, in this thesis, the effect of parental responsiveness on adjustment while TEI was controlled, showed a significant reduction effect from ( $\beta = .404$  not controlled to  $\beta = .228$  controlled) but was never reduced to zero, implying that there is a partial mediation in this thesis. That is, the residual path from parental responsiveness to adjustment was not zero, which suggests that multiple mediating factors may be operating. Therefore, in this case when the effect of parental responsiveness on adjustment (when TEI is controlled as it is in Table 4.19, and when TEI is not controlled in Table 4.17 above) was compared, the path from parental responsiveness to adjustment was not reduced to zero and it was significant; therefore, TEI only partially mediating the relationship between parental responsiveness and adjustment.

As can be noted in Table 4.19, parental responsiveness had significant and positive effects on the adjustment to university ( $\beta = .228, *p < .05$ ). Specifically, first year university students who perceive their maternal and paternal figures as loving, responsive, involved, warm, accepting and close, as measured using the responsiveness scale, were found to significantly adjust successfully to university demands and pressures inherent at university. The coefficient for



TEI was also found to achieve statistical significance at the .05 alpha level ( $\beta = .430$ ), indicating that there is a significant relationship between TEI and adjustment. This demonstrated that such students who have higher self-perceptions of their emotional abilities, skills, and personality characteristics reported their significantly higher adjustment to university life. The paths depicting the mediation effect are illustrated in Figure 4.3 below.



**Figure 4.3: The Parental Responsiveness-TEI-Adjustment Paths (Standardized) depicting Mediation**

#### **4.5.2 TEI mediates the relationship between parental demandingness and adjustment**

In section 4.5.1 it was observed how TEI partially mediates the relationship between parental responsiveness and adjustment. In this section, emphasis is placed on checking the mediation effect of TEI between parental demandingness and adjustment when these variables are entered simultaneously. Once more, to establish mediation, a series of regression analyses are performed following the guidelines proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986). Similar steps to those in section 4.5.1 were implemented. Prior to using multiple regression techniques, Pearson correlations among those variables under consideration were examined. These were adequately tested (see Table 4.13); i.e. there were significant positive correlations among parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, TEI and adjustment. Nonetheless, to explore whether the TEI fully or only partially mediates the relationship between parental demandingness and adjustment, four series of multiple regression analyses advocated by Baron and Kenny (1986) are implemented below.

## Regression Analysis I: Explaining the predictive effect of parental demandingness on TEI

To reiterate, as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), one of the prerequisites for mediation is that the predictor variable must have a significant effect on the presumed mediator variable. In order to test this, a multiple regression analysis is executed taking parental demandingness as the predictor and TEI as the predicted variable, which opens the way to establishing possible mediation; Table 4.20 reports the result.

**Table 4.20: Results of the Predictive Effect of Parental Demandingness on TEI  
(Regression Weights/Coefficients)**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		$\beta$	SE	$\beta$		
1	(Constant)	2.734	.098		27.835	.000***
	Parental demandingness	.185	.028	.295	6.643	.000***

a. Dependent variable: TEI

\* Significant at the .05 level

From the regression analysis, it is indicated that the beta coefficient ( $\beta$ ) of parental demandingness is shown to be in a positively and statistically significant relationship with TEI at the .05 level. The coefficient associated with TEI ( $\beta = .295$ , \*  $p < .05$ ) indicates that parental demandingness significantly predicts TEI. Specifically, this result shows that a one-unit increase in parental demandingness was associated with a .295 unit increase in TEI. In the following section, the effect of parental demandingness on adjustment is discussed.

## Regression Analysis II: Explaining the predictive effect of parental demandingness on adjustment

As recorded in Table 4.20, the multiple regression analysis was executed in between parental demandingness and TEI, where the result indicates that parental demandingness had a positive direct effect on TEI. Thus, the first step proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) was satisfied. In this section, following these authors' suggestion (1986) for a mediation analysis, the predictor must significantly influence the predicted variable. In order to test this, a multiple regression

analysis is executed considering parental demandingness as the predictor and adjustment as the predicted variable. Table 4.21 records this result.

**Table 4.21: Results of the Predictive Effect of Parental Demandingness on Adjustment (Regression Weights/Coefficients)**

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		$\beta$	SE	$\beta$		
1	(Constant)	2.713	.116		23.480	.000***
	Parental demandingness	.222	.033	.300	6.766	.000***

a. Dependent variable: adjustment

\* Significant at the .05 level

From the regression analysis, it is evident that the beta coefficient ( $\beta$ ) is shown to be positively and statistically significant at the .05 level of the variable. The coefficient associated with parental demandingness ( $\beta = 0.33$ ,  $*p < .05$ ) indicates that parental demandingness significantly predicts adjustment. In the following section, the effect of TEI on adjustment is discussed.

### **Regression Analysis III: Explaining the predictive effect of TEI on adjustment**

As indicated in Table 4.21, the multiple regression analysis was executed in between parental demandingness and adjustment, the result indicates that parental demandingness had a positive direct effect on adjustment. Accordingly, the second suggestion by Baron and Kenny (1986) was confirmed. In this section, their third suggestion for a mediation analysis is assessed: the presumed mediator variable must significantly influence the predicted variable. In order to test this, a multiple regression analysis was executed taking account of TEI as the predictor and adjustment as the predicted variable. Refer to Table 4.22 for this result.

**Table 4.22: Results of the Predictive Effect of TEI on Adjustment (Regression Weights /Coefficients)**

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$		
(Constant)	1.400	.159		8.829	.000***
<sup>1</sup> TEI	.617	.047	.524	13.220	.000***

a. Dependent variable: adjustment

\*Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.22 makes it evident that the coefficient for TEI was found to achieve statistical significance at the .05 alpha level ( $\beta = .524$ ), indicating that there is a significant relationship between the predictor (TEI) and outcome variable (adjustment). Specifically, this result points out that a one-unit increase in TEI was associated with a .524 unit increase in adjustment.

To sum up, parental demandingness significantly influences both TEI and adjustment, and TEI significantly predicts/influences adjustment (see Table 4.20 to 4.22), which confirms steps 1-3 of Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation recommendation. Therefore, the next step is to examine step 4, which will affirm whether there is partial or full mediation of TEI in the relation between parental demandingness and adjustment, and is presented in the regression analysis section IV.

**Regression Analysis IV: Explaining the mediating effect of TEI, when parental demandingness and TEI were entering a stepwise as a predictor and mediator variable in explaining adjustment**

Step 4 is tested if statistical significance was in fact found. Here, the mediator (TEI) and the predictor (parental demandingness) were both included as independent variables in the analysis, while adjustment was included as a dependent variable. In other words, simultaneous entry, rather than hierarchical entry, of the independent variables was employed. This would then serve to determine whether partial or full mediation is present; the results are presented in Table 4.23 below.

**Table 4.23: Regression Weights/Coefficients for Predictor and Mediator Variables Regressed on Adjustment**

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		$\beta$	SE	$\beta$		
1	(Constant)	1.400	.159		8.829	.000***
	TEI	.617	.047	.524	13.220	.000***
2	(Constant)	1.177	.166		7.078	.000***
	TEI	.562	.048	.477	11.671	.000***
	Parental demandingness	.118	.030	.159	3.904	.000***

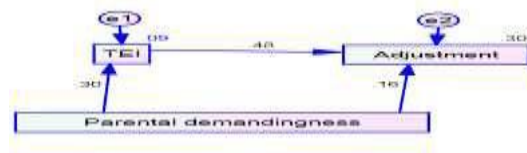
a. Dependent variable: adjustment

\* Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.23 demonstrates the effect of parental demandingness on adjustment when TEI is controlled so that comparison is possible, in relation to the effect of parental demandingness on adjustment when TEI is not controlled in (Table 4.21). Hence, if the path from parental demandingness to adjustment was reduced to zero while TEI was controlled in (Table 4.23), it provides strong evidence for full mediation. But, in Table 4.23, the effect of parental demandingness on adjustment, while TEI was controlled, showed a reduction (from  $\beta=.300$  to  $\beta=.159$ ) effect on the path value, which implies that there is a partial mediation in this thesis. In other words, the path from parental demandingness to adjustment was not zero, indicating that multiple mediating factors may be operating. The analysis confirmed that TEI has a mediating effect on the relationship between parental demandingness and adjustment.

As is evident in Table 4.23, parental demandingness had significant and positive effects on the adjustment to university ( $\beta=.159(.16)$ ,  $*p < .05$ ). Specifically, first year university students who perceive their maternal and paternal figures as strict, demanding, monitoring and firmly controlling, as measured using the demandingness scale, were found to be coping successfully with environmental demands and pressures inherent to university. In addition, the coefficient for TEI was found to achieve statistical significance at the .05 alpha level ( $\beta = .477$ ), indicating that there is a significant relationship between the predictor and outcome variable. This implies that such students who have positive self-perceptions of their emotional abilities, skills, and personality characteristics could adjust successfully to these environmental

demands and pressures. In support of this, Figure 4.4 below displays the path coefficients generated by AMOS which support mediation.



**Figure 4.4 The Parental Demandingness-TEI-Adjustment Paths (Standardised) Depicting Mediation**

#### 4.6 CONCLUSION

This section presents the general picture as well as the implications of the results section. To begin with, data collected from respondents for the main study was tested for outliers and normality using statistical techniques. In order to test for outliers, observing outliers from a box plot showed that all outliers were mild and could be retained to ascertain if they could be generalized. By reviewing the PP-plot and the result from skewness and kurtosis it was concluded that data was normal at a univariate level. Moreover, multicollinearity was also checked. Subsequently, the main data were analysed using percentages, bivariate correlation, one-way ANOVA, independent sample T-test, path analysis, multiple regression, and mediation.

For instance, utilising a percentage analysis, demographics of the participants based on gender, residence, parental income, and parental education were provided. In addition, the parenting style predominantly adopted by the families of Ethiopia was analysed using percentages. From this it was evident that a neglectful parenting style is dominant in Ethiopian households, followed closely by an authoritative one. However, the most predominantly practiced parenting style appeared different in relation to the gender of the first year university students.

Furthermore, the Cronbach's alpha values of the constructs and sub-constructs and internal

consistency reliability were verified. With internal consistency, reliability of all construct scores (TEI, student adjustment, parental responsiveness and demandingness) was calculated. This approach would ensure that analysis results were manageable in this thesis.

Next, differences in TEI and adjustment as a function of parenting style were examined using one way ANOVA, and the result indicated that a statistically significant TEI and adjustment means score difference were found among the four parenting style categories. To identify which parenting style TEI and adjustment means differ from other parenting style TEI and adjustment means, multiple comparisons of means tests (Tukey's test) were conducted on the TEI and adjustment means scores calculated for the four parenting style groups.

Moreover, an independent sample T-test was employed to examine whether the dependent variables (TEI and adjustment) were statistically significantly different in terms of the gender of the research participants. In this regard, there was a statistically significant difference in TEI score between male and female first year university students  $t(436.897) = .350, *p < .05$ , homogeneity of variance not assumed). Nevertheless, no statistically significant adjustment to university score was noted between these groups of students  $t(462) = -1.217, p > .05$ , homogeneity of variance assumed).

Thereafter, to prepare the way for path analysis, multiple regression analysis, and mediation analysis, correlation analysis was executed among the major variables under consideration. The results showed that major study variables were positively significantly correlated to one another. Their correlation matrix indicates that multicollinearity between variables to be included in the path analysis does not exist; once again the signs between variables are all positive and thus in the predicted direction to conduct path analysis.

After this, a path diagram was designated using all the necessary inputs taken into account and the results were derived using AMOS. Basically, this model was a just-identified one with no degree of freedom, chi-square had a zero value, and probability could not be computed. In addition, the overall model fit was determined among others using RMSEA, RMSR, CFI, NFI, GFI, and TLI. Using those parameters, the base-line model partially satisfies some requirements but not all: therefore, the model was not a fit one to the empirical data. Thereby, a decision to re-specify the model was mandatory. Therefore, deleting or freeing one or more of the paths until it was possible to obtain an over-identified model was necessary. In the second model, modification involves by beginning to free a parameter that was fixed.

Accordingly, in the second analysis the direct effect of parental demandingness on TEI was deleted. In doing so, fortunately the model for the second analysis was then an over-identified one: with a positive degree of freedom, non-significant chi-square value, along with other fit indices, such as CFI, GFI, NFI and TLI, being greater than .90 while RMSEA was less than .06.

Next, the multiple regression analysis was executed using parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, and TEI: all interactions served as predictors while the variable adjustment served as the predicted variable. TEI interacted with parental responsiveness and parental demandingness explain 31.9 percent of the variance on the dependent variable (adjustment). After the discussion on regression analysis, a mediation analysis followed. To undergo mediation, Pearson-correlation analysis and series of regression analyses were tested. To explore whether TEI fully mediates the relationship between parental responsiveness and adjustment or only partially, a series of multiple regression analyses were conducted first, using parental responsiveness as an independent variable, TEI as a mediator variable and adjustment as a dependent variable and followed by parental demandingness as an independent variable, TEI as a mediator variable and adjustment as a dependent variable. The overall results revealed that TEI plays a mediation role, but only partially, in the parental demandingness and adjustment relationship, as well as in the parental responsiveness and adjustment relationship which confirms potentially that the adjustment scale is able to explain the relationship between demandingness and responsiveness dimension-variables of parenting style and TEI.



## **CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION**

This chapter provides a discussion related to the results obtained in the data analysis section of Chapter Four. The aim of that chapter was to empirically examine the variables under consideration, whereas this chapter aims to discuss the results of the analysis in line with the previous findings related to the objectives of the study. It will be recalled that the central aims /goals of the present study were twofold: To research the mediated effect of TEI on the relationship between parenting style/dimension and first year students' university adjustment and to develop an explanatory theory that associates parenting style/dimensions with TEI and adjustment of these students in Ethiopia.

The chapter begins with a discussion of predominant Ethiopian parenting styles. This is followed by a discussion relating to whether parenting style influences TEI and adjustment. The influence of gender on TEI and adjustment is discussed next. After that, path analysis and multiple regression analysis results are addressed and, finally, the mediating effect of TEI on the relationship between parental responsiveness and the demandingness dimension-variables of parenting style and adjustment is considered.

### **5.1 THE PREDOMINANTLY PRACTICED PARENTING STYLES IN ETHIOPIA**

The study revealed that a neglectful parenting style was found to be the most commonly practiced style, followed by an authoritative one. In addition, it was found that all four parenting styles were reported by the participants. However, different parenting styles were established for males and females. More specifically, parents were perceived by males to use a neglectful (neither demanding nor responsive) parenting style, followed by an authoritative (responsive and demanding) parenting style. On the other hand, parents were rated by females as using an authoritative (responsive and demanding) parenting style, followed by a neglectful (neither demanding nor responsive) parenting style. The types of parenting style predominately practiced at household level as well as the different parenting practices for females and males in Ethiopia may appear controversial. For instance, the finding in this research that a neglectful parenting style is the most predominantly practiced parenting style contradicts the results of some previous studies conducted in Ethiopia. In this regard, an authoritarian style was reported in some studies as being the predominantly employed one (Habtamu, 1995). In other studies it was found that the authoritative type of parenting style

was predominantly practiced in the families of Ethiopia (Seleshi, 1998; Seleshi & Sentayehu, 1998; Yekoyealem, 2005).

However, findings from this research provide compelling reasons that point to a neglectful parenting style as the predominant parenting practice in the Ethiopian households. First, as indicated in the analysis section of the socio-demographics, 51.7 % of the respondents resided in the rural part of Ethiopia whereas 48.3% of the respondents lived in the urban areas. Secondly, in the analysis of socio-demographics, almost 30.63% of the respondents' parents earn an average monthly income below <1000 Ethiopian birr. It was also revealed that the majority of first year university students had fathers and mothers who received no formal education respectively (37.9%, 46.4%). Deduced from those facts, first year Ethiopian students mostly came from poor families and parents with (mostly) limited educational exposure and the majority of first year university students were from the rural parts of Ethiopia. These factors might affect the parenting styles these parents exhibit to their children. Therefore, it might not surprise one that many of the Ethiopian parents practice a neglectful parenting style.

However, the finding that parenting style differs as a function of the gender of the children is in agreement with previous research undertaken in Ethiopia using a sample of high school students (Kassahun, 2005), which demonstrated that an authoritative parenting style was the most commonly adopted one for daughters, whereas a neglectful one was the predominant style of parenting for sons. Moreover, the present findings are to some extent in agreement with the sample of a previous international study which demonstrated that parenting style differs, depending upon the children's gender; for instance, in comparison with boys, females are more often and better supervised by parents than their male peers are (Maggio & Zappulla, 2014). Overall, this different treatment of sons and daughters is not unique to Ethiopia but applicable to other researches in other countries as well.

A likely reason for the predominance of the different parenting styles for sons and daughters could result from the fact that their dissimilar behavioural characteristics as a function of their gender may have caused parents to employ different parenting styles. In this regard, previous

studies conducted in Ethiopia (Seleshi, 1998; Seleshi & Sentayehu, 1998), revealed that male students in junior secondary schools recorded significantly higher levels of problem behaviours than their female counterparts. Perhaps this might be a reason why parents are neglectful of their sons or because their sons may have shown behavioural characteristics not accepted by their parents, which in turn, places limits on maintaining parental authority.

From the above discussion the following can be deduced: that although the present finding and that of Kassahun (2005) are in agreement that a neglectful parenting style is predominantly practiced for males, drawing such a conclusion is controversial. Previous studies in Ethiopia (Seleshi, 1998; Seleshi & Sentayehu, 1998) have revealed that parents attach very high values to their children in the hope that they will provide social, economic, and psychological support for their parents, especially when they become older. In consequence, their research underscores that it is unlikely that a neglectful parenting style is practiced by the Ethiopian parents for their sons. Therefore, there is a need to undertake further research in the area under consideration.

Generally, the findings of this study identified that although parenting style differs according to the children's gender and the predominately parenting style practiced in the Ethiopian households is the neglectful one, followed very closely by the authoritative one, when examined critically, Ethiopian parents do employ all four types of parenting styles. However, the other studies conducted so far do not provide clear evidence to conclude which parenting style (i.e., authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, or neglectful) is most commonly adopted in the families of Ethiopia. This calls for a further study.

Unexpected results sometimes appear and this research is no exception. For instance, as mentioned, in the study by Garcia and Gracia (2009), undertaken with 1,416 Spanish adolescents aged 12 to 17 years old, it was expected that authoritative parenting was being practiced (e.g. Keshavarz & Baharudin, 2009). Yet, in the study, adolescents were classified as experiencing all four parenting styles. However, contrary to the said expectation, from the overall results of their study, Garcia and Gracia (2009) showed that most Spanish parents have adopted a permissive parenting style. The next section examines the differences in TEI in relation to parenting style.

## 5.2 TEI AS A FUNCTION OF PERCEIVED PARENTING STYLE

To recapitulate: one of the objectives of this study was establishing whether parenting style influences TEI. In this regard, a statistically significant TEI score difference was found among the four parenting style categories  $F(3; 460; .05) = 2.63$ . The mean scores of the four parenting styles (in Table 4.4 of the analysis section), were  $M = 3.5241$ ,  $M = 3.3422$ ,  $M = 3.4399$ , and  $M = 3.2283$  for authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful parenting styles respectively. The finding that TEI is influenced by parenting style in the present study is consistent with the previous suggestions and results. For instance, parents can play a key role in EI training (Fonte, 2009) because their relationships with their children affect many different aspects of the latter's development, including their range and depth of emotions (Baumarind, 1991; Dornbusch et al., 1987 cited in Sharma & Sahni, 2013). Furthermore, one of the benefits of EI is that it can be acquired, because individuals can learn, develop and improve their EI (Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Harms & Crede, 2010). Therefore, the role parents play in the improvement of children's EI is obvious. In relation to this again, EI is a learned characteristic would be inherent that it can often be expanded and developed by training (Bar-On, 2000); the same findings are reported by (Goleman, 1995, 1998; Kotsou et al., 2011).

In addition, the finding that first year students who reported that their parents were authoritative have high TEI, as compared to those who perceive their parents to be authoritarian, permissive and neglectful, is in agreement with previous research results: that adolescents with high scores for home environment on protectiveness, reward, nurturance, and progressiveness are found to be higher on EI as compared to adolescents with low scores of home environment on these dimensions—and vice versa (Martinez-Pons, 1999; Sharma & Sahni, 2013;).

Furthermore, with consideration to the specific effect of perceived parenting style on TEI, a study was carried out by Herzog et al. (2015) revealed that perceived parenting styles contribute to both emotional regulation and trait emotionality. Consistent with the present research findings, there is evidence of a connection between parenting and children's TEI (Liau et al., 2003). Similarly, Alegre and Benson (2010) found parental availability and control were related to late adolescents' TEI.

Generally, in the present study as well as in the previous ones, results in the relationship between EI/TEI and parenting style, especially concerning authoritativeness, appear positive and informative as well as feasible.

### **5.3 ADJUSTMENT AS A FUNCTION OF PERCEIVED PARENTING STYLE**

In section 5.2 the discussion focused on whether TEI is influenced by parenting style; it was noted that previous research results have been in agreement that this is the case. This section considers 'to what extent the present result that adjustment at university is influenced by parenting style is in agreement with the previous findings.'

In the current research, results indicate that a statistically significant difference on adjustment scores was found among first year university students who reported on the four parenting styles  $F(3; 460; .05) = 2.63$ . The mean scores (in Table 4.4 in the analysis  $M= 3.6328$ ,  $M=3.5227$ ,  $M=3.5192$ , and  $M=3.3113$  respectively) represent the first year students' adjustment mean score for those who rated their parents as authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful. This implies that first year university students who perceive their parents as employing an authoritative parenting style had significantly high adjustment to university; i.e. they were better able to meet the academic, social, personal-emotional and institutional attachment demands at the higher education institution level compared to those who perceived their parents as using authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful parenting styles; hence authoritative parenting was more important for adjustment to university than other parenting styles.

The finding that adjustment to university is influenced by parenting style concurs with previous suggestion and results; for instance, research conducted on parenting styles in relation to adjustment associated with the four styles of parenting using ANOVA, indicating differences in youth adjustment (Kerr et al., 2012), and post hoc tests confirmed that youths with authoritative parents were significantly better adjusted on all measures than those with neglectful parents.

Consistent with the present findings, for example, positive/supportive parenting, characterised by high levels of warmth, democratic discipline and involvement/supervision, are associated with lower levels of adjustment problems in Chinese American youth (Kim & Ge, 2000) as

well as being associated with positive adjustment to college (Schnuck & Handal, 2011). Therefore, one of the recommendations for preventing social problems is the further investigation of parenting style and related factors (Dwairy & Menshar, 2006).

In the present findings, the mean score results showed that first year university students who perceive their parents as authoritative (M= 3.6328) scored higher on adjustment than those who perceive their parents as authoritarian (M=3.5227), indulgent (M=3.5192), and neglectful (M=3.3113). Consistent with this, taking into account of the specific parenting typologies/styles, developmental research demonstrates that authoritative parenting predicts many positive outcomes for children and adolescents when compared with authoritarian, indulgent, and uninvolved parenting (Coplan et al., 2002; Steinberg, 2001). For example, authoritative parenting is related to adolescents' social competence (Garcia & Gracia, 2009; Kazemi et al., 2010; Baumrind, 1991; Lamborn et al., 1991), better academic achievement and socio-emotional competence (Steinberg, 2001; Winter & Yaffe, 2000), and have greater academic adjustment in a college setting (Hickman et al., 2000).

Furthermore, Schnuck and Handal (2011) in their study attempted to establish whether perceived parenting style was related to adjustment as reported by college first year students in their first semester of college. In the study it was discovered that perceived parenting style was associated with different adjustment variables; for example, contrary to the present result, permissive parenting was correlated with negative adjustment and, consistent with the present study, authoritative parenting was correlated with positive adjustment. The reason for this is that in the Tukey result, a statistically significant mean difference in adjustment score was found between those first year university students who perceive their parents as authoritative and those who regard their parents as permissive (.11358),  $p > .05$ .

In particular, the present study was found to be congruent with previous findings that parents have an important role in students' college adjustment; for instance, parents who provide high levels of support contribute greatly in this respect (Mounts, 2004; Mounts et al., 2006). In the methodology section of 3.4.4 of the SACQ, the higher the score on the SACQ the better the adjustment to college. So, in the present study, first year students who perceive their parents as neglectful had lower scores on the adjustment to university than those who perceive their parenting style as authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive.

And this result is consistent with the previous one that parenting style is related to adolescents' adjustment. For both father and mother, a neglectful parenting style plays a relevant and risky role in adolescents' adjustment (Maggio & Zappulla, 2014). In agreement with the present study, adolescents with uninvolved parents are generally less socially competent and present adjustment problems in all domains (Baumrind, 1991) whereas adolescents who have experienced an authoritative parenting style display better psychosocial and behavioural adjustment than those who have experienced the rest of the parenting styles (Beyers & Goossens, 1999).

Overall, it could be possible to generalise that the present result is in agreement with the previous findings that parenting style does have an influence on students' adjustment to university.

#### **5.4 DIFFERENCES IN TEI AND ADJUSTMENT BY GENDER OF THE STUDY PARTICIPANTS**

In section 5.3 the influence of parenting style on students' university adjustment was discussed in line with the previous research findings, and I came to the conclusion that parenting style influences students' university adjustment, and is therefore consistent with most previous research findings. In the following section, emphasis is placed on checking whether a statistically significant mean difference existed in the TEI score and adjustment to the university score by considering the gender of the research participants as a factor.

##### **5.4.1 Gender difference as a function of TEI**

The results indicated, in line with one of the objectives, that there is a statistically significant difference in TEI score between male and female first year university students  $t(436.897) = .350$ ,  $*p < .05$ , homogeneity of variance not assumed. In the results, the TEI mean score for male first year university students was slightly higher ( $M = 3.3826$ ,  $SD = .36288$ ) than that of the female university students in their first year ( $M = 3.3718$ ,  $SD = .29669$ ).

The finding that TEI differs by gender is consistent with some previous ones: for instance, a study on TEI revealed gender differences, but contrary to the present result, girls scored higher than boys (Downey et al., 2008; Mavroveli et al., 2008). Similarly, a study by Mikolajczak et al. (2007) reported that with the exception of the factor well-being, their findings revealed

significant gender differences; i.e. women scored significantly higher on emotionality, whereas men scored significantly higher on self-control and sociability. Again, in agreement with the present result is a study in the global TEI score, in which men's scores were found to be higher than women's (Mikolajczak et al., 2007), which once more is consistent with the finding obtained with the English version of the TEIQue (Petrides & Furnham, 2000).

As with the present study, Yelkikalan et al. (2012) revealed that EI score differs with gender: that men have higher averages in wellbeing, self-control and sociability factors and this difference is statistically significant ( $*p < .01$ ) in the wellbeing and sociability factors. Similarly, research by (Austin et al., 2005; Harrod & Scheer, 2005) discovered that the levels of EI vary depending on the gender, but their research results are different from those of Yelkikalan et al. (2012) in that theirs revealed that female students have an overall higher level of EI in comparison to the male students.

Once more the present finding that TEI differs as a function of gender is inconsistent with a sample of previous findings. For instance, Poulou (2010) underscored that irrespective of the measurement tool used, there were no significant differences between gender and TEI. Similarly, a study by Antoniou et al. (2016) on the relationship between TEI and vocational interests of Greek 10th and 11th grade students indicated that TEI was independent of the demographic variable gender.

To conclude, the influence of gender on TEI as well as on specific scores between males and females on TEI is mixed, though many previous research findings and that of the present one concur that gender has an influence on TEI. It is therefore cautiously concluded that TEI TEIQue scores seem influenced by gender. Overall, further studies on TEI are needed to confirm the different observed results across the present as well as the previous findings.

#### **5.4.2 Gender difference as a function of adjustment level**

The issue of whether gender does influence TEI was reported in the sub-section of 5.4.1 and the present result was to some extent in agreement with many of the previous research findings; however, not with all. This section carried out a discussion on 'to what level is the present result in agreement with the previous ones on whether adjustment score varies with gender.



Gender differences on adjustment score were tested through an independent sample T- test. The T-test did not reveal significant mean differences on adjustment score in between female and male first year university students: the males' adjustment score was ( $M = 3.4674$ ,  $SD = .40854$ ) while females had ( $M = 3.5135$ ,  $SD = .38184$ ). This difference was not significant  $t(462) = -1.217$ ,  $p > .05$ . The finding that adjustment to university life is not significantly different between male and female first year university students in the present study is consistent with previous findings (Clinciu, 2013; Kyalo, 2011; Salami, 2011; Sharma & Kermane, 2015). More importantly, Al-khatib et al. (2012) indicated that adjustment to college life is not based on gender, study level, college or interaction between them. Rather, it was related to other factors such as future anxiety about employment after finishing university, or emotional instability, or other problems related to academic achievement.

Moreover, a study by Wang and Zhang (2015) indicated that there was no significant difference between male and female college students with regard to adaptability. Even when taking into account the moderating effects of gender on the relationship between EI and social adjustment and EI and academic adjustment (Ishak et al., 2011), the result suggested that gender was not an important moderating factor on the relationship between these research variables. On the other hand, contrary to the present study, male students adapted to the new university environment better than their female counterparts (Abdullah et al., 2009; Winter & Yaffe, 2000; Enochs & Roland, 2006) because separation anxiety seemed to affect females more than male students (Raj, 2012); thus, males tend to isolate themselves and escape, whereas females are more likely to seek emotional assistance (Enochs & Roland, 2006), as mentioned earlier.

To conclude, the present research is sufficiently in agreement with almost all the previous findings included in the literature consulted in this thesis: that adjustment is not a function of gender. However, the absence of gender differences in a construct's mean does not signify that there is no individual difference with regard to adjustment to university life.

## **5.5 DISCUSSION ON RESULTS OBTAINED FROM THE PATH MODEL, MULTIPLE REGRESSION, AND MEDIATION**

In the previous discussion sections the dominant parenting styles practiced in the culture of Ethiopia, the influence of parenting style on students' TEI and adjustment at university, and whether TEI and adjustment score vary by gender were presented in order. In this section, the

results of the present findings of the path model, predictive effect of parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, and TEI on the predicted adjustment, and the mediating role of TEI on the relationship between parental responsiveness and adjustment, as well as on the relationship between parental demandingness and adjustment in relation to the previous research results are discussed, in this order.

### **5.5.1 Interpretation of results obtained from the re-specified path model**

The present study sought to test a model where parental responsiveness, parental demandingness and TEI, interactively and individually, relate to adjustment. Here, in this subsection, a discussion is conducted on results obtained from the path model. The analysis of the fit indices in the present study revealed that the re-specified model showed a good overall fit with the empirical data, with  $\chi^2(1) = 1.725, p > .189$ , NFI = .996, CFI = .998, RMSEA = .04, whereas the base line model displayed rather inadequate data fits, with  $\chi^2(0) = .000, *p < .000$ , NFI = 1.00, CFI=1.00, RMSEA=.414. This implies that the re-specified model was significantly different from the baseline model. Thus, the re-specified model included both direct and indirect paths from the independent variables (except the dropping of a direct path from parental demandingness to TEI) to adjustment.

Below, the results derived from the re-specified model (path model 4.2) along with previous findings are noted:

- Parental responsiveness had a direct, positive statistically significant effect on TEI (standardized,  $\beta = .411, *p < .05$ ). This implies that first year university students who perceive their maternal and paternal figures as loving, responsive, involved, warm, accepting and close, as measured using the parental responsiveness sub-scale, were found to have significantly higher self-perceptions of their emotional abilities, skills, and personality characteristics.

The finding that TEI is influenced by parental responsiveness in the present study is consistent with the previous suggestions and results; for instance, children, who reported that their parents modelled, encouraged, facilitated and rewarded emotionally intelligent related behaviour, enjoyed higher degrees of EI (Martinez-Pons, 1999). Alegre (2011) also reported that parental responsiveness, parental emotion-related coaching, and parental positive demandingness are related to children's higher EI whereas parental negative demandingness is

related to children's lower EI. In line with the present research findings, Liao et al. (2003) discovered that parental monitoring and supervision are related to children's TEI, parental availability and control were also related to late adolescents' TEI (Alegre & Benson, 2010).

- In so far as parental responsiveness had a direct, positive statistically significant direct ( $\beta = .196$ ,  $*p < .05$ ) and indirect ( $\beta = .176$ ,  $*p < .05$ ) effect on adjustment, implies that first year university students who perceive their maternal and paternal figures as loving, responsive, involved, warm, accepting and close, as measured using the parental responsiveness sub-scale, were found to cope successfully with environmental demands and pressures inherent at university.

The present finding concurs with the previous finding that positive/supportive parenting, characterised by high levels of warmth, democratic discipline and involvement /supervision, has been reported to be associated with lower levels of adjustment problems in Chinese American youth (Kim & Ge, 2000), positive adjustment to college (Schnuck & Handal, 2011), and socially competent behaviour (Baumrind, 1991; Lamborn et al., 1991). Moreover, Beyers and Goossens (2003) indicated that regardless of students' grade, gender, or perceived parenting style, high levels of independence from parents predicted higher levels of adjustment to university. Similarly, if college students had a high level of independence from parents this could result in a feeling of mutual reciprocity between the parent and a child (Wintre & Yaffe, 2000). The findings of the present study are in line with expectations: it seems that mothers and fathers play important roles in promoting the adjustment of their children (Maggio & Zappulla, 2014).

- Parental demandingness had a statistically significant direct effect on adjustment ( $\beta = .055$ ,  $*p < .05$ ). This implies that first year university students who perceive their maternal and paternal figures as strict, demanding, monitoring and firm controlling, as measured using the parental demandingness sub-scale, were found to be coping successfully with environmental demands and pressures inherent at university.

In agreement with the present result, a study by Maggio and Zappulla (2014) showed that parental strictness/supervision plays the most protective role for boys' adjustment. In the study both fathers and mothers promote this adjustment by monitoring and controlling their children rather than by providing affection and emotional support. This result suggests the importance

of focusing particular attention on the dimension of parental strictness/supervision and on its relationship with adolescents' adjustment.

- TEI had a significant and positive direct effect on adjustment ( $\beta = .44, *p < .05$ ). That is, first year students who reported that they have positive self-perceptions about their emotional abilities, skills, and personality characteristics which influence their ability to cope successfully with environmental demands and pressures were found to have significantly better adjustment experiences at their university.

The present finding that TEI has a direct and indirect effect on adjustment is somewhat consistent with the previous result that a review of literature pertaining to EI shows that, EI skills are strong predictors of a student's adjustment to college (Elias et al., 2007; Parker et al., 2006). Considering the importance of EI to adjustment, individuals who have the capacity to decode, understand, and regulate emotions, interact with other people, and manage relationships had a better social and academic adjustment (Goleman, 1998; Low & Nelson, 2005; Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Again in line with the present results, TEI was related with a host of criteria relating to individuals' social, emotional, and behavioural well-being (Greven et al., 2008; Mikolajczak et al., 2006). For example, in a study by Poulou (2010) on the relationship between TEI and students' emotional and behavioural strengths and difficulties, it was reported that the emotion-related self-perceptions and dispositions included in TEI inventory predicted adolescents' emotional and behavioural strengths and difficulties.

Consonant with the present result, TEI is important for university adjustment primarily because emotional self-efficacy is an important aspect of that construct (Petrides et al., 2007), which would influence how students persevere in the face of academic difficulties and how resilient they are to academic stressors. TEI also impacts successful social adjustment at university (Engelberg & Sjoberg, 2004), and aid adjustment (Christie et al., 2004). Most importantly, TEI is correlated with social competency (Mavroveli et al., 2007), and measures of social adjustment in older adolescents and adults (Chapman & Hayslip, 2005; Engelberg & Sjoberg, 2004).

Concurring with the present result, EI plays a role to help students to maintain the adjustment successfully during their university transition (Low & Nelson, 2005). The implication of this portion of the finding is that, therefore, students require an early EI programme in order to adjust their transition (Austin et al., 2005).

Generally, using the re-specified path model and inferring from previous findings, it can be deduced that adjustment is a function of parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, and TEI.

### **5.5.2 The predictive effect of parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, and TEI on adjustment**

One of the objectives of this study was to examine whether the three variables (parental demandingness, parental responsiveness, and TEI) interactively predict adjustment to university of first year university students. The results revealed that 31.9 % of the variance in adjustment is explained by these variables. Therefore, the three predictor variables combined explained 31.9 percent of the variance in the dependent variable of adjustment.

The finding that the three variables predict adjustment (not in the manner of this study but indirectly), is fairly consistent with previous findings that the student's successful transition into a university is evidenced as being associated with variables or a combination of variables consisting of academic and non-academic factors. TEI and parental behaviours are among the factors. In this regard, a longitudinal research by Maggio and Zappulla (2014) conducted to investigate the predictive role that maternal and paternal characteristics and parenting styles and the findings proved that they played a role in individuals' adjustment during development. Other researchers reported a relationship between adolescents' adjustment problems and their parents' parental behaviours (Jackson et al., 2005; Parmar & Rohner, 2005). A study by Yip and Martin (2006) also established the existence of a relationship between EI and overall student adjustment. More specifically, TEI is linked to individuals' social, emotional, and behavioural well-being as well (Greven et al., 2008; Mikolajczak et al., 2006).

To conclude, while previous research noted that the individual variables under consideration were directly or indirectly investigated in a few previous research studies, the combined effect of the three variables (TEI, parental demandingness, and parental responsiveness) on

adjustment has not been researched. As a consequence, it is not possible to compare the present result with previous studies because the literature does not directly reveal any research that has examined the interactive effect of the three variables on adjustment. It is difficult to explain the reasons for the lack of research in this area. Nevertheless, the present research lays a foundation that will facilitate the discovery of unique elements that could guide future investigations and theory development.

### **5.5.3 The mediation effect of TEI on the relationship between parental responsiveness and adjustment**

Section 5.5.2 discusses the predictive effect of parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, and TEI on adjustment in line with previous research findings in an indirect way. In this section, attention is paid to checking the mediation effect of TEI on the relationship between parental responsiveness and adjustment.

The present result indicates that there was no complete mediation: rather, TEI only partially mediates the relationship between parental responsiveness and adjustment. This implies that first year university students who perceive their maternal and paternal figures as loving, responsive, involved, warm, accepting and close, as measured using the parental responsiveness sub-scale, were found to have significantly higher self-perceptions on their emotional abilities, skills, and personality characteristics which in turn, influence their ability to cope successfully with environmental demands and pressures inherent at university.

Indirectly, the present result is in some way related to previous findings that parenting practices that university students have experienced at a younger age or at present play an important role in their adjustment during their late adolescent life. For example, late adolescents' retrospective reports of the positive parenting they experienced as children were significantly related to the quality of their current relationship (Dalton et al., 2006). There is also a clear and well established relationship between parents' parenting behaviours during their children's childhood and early adolescence and their children's maladjustment during late adolescence (Parmar & Rohner, 2005).

Again, the studies conducted which are indirectly available in literature depict that TEI is highly correlated with core personality dimensions (Petrides et al., 2007). In this regard,

Schnuck and Handal (2011) attempted to establish if the relationships that were found between perceived parenting style and student adjustment were mediated by personality traits. Analyses revealed that this was not the case. In Schnuck's and Handal's study it appears that the mechanism by which parenting is related to adjustment and adaptation to college is largely not due to personality traits.

Although more research in this area is needed, the available research provides initial support for the hypothesis that parental behaviours are related to TEI and adjustment. For example, late adolescents' retrospective reports of the positive parenting they experienced as children were significantly related to the quality of their current relationship (Dalton et al., 2006). There is evidence of a link between parenting style and an adolescent's TEI (Alegre & Benson, 2010; Liao et al., 2003; Martinez-Pons, 1999). Moreover, Winter's and Yaffe's (2000) study found that good relations with parents help both male and female students to adjust to the university. Raj (2012) also reported that students who maintain compatible relationships with their families are more likely to do well at university. On the other hand, TEI also impacts successful adjustment (Christie et al., 2004).

Nevertheless, it is not possible to compare the present results with previous studies because the literature does not directly reveal any investigations that have examined the relation between parental responsiveness as a predictor variable and adjustment as the predicted variable while TEI has been the mediator variable. It is hard to elucidate the reasons for the lack of research in this area or the absence of studies that investigate the relation between parental responsiveness and adjustment and TEI. Also, the inter-relationship of these concepts interactively and individually, especially the concept TEI, is still in its infancy stage as there is not enough understanding of this important issue under consideration. Therefore, this aspect of the objective of the study and its result is unique, and might be used to replicate it in the future, which could guide future investigations and theory development.

#### **5.5.4 The mediation effect of TEI on the relationship between parental demandingness and adjustment**

Section 5.5.3 discusses the results that TEI partially mediates the relationship between parental responsiveness and adjustment in line with the indirectly available previous researches. In this section, the focus is placed on checking the mediation effect of TEI on the relationship between parental demandingness and adjustment. The result confirms that TEI plays a

mediation role, but only partially, in the parental demandingness and adjustment relationship, which confirms potentially that the adjustment scale could explain the relationship between parental demandingness and TEI. The implication is that first year university students who perceive their maternal and paternal figures as strict, demanding, monitoring and firm controlling (e.g., control and parental firmness) as measured using the parental demandingness sub-scale were found to have significantly higher self-perceptions of their emotional abilities, skills, and personality characteristics which in turn, influence their ability to cope successfully with environmental demands and pressures inherent to university.

In this regard in a similar manner with section 5.5.3, only studies which were conducted indirectly are available in the literature. Though more research in this area is needed, the available research provides initial support for the hypothesis that parental behaviours are related to TEI and adjustment. For example, Alegre (2011) earlier reported that parental responsiveness, parental emotion-related coaching, and parental positive demandingness are related to children's higher EI while parental negative demandingness is related to children's lower EI. Longitudinal research also verified that maternal and paternal characteristics and parenting styles played a part in individuals' adjustment during development (Maggio & Zappulla, 2014). Moreover, TEI also impacts successful social adjustment at university (Engelberg & Sjoberg, 2004).

Again, it is not possible to compare the present results with previous studies because the literature does not directly reveal any studies that have examined the relation between parental demandingness as a predictor variable and adjustment as the predicted variable while TEI as a mediator variable. It is difficult to explain the reasons for the absence of studies that investigate the relation between parental demandingness and adjustment and TEI. Therefore, this study is unique enough and will facilitate the discovery of unique elements that can guide future investigations and theory development.



## CHAPTER SIX

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

This chapter summarises key elements of the study, draws conclusions, discusses the strengths and limitations of the current project and identifies directions for future research. This is followed by a brief discussion of the practical, theoretical, and methodological contributions of the study. The chapter also makes relevant recommendations for designing intervention strategies based on the results of the study.

#### 6.1 SUMMARY

The main objective of this study was to develop a conceptual framework of the parenting-student adjustment relationship that is affected by the mediating impact of TEI. To achieve this objective, questions for this research were:

##### **Main research question:**

- How are TEI and parenting style/dimension affecting adjustment at university of first year students in institutions of higher education?

##### **Sub- research questions:**

- How does TEI mediate the relationship between demandingness and responsiveness dimension-variables of parenting style and adjustment at university of first year students?
- Does the combined effect of the three variables (parental demandingness, parental responsiveness, and TEI) predict adjustment to university of first year university students?
- Is there a statistically significant gender difference with respect to TEI and adjustment level of first year university students?
- Does the university life adjustment scale explain the relationship between TEI and demandingness and responsiveness dimension-variables of parenting style, controlling for the level of degree of adjustment with university life?

- Which type of parenting style is predominantly practiced by the families of Ethiopia?
- Are there significant differences in adjustment and TEI as a function of first year university students' perceived parenting style (authoritative, authoritarian, neglectful, and indulgent types)?

In order to achieve the objective of the present study and build the theoretical background, the researcher undertook a systematic literature review which is presented in Chapter Two. Here, the investigator critically reviewed those most influential theories and approaches related to the TEI-parenting style/dimension-adjustment. Subsequently, I proposed a methodology for this study based on the positivist paradigm by using a survey questionnaire to obtain data to test the research questions. The proposed model was tested and the research questions of the study were examined based on the data obtained from 464 (M=282 & F=182) undergraduate first year university students recruited via a stratified random sampling technique from 3 randomly selected public universities in Ethiopia. The survey questionnaire was personally administered and accompanied by a supporting letter to fully explain the objectives of this study. For the purpose of this study SPSS 20.0 software and AMOS 18.0 were used to analyse the data. Data collected from respondents for the main study were tested for outliers, normality and multicollinearity. In addition, the main data were analysed using percentages, one-way ANOVA, independent sample T-test, bivariate correlation, path analysis, multiple regressions, and mediation.

Subsequently, in Chapter Four, all the analyses related to the proposed model and the research questions were presented. To begin, findings revealed that the parenting style predominantly adopted in the families of Ethiopia was a neglectful one, followed very closely by an authoritative one. However, the most predominantly practiced parenting style appeared to differ with regard to the gender of the first year university students. An authoritative parenting style, followed by a neglectful one, were commonly practiced for female first year university students whereas for males a neglectful parenting style was found to be the most frequently adopted, followed by an authoritative one.

The one-way ANOVA result indicated a statistically significant TEI score difference among the four parenting style categories  $F(3; 460; .05) = 2.63$ , which implies that parenting style statistically significantly impacts TEI. The ANOVA result also indicated a statistically significant difference in adjustment mean scores among the four parenting style categories  $F$

(3; 460; .05) = 2.63, which implies that parenting style statistically significantly impacts first year students' adjustment to university life.

The independent sample T-test result made it clear that there was a statistically significant difference in TEI score between male and female first year university students. Nevertheless, no statistically significant adjustment to university score was noted between female and male university students in their first year.

The results of the Pearson test demonstrated that adjustment was positively statistically correlated to TEI ( $r=.52$ ,  $*p<.05$ ), parental responsiveness ( $r=.40$ ,  $*p<.05$ ), and parental demandingness ( $r=.30$ ,  $*p<.05$ ). TEI significantly correlated with parental responsiveness ( $r=.41$ ,  $p<.05$ ), and parental demandingness ( $r=.30$ ,  $*p<.05$ ). Moreover, a strong statistically significant correlation was found between parental responsiveness and demandingness ( $r=.61$ ,  $*p<.05$ ).

Concerning the path analysis, two path diagrams were derived: the first path model derived from Amos-18.0 was a just-identified one with no DF, it had a zero chi-square value, and probability could not be computed. The second model, on the other hand, was an over-identified one: with a positive DF, non-significant chi-square value, along with other fit indices such as CFI, GFI, NFI, and TLI which were greater than .90 while RMSEA-was less than .06.

The multiple regression results showed that the three variables (TEI, parental demandingness, and parental responsiveness) combined explained 31.9 percent of the variance in the dependent variable of adjustment. Moreover, the mediation analysis depicts that TEI has a partially mediating effect on the relationship between parental responsiveness and adjustment. The results also indicate that TEI only partially mediates the relationship between parental demandingness and adjustment. Chapter Five presents a discussion by relating the results obtained from Chapter Four, with the previous findings.

Finally, Chapter Six offers a summary of the present research alongside the conclusions, the strengths, and limitations of this study with suggested future research directions, contributions of the research based on the theoretical, methodological and practical perspectives, and implications for practice.

## 6.2 CONCLUSIONS

Based on the results of the current study, the following conclusions were drawn:

The present study seeks to test a model where parental responsiveness, parental demandingness and TEI, interactively and individually, relate to adjustment. Therefore, path analysis was used to assess whether the model fits the empirical data; the following major findings were evident:

- The analysis of the fit indices in the present study revealed that the re-specified model shows a good overall fit to the empirical data, with  $\chi^2(1)=1.725$ ,  $p>.189$ , NFI= .996, CFI = .998, RMSEA = .04, whereas the base line model displayed rather inadequate data fits, with  $\chi^2(0) = .000$ ,  $*p< .000$ , NFI = 1.00, CFI=1.00, RMSEA=.414. This implies that the re-specified model was significantly different from the baseline model; hence, carrying out restrictions on the base line model to derive the re-specified model that fitted the empirical data was justifiable and logical.
- Parental responsiveness had a direct, positive statistically significant effect on TEI.
- Parental responsiveness had direct, positive statistically significant direct and indirect effects on adjustment.
- Parental demandingness had a statistically significant direct effect on adjustment.
- In addition, TEI had a significant and positive direct effect on adjustment.
- Generally, it may be deduced from the path model that adjustment is a function of parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, and TEI. When comparisons of the strength of the paths from the predictors (parental responsiveness, parental demandingness, and TEI) to the criterion (adjustment) were taken into account, the path from TEI to adjustment was stronger, followed by the path from parental responsiveness and demandingness to adjustment. Therefore, parental responsiveness is a strong predictor and has a relatively stronger effect on the TEI development than on adjustment.

Beyond the path model, the following conclusions can be drawn

- With respect to the most commonly practiced parenting style in Ethiopia, identified in the present study, it was found that there is a difference in such styles based on the gender of university students. Specifically, an authoritative one is the predominantly employed parenting style for daughters whereas a neglectful one is that most commonly adopted for sons.
- Parenting style statistically significantly impacts students' TEI and first year students' adjustment to university life. TEI, unlike adjustment to university life, was statistically significantly impacted by gender.
- TEI, parental demandingness, and parental responsiveness interactively explained 31.9 percent of the variance on the dependent variable of adjustment.
- TEI partially mediates the relationship between parental responsiveness and adjustment, and also partially mediates the relationship between parental demandingness and adjustment.

### **6.3 STRENGTHS, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE RESEARCH**

In this section, critical evaluations are provided on the strengths and limitations of the study, and insights for future research. The thesis represents an important contribution to the analysis of the complex relationship among parenting style/dimension, TEI, and students' university adjustment. In particular, the current work displays the following main strengths:

- First, the study has considered parenting according to both typological and dimensional approaches. In this way, university students' adjustment and TEI were investigated in relation to parenting style typologies (authoritative, authoritarian, neglectful, and indulgent) as well as in relation to parenting dimensions (responsiveness/acceptance and demandingness/ strictness). The multi-approach assessment of the responsiveness and demandingness-dimension variables of parenting style as well as the use of the categorical variable parenting style allow for the comparison of the results in relation to the previous cross-cultural research, if any, with the current study.

In addition, this thesis investigates responsiveness and demandingness separately and interactively. This strategy does assume that the dimensions are equally salient in explaining an individual's developmental outcomes. While this study served to advance the literature with regard to parenting style/dimension, TEI and adjustment within the country of Ethiopia, these paths will also advance theory development and prevention/intervention efforts in general.

Despite these strengths, the study has a number of limitations that call for caution in the interpretation of the results, all of which suggest rewarding avenues for further research. The following are the limitations:

- The first limitation concerns the measures, which were only self-report questionnaires administered to first year university students, thus limiting the accuracy of the data. In other words, there was no investigation of how these students' perceptions might compare with parents' reports of their own behaviour or observers' reports. Of course, one must bear in mind that this limitation was also a feature of all of the frequently cited parenting-style studies that were referred to in this research. Therefore, future research should employ multiple methods and informants (collect data directly from mothers and fathers in assessing the parenting styles of both), which would help to compare parents' and children's perceptions.
- Second, it is believed that the potential factors affecting TEI and adjustment of first year university students cannot be understood fully without considering and examining other background information factors which have not been included in this study. In grasping and applying this, the future research will need to scrutinize the effects of other background variables on the dependent variables (i.e., TEI and students' university adjustment).
- The third limitation is in regard to a common concern of self-report data, which is social desirability (i.e., the bias in self-report data accounted for by respondents' desire to look good, which is because of their need for self-protection and social approval). Since the data for parenting styles, TEI, and adjustment were collected using self-report questionnaires, the participants' responses may have been influenced by social desirability and therefore might represent all the known validity problems associated with this type of data. It is important to note that although university students can respond behaviourally and emotionally to their own perceptions of the

parenting that they experience and their own TEI and adjustment to university, what they experience and recall may differ from what is actually experienced in families with regard to their parents' parenting styles. Furthermore, their perceptions of their own trait EI and adjustment may differ from their actual TEI and adjustment. Therefore, future research should include observation and a longitudinal study as well as focus group discussions in an attempt to curb the problem.

- Fourth, as the study involved three Ethiopian public universities, it is recommended that in the future, a more comprehensive study should be carried out to cover a wider range of students from more higher education institutions in Ethiopia.
- Fifth, the survey used in this study was quantitative in nature. One main benefit of quantitative analysis is that hypotheses can be directly tested based on the data collected. However, a future study incorporating qualitative analysis could serve to further explore parenting styles, TEI, and adjustment to university culture in Ethiopia or abroad in greater depth than can be achieved through the use of a survey questionnaire.
- Six, the researcher was unable to find very relevant documents, journals, and others' work, especially on the area of TEI and its relationship with the major study variables. He was therefore unable to include very up-to-date relevant works of others concerning the major study variables of this research, in the expected manner. Thus, future research could overcome the problem at least in part by referring to this research work as a benchmark.

#### **6.4 PRACTICAL, THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY**

Despite the aforementioned caveats, the results of this study have made practical, theoretical, and methodological contributions. The implications of this research are now discussed in order.

#### **6.4.1 Practical contributions of the study**

The findings of this study, to mention just a few, make the following practical contributions for policy makers, higher learning institutions, student counselors, parents and university students. That is, from the present findings they will be able to comprehend that both the mediator variable TEI and parenting style/dimension significantly affect students' university adjustment. Having knowledge and understanding of this will help in the development of different strategies for timely interventions aimed at improving the adjustment level of first year students at university.

Knowing and understanding the factors which are operating will enable:

- Higher learning institutions and policy makers to develop strategies and techniques for intervention to maximize students' adjustment at an optimal level. For example, these stakeholders will be empowered to develop strategies and techniques for how students can adjust themselves to the new university culture, as well as for ways in which they can be supported when they encounter different types of problems which are associated with their studies in these institutions.
- Teachers in higher education institutions can play a significant role in enabling students to feel more at home, thereby improving adjustment by establishing and maintaining supportive and welcoming pedagogical environments and employing those teaching and evaluation methodologies which are focused on students' adjustment as well as their educational needs and overall development.
- The findings of this study have important implications for parents, in particular to support the use of an authoritative parenting style in their child-rearing practices and facilitate the conditions which are essential to foster their students' adjustment and TEI.

#### **6.4.2 Theoretical contributions of the study**

As mentioned, the main objective of this study was to develop a conceptual framework of the parenting-student adjustment relationship that is affected by the mediating impact of TEI. Therefore, this study provides new findings which are extremely relevant to this area of research. Hence, these offer many theoretical contributions.



- First, these findings enable us to understand better the effect of parenting style/dimension on TEI and adjustment of first year university students and to contribute in expanding knowledge to theories in these fields. Specifically, the findings of the present study help one to grasp that the theories of parenting style/dimension, TEI, and adjustment are applicable beyond Western, individualist countries – at least with regard to Ethiopia—and these traits have the same effects on the adjustment level of students in this collectivist African country as they do in individualist countries such as the USA and most European countries.
- Second, the findings and implications of this study have considerable importance for theorists in the field of socialisation, assisting them to understand the parenting style predominantly practiced in Ethiopia, which will expand knowledge of the socialisation of children in the Ethiopian cultural context.
- Third, the findings and implications of the current study are critical for building on previous research in the area, and fill a gap in empirical work, since studies in the area under consideration have been mainly focused on Asian and Western countries.

#### **6.4.3 Methodological contributions of the study**

The methodological contributions of this study are the following:

- First, it is one of the few to examine the mediating impact of TEI on the relationship between parenting dimension/style and adjustment to university outside of the western cultural setting and, specifically, in Ethiopia.
- Second, because this study uses statistical procedures to check the reliability and validity of the measurement items before incorporating them into this study, it has provided evidence that the tools used for data collection, such as the PDQ, TEIQue, and the SACQ appear to be reliable instruments in the Ethiopian cultural context. According to the findings, all the scales which have been used appear valid and reliable in their general content but, of course, the numbers of purified items used in this study are not identical to those in the original scales which were used in other countries. Therefore, it could be argued that this study contributes to the literature by examining and judiciously adapting constructs of well-established models in the context of Ethiopia, which typically represents a collectivist country.

## 6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE INTERVENTIONS

Based on the findings of this thesis, the following implications/recommendations are provided. This research is focused on parenting style/dimension, TEI and students' adjustment that could better equip students, parents, counsellors, and institutions of higher education with methods of handling various adaptation issues. This research study furnishes conclusive evidence with respect to the influence of parenting behaviours and TEI on students' university adjustment. Therefore, results of this study contribute knowledge as regards the implementation of programmes for new first year university students.

- Research based information could be used to educate parents to better support their students with their first year transition or to improve their parenting skills as needed. Programmes should include orientation workshops for parents of new students which address the relationship of parenting style, TEI and student adjustment at university.
- This research can be used as the basis for educating parents about the effects of their parenting style and how to help their students effectively transition into and gain greater adjustment success.
- Guidance counsellors should offer parenting classes that incorporate an authoritative style of parenting. To do so, the diverse parenting styles of multicultural populations should be considered in developing the programme for parents.
- Teachers should be more sensitive to the students in the classroom who come from diverse parenting environments and consider the appropriateness of authoritative parenting style such as methods of pedagogy to the different environmental situations, including the classroom settings due to the strong relationship of this style with improvement of TEI and adjustment, which in turn, promotes higher graduation rates and better outcomes in the future.

In summary, interventions for future practice should include more incorporation of parenting practices, university representatives, teaching strategies and guidance and counsellors in a collaborative effort to promote more learning opportunities that foster and raise the adjustment level of first year university students. Parent orientations, university visitations, life skills training for both the parents and students, peer education programmes, family welcome parties, internships and school/business collaborations are examples of learning opportunities

that could assist in raising the aspirations and thus, the adjustment level of first year university students, and provide parents with the necessary skills to support their children's adjustment.

## **6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

Finally, additional future research that incorporates the following would be helpful in adding knowledge to this study: (a) include second year university students to determine if university adjustment problems continues into the sophomore year, (b) include CEE scores, (c) on-campus or off-campus residence as well as having a roommate affects adjustment, also, (d) family dynamics including, parenting socialization of their children, educational support of parents, parents' martial relationships, and sibling relationships.

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**Addendum A: Questionnaire**

***DEBRE BIRHAN UNIVERSITY  
COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES  
PSYCHOLOGY DEPARTMENT***

**Questionnaire to be filled-in by First Year University Students**

**Dear participant!**

Your honest and active participation in this research is greatly appreciated. I am conducting a Doctoral Dissertation research regarding the relationship between parenting style, Trait Emotional Intelligence (TEI), and adjustment at university among first year university students. To do this, I am conducting a survey among first year university students using questionnaires developed for this purpose. I would appreciate your assistance with the study a great deal. Findings of this research are believed to be useful to improve the parenting practices that have been employed in Ethiopia, and for designing intervention strategies and techniques for higher education institutions to better understand and assist first year students in their adjustment to a university life.

Therefore, the information and responses that will be obtained from you are very important for this research to meet its prime objective. The study can be successfully accomplished only when you complete all the items honestly, frankly and genuinely. I, therefore, kindly request you to provide genuine and accurate information for all items found in the 8 pages. Please, note that the information you provide will be kept strictly confidential and will be used only for the purpose of this study. Moreover, there is no need of writing your name in any parts of the questionnaire.

**Thank you in advance!**

## Part I: Background Information (BGI)

**Instruction:** This part seeks your background information. Please put a tick mark (  ) in the box for multiple choice items and write your response for other items.

1. Gender                      Male                       Female

2. Age \_\_\_\_\_

3. Field of study \_\_\_\_\_

4. Where do your parents live-in?    Rural     Urban     others(specify) \_\_\_\_\_

5. Your families’/family estimated monthly income in birr:

Less than1000                       1001-2000                       2001-3000                       3001-4000

4001-5000                       5001-6000                       6001-7000                       7001-8000

8001-9000                       9001-10,000                       10,000 and above

Others (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

6. Your father’s level of education:

No formal education     Primary School     Junior School     Secondary School

Diploma     First Degree     Master     PhD & above

Others (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

7. Your mother’s level of education:

No formal education     Primary School     Junior School     Secondary school

Diploma     First Degree     Master     PhD &above     others (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

Part II: The TEIQue

**Instruction:** Given below (1-27) are statements designed to assess your TEI. Answer each statement by circling one of the five options provided in a **5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree)** on the right side on the option that best shows how much you agree or disagree with each statements below. Please, respond for it carefully.

<b>Statements</b>					
1. It is easy for me to talk about my feelings to other people. Emotionality	1	2	3	4	5
2. I often able to see things from another person’s viewpoint. Emotionality	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am a highly motivated person. Wellbeing	1	2	3	4	5
4. I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions. Self-control R*	1	2	3	4	5
5. I generally find life enjoyable. Wellbeing	1	2	3	4	5
6. I am good at interacting with my classmates. Sociability	1	2	3	4	5
7. Many times, I can’t exactly know what emotion I feel. Emotionality R*	1	2	3	4	5
8. I feel that I have a number of good qualities. Wellbeing	1	2	3	4	5
9. I often find it difficult to stand up for my rights. Sociability R*	1	2	3	4	5
10. I can make other people feel better when I want to. Sociability	1	2	3	4	5
11. Sometimes, I thought my whole life is going to face crisis/difficulty. Wellbeing R*	1	2	3	4	5
12. I often find it easy to adjust when things change in my life. Self-control R*	1	2	3	4	5
13. I feel I am able to adapt/control stress. Self-control	1	2	3	4	5
14. I often find it is easy to show my affection/love to those close to me. Emotionality	1	2	3	4	5
15. I normally find it easy to keep myself motivated. Wellbeing	1	2	3	4	5
16. I can control my anger when I want to. Self-control	1	2	3	4	5
17. On the whole, I am happy with my life. Wellbeing	1	2	3	4	5
18. I would describe myself as sociable. Sociability	1	2	3	4	5

19. I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of. Self-Control R*	1	2	3	4	5
20. I often pay a lot of attention to my feelings. Emotionality R*	1	2	3	4	5
21. I often feel good about myself. Wellbeing	1	2	3	4	5
22. I tend to accept defeat even if I know I am right. Sociability R*	1	2	3	4	5
23. I am able to change the way other people feel. Sociability	1	2	3	4	5
24. I generally believe that things will work out fine in my life. Wellbeing	1	2	3	4	5
25. I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me. Sociability R*	1	2	3	4	5
26. I am able to adapt/adjust to new environments/ settings. Sociability	1	2	3	4	5
27. I try to control my thoughts so that I do not worry about things. Self-control	1	2	3	4	5

**Note: R\* denotes reversed items during the data entry process**

### Part III. The PDQ

**Instruction:** Given below are 32 statements to know how your father/male guardian (like uncle, grandfather, step father, brother, male kinships etc.) and mother/female guardian (like aunt, grandmother, step mother, sister, female kinships etc.) treat you as you grew up with them at home. Therefore, answer each statement by circling one of the five options provided in a **5-point Likert scale (1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Uncertain, 4=Agree, 5= Strongly Agree)** on the right side on the option that suits the behaviour of your father or mother in relation to you. Do not forget to respond for both your father and mother if you are living with both parents but if you live-in with a father or mother give your answer only for the specific parent. Please, proceed at your own pace, but do it carefully.

<b>How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements?</b>		
<b>Statements</b>	<b>Father/male guardian</b>	<b>Mother/female guardian</b>
<b><u>Parental responsiveness items(1-16)</u></b>		
1. Listens to my ideas and opinions.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
2. Gives me freedom to select the subject for study.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3. Takes care of my food preferences.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4. Appreciates me when I try to become independent.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
5. Gives me a lot of care, attention, and support.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
6. Enjoys talking and playing with me.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7. Involves in my education.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
8. Discusses responsibilities in line with my growth.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
9. Points out ways I could do better.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
10. Rewards me for good doings.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
11. Takes care of my dressing.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
12. Fulfills my desires with available means.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
13. Makes me aware that what I do is for me myself.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
14. Respects my interest and view.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
15. Celebrates in my successes with me.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

16. Speaks to me with a warm and friendly voice.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
<b><u>Parental demandingness items(17-32)</u></b>		
17. Tries to frame my likes and dislikes.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
18. Exerts firm control on me.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
19. Expects me to do something immediately.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
20. Punishes me when I do not meet expectations.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
21. Sets high standards for me to meet.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
22. Puts burdens that are beyond my capacity.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
23. Pushes me to do my best in whatever I do.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
24. Sets rules and laws which I have to follow.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
25. Strict about how I should behave.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
26. Always saying how I must behave.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
27. Gets angry when I am late to reach home.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
28. Believes I must obey all orders.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
29. Makes most of the decisions about what I can do.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
30. Does not forget what I do wrong.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
31. Uses criticism to make my behaviour improved.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
32. Monitors me whereabouts and activities.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

## Part Iv- The SACQ

Below are the 40 statements that describe first year students' adjustment experiences at university. Read each one and decide how well it applies to you at the present time (within the past few days). Answer each statement by circling one of the five options provided in a **5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree)** on the right side on the option that best shows how much you agree or disagree with each sentence below. Please, give an appropriate response for each item.

<b>How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements?</b>	
<b>Academic adjustment items(1-16)</b>	
1. I am sure about reasons for being in university.	1 2 3 4 5
2. I have well-defined academic goals in university.	1 2 3 4 5
3. I consider a university degree is important.	1 2 3 4 5
4. I am enjoying my academic work.	1 2 3 4 5
5. I am interested in any of my course work at university.	1 2 3 4 5
6. I have been keeping up to date on my academic work.	1 2 3 4 5
7. I really have the motivation to study in the university.	1 2 3 4 5
8. I am attending classes regularly.	1 2 3 4 5
9. I am satisfied with my academic performance at university.	1 2 3 4 5
10. I have been efficient in the use of study time recently.	1 2 3 4 5
11. I enjoy writing notes in the lecture.	1 2 3 4 5
12. I am doing well enough academically for amount of work I put in.	1 2 3 4 5
13. I am satisfied with university courses.	1 2 3 4 5
14. I am satisfied with program of courses for this semester.	1 2 3 4 5
15. I am satisfied with the instructors I have now in my courses.	1 2 3 4 5
16. I am quite satisfied with my academic situation at university.	1 2 3 4 5
<b><u>Social adjustment items(17- 24)</u></b>	
17. I feel I fit well as part of the university environment.	1 2 3 4 5
18. I am highly involved in social activities in the university.	1 2 3 4 5
19. I have many friends at university.	1 2 3 4 5
20. I feel I have enough social skills to participate in the	1 2 3 4 5

	university.					
21.	I am quite satisfied with my social life at university.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	I feel I am very different from other students at university. R*	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I have good friends at university whom I can share my problems.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I enjoy living-in a dormitory.	1	2	3	4	5
<b><u>Personal-emotional adjustment items(25-33)</u></b>						
25.	I feel stressed while I am in the university. R*	1	2	3	4	5
26.	I haven't been able to control my emotions very well lately. R*	1	2	3	4	5
27.	I have thought about seeking psychological help. R*	1	2	3	4	5
28.	I trouble coping with the stresses in university. R*	1	2	3	4	5
29.	I feel tired much of the time lately. R*	1	2	3	4	5
30.	I have lost appetite lately. R*	1	2	3	4	5
31.	I have been having lots of headaches lately. R*	1	2	3	4	5
32.	I have lost too much of weight recently	1	2	3	4	5
33.	I haven't been sleeping very well when I think of my future. R*	1	2	3	4	5
<b><u>Institutional attachment items(34-40)</u></b>						
34.	I am happy now with my decision to go to university.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	Recently, I have been thinking to withdraw from university. R*	1	2	3	4	5
36.	I am happy now about my decision to attend in this university.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	I would prefer to be at another university. R*	1	2	3	4	5
38.	I expect to stay at this university to earn my degree.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	Recently, I have the thought to transfer into another university.*	1	2	3	4	5
40.	I know what I want from my university and why I am here.	1	2	3	4	5

**Note: R\* denotes reversed items during the data entry process**



## **Addendum B: Information Letter to the Vice President**

*Dear Madam/Sir.*

My name is Tarekegn Desalegn Fenta and I am undertaking a doctoral dissertation research regarding the relationship between parenting style, trait emotional intelligence, and adjustment to university among first year university students. To do this, I am conducting a survey among first year university students; using questionnaires developed for this purpose. I would appreciate your assistance with the study a great deal. Findings of this research are believed to be useful to improve the parenting practices being employed in Ethiopia, and for designing intervention strategies and techniques for higher education institutions to better understand and assist first year students in their overall adjustment to university life. This should enable university students to be effective and successful in their higher education in particular and in their future life in general.

The questionnaire will be administered by me and data collectors, and will take approximately 40-45 minutes. Participation in this study is completely voluntary and they are free to withdraw at any time, without providing any reasons for doing so and this will not affect them in any way. Your university and the participants in this study will be randomly selected. All information disclosed by the participants will be kept confidential. Since participants will not need to write their names in any parts of the questionnaire, their names will not appear on any publications and their total anonymity will be guaranteed. Upon completion, the results of the study will be discussed with you if there is a request.

If you are happy to allow permission to undertake the research in your university and your first year students, please read and sign the attached consent form.

Tarekegn Desalegn

Kind regards

Addendum C: Vice President Consent Form

I, \_\_\_\_\_ in my capacity as vice president of the university of \_\_\_\_\_, have read the Subject Information Sheet and give my consent for first year university students to participate in the research study to be undertaken by Tarekegn Desalegn. I give permission for the students concerned and I agree that access to academic and personal information about the students concerned are allowed to Tarekegn Desalegn for the purposes of this research. I understand that total confidentiality is guaranteed and that they may withdraw from this study at any time without providing reasons for doing so and that this decision will not be treated negatively. I agree that feedback will only be given for us on a request at anytime.

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Vice president: \_\_\_\_\_

Addendum D: Information Letter to Participants of the Study

*Dear Participant,*

My name is Tarekegn Desalegn and I am undertaking a Doctoral Dissertation research regarding the relationship between parenting style, trait emotional intelligence, and adjustment to university life among first year university students. To do this, I am conducting a survey among first year university students; using questionnaires developed for this purpose. I would appreciate your assistance with the study a great deal. Findings of this research are believed to be useful to improve the parenting practices being employed in Ethiopia, and for designing intervention strategies and techniques for higher education institutions to better understand and assist first year students in their overall adjustment to university life. This should enable university students to be effective and successful in their higher education in particular and in their future life in general.

The questionnaire will be administered by me and data collectors, and will take approximately 40-45 minutes. Participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time, without providing any reasons for doing so and this will not affect you in any way. Your university and your participation in this study were randomly selected. All information disclosed by you as a participant will be kept confidential. Since you will not need to write your name in any parts of the questionnaire, your name will not appear on any publications and your total anonymity will be guaranteed. Upon completion, the results of the study will be discussed with you if there is a request.

If you are happy to take part in the research in your university, please read and sign the attached consent form.

Thank you in advance for your  
assistance! Tarekegn Desalegn

Addendum E: Student Consent Form

I understand that this confidential study involves research for a Doctoral Dissertation conducted by Tarekegn Desalegn at the University of UNISA.

I understand that my participation in this study is completely voluntary and that I may refuse to participate or withdraw my consent to participate at any time without providing reasons for doing so and that there will be no repercussions/consequences. I understand that my identity and responses on the questionnaires will be kept in strict confidence. Also, I understand that this survey will take approximately 40-45 minutes to complete. I am 18 years of age or older and voluntarily agree to participate in this research project.

I, read the information letter and therefore, I agree----- do not agree-----to allow a researcher (Mr. Tarekegn Desalegn Fenta) to conduct Doctoral research on **‘Parenting Style and First Year Students’ Adjustment at University: Mediation via Trait Emotional Intelligence in Higher Education Institutions- A Dimensional and Typological Approach.** Date:

Student\_\_\_\_\_

Addendum F: Letters of Cooperation to the Three Public universities



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Debre Berhan University  
Research and Community Service Vice President Office

ቁጥር/Ref.No RCSVP/ 029/05/01/2

ቀን/Date 27/03/2009

Adama Science and Technology University  
Adama, Ethiopia

**Subject: Request for Cooperation to Conduct PhD Research on the interrelationship among parenting style, trait emotional intelligence and first year students' adjustment to University of Ethiopia.**

In recent years researchers in the field of education and psychology have drawn a great attention to examine the adjustment level of first year university students in the higher institution and the associated factors like parenting style and emotional intelligence because of its theoretical and practical significance. Theoretically, the identification of these factors would shed light on students' behaviors in higher education and, practically, these factors could assist higher education institutions in reducing both academic and persistence risks for the students and maximizing their adjustment to university.

As part of this research, an Ethiopian student at UNISA, Tarekegn Desalegn Fenta, who is studying for his Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Psychology, is conducting a research project on "**Parenting Style and First Year Students' Adjustment at University: Mediation via Trait Emotional Intelligence in Higher Institutions**" and Adama Science and Technology University is one of the higher education institutions in Ethiopia where data collection for this research is taking place. As the part of the study, he will administer a questionnaire to a sample of first year students and will access their list from the Registrar's Office of your university. The participation of students' in the study is voluntary and their permission will be obtained through the informed consent form. The information obtained will be used only for the purpose of this research and remain confidential, to the extent allowed by law.

It is expected that this study will generate new insights and wisdom and lead to relevant recommendations for possible strategies and techniques for intervention to maximize the university adjustment success of students at higher education institutions. The purpose of this letter, therefore, is to request your cooperation and support to conduct the proposed research in your university assist the researcher in recruiting and inviting the students to participate in the study, and permit him to access them. The problems associated with the adjustment difficulty of university students in general and first year students in particular are the challenges of all higher learning institutions in all nations and thus seek a remarkable attention and efforts to curbe the problems. It is to believe that the proposed study will come up with realistic and practical strategies for intervention that may help in meeting these challenges. Your cooperation and assistance with the project would be much appreciated.

Warmest Regards,

Almaz Afera Adane (PhD)  
Vice President for Research and Community Service



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E-mail: debrb@unibcsc.edu.et In replying, please quote our ref. no. Fax +251-116812065



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Debre Berhan University

Research and Community Service Vice President Office

ቁጥር/Ref.No RCSVP/128/01/09

ቀን/Date 27/03/2009

Addis Ababa University  
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

**Subject: Request for Cooperation to Conduct PhD Research on the interrelationship among parenting style, trait emotional intelligence and first year students' adjustment to University of Ethiopia.**

In recent years researchers in the field of education and psychology have drawn a great attention to examine the adjustment level of first year university students in the higher institution and the associated factors like parenting style and emotional intelligence because of its theoretical and practical significance. Theoretically, the identification of these factors would shed light on students' behaviors in higher education and, practically, these factors could assist higher education institutions in reducing both academic and persistence risks for the students and maximizing their adjustment to university.

As part of this research, an Ethiopian student at UNISA, Tarekegn Desalegn Fenta, who is studying for his Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Psychology, is conducting a research project on "**Parenting Style and First Year Students' Adjustment at University: Mediation via Trait Emotional Intelligence in Higher Institutions**" and Addis Ababa University is one of the higher education institutions in Ethiopia where data collection for this research is taking place. As the part of the study, he will administer a questionnaire to a sample of first year students and will access their list from the Registrar's Office of your university. The participation of students' in the study is voluntary and their permission will be obtained through the informed consent form. The information obtained will be used only for the purpose of this research and remain confidential, to the extent allowed by law.

It is expected that this study will generate new insights and wisdom and lead to relevant recommendations for possible strategies and techniques for intervention to maximize the university adjustment success of students at higher education institutions. The purpose of this letter, therefore, is to request your cooperation and support to conduct the proposed research in your university assist the researcher in recruiting and inviting the students to participate in the study, and permit him to access them. The problems associated with the adjustment difficulty of university students in general and first year students in particular are the challenges of all higher learning institutions in all nations and thus seek a remarkable attention and efforts to curbe the problems. It is to believe that the proposed study will come up with realistic and practical strategies for intervention that may help in meeting these challenges. Your cooperation and assistance with the project would be much appreciated.

Warmest Regards,

  
**Almaz Afera Adane (PhD)**  
Vice President for Research  
and Community Service



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In replying, please quote our ref. no. Fax: +251-116812065



**ደብረ ብርሃን ዩኒቨርሲቲ**  
**የጥናትና ምርምር እና የህብረተሰብ አገልግሎት ም/ፕሬዚዳንት ጽ/ቤት**  
**Debre Berhan University**  
**Research and Community Service Vice President Office**

ቁጥር/REF.NO RCSVP/097/04/01/211

ቀን /DATE 27/03/2009

**To :- Debre Berhan University Academic Vice President  
 Debre Berhan, Ethiopia**

**Subject: *Request for Cooperation to Conduct PhD Research on the interrelationship among parenting style, trait emotional intelligence and first year students' adjustment to University of Ethiopia.***

In recent years researchers in the field of education and psychology have drawn a great attention to examine the adjustment level of first year university students in the higher institution and the associated factors like parenting style and emotional intelligence because of its theoretical and practical significance. Theoretically, the identification of these factors would shed light on students' behaviors in higher education and, practically, these factors could assist higher education institutions in reducing both academic and persistence risks for the students and maximizing their adjustment to university.

As part of this research, an Ethiopian student at UNISA, Tarekegn Desalegn Fenta, who is studying for his Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Psychology, is conducting a research project on "**Parenting Style and First Year Students' Adjustment at University: Mediation via Trait Emotional Intelligence in Higher Institutions**" and Debre Berhan University is one of the higher education institutions in Ethiopia where data collection for this research is taking place. As the part of the study, he will administer a questionnaire to a sample of first year students and will access their list from the Registrar's Office of your university. The participation of students' in the study is voluntary and their permission will be obtained through the informed consent form. The information obtained will be used only for the purpose of this research and remain confidential, to the extent allowed by law.

It is expected that this study will generate new insights and wisdom and lead to relevant recommendations for possible strategies and techniques for intervention to maximize the university adjustment success of students at higher education institutions. The purpose of this letter, therefore, is to request your cooperation and support to conduct the proposed research in your university assist the researcher in recruiting and inviting the students to participate in the study, and permit him to access them. The problems associated with the adjustment difficulty of university students in general and first year students in particular are the challenges of all higher learning institutions in all nations and thus seek a remarkable attention and efforts to solve the problems. It is to believe that the proposed study will come up with realistic and practical strategies for intervention that may help in meeting these challenges. Your cooperation and assistance with the project would be much appreciated.

Warmest Regards,

**Almaz Afera Adane (PhD)**  
 Vice President  
 Research and Community Service



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 E-mail: [dm@ethionet.et](mailto:dm@ethionet.et)

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 In replying, please quote our ref. no.

+251-11-681-20-34  
 Fax +251-11-681-20-65

Addendum G: TEIQue Scale Reliability Testing and Verification

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.661	30

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
selfc4	99.4800	107.438	.222	.651
selfc7	100.2400	118.635	-.223	.685
selfc14	99.5400	108.866	.175	.655
selfc15	99.3000	109.724	.141	.658
selfc19	99.6800	108.998	.138	.659
self22	99.7800	111.073	.074	.664
selfc30	99.8400	105.076	.289	.645
emo1	99.1800	110.191	.186	.655
emo2	99.6800	110.630	.128	.659
well3	99.3200	106.263	.314	.644
well5	99.1800	105.498	.330	.642
socio6	99.0000	105.469	.330	.642
emo8	99.2400	111.696	.078	.662
well9	98.6200	108.893	.277	.649
socio10	99.4400	107.353	.215	.652
socio11	99.4600	109.519	.170	.656
well12	99.4600	101.968	.357	.637
emo13	98.9800	115.530	-.093	.674
emo16	98.8800	110.475	.139	.658
emo17	99.2000	113.265	-.003	.670



well18	99.7000	104.949	.265	.647
well20	99.0800	98.320	.500	.621
socio21	99.3400	106.637	.278	.647
emo23	99.6200	111.791	.036	.669
well24	98.7600	104.962	.385	.639
socio25	99.9800	108.714	.142	.659
socio26	99.4800	108.622	.217	.652
well27	99.2400	102.635	.395	.635
socio28	99.3000	108.908	.189	.654
socio29	99.2000	106.122	.330	.643

**TEI's Cronbach's alpha value when item selfc7 was deleted.**

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.688	29

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
selfc4	96.8400	112.709	.211	.681
selfc14	96.9000	113.806	.178	.683
selfc15	96.6600	114.882	.136	.687
selfc19	97.1200	112.475	.193	.683
self22	97.1400	115.592	.095	.690
selfc30	97.2000	109.184	.320	.672
emo1	96.5400	114.784	.210	.681
emo2	97.0400	115.835	.121	.687
well3	96.6800	111.120	.318	.673
well5	96.5400	111.029	.304	.674

socio6	96.3600	109.990	.348	.670
emo8	96.6000	116.776	.077	.690
well9	95.9800	113.163	.319	.675
socio10	96.8000	112.286	.217	.680
socio11	96.8200	114.763	.161	.684
well12	96.8200	106.967	.352	.668
emo13	96.3400	120.474	-.083	.700
emo16	96.2400	115.982	.118	.687
emo17	96.5600	118.864	-.022	.698
well18	97.0600	109.568	.276	.675
well20	96.4400	102.823	.510	.652
socio21	96.7000	111.316	.290	.675
emo23	96.9800	117.081	.029	.697
well24	96.1200	109.455	.405	.667
socio25	97.3400	114.107	.129	.688
socio26	96.8400	114.015	.200	.682
well27	96.6000	106.939	.418	.663
socio28	96.6600	113.739	.197	.682
socio29	96.5600	110.945	.336	.672

**TEI's Cronbach's alpha value when item13 was deleted.**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.700	28

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
selfc4	93.0200	113.204	.223	.693
selfc14	93.0800	114.647	.177	.696
selfc15	92.8400	115.607	.140	.699

selfc19	93.3000	113.071	.201	.695
self22	93.3200	116.140	.105	.702
selfc30	93.3800	110.200	.312	.685
emo1	92.7200	115.879	.195	.695
emo2	93.2200	116.665	.121	.699
well3	92.8600	111.592	.333	.685
well5	92.7200	112.042	.295	.687
socio6	92.5400	110.498	.361	.683
emo8	92.7800	117.930	.063	.703
well9	92.1600	114.015	.316	.688
socio10	92.9800	113.571	.198	.695
socio11	93.0000	115.633	.158	.697
well12	93.0000	107.388	.365	.680
emo16	92.4200	116.942	.112	.700
emo17	92.7400	119.951	-.032	.711
well18	93.2400	110.390	.275	.688
well20	92.6200	103.424	.516	.666
socio21	92.8800	111.781	.304	.687
emo23	93.1600	118.219	.018	.710
well24	92.3000	109.888	.422	.679
socio25	93.5200	114.581	.141	.700
socio26	93.0200	114.755	.203	.694
well27	92.7800	107.359	.433	.675
socio28	92.8400	114.668	.192	.695
socio29	92.7400	111.462	.349	.684

**TEIQue's Cronbach's alpha value when item 17 was deleted.**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.711	27

### Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
selfc4	89.4200	112.779	.219	.705
selfc14	89.4800	114.051	.180	.708
selfc15	89.2400	115.166	.137	.711
selfc19	89.7000	112.133	.216	.705
self22	89.7200	115.879	.095	.714
selfc30	89.7800	108.338	.363	.693
emo1	89.1200	115.822	.171	.708
emo2	89.6200	116.118	.122	.711
well3	89.2600	110.890	.342	.696
well5	89.1200	111.781	.285	.700
socio6	88.9400	110.425	.342	.696
emo8	89.1800	117.620	.054	.715
well9	88.5600	113.435	.320	.700
socio10	89.3800	113.342	.188	.707
socio11	89.4000	114.939	.166	.708
well12	89.4000	106.816	.368	.692
emo16	88.8200	116.885	.091	.713
well18	89.6400	110.031	.270	.701
well20	89.0200	102.755	.523	.678
socio21	89.2800	110.777	.326	.697
emo23	89.5600	118.415	-.007	.723
well24	88.7000	109.235	.429	.691
socio25	89.9200	113.749	.152	.711

socio26	89.4200	113.636	.230	.704
well27	89.1800	106.314	.454	.686
socio28	89.2400	114.023	.198	.706
socio29	89.1400	111.266	.334	.697

## Addendum H: SACQ Scale Reliability Testing and Verification

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.775	44

### Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
aca1	154.3600	192.439	.446	.764
aca2	154.1400	193.511	.433	.765
aca3	154.4000	194.816	.279	.769
aca4	154.4400	195.435	.253	.770
aca5	154.6600	202.637	.035	.778
aca6	154.6600	184.719	.591	.756
aca7	154.3400	188.229	.582	.759
aca8	154.1000	190.459	.476	.762
aca9	154.5400	196.580	.278	.769
aca10	154.6600	198.392	.221	.771
aca11	154.3800	196.567	.314	.769
aca12	154.7600	196.023	.262	.770
aca13	154.5400	193.600	.312	.768
aca14	154.7400	187.094	.565	.758
aca15	154.7800	184.910	.640	.755
aca16	154.8200	196.926	.297	.769
soc17	154.8200	193.947	.319	.767
soc18	154.9800	195.040	.293	.769
soc19	154.8200	198.804	.194	.772
soc20	154.6400	197.419	.334	.769
soc21	154.6000	191.633	.401	.764

soc22	155.2000	206.163	-.088	.786
soc23	155.3400	200.760	.086	.776
soc24	154.2000	198.735	.281	.770
soc25	155.7000	203.643	-.009	.780
soc26	154.6000	196.857	.259	.770
per27	155.1400	204.572	-.038	.781
per28	155.3200	200.181	.103	.776
per29	155.3000	191.806	.351	.766
per30	155.3200	195.079	.227	.771
per31	155.4400	202.088	.034	.779
per32	155.3400	195.984	.228	.771
per33	155.2000	195.837	.236	.771
per34	155.1000	199.398	.113	.776
per35	155.2600	199.584	.092	.777
per36	155.2200	201.726	.038	.779
per37	155.4400	195.925	.227	.771
att38	154.5600	194.619	.256	.770
att39	154.6400	194.602	.282	.769
att40	154.7200	193.267	.326	.767
att41	155.1400	202.286	.032	.779
att42	154.5200	201.193	.099	.775
att43	155.1200	196.761	.172	.774
att44	154.0600	201.609	.074	.776

**SACQ Cronbach's alpha value if item soc22 was deleted**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.786	43

## Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
aca1	151.1400	193.592	.462	.775
aca2	150.9200	194.606	.452	.776
aca3	151.1800	196.273	.283	.781
aca4	151.2200	197.073	.250	.782
aca5	151.4400	204.537	.024	.789
aca6	151.4400	186.129	.595	.768
aca7	151.1200	189.700	.584	.771
aca8	150.8800	192.149	.470	.774
aca9	151.3200	198.467	.265	.782
aca10	151.4400	199.639	.234	.783
aca11	151.1600	198.260	.308	.781
aca12	151.5400	197.804	.254	.782
aca13	151.3200	195.773	.292	.780
aca14	151.5200	188.744	.561	.771
aca15	151.5600	186.537	.636	.768
aca16	151.6000	198.653	.290	.781
soc17	151.6000	195.265	.327	.779
soc18	151.7600	197.207	.272	.781
soc19	151.6000	200.980	.170	.784
soc20	151.4200	198.861	.340	.780
soc21	151.3800	193.261	.398	.777
soc23	152.1200	201.904	.100	.787
soc24	150.9800	200.632	.264	.782
soc25	152.4800	205.520	-.018	.792
soc26	151.3800	198.322	.262	.782
per27	151.9200	205.953	-.031	.792



per28	152.1000	201.439	.114	.787
per29	152.0800	192.810	.368	.777
per30	152.1000	196.418	.234	.783
per31	152.2200	203.685	.033	.790
per32	152.1200	197.332	.235	.783
per33	151.9800	197.367	.237	.782
per34	151.8800	201.332	.102	.788
per35	152.0400	200.366	.114	.788
per36	152.0000	203.020	.047	.790
per37	152.2200	197.196	.236	.782
att38	151.3400	195.576	.274	.781
att39	151.4200	195.391	.307	.780
att40	151.5000	195.398	.307	.780
att41	151.9200	203.871	.032	.790
att42	151.3000	202.378	.114	.786
att43	151.9000	197.643	.191	.785
att44	150.8400	203.525	.062	.788

**SACQ Cronbach's alpha value if items soc25 and per 27 deleted**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.799	41

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
aca1	145.1400	193.225	.475	.789
aca2	144.9200	193.789	.485	.789

aca3	145.1800	195.538	.306	.793
aca4	145.2200	195.726	.293	.794
aca5	145.4400	203.272	.068	.801
aca6	145.4400	184.537	.647	.780
aca7	145.1200	188.720	.621	.784
aca8	144.8800	191.291	.501	.787
aca9	145.3200	198.304	.270	.795
aca10	145.4400	199.762	.228	.796
aca11	145.1600	197.729	.329	.793
aca12	145.5400	196.866	.286	.794
aca13	145.3200	195.120	.312	.793
aca14	145.5200	188.214	.578	.784
aca15	145.5600	184.904	.694	.780
aca16	145.6000	198.041	.315	.794
soc17	145.6000	195.020	.334	.792
soc18	145.7600	197.043	.276	.794
soc19	145.6000	200.776	.177	.797
soc20	145.4200	198.575	.353	.793
soc21	145.3800	192.036	.440	.789
soc23	146.1200	202.883	.067	.802
soc24	144.9800	199.857	.302	.795
soc26	145.3800	198.118	.269	.795
per28	146.1000	202.745	.070	.802
per29	146.0800	193.953	.331	.792
per30	146.1000	197.276	.208	.797
per31	146.2200	204.747	.000	.805
per32	146.1200	198.353	.201	.797
per33	145.9800	197.489	.232	.796
per34	145.8800	201.944	.082	.802
per35	146.0400	201.509	.081	.803

per36	146.0000	203.796	.023	.804
per37	146.2200	198.828	.184	.798
att38	145.3400	196.107	.256	.795
att39	145.4200	195.636	.297	.794
att40	145.5000	195.031	.318	.793
att41	145.9200	203.953	.028	.803
att42	145.3000	202.296	.116	.799
att43	145.9000	198.500	.166	.799
att44	144.8400	202.749	.089	.800

**SACQ Cronbach's alpha value if item per31 deleted**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.805	40

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
aca1	142.1600	191.647	.485	.795
aca2	141.9400	192.507	.483	.795
aca3	142.2000	193.796	.319	.799
aca4	142.2400	194.594	.286	.800
aca5	142.4600	201.192	.093	.806
aca6	142.4600	182.580	.669	.786
aca7	142.1400	187.021	.636	.789
aca8	141.9000	189.480	.519	.793
aca9	142.3400	196.392	.292	.800
aca10	142.4600	198.784	.212	.802
aca11	142.1800	196.600	.320	.800

aca12	142.5600	195.190	.298	.800
aca13	142.3400	193.494	.321	.799
aca14	142.5400	186.866	.579	.790
aca15	142.5800	183.432	.700	.786
aca16	142.6200	196.444	.326	.799
soc17	142.6200	194.077	.320	.799
soc18	142.7800	195.644	.278	.800
soc19	142.6200	199.179	.186	.803
soc20	142.4400	197.598	.334	.800
soc21	142.4000	190.245	.456	.794
soc23	143.1400	201.592	.064	.808
soc24	142.0000	198.694	.292	.801
soc26	142.4000	196.816	.267	.801
per28	143.1200	201.332	.072	.808
per29	143.1000	193.031	.318	.799
per30	143.1200	196.312	.196	.804
per32	143.1400	197.878	.174	.804
per33	143.0000	196.653	.215	.803
per34	142.9000	200.949	.071	.808
per35	143.0600	200.017	.085	.808
per36	143.0200	202.265	.028	.810
per37	143.2400	197.696	.177	.804
att38	142.3600	195.051	.248	.802
att39	142.4400	194.374	.295	.800
att40	142.5200	193.847	.312	.799
att41	142.9400	202.262	.038	.809
att42	142.3200	200.793	.121	.805
att43	142.9200	197.381	.159	.805
att44	141.8600	200.776	.111	.806

Addendum I: Parental Demandingness Reliability Scale Testing and Verification

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.920	32

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
mot17	109.2600	377.911	.534	.917
mot18	109.4400	382.333	.480	.917
mot19	109.4400	378.619	.506	.917
mot20	109.5800	387.310	.308	.920
mot21	109.1000	381.031	.630	.916
mot22	109.2000	379.388	.556	.917
mot23	109.6200	369.098	.619	.915
mot24	109.4200	387.187	.311	.920
mot25	109.6200	374.485	.627	.916
mot26	109.2400	381.941	.518	.917
mot27	109.2000	392.735	.251	.920
mot28	109.4000	392.816	.299	.919
mot29	109.5200	381.153	.436	.918
mot30	109.7800	374.951	.485	.918
mot31	109.8000	381.143	.436	.918
mot32	109.3400	373.372	.627	.915
father17	109.7800	373.930	.604	.916
father18	109.3400	384.760	.436	.918
father19	109.5600	380.129	.522	.917
father20	109.6000	376.000	.524	.917

father21	109.6000	385.796	.389	.919
father22	109.6200	382.159	.416	.918
father23	109.3600	379.051	.525	.917
father24	109.3000	383.765	.415	.918
father25	109.5600	371.027	.643	.915
father26	109.4400	386.374	.485	.918
father27	109.3200	378.508	.561	.916
father28	109.4600	378.947	.541	.917
father29	109.5400	380.376	.474	.918
father30	109.7200	374.491	.489	.918
father31	109.9400	375.445	.544	.917
father32	109.5200	377.193	.640	.916

## Addendum J: Parental Responsiveness Reliability Scale Testing and Verification

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.944	32

### Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
mot1	117.8800	495.128	.638	.942
mot2	117.9200	502.973	.426	.944
mot3	117.7800	498.012	.533	.943
mot4	118.1600	488.668	.612	.942
mot5	117.9400	493.568	.701	.941
mot6	118.2000	507.061	.417	.944
mot7	118.0400	497.060	.624	.942
mot8	117.9000	492.296	.657	.942
mot9	117.9600	486.815	.785	.941
mot10	118.2400	484.349	.686	.941
mot11	117.9400	496.017	.594	.942
mot12	118.1000	502.133	.480	.943
mot13	117.9800	493.285	.722	.941
mot14	117.9800	491.285	.648	.942
mot15	117.9800	493.734	.651	.942
mot16	118.1000	496.786	.586	.942
father1	118.2600	502.849	.444	.944
father2	118.3800	491.220	.552	.943
father3	118.3400	497.698	.488	.943
father4	118.0000	494.531	.601	.942

father5	118.2600	489.992	.671	.942
father6	118.4000	511.918	.342	.944
father7	118.2800	484.655	.703	.941
father8	117.8400	489.933	.711	.941
father9	118.0200	487.489	.780	.941
father10	118.2800	498.083	.510	.943
father11	118.2200	525.114	.042	.947
father12	118.3200	507.406	.374	.944
father13	118.4200	494.657	.694	.942
father14	118.1600	496.096	.573	.943
father15	117.8600	497.796	.623	.942
father16	118.3800	506.036	.447	.944



## Addendum K: Paternal Responsiveness Reliability Scale Testing and Verification

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.889	16

### Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
father1	55.6400	122.480	.457	.886
father2	55.7600	115.329	.610	.880
father3	55.7200	119.185	.525	.884
father4	55.3800	121.098	.510	.884
father5	55.6400	117.215	.648	.878
father6	55.7800	125.726	.422	.887
father7	55.6600	112.760	.751	.874
father8	55.2200	116.420	.723	.876
father9	55.4000	116.531	.738	.875
father10	55.6600	123.004	.414	.888
father11	55.6000	131.633	.136	.896
father12	55.7000	123.847	.423	.887
father13	55.8000	118.082	.739	.876
father14	55.5400	118.702	.609	.880
father15	55.2400	121.451	.582	.881
father16	55.7600	125.043	.423	.887

**Addendum L: Paternal Demandingness Scale Testing and Verification Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.873	16

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
father17	52.4200	104.330	.644	.860
father18	51.9800	111.979	.393	.871
father19	52.2000	109.184	.495	.867
father20	52.2400	108.472	.436	.870
father21	52.2400	110.635	.431	.869
father22	52.2600	109.625	.411	.871
father23	52.0000	106.898	.573	.863
father24	51.9400	111.078	.387	.871
father25	52.2000	102.286	.704	.857
father26	52.0800	111.708	.505	.867
father27	51.9600	109.386	.485	.867
father28	52.1000	109.643	.465	.868
father29	52.1800	108.967	.459	.868
father30	52.3600	103.827	.542	.865
father31	52.5800	104.657	.599	.862
father32	52.1600	106.056	.693	.859

## Addendum M: Maternal Responsiveness Reliability Scale Testing and Verification

### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.921	16

### Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
mot1	58.5800	144.412	.684	.915
mot2	58.6200	149.179	.441	.922
mot3	58.4800	145.479	.588	.917
mot4	58.8600	141.062	.639	.916
mot5	58.6400	142.602	.792	.912
mot6	58.9000	150.827	.464	.920
mot7	58.7400	147.992	.570	.918
mot8	58.6000	143.959	.660	.915
mot9	58.6600	142.596	.730	.913
mot10	58.9400	137.445	.759	.912
mot11	58.6400	146.888	.561	.918
mot12	58.8000	147.224	.557	.918
mot13	58.6800	144.916	.712	.914
mot14	58.6800	143.569	.644	.916
mot15	58.6800	147.242	.559	.918
mot16	58.8000	145.224	.632	.916

**Addendum N: Maternal Demandingness Reliability Scale Testing and Verification Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.850	16

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
mot17	53.6000	93.061	.593	.835
mot18	53.7800	95.073	.556	.837
mot19	53.7800	93.971	.537	.838
mot20	53.9200	98.034	.343	.849
mot21	53.4400	96.496	.609	.837
mot22	53.5400	95.437	.542	.838
mot23	53.9600	92.407	.516	.839
mot24	53.7600	96.962	.390	.846
mot25	53.9600	92.284	.648	.832
mot26	53.5800	98.330	.422	.844
mot27	53.5400	100.090	.338	.848
mot28	53.7400	102.237	.285	.849
mot29	53.8600	97.266	.375	.847
mot30	54.1200	96.149	.350	.850
mot31	54.1400	96.490	.408	.845
mot32	53.6800	90.671	.697	.829

## Addendum O: Summary Indexes of the Baseline Model

### CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	10	.000	0		
Saturated model	10	.000	0		
Independence model	4	482.558	6	.000	80.426

### RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.000	1.000		
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.080	.633	.389	.380

### Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI	RFI	IFI	TLI	CFI
	Delta1	rho1	Delta2	rho2	
Default model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

### Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.000	.000	.000
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

## NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	.000	.000	.000
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	476.558	408.177	552.343

## FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.042	1.029	.882	1.193

## RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Independence model	.414	.383	.446	.000

## Addendum P: Summary Indexes of the Modified Model

### CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	9	1.725	1	.189	1.725
Saturated model	10	.000	0		
Independence model	4	482.558	6	.000	80.426

### RMSR, GFI

Model	RMSR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.003	.998	.981	.100
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.080	.633	.389	.380

### Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI	RFI	IFI	TLI	CFI
	Delta1	rho1	Delta2	rho2	
Default model	.996	.979	.998	.991	.998
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

### RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.040	.000	.137	.415
Independence model	.414	.383	.446	.000

## Addendum Q: Ethical Clearance Information



### Student Thesis Information 2015

Student nr 55763464

Title MR

Name T FENTA

Study Unit Code TFPSY06

Subjects

Title

Parenting style and adjustment to university life: mediation via first year students' triat emotional intelligence in higher institutions

Dissertation Promotor

Promotor: 1984837 Dr P VAN DER MERWE



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### Ethical Clearance for M/D students: Research on human participants

*The Ethics Committee of the Department of Psychology at Unisa has evaluated this research proposal for a Higher Degree in Psychology in light of appropriate ethical requirements, with special reference to the requirements of the Code of Conduct for Psychologists of the HPCSA and the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics.*

**Student Name:** T D Fenta

**Student no.** 55763464

**Supervisor:** Dr P van der Merwe

**Affiliation:** Dept. of Psychology, Unisa

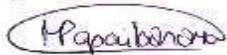
**Title of project:**

Parenting Style and Adjustment to University Life: Mediation via First Year Students' Trait Emotional Intelligence in Higher Institutions.

The proposal was evaluated for adherence to appropriate ethical standards as required by the Psychology Department of Unisa. The application was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Department of Psychology on the understanding that –

- All ethical requirements regarding informed consent, the right to withdraw from the study, the protection of participants' privacy of the and confidentiality of the information will be met to the satisfaction of the supervisors;
- Clearance is to be obtained from the universities from which the participants are to be drawn, and all conditions and procedures regarding access to staff for research purposes that may be required by these institutions are to be met.

Signed:



Prof. M Papaikononou

[For the Ethics Committee ]  
[ Department of Psychology, Unisa ]

Date: 2014/11/04

***The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:***

- 1) *The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.*
- 2) *Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the Psychology Department Ethics Review Committee. An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.*
- 3) *The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.*