

**An examination of the relationship between psychologically
controlling parenting and antisocial behaviour of emerging adults in
the Faculty of Community and Health Science (CHS)**

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**A mini-thesis in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of
Magister Artium in Child and Family Studies**



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ABSTRACT

Parents are important in the socialization of children to develop into adjusted adults. Parenting is a developmental process and encourages the child to become an independent adult in society, an adult who is pro-social rather than anti-social. The main aim of parenting is to control the behaviour of the child, but as the child matures the approach is more of monitoring and supervision rather than control. The aim of this study is to establish the prevalence of parental psychological control during the phase of emerging adulthood and this will be associated with the anti-social behaviour of emerging adults. A quantitative methodological approach was used to conduct the study. A sample of 382 participants aged 18 to 25 years were randomly stratified across the departments in the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences (CHS). The Parental Psychological Control (Barber, 1996) and the Anti-Social Behaviour (Achenbach and Edelbrock, 1987) questionnaires were used to collect the data. The data were analysed by means of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Results show a significant positive relationship between perceived psychologically controlling parenting and antisocial behaviour of emerging adults. Furthermore, antisocial behaviour is also positively predicted by both mother and father psychological control, with mothers being significantly more psychologically controlling than fathers. When comparing males and females, males engaged significantly more in antisocial activities than females; males also found fathers to be more psychologically controlling. Implications for further research are suggested.

DECLARATION

I declare that the current study *examining the relationship between psychologically controlling parenting and anti-social behaviour of emerging adults in the Faculty of Community and Health Science (CHS)* is my own work. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any university, and that all the sources I have used have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.

Anja Rumina Human



June 2010

In loving memory of my late parents

Peter Stephan Human

and

Ruth Ellen Human

*Thank you for making all my dreams a reality through your constant love,
guidance, unlimited sacrifices, and so much more, but more so for believing in me
and inspiring me to be all that I can be!! I am who I am today because of you!!*

With tears of joy of this accomplishment and appreciation

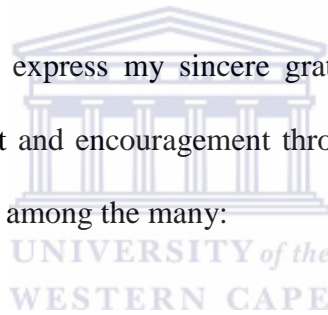
I salute you both!



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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background / Rationale

Psychological controlling parenting is an innovative area of interest receiving significantly more awareness (Aunola & Nurmi, 2004: 965). There has been prolific research within this area of interest and has been associated with both internal and external behavioural outcomes (Barber, 1996; Barber & Harmon, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Soenens, 2006; Vansteenkiste, Simons, Lens, Soenens, & Matos, 2005). Barber (1996) depicts psychological control as restrictions which influence and overwhelm children's emotional and psychological experiences. In addition psychological control refers to restrictive parenting that confines the child's development of feelings and thinking abilities such as to develop and express opinions, resulting in dependency on parents (Barber, 1996). Furthermore psychological control is defined as the roles and actions of parents that influence and impact on the child's growth (Barber, 1996, 2002; Pettit, et al., 2001., cited in Aunola & Nurmi, 2004).

Parenting is considered a societal norm and a phenomenon that has inspired research. In addition parenting practices is a broad and complex domain which encompasses child rearing with many facets like love, nurture, provision of basic needs to mention a few, but more so guidance to attain certain strengths, good moral behaviours, individuality and knowledge to become young, independent, self-determined and decision-making adults. Young people leave the phase of adolescence to enter adulthood. According to Arnett (2000), when young people leave adolescence they may not necessarily take on the roles of

responsibility and decision-making in adulthood. Often young people are taking a longer time to get married, continue to remain in the parental home, continue studying and do not make their own decisions. Arnett (2000) has therefore identified a specific phase bridging adolescence and adulthood as emerging adulthood, which identifies young people as aged between 18 and 25 years.

The assumption is that parenting becomes less controlling as children move through different phases of development. Therefore it is assumed that as the transition of adolescence, into emerging adulthood, is occurring so too is the role of the parents subsequent to this change. In consequence parenting during emerging adulthood should have a more supportive role and focus subsequently on monitoring and guidance instead of being controlling, since parental supervision and monitoring are fundamental components of effective behavioural regulation (Patterson, Read, & Dishion, 1992 cited in Pettit et al., 2001:583). When parents are psychologically controlling emerging adults could become frustrated and annoyed, which could result in antisocial behaviour. Parent-child interaction is a central variable in the etiology of antisocial behaviour (Patterson, 1990:267). This means that psychologically controlling parenting could predispose emerging adults toward anti-social behaviour. The purpose of this study will be to establish the prevalence of parental psychological control during emerging adulthood. Furthermore, this study will examine the nature of the relationship between psychologically controlling parenting and anti-social behaviour of emerging adults.

1.2 Theoretical Framework

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) has been researched and practiced by a network of researchers around the world and has been described as a theory of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). SDT is used as the framework for the current study in order to understand the influence of parental psychological control on antisocial behaviour in emerging adulthood. Deci and Ryan (1985) suggest that SDT is inherent and universal in understanding psychological needs and human motivation. SDT is concerned with supporting our inherent learning to behave in effective and healthy ways and therefore become self-determined (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Thus individuals will be psychologically healthy if they are self-determined. According to Guardia and Patrick (2008) SDT offers a wider perspective on the techniques through which relational processes are related to personal well-being and relational functioning for example, the relationship between the parent and the emerging adult. In order to achieve self-determination, individuals need to exist and interact in an environment which is autonomous-supportive rather than psychologically controlling (Deci & Ryan, 2000). When environments are controlling, individuals become frustrated and may react in various ways, such as engaging in antisocial behaviour (Patterson, 1990). Psychologically controlling parenting practices could be an environment which may enhance antisocial behaviour of emerging adults.

1.3 Problem Statement

There is a societal expectation that youth aged 18 to 25 years are able to function independently, although research shows that identity crisis and other adolescent challenges or problems such as antisocial behaviour, extend into

emerging adulthood and that emerging adults may not be equipped with the proficiency to effectively deal with challenges (Arnett, 2004, 2006; Cote, 2000, 2006). Literature reveals that psychological control as a parenting dimension is conceptualized as a negative form of parental practice as it constrains children's behaviours, desires and opinions (Barber, 1996:3296; Barber, Olsen & Shagle, 1994). South African literature concerning psychologically controlling parenting practices is either limited to adolescents or only to mother-preadolescent relationships (Amoeteng, Barber & Erickson, 2006; Barber, Stolz & Olsen 2005; Roman, 2008). If parental psychological control is detrimental to the psychological well-being of children and adolescents, and furthermore results in or exacerbates their externalizing behaviour problems, how much more would this not be for emerging adults who should be independent? This study proposes to examine the extent to which parents are psychologically controlling and to what extent emerging adults tend to engage in antisocial behaviour. Furthermore, the study seeks to determine the nature of the relationship between psychologically controlling parenting practices and the antisocial behaviour of emerging adults.

1.4 Research Questions

In relation to literature and theoretical aspects in view of emerging adulthood, the following research questions were devised:

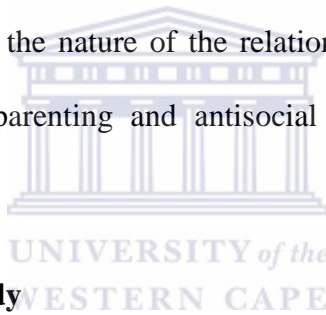
1. Are parents perceived as being psychologically controlling of emerging adults?
2. What is the prevalence of antisocial behaviour during emerging adulthood?

3. What is the nature of the relationship between perceived psychologically controlling parenting and antisocial behaviour of emerging adults?
4. Are males and females significantly different in their perceptions of parental psychological control?
5. Are males and females significantly different in their perceptions of their antisocial behaviour?

1.5 Aims and Objectives

1.5.1 Aims of the study

The study aims to determine the nature of the relationship between perceived psychologically controlling parenting and antisocial behaviour of emerging adults.



1.5.2 Objectives of the study

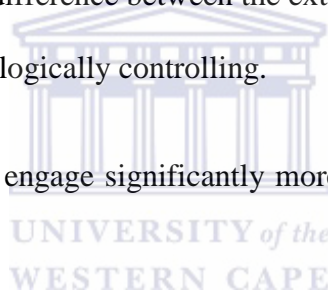
The objectives of the study are to:

- Investigate the extent to which parents are perceived as psychologically controlling;
- Examine the extent to which emerging adults engage in antisocial behaviour;
- Determine the relationship between perceptions of psychologically controlling parenting practices and antisocial behaviour of emerging adults;

- Compare if there is a significant difference between males and females regarding perceptions of mothers and fathers psychologically controlling parenting practices;
- Compare if there is a significant difference between males and females regarding perceptions of their own antisocial behaviour

1.5.3 Hypotheses

- Psychologically controlling parenting practices will be positively related to antisocial behaviour of emerging adults.
- There is a significant difference between the extent to which mothers and fathers are psychologically controlling.
- We expect that males engage significantly more in antisocial behaviour than females do.



1.6 Research Methodology

In this study a quantitative methodological approach with a cross-sectional design was used to present the relationships between psychologically controlling parenting and antisocial behaviour of emerging adults. The study offers statistical descriptions and inferences and attempts to disprove hypotheses for resultant relationships between the variables of the study (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006)

1.7 Significance of the Study

The study aimed to provide insight and broaden understanding of emerging adults' experiences that allows exploration of the factors which facilitate antisocial behaviour. The relationship between parents and emerging adults was examined in this study, focusing on the effects that psychological parental control has on the emerging adults' interaction with his/her environment and the stimulus of antisocial behaviour. Findings in this study will contribute to facilitating social workers and other professionals, who have interactions with parents and emerging adults. In doing so greater insight into antisocial behaviour as a common dampening factor or phenomenon in many societies where young adults have been entrapped in challenges such as alcohol and drug abuse, violence, unwanted pregnancy, gangsterism and unemployment is offered. Thus the study will facilitate in helping to understand the domain of antisocial behaviour and provide parents and professionals with information to caution against producing these types of behaviours. This study adds to knowledge for educators, professionals and parents with guidelines for early intervention that could greatly reduce or prevent antisocial behaviour.

1.8 Definition of Terms

Emerging adulthood

Emerging adulthood is described as a developmental period of 18-25 years ending adolescence but also a beginning stage of adulthood, having left the dependency of childhood and adolescence, having not yet entered the responsibilities that are normative in adulthood; in love, work and worldviews (Arnett, 2000: 469).

Psychologically Controlling Parenting

According to Barber (1996) controlling parenting intrudes into the psychological and emotional development of the child.

Parenting

Parenting is the rearing of the child or children and includes care, guidance and love given by the parent, or care giver (Kerby, 2007).

Anti- social behaviour

Patterson's model (1990) defines anti social behaviour to be a developmental trait that begins early in life and often continues into adolescence and adulthood.

Self-determination Theory

The theory of Self-Determination (Deci and Ryan, 1985) holds that an individual has the capacity and need to have choices. An individual also has the capacity and a need to allow these choices to determine his/her actions and develop into competencies, but the theory in addition maintains that the environment plays a crucial role in either supporting or hindering the quality of individuals' human functioning (Roman, 2008).

Adolescents

The term '**adolescents**' derives from the Latin verb adolescence, meaning 'to grow up' or 'to grow to adulthood', thus referring to a development

phase in the human life cycle that intervenes between childhood and adulthood, (Gouws & Kruger, 1996, 3).

Autonomy

According to Chirkov, et al., (2003: 98 cited in Roman, 2008) “A person is autonomous when his/her behaviour is experienced as willingly enacted and when he or she fully endorses (supports or approves) the actions in which he or she is engaged and/or the values expressed by them”. Autonomy is different to independence which is “the circumstances of not relying on others for support, help or supplies”.

1.9 Overview of chapters

This current chapter, chapter 1, is an introduction and refers briefly to the manifestation of antisocial behaviours during emerging adulthood, through parental control. This chapter also provides the background for the study and sets the framework of the problem statements, aims and objectives for guiding the study.

Chapter 2 presents the conceptual framework of the study. This chapter focuses on the understanding of the relationship between parents, emerging adults and antisocial behaviour. In particular it discusses how psychological controlling parenting practices influence and control behaviours of emerging adults within the context of Self-Determination Theory.

Chapter 3 is centrally focused on the method of conducting the research. Here specific attention is given to how the study was conducted based upon the aims and objectives of the study, hypothesis, sample characteristics, measuring

instruments, data collection and analysis procedures, as well as the ethical considerations.

Chapter 4 is a presentation of the results in tables and graphs, following the analysis outlined in chapter 3. Presented in this chapter are the descriptive and inferential statistics.

Chapter 5 concludes the study with a discussion of the main findings integrated with previous research identified in chapter 2. Limitations of the study are provided and concluded with recommendations for further study.

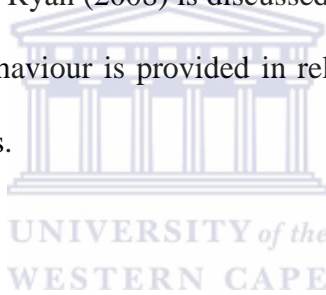


CHAPTER 2

PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTROL AND ANTISOCIAL BEHAVIOUR OF EMERGING ADULTS

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter the literature regarding emerging adults is linked to the relationship between psychological controlling parenting and antisocial behaviour. A review of the developments within emerging adults is provided in relation to experiences of parenting practices and styles. Self-Determination theory developed by Deci and Ryan (2008) is discussed. Finally, an overview of the construct of antisocial behaviour is provided in relation to psychologically controlling parenting practices.



2.2 Emerging Adults

The general societal assumption is that when young people leave the period of adolescence (teenage years) they would be ready to take on or step into their adult roles and be transformed from experimental adolescents into responsible adults. According to Arnett (2000) adulthood does not automatically start after adolescence. He suggests that there is another phase before adulthood which he theorised as emerging adulthood. Emerging adulthood is a period of development categorised by the age between 18-25 years, described as a developmental period ending adolescence, but also a beginning stage of adulthood. Young people in this phase of development have left the dependency of childhood and adolescence, but have not as yet entered the responsibilities that are normative in adulthood such as; love, work and worldviews (Arnett,

2000: 469). Therefore this period of development is a progression from adolescence into adulthood, but not adult as yet. In order to understand the phase of emerging adulthood, a brief description of adolescence is provided.

2.2.1 A brief description of adolescence

An overview of adolescence reveals that during this stage of development young people are “in an active purposeful ‘flight’ away from attachment relationships with parents” (Allen & Land, 1999:319). These attachment bonds are viewed as a restraint from which young people want to break away in order to gain freedom to develop autonomy and a sense of self reliance (Allen & Land, 1999).

A significant factor of adolescence is to develop autonomy and independence, and in this manner lessen the dependency on parents (Allen, Hauser, Bell & Conner, 1994; Collins 1990; Louw & Louw, 2007; Moore, 1987; Steinberg, 1990). Similarly Steinberg (1990) articulates that as the adolescent is becoming older, growing into an emerging adult, they attain increased ability with negotiation skills which promotes a less stress inflicted relationship with their parents and one of more equality (Collins & Larsen, 1992; Reese-Weber, 2000). Theoretically adolescents are required to establish and maintain both a sense of knowing themselves by having a sense of self awareness, as well as building relationships with significant others (Erikson, 1968; Grotevant & Cooper, 1998). This suggests that there are notable changes occurring within adolescent relationships with others which would therefore result in improved relationships with their parents continuing into adulthood (Arnett, 2004).

During adolescence parents move from being solely controlling to allowing for transformation as the phase of adolescence allows for an alteration of authority from parents holding all the power to developing into a relationship of equality (Younniss & Smoller, 1985). This change suggests less control from parental figures which allows emerging adults to gain decision-making skills, individuality and thus growth in adult responsibilities. If this control is not diminished it results in increased conflict between adolescents and parents (Allen & Land, 1999), such as breaking of rules associated with antisocial behaviour. During adolescence, there is a normative acceptance that adolescents will experiment and engage in antisocial behaviour as a means of ‘acting out’; a period identified as ‘storm and stress’ (Louw & Louw, 2007). Arnett (2006) highlights that extremes of behaviour and emotion in adolescents are perfectly normal. This is partly because even though most adolescents do not exhibit serious problems, certain types of problems, such as conflict with parents, are more common during adolescence than at other ages (Arnett, 1990). Research suggests that parental monitoring; support and behavioural control have been associated with less antisocial behavioural tendencies during adolescence (Barber, 1996; Galambos, Barker & Almeida, 2003; Reid & Patterson, 1989; Snyder & Patterson, 1987) and adjustment during adulthood (Lamborn & Groh, 2009). Soenens (2006) significantly points out that parental monitoring and knowledge of their children’s whereabouts is linked to less risk taking behaviours in adolescence. This portrays identifiable links between parent-child relationships and behaviours.

2.2.2 Shifting to adulthood

The shift from adolescence to adulthood is a focus on the self with opportunities to focus on self development, including educational and occupational preparation for adult life (Arnett, 2007). This shift is a transitioning phase preparing for marriage, parenthood and long term work (Arnett, 1998). Emerging adulthood then becomes a period of development where the foundation for adult lives is laid and adaptation to a full range of adult responsibilities is reached (Arnett, 1998).

However, Arnett (2000a; 2000b; 2001; 2007) has found that young people between the ages of 18 to 25 years are prolonging the transition into adulthood and therefore delaying the process of serious decision-making regarding their future lives. In terms of societal assumption, there is an acceptance that emerging adults have left the phase of 'storm and stress' and experimental behaviour, which often includes delinquency and antisocial behaviour. Furthermore, emerging adults often continue to live with their parents and depend on them for financial and emotional support. Parents find themselves supporting emerging adults for a longer period of time than occurred in previous generations. Hence, emerging adults may continue to live in the parental home, as a result of financial constraints, instead of living on their own (Arnett, 2007). The focus during the period of emerging adulthood is on the self, with emerging adults having to think about decisions about the future (Arnett, 2009). The role of the parent should be more supportive rather than that of principal decision-maker, based on the assumption that sound relationships exist between the emerging adults and their parents (Chipman, et. al., 2000; Lamborn & Groh,

2009). While emerging adults need support from their parents, parents themselves may feel that they should be making the decisions for their children, especially if their children continue to live in the parental home and parents have to provide for their adult children.

As emerging adults are developing they undergo many individual changes, along with exploring their identity, which brings about uncertainty as they experience new challenges and changes (Arnett, 2004, 2006). According to Aquilino (1996) the parental home is a safety net and base from which emerging adults can explore the changes and challenges they experience during this transitional stage of development. Additionally, Arnett (2007) emphasises that transitional changes and challenges are approached with some anxiety and a sense of being overwhelmed as this period is the least structured time of life. For example families, schools, work and other responsible roles provide the structure which children and adults need in order to provide stability. Emerging adults do not have an institution providing this structure in their lives. They have either left home, or remained home but may not have their own families, work commitments and be dependent on their parents. During this phase they have a new sense of freedom in which they are only just beginning to explore who they are and where they are going.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) has developed over more than four decades to formulate a deeper understanding of the self (Deci & Ryan, 2004:8-9; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Van Steenkiste, 2005). In addition, SDT provides an intensive study of personality and self development, which suggests

that individuals have a “natural, innate and constructive tendency, to develop a sense of self” (Deci & Ryan, 2004:5; Van Steenkiste, 2005). Self-Determination Theory (SDT) suggests that to understand individual motivation, the three inherent and basic psychological needs of the person must be considered and satisfied (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2008). These basic psychological needs are competence, relatedness and autonomy. This suggests that all individuals have the primary need to feel connected, capable and self-determined (independent decision-makers) in order to develop and function optimally (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2000). This furthermore explains the paramount importance given to the need for the development of autonomy, as this is a core characteristic of Self Determination Theory. Autonomy means to allow individuals the necessary freedom to experience things or life in order to develop their own sense of behaviours, opinions and feelings (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Thus autonomy refers to the ability of individuals to be self-motivating and independent, and simultaneously move away from controlling environments, including parental control, which constructs behaviours (Deci & Ryan, 2006).

SDT advocates that an individual needs the ability to make choices (Deci & Ryan, 1985). These choices allow the individual to determine his/her actions which in turn develops into capabilities, thus feelings of competence. The environment also plays an essential part in either promoting or obstructing the quality of a person’s functioning (Roman, 2008).

2.3.1 Motivation

Self Determination Theory is a theory of motivation, which means that it is stimulated by drive and inspiration and more importantly intrinsic goals

positioned within individuals (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2008). This means that motivation is a self-determining component which allows for self-development as it promotes autonomous behaviours, that includes individual decisions, resolutions of conflict, independency and other skills development, needed for adulthood. Therefore, in order to reach a state of self-reliance and individuality, one has to be driven and inspired by self-determination. Thus, decisions made or actions taken by young adults are not highly influenced or controlled by others such as parents, but self-motivated. Self-Determination is therefore internally developed which stimulates the desire to change within, and requires individuals to take responsibility for their own development (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This progressive change facilitates long-term conformity and personal growth, which is essential for self-development within emerging adulthood.

2.3.1.1 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations

The main component of SDT is the achievement of self-worth, which assists individuals with mastering challenges associated with a positive sense of self (Dubois & Flay, 2004; Leary, 2004; Pyszczynski & Cox, 2004). SDT allows emerging adults to reach their optimal functioning as their intrinsic and inherently nurtured personality traits, character, and individual power, controls extrinsic factors. Since SDT is a theory of motivation, there is a clear relationship between one's actions and the motivation which inspired the action, as individuals should develop the ability to make self-motivated decisions (Ryan & Deci, 2000). For example, the choice of studying instead of working when completing school based on the increased monetary value upon completion of studying. SDT refers to the understanding of choice in initiating

behaviours, that is, to realistically correspond with the internal or external forces that influence behaviours (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000b).

Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation is generally when external factors influences the persons motivation to act or behave or make a decision accordingly (Deci & Ryan, 2000). For example, external factors, such as friends, family, teachers, parents, society, church and significant others can act as extrinsic motivators to complete a particular task. Every person initially is influenced by significant others as they are taught values, ideals, family standards, societal norms and cultural customs. All these externally taught morals and ideals mould and nurture an individual (Joussemet, Landry & Koestner, 2008). Additionally, extrinsic motivators add character to the individual as he or she learns to define and identify with things. Although, it is important to acknowledge that a person or individual is taught all these beliefs, thought processes should be moulded individually. Furthermore, individuals should also develop their own ability to make decisions (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This knowledge received from parents and significant others, motivates skills development which allows for learning and growth. Every person experiences a process of discovery, but should be flexible to new things absent from others' influence. Thus we can see how an individual moves from having different external influences moulding their development, to becoming self-motivated and determined in finding their own ways, answers and paths of dealing with things happening and also making individual decisions.

Intrinsic

Intrinsic motivation and the internalisation of emotions and experiences are the key components to developing a healthy sense of self (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Interesting activities are generally sought by individuals through intrinsic motivation, enhancing self exploration, as well as being influenced by the immediate social environment (Joussemet, Landry & Koestner, 2008). SDT recommends that individuals have an inherent desire to master their social surroundings, in which the occurring process of standards, principles, ideologies and behaviours are naturally developed by the individual (Ryan & Deci, 1995). Originally, individuals move from a state of being extrinsically motivated to being intrinsically motivated (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Being intrinsically motivated, individuals are determined to make their own choice or decisions and they feel psychologically well by engaging in this process.



2.3.1.2 Autonomy versus controlled motivation

Self determination theory is a theory based on innate motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In addition, Biestek (1957, cited in Hepworth, Rooney & Larsen, 2002: 67) describes self determination as the recognition of a person's right and need to freedom in making one's own choices and decisions. Thus, self determination enhances action as it promotes freedom of choices and decisions, which is driven or inspired by motivation. Motivation may therefore be thought of as a stimulus that drives action, although this motivation may be stimulated by a person's innermost being or contradictory external forces, such as parents, the environment or community. Consequently, this brings forth a distinctive difference between two types of motivation namely; autonomous supporting motivation and controlled motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Autonomous supporting motivation engages a person to participate freely, eagerly and out of choice in activities. This allows the individual the opportunity to promote decision-making skills, which in turn enhances autonomy. According to Chirkov, et al., (2003: 98 cited in Roman, 2008) “a person is autonomous when his/her behaviour is experienced as willingly enacted and when he or she fully endorses (supports or approves) the actions in which he or she is engaged and/or the values expressed by them”. Thus autonomy suggests individuality and ownership of oneself in various aspects such as decisions and choices regarding behaviours and other tasks presented with. The behaviour of the individual is therefore willingly performed, without parents and significant others enforcing, restricting or placing limitations through control and power of command. Autonomy supporting motivation is furthermore described into two types namely, intrinsic motivation and identified motivation. Motivation which promotes a person inherently in completing a task or activity because of personal interest is known as intrinsic, and motivation accompanied with profound commitment is known as identified motivation. This significantly, distinguishes between two types of autonomy which promotes innate motivation.

In contrast, controlled motivation engages actions and behaviours of individuals by the usage of pressure, command or force (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This suggests an individual’s unwillingness to do, but driven by obligation to perform and please another, such as parents, peers or significant others. Several studies conducted draw clear contrasting assertion to the effects of autonomy and controlled behaviours on individual’s adjustment and well being in adulthood (Koestner & Losier, 2004).

Controlled motivation is also accompanied with antecedents such as rewards, punishments, prizes as well as young people completing tasks to seek their parent's approval (Koestner & Losier, 2004). These external motivators in consequence limit optimal functioning and lead to lack of interest, adjustment problems and anti-social behaviours alike. Whereas autonomous supporting motivation allow for opportunities to grow, learn, make choices and become self regulated (Koestner & Losier, 2004). Therefore it is evident that both types of motivation require energy and endorse learning, although the quality of learning and personal growth varies, as well as the behavioural outcomes.

Furthermore, this process of self exploration and self regulated decisions is enhanced by parents whom support and guide, rather than control their emerging adults (Grolnick, 2003). This suggests that individuals who are encouraged to be autonomous function optimally, are more competent and effective, and are psychologically healthy, within adulthood (Grolnick, 2003). Hence, Self Determination Theory is promoted as a basic psychological need to enhance performance and optimal functioning (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

2.3.2 The influence of environments

The theory of Self-Determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985) advocates that an individual requires the development of making decisions. These decisions allow the individual to determine his/her actions which in turn develops into capabilities or competencies. Therefore the environment also plays an essential part in either promoting or obstructing the quality of a person's functioning (Roman, 2008), thus it is important to consider both the internal and external environments and their effects on the healthy functioning of emerging adults.

This may be the reason why emerging adults make a conscious decision to move away from home in order to fully develop decision-making skills and so to self-sufficiency. Bornstein (2002) states that most emerging adults leave their parents' home and consequently are much less exposed to parental socialization, and therefore possibly experience less psychological control. Furthermore, Bornstein (2002) emphasises that emerging adults who return home; tend to be more autonomous, than they were as adolescents. The suggestion is therefore that parents would be less controlling if their adult children moved back home.

Parents can create certain environments in the home in the process of socialisation. The process of socialisation consists of three explicit components namely 1) the ability to control ones feelings, thoughts and actions, 2) the attainment of knowledge and ownership of cultural beliefs, and to respect the power of significant others, 3) the ability to develop skills, which enables perceptions of relationships and dealing with conflict effectively (Grusec, 2002: 210). Grusec (2002), states that the process of socialisation whereby elders and others impart knowledge and skills, combine in helping individuals to develop the standards, behaviours and principles required to becoming part of society. Therefore, one can identify that many different people, such as elders and parents all play a role in growing, nurturing and maturing a child to an adult. In the process of socialisation, parents can either be autonomy supporting or controlling (Grolnick, 2003). To this end, parents would therefore 'allow' decision-making (be autonomous) or make the decisions themselves (controlling) for their emerging adults. Notably, this process of social development continues through emerging adulthood, as the roles of these supporting structures are suggested to change from being less controlling and

more supportive. This allows for the process of self development and self determination to germinate into adulthood. The process of emerging adulthood involves acquiring not only knowledge and behaviours, as from the elders and parents, but also values such as developing a personal sense of an intrinsic sense of dependability and self motivation in attaining independence (Arnett, 1998). Consequently, when the environment in which the emerging adult is actively progressing and developing is not autonomous, but rather controlling, it could disrupt the emerging adult's self development.

2.3.2.1 Autonomy supportive versus controlling environments

Autonomy support is described as a continuous supporting mechanism of an individual's potential to be self-initiating and autonomous (Ryan, Deci, Grolnick & La Gaurida, 2006). Individuals only attain autonomy when they are not restricted to comply with significant others or environmental factors (Ryan, Deci, Grolnick & La Gaurida, 2006). In order to avoid controlling strategies, constructive activities such as sport and positive social interactions, are factors that will evade controlling mechanisms (Ryan, Deci, Grolnick & La Gaurida, 2006). Autonomy support is categorised in terms of four indicators namely, 1) providing underlying principles and reason for behavioural needs, 2) acknowledging the views and beliefs of the individual 3) encouraging decision making and social initiative; 4) reducing overprotective mechanisms (Ryan, Deci, Grolnick & La Gaurida, 2006).

Autonomy means to allow a person the necessary freedom to experience things in order to develop their own sense of behaviours, opinions and feelings (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The individual is discovering their inner being as well as

developing characteristics which allow the young person to grow into self-motivated and independent adults. While, autonomy refers to the ability of the young person to be self-motivating and independent, autonomy also simultaneously refers to veering away from parents' control which constructs behaviours (Deci & Ryan, 2006). Consequently, if young people are seeking independence, parents should become autonomy supportive and less controlling, allowing their child the freedom to develop self-determination and become purpose driven individuals. This would in turn produce a state of optimal functioning, as the role of parents is diminishing and allowing emerging adults to become autonomous and self-reliant. Autonomy-supporting environments would therefore enhance personal development (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Autonomy-supportive environments have been associated with self-esteem, life satisfaction, feelings of hope and vitality as well as psychological adjustment (Phillipe & Vallerand, 2008). However, there are environments which control the person and therefore hinder the development of the individual as well as his or her well-being.

Controlling environments enforce strict rules and limit the ability of the individual to be self-expressive (Deci & Ryan, 1987). To control means to restrict, thus if an environment is restrictive there are limitations to what is permitted and allowed (Deci & Ryan, 2004). A study comparing controlling and autonomy-supportive environments by Oliver et al., (2008) found that when individuals were in controlling environments, they exhibited less free-choice behaviours, were less interested in tasks and had higher pressure or tension than when they were in autonomy-supportive environments. Furthermore, participants in the controlling environments used more negative expressions of

themselves. Thus, controlling environments are more likely to produce negative emotions and negative behaviours. Often parental behaviours create the controlling environments.

2.4 Parenting

The relationship between parents and their children changes over the entire lifespan. Parenting is described as encompassing feelings of responsibility in ensuring the nurturing of children and consists of the child receiving compassion, guidance and affection by the parent (Kerby, 2007). Parenting is a key element in the socialisation and rearing of children as parental nurturing contributions towards learning and development influences children's adjustment in later stages of development (Baumrind, 1967; Louw & Louw, 2007). When children are younger, there is more dependency until eventually, over time and across development, the child becomes an independent adult. The role of the parent should shift from participatory and active parent to guider, supporter and monitor; almost passive. There are different styles of parenting, which advances different outcomes within the rearing of the child, which directly relates to how children perceive and react to the world and challenges therein. Therefore, parenting styles allow children to grow their character by developing skills necessary to equip them for mastering and overcoming the many challenges in adulthood (Baumrind, 1967; Louw & Louw, 2007).

2.4.1 Parenting Styles

Parenting styles are aimed at promoting self-sufficiency of children by contributing to personal growth and development in the form of support, satisfaction of needs and control and affection shown towards children (Hart,

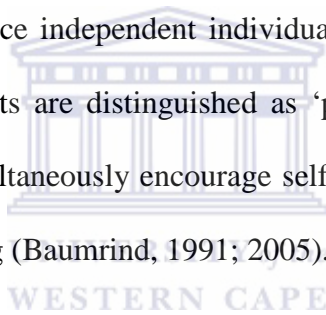
Newell & Oslen, 2003). Baumrind (1966, 1967, 1978 & 1991) classified parenting into three different types of styles, which play an important role in the development of the child from childhood to adulthood, and highlights the effects, both positive and negative, for adulthood. These types of parenting styles are: authoritarian, authoritative and permissive parenting styles (Baumrind 1967).

2.4.1.1 Authoritative Parenting Style

Authoritative style of parenting allows individuals to function optimally as it promotes self-regulated thinking in relation to rules and responsibilities set by parents. Authoritative parents communicate on a regular basis with their children and stimulate confidence by encouraging them to become independent beings (Baumrind, 1966). In addition, Baumrind (1967) articulates that this approach is done by formulating rules and strategies, which allows for freedom of exploration, whilst simultaneously implementing discipline. Authoritative parents desire their children to perform at high standards, while still providing affection and allowing for open communication and accommodating for contributions in family discussions and decisions (Baumrind, 1991). This kind of participation permitted by parents promotes children's sense of individualism and enhances self development (Baumrind, 1991).

Research studies show that authoritative parenting is linked to well-adjusted adults due to an integration of being both demanding and responsive (Arnett, 2007). Children establish strong relationships with their parents with secure attachments due to the positive support from parents (Baumrind, 1991; van Wel, Linssen & Ruud, 2000). Wintre and Yaffe (2000) indicate that authoritative

parents have children who have improved academic performance and feel competent. This type of parenting style allows parents to adapt to the changing needs and abilities as children become adults. In this way parents could encourage autonomous decision-making and in so doing maintain a good understanding and emotional attachment to their emerging adults (Aquilino, 2006; Allen, Hauser, O Conner & Bell, 2002). As a result, emerging adults are able to develop interpersonal skills and take responsibility as this form of parenting is more supportive through monitoring and guidance (Conger, Cui, Bryant & Elder, 2000). Authoritative parents apply distinctive attributes such as “affection, assistance, behavioural control and minimal use of psychological control”, and therefore produce independent individuals (Baumrind, 2005:67). Therefore authoritative parents are distinguished as ‘power assertive’ as they can balance control and simultaneously encourage self-reflection, by enforcing both commands and reasoning (Baumrind, 1991; 2005).



2.4.1.2 Authoritarian Parenting Style

Authoritarian parents use power and control to dominate and impose rules onto their children’s lives (Baumrind, 2005). This style of parenting hinders performance and adjustment and in this manner prohibits children’s advancement (Baumrind, 2005). This is achieved by being excessively strict, domineering and demanding complete obedience from their children, thus placing obedience as the “cornerstone” in the development of character (Hyles, 1972, cited in Baumrind 1997:321). As a direct consequence children of authoritarian parents are afraid of their parents and fear new challenges and experiences (Santrock, 2007). Authoritarian parents are unapproachable, often

lack warmth, are controlled and detached towards their children (Baumrind, 1967). Thus they are unresponsive to the desires of their growing children's needs. Authoritarian parents often use harsh and punitive measures to discipline their children. Authoritarian parenting style has been linked to behavioural outcomes such as antisocial behaviour, including aggression, theft and other delinquent activities (Baumrind, 1997).

2.4.1.3 Permissive Parenting Style

According to Baumrind (1997), permissive parents show more warmth and less control, which indicates that their parenting behaviours is less dictative. Additionally, permissive parents use less discipline as they portray to be more compliant of the desires and actions of their children. This form of parenting has less structure as children are not disciplined accordingly, but rather portray to be more responsive to their children's needs and wants without setting proper boundaries (Baumrind, 1997). Permissive parents assume that their style of parenting is the best form, although evidence indicates that it produces aggressive, impulsive and lack of self control within their children (Peterson & Hann, 1999). Although permissive parenting is focused on good parental support and a broad sense of independence, this could strengthen and enhance the child-parent relationship (Baumrind, 1997). In retrospect, children fall short of maturity and liability since permissive parents' regulations may have been instructed, but not communicated effectively nor imposed to promote responsible, autonomous behaviour (Patterson & Hann, 1999).

With the result, permissive parenting style is considered as exceedingly indulgent with no limitations to the child. This form of parenting stimulates

children's behaviour of being bad-mannered, egocentric, demanding, since the child has been spoilt to such an extent to decrease their chances of making their own choices (Baumrind, 1997). In turn, the child's thinking abilities are negatively affected by the parent's provision of materialistic possessions, such as money, rather than encouraging love and affection needed for the child's constructive growth (Baumrind, 1966).

Various sources of literature provide evidence that emerging adults reared by permissive parents have poor emotional control, portray disobedience and have antisocial behaviour, whilst emerging adults reared by authoritative parents were more satisfied and self confident. Additionally, children of permissive parents are more likely to engage in risk-taking behaviour especially drug abuse (Baumrind, 1966, 1967, 1978, 1991; Louw, Van Ede & Louw, 2004; Scaamella & Leve, 2004).

All of these mentioned factors have different influences on the emerging adult's decisions and development (Hart, Newell & Oslan, 2003). According to Roman (2008), parenting styles are overarching forms of parenting and have been the basis for further research to examine exactly what practical activities these styles entail. These practical activities are practices of parenting, which is the holistic term for all the different aspects within parenting styles which provide the practical understanding of what parenting styles consist of.

2.4.2 Parenting Practices

Parenting practices entail parental tasks and behaviours with their children. In understanding parenting practices one has to actually break down the parental activities within the style in order to conceptualise how parents interact with

their children. For example, authoritative parents provide warmth, guidance, support, behavioural control and structure. Authoritative parents use physical discipline, detachment, psychological control and minimal warmth in raising their children. Permissive parents provide love to the extent of no control, no demanding, no structure and possibly no discipline (Baumrind, 1967; 2005).

Control or lack thereof, is central to raising children, and can either be visible or invisible. In the case of visible control, the parent could be either using harsh and punitive or warm and nurturing strategies of behavioural control. Invisible control is either supportive and warm or pervasive and inhibitive. The concern and focus of this study is the control which pervades the mind and inhibits the individual (Barber, 1996).

2.5 Psychologically Controlling Parenting

Psychological control can be defined as a form of parental behaviour which seeks to control and take over the mind, behaviour and feelings of the child. This form of parenting seeks to manipulate and inhibit the psychological well-being of the child (Barber, 1996; 2002). Barber (1996) emphasises that psychologically controlling parenting practices include: imparting feelings of guilt, limiting affection, with-holding love, controlling children by inducing fears and constraining verbal communications between parent and child to subject matters important to the parent. Additionally, psychological control is thought to challenge intrinsic motivation and stimulate negative internal development (Joussemet, Landry & Koestner, 2008). This type of control aims to change the individuals thinking, feeling and behaviours (Assor, Roth, & Deci, 2004; Barber, Stolz, & Olsen, 2005). An example of psychologically controlling

parenting would be a parent stating regularly, “*I sacrificed everything for you so that you can have a good education*”. This form of parenting interferes with the young person’s psychosocial development to become independent and to develop a healthy personality and sense of self (Barber & Harmon, 2002). Psychologically controlling parenting is not only restrictive or inhibitive, but research shows that this parental practice is also associated with both internalizing and externalizing problems. Internalising problems include shyness anxiety and loneliness (Gresham & Elliott, 1990), dependency (Baumrind, 1978), low self-esteem (Hart, Olsen, Robinson, & Mandleco, 1997), withdrawal (Baumrind, 1967; Baumrind & Black, 1967), and depression (Allen, Hauser, Eickholt, Bell & O’Conner, 1994; Barber, Olsen, & Shagle, 1994). High levels of psychological control have typically been linked to internalization and expression of anxiety, depression, loneliness, emotional dysfunction and confusion (Barber, 1996; Bean, Bush, McKenry & Wilson, 2003; Manzeske & Stright, 2009; Silk, Morris, Kanaya & Steinberg, 2003; Van Steenkiste, Zhou, Lens & Soenens, 2005). When parents are psychologically controlling, the direct effects for the individual often signify a sense of worthlessness, anxiety and depression. This may be ascribed to the insidious, pervasive and inhibitive nature of psychological control that affects the individual’s state of mind and behaviour (Barber, 1996). Psychological control has been linked to identity development (Koen, et. al., 2007), emotion regulation (Manzeske & Stright, 2009) and externalization of problems such as drug abuse, truancy and antisocial behaviour (Amoeteng, Barber & Erickson, 2006; O’ Conner and Scott, 2007; Pettit, et al., 2001). Ultimately, psychological

control also plays an important role in a child's development (Barber, 1996, 2002; Pettit, et al., 2001) into adulthood (Bendikas, 2010).

Previous research has provided sufficient evidence of the negative effects of parental psychological control on child and adolescent development (Amoeteng, Barber & Erickson, 2006; Barber, 1996; Manzeske & Stright, 2009; Pettit, et al., 2001). More recently, studies have revealed that the negative effects of psychological control extend into adulthood (Bendikas, 2010; Koen, et. al., 2007). This is a concern since the assumption is that parental influence is lessened as children become adults.

Although the influence of parents continues to be identifiable in emerging adulthood, as parents help in the improvement of quality of life to the extent that they encourage their emerging adults' increased capacity for independence and autonomy (Grusec, 2002), the emphasis is on parental support and not control. The dichotomy is that emerging adults need parents to make allowance for changes concerning their personal growth and need for independence, and yet are still dependent on parental guidance and assistance, both emotionally and financially (Aquilino, 2006). However, this is not an easy process as some parents portray to be reluctant and pessimistic toward their emerging adults growing capabilities and independence (Bartle-Haring, Brucker & Hock, 2002). This leads to parents' increased attempts to control their adult children's behaviour in the form of intruding on the emerging adults' physical privacy and emotional freedom which leads to arguments as this kind of control is restrictive to self-learning and expression (Arnett, 2004; Aquilino, 2006). Furthermore, parents try to conform and manage the decisions of emerging adults with regard

to their daily schedules, eating habits, financial practices and sexuality, which stimulates disagreements and arguments with parents.

Research indicates that there are differences in parenting of mothers and fathers (Smetana, Campione, & Metzger, 2006; Youniss & Smollar, 1985), for example, mothers are more likely than fathers to engage with their children, assume responsibility for their children, and care for and discipline their children (Barber & Olsen, 2005; Collins & Russell, 1991; Hart, et. al., 1992). Moreover, mother-child relationships often portray warmth and responsiveness, while father-child relationships are characterized by firmness and restrictiveness (Collins & Russell, 1991; Hart, et. al., 1992). Furthermore, father-daughter relations could be less strenuous than mother-daughter relations, for example, mothers and daughters tend to argue more, but the relation between daughters and mothers could allow more freedom of expression in thoughts and opinions shared in a close bond, compared to the relationship between fathers and daughters (Nielson, 2007). So too experiences of parental psychological control may be different for sons and daughters (Bendikas, 2010). Mothers rather than fathers are more likely to psychologically control their children (Boyes & Allen, 1993; Dobkin, Tremblay & Sacchitelle, 1997) and that higher psychological control from mothers than fathers resulted in higher levels of depression (Bendikas, 2010). Daughters who had psychologically controlling mothers were more apprehensive, depressed and antisocial than sons, while sons engaged in more antisocial activities than daughters (Bendikas, 2010). According to Bendikas (2010), when fathers were psychologically controlling, sons exhibited a wider array of adjustment problems than daughters. She suggests that this could be due to fathers' limited involvement in the socialisation process as compared to mothers.

Thus when fathers are psychologically controlling, sons may be more harmed than daughters since fathers may be perceived as having an excessively stronger influence than mothers. When parents impose their feelings and standards on their emerging adults, they in turn experience extreme pressures and controlling parenting practices. When parents are psychologically controlling, the immediate effects for the individual are associated with feelings of worthlessness, anxiety and depression rather than rebellious antisocial behaviour (Barber, 2002). This may be recognised as internal controlling mechanisms which negatively impacts on the persons cognitive and behavioural outcomes (Barber, 1996). Research suggests that psychologically controlling practices can result in externalising behaviours such antisocial behaviour (Bendikas, 2010).

2.6 Antisocial behaviour

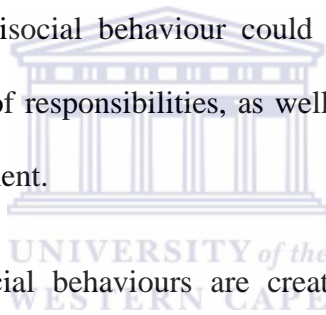
According to Baumrind (2005), antisocial behaviour is a form of externalising behaviour where the individual disobeys rules and laws. Additionally, antisocial behaviour can be defined as “[opposition] to society or to existing social organization and moral codes” and “aggressive, impulsive and sometimes violent actions that flout social and ethical codes such as laws and regulations relating to personal and property rights” (Corsini, 2002: 57). Furthermore, the phenomenon of antisocial behaviour is depicted as strongly inclined toward aggressive encounters, self-will destruction, other troubling behaviours and even minor offences (Reid et al., 2002). Antisocial behaviour in this study is understood as externalising behaviours such as the use of substances, driving

intoxicated, unprotected sex and breaking societal rules which are also known as risk-taking behaviours (Arnett, 2000, 2005; Schulenberg & Zarrett, 2006).

As has been previously noted, emerging adulthood is the ability to be independent and look after oneself. Furthermore, these 18 to 25 year olds experience emotional elements of change (Schulenberg & Zarrett, 2006) especially behavioural self-regulation or self-control. The assumption is that there is a level of maturity and thus the 'acceptable' antisocial or delinquent behaviours experienced in adolescence become almost non-existent as young people enter emerging adulthood. Arnett (2007) agrees that around the mid to late 20's a decline in antisocial behaviours can be noted since more self-reliance and self-expression can be noted. Additionally, Arnett (2007) suggests that self-reliance is enhanced when there is separation between the parent and child, preferably when emerging adults move out of the parental home. Antisocial behaviour is thought to be composed of two elements namely constitutional, composing of genetic factors; and environmental which entail family, peers and parent factors (Reid et al., 2002). In this study the focus is on the environmental factors, specifically parental practices, in relation to the antisocial behaviour of emerging adults.

According to Agnew (1997), antisocial behaviour has its roots in adolescent delinquent behaviour. These delinquencies are based on anger with parents and others and build up over time and extend into adulthood. Additionally, delinquent behaviour attracts negative responses from 'victims' which may increase anger and therefore increase the likelihood of more antisocial tendencies. The results in adulthood can be seen in the behavioural outcomes of

individuals. These behavioural outcomes are different for young males and females. For young adult males, the challenges are work-related, use of substances and conflict with the law. For young females, problems are experienced with relationships, depression, suicide and poor health (Hagan & Foster, 2003). A study conducted by Bendikas (2010) found similar challenges with emerging adults. Her results suggest that more males than females engage in sexual risk-taking behaviour and binge drinking. Arnett (2000) suggests that during emerging adulthood, antisocial behaviour may increase since this is a phase during which young people believe they are able to engage in experimentation, such as drinking, smoking and sexual activities. He further suggests that exhibits of antisocial behaviour could be due to their lack of commitment and ownership of responsibilities, as well as an undecided future, during this phase of development.



Research shows that antisocial behaviours are created through the role of families and particularly parents' lack of discipline, engagement and support that leads to antisocial activities (Loeber & Dishion, 1983; Mc Cord et al., 1963 cited in Paterson model 1990:264). Parental psychological control has specifically been associated with externalising behaviour such as antisocial behaviour (Amoeteng, Barber & Erickson, 2006; O' Conner & Scott, 2007; Pettit, et al., 2001). These studies have been conducted with younger children. More recently, studies have examined the relationship between negative forms of parenting and antisocial behaviour (Bendikas, 2010; Chipman, et. al., 2000; Lamborn & Groh, 2009; Manzeske & Stright, 2009). In particular Bendikas (2010) has found parental psychological control to be associated with risk-taking behaviour.

2.7 Conclusion

Emerging adulthood ranges between the ages of 18 to 25 years, which is considered as the early stages of adulthood. The period of emerging adulthood encourages growth and learning as a form of independence, decision making, promotes leadership skills and a sense of individuality. Skills such as these encourage emerging adults to develop a sense of knowing who they are, what they stand for and where they are headed in life. This sets a standard which enables a sense of direction into the future. This chapter provided an understanding of this stage of development and specifically examined previous research with regard to parental psychological control and its effects on externalising behaviour. The next chapter provides the methodological approach used to conduct this study.



CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Methodology is concerned with how we come to know, but is much more practical in nature (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Methodology is focused on the specific ways the methods that we can use to try to understand our world better (Trochim, 2006). Thus a methodology is the method of research employed to conduct the research and gather information. This study uses a quantitative methodological approach which focuses on investigation and measurement as forms of inquiry. This approach includes the implementation of various scales or instruments in addition to the methodology adopted. Therefore this chapter focuses on the method of conducting this study; inclusive in this chapter is the hypothesis, sample characteristics, measuring instruments, data collection and analyses procedures, SPSS descriptive analyses of the data and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

The current study used a quantitative methodological approach with a cross-sectional design (Denzin, et al., 2003). Quantitative research requires statistical descriptions and inferences and to disprove hypotheses for resultant relationships between the variables of a study (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006). Furthermore, objective data resulting from empirical observations and measures used for testing the validity and reliability of scores on instruments which lead to meaningful interpretations of data are additional characteristics of

quantitative methodologies (Kumar, 2005). In this study the quantitative method was used to present the relationships between psychologically controlling parenting and anti-social behaviour of emerging adults. According to Hawker and Boulton (2000) cross-sectional designs are often used to investigate relationships and comparisons in a snap-shot in time. Although a longitudinal design is preferred and may offer more validity for results obtained, the cross-sectional design could provide the basis for further research in a particular area. For example, there may not be research conducted in South Africa with regard to parent-child interaction during emerging adulthood. Thus as a first study a cross-sectional design may offer the basis for further intervention studies.

3.3 Sample

This study was conducted at the University of the Western Cape which is situated approximately 20km from Cape Town, located in the Northern suburbs of Cape Town. It is described as an attractive campus which includes an important nature reserve and the mountains of the Cape Peninsula and Stellenbosch afford beautiful landmarks to the east and west. Due to its favourable location the University is also readily accessible by car, taxi, bus or train and even has its own railway station, Unibell, on the southern boundary of the campus. One of the University's most prominent features is that it is a place of vibrant cultural diversity with an enriched history of a strong stance against oppression and discrimination.

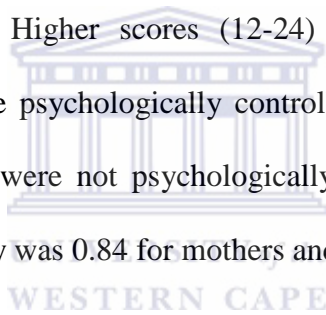
This study made use of a convenience sampling procedure so as to ensure that subgroups within the university population would be adequately represented in the sample (Graziano & Raulin, 2000). The university population is the larger

pool from which the sampling elements are drawn, and to which we want to generalize the findings (Terre Blanche et al., 1999:134). Thus the process of selecting a smaller group of participants to observe formulated the sample. The sample is simply those units or elements that are included in the study (Terre Blanche et al., 1999:134). Furthermore Balnaves and Caputi (2001:90) define sampling as a technique for selecting a subset of units of analyses from a population, suggesting that good sampling achieves representatives. The technique of probability sampling was applied to the study as it involves the selection of a “random sample” from a list containing the names of everyone in the population you are interested in studying (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:166). Consequently the total population of the Community of Health Sciences (CHS) Faculty at the University of the Western Cape is 3045 students. Of these students 1756 were aged between 18 and 25 years. These students accounted for 58% of the total population and became the study population and sampling frame. The sampling frame of student numbers and names were used to randomly select 350 participants (Yamane, 1967: 886). Stratified random sampling was used based on gender. The final sample consisted of 25% males and 75% females. The racial categories were Coloured 45%, African 43%, White 7% and Asian 6% students. Interestingly, 44% of the participants lived with both parents, while 31% lived with their mothers. Only 5% of the participants lived on their own.

3.4 Research Instrument

Participants completed the following questionnaires:

Parental Psychological Control is an instrument developed by Barber (1996) to measure parental psychological control of both mothers and fathers. Barber's eight-item scale, a revised version of the Children's Report of Parental Behaviour Inventory (CRPBI; Schaefer, 1965), was used in this study. Participants were asked to describe their mothers and fathers by choosing responses on a 3-point Likert scale with "not like her" = 1; "somewhat like her" = 2 and "a lot like her" = 3. The higher the scores the more controlling mothers are perceived. Examples of items include: *My mother is a person who is always trying to change how I feel or think about things*; *My Mother is a person who changes the subject whenever I have something to say*. Overall scores were added for each participant. Higher scores (12-24) indicated that children perceived their mothers to be psychologically controlling, while lower scores (1-11) implied that mothers were not psychologically controlling. The alpha reliability for the current study was 0.84 for mothers and 0.82 for fathers.



The Youth-Self-Report (YSR) was used to measure Antisocial Behaviour. The YSR examines externalizing and internalizing problems of youth. Each of these areas consists of subscales. The internalizing category consists of the Social Withdrawal, Somatic Complaints and Anxiety/Depression scales. Delinquent Behaviour and Aggressive Behaviour combine to form the externalizing category (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1987). The current study used the nine-item delinquent sub-scale to measure antisocial behaviour. The responses to the items of the YSR were on a 3-point Likert scale which ranged from 1= not true to 3= true. Sample items include *I steal things from places other than home*; *I lie or cheat, and I use alcohol or drugs for nonmedical purposes*. The scores were added for each participant. Higher scores (13-27) assumed a greater degree of

antisocial behaviour and lower scores (1-12) a lesser extent of antisocial behaviour. The alpha reliability in the current study was 0.78.

A biographical section was added to include questions pertaining to the age, gender, race and so on of emerging adults.

3.5 Pilot Study and Results

A pilot study is a preliminary test of a questionnaire or interview schedule which helps to identify problems and benefits associated with the design (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001:87). Similarly, Terre Blanche, et al., (1999:94) state that pilot studies are preliminary studies on small samples that help to identify potential problems with the design, particularly the research instruments.

The pilot study was conducted with 15% of the identified sample in order to test the data collection method, instrument and reliability of the proposed study. Hence, approval of the study by Senate for Higher Degrees Committee consequently was provided. Once permission had been received to conduct the study, permission was sought from the Dean and Heads of departments in the Community of Health Sciences to conduct the proposed research with the participants. The Dean and Department Heads offered permission and subsequently scheduled meetings were arranged with the lecturers in order to establish a suitable time and venue permitting accessibility to the students, in classrooms as arranged. The lecturers agreed to either have the data collected before or after lecture sessions.

At the beginning of the data collection process, students were informed about the purpose, aims and objectives of the study. All ethical processes were

adhered to. Students were then asked if they were aged between 18 and 25 years of age. They were then asked if they wanted to participate in the study. Those students, who had agreed to participate in the study, first completed the consent form and were then asked to remove the consent form before completing the questionnaire (see Appendix A). The consent form was then collected. The questionnaire was self administered allowing the researcher to offer assistance and provide clarity to questions. Completion of the questionnaire lasted 30 minutes. The questionnaire was constructed in English since this was the language of instruction at UWC.

3.5.1 Results of the pilot study

The data for the pilot was coded, entered, cleaned and analysed with the Statistical Package in the Social Sciences (SPSS). The results of the Cronbach alpha in Table 3.1 show the reliability of the instruments used to measure the variables in this study. The results were adequate with Cronbach alphas for antisocial behaviour being .68, maternal psychological control at .85 and father psychological control .92.

3.5.2 Changes to the instrument

The changes made to the instrument were as follows (See Appendix D, page 7):

Results of the pilot portrayed that changes to the instrument, the Delinquent sub-scale of the Child Behaviour Checklist (CBCL) - youth Self –Report (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1987), were edited from; *I disobey at school* and replaced with *I disobey rules*;

I hang around with kids who get in trouble to I hang around with friends or other people who get into trouble; and

I cut classes or skip school to I cut classes or skip attending university, this was done in order to be more effective to the sample.

3.5.3 Application of the instrument

The study focused on emerging adults, between the ages of 18-25 years. Since the study excluded other age groups present in the class, this brought about uneasiness amongst students during the 10-15 minute completion of the questionnaire. Results also revealed that it was more productive to complete the study early in the day, and before lectures commenced rather than after the class, as students were more alert, aware and co-operative at that moment in time.

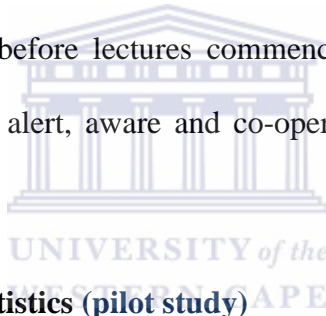


Table 3.1: Reliability statistics (pilot study)

Variables	Cronbach alpha
Anti-social behaviour	.68
Psychologically controlling mothers	.85
Psychologically controlling fathers	.92

3.6 Data Collection

According to Balnaves and Caputi (2001:84) the administration of the questionnaire involves the layout, decisions on length, types of questions, implementation of the survey, monitoring the quality of the answers, response

rates and ethical issues. The process of data collection followed the same format of the data collection process in the pilot study.

3.7 Data Analyses

According to Cresswell (2003), the process of data analysis involves making sense of the text by preparing the data for analysis, moving deeper into understanding the data, representing the data, and making an interpretation of the larger meaning of the data. The data was entered, coded, cleaned and analyzed by means of the Statistical Package in the Social Sciences (SPSS) to provide information in terms of percentages, frequencies, means, standard deviations, correlations, which were used to describe the characteristics of the sample, to determine the significance of the nature of relationships and to test the hypotheses. The Pearson correlation was used to establish relationships or associations between the variables based on the nature and characteristics of the variables. Dependant *t*-tests were used to compare gender perceptions of mothers' and fathers' psychologically controlling parenting practices. As a final step in the analysis, a hierarchical regression analysis was used to predict the effect of mother and father psychological control on the antisocial behaviour of emerging adults.

3.8 Ethical Statement

Research ethics emphasizes the sensitive treatment to communicate effectively with research participants who might feel at risk, ensuring the promotion of their welfare and protecting them from harm throughout the research process (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:522). Butz, (2008:254) furthermore amplifies that it is essential for researchers to employ ethical procedures as underlying ideologies

which are important aspects of critical reflexivity. According to Louw and Edwards (1998) ethical consideration is a set of rules or guidelines that is designated to ensure that members of a profession behave competently and within appropriate limits. Participants were thus treated with respect and dignity adhering to the following principles:

Informed consent: The participants were informed in terms of the process and purpose of the research, and thus completed the written consent form for their voluntary participation in the study. The contact details of the researcher and the supervisor were clearly stipulated on the consent form. This form was separated from the questionnaire before the students complete the questionnaire to ensure anonymity.

Voluntary information: Participation in the research was voluntary. Students were informed about their rights to refuse participation and their freedom to withdraw from the research at any point.

Privacy, anonymity and confidentiality: The researcher handled the acquired information respectfully and it was stored securely. This was done to ensure that each survey is coded using a number instead of a name, for identification purposes during the process of data analysis. Students were also informed that they would not be identified as participants in the study and that their information would be confidential. The identities of the participants were therefore protected. Students who were affected by the study and who needed further intervention was referred to Student Counseling for support.

3.9 Significance of the study

The study significantly aimed to offer insight and broaden our understanding of emerging adults' experiences that allowed for exploration of the impacting factors which encourages antisocial behaviour. The relationship between parents and emerging adults is examined in this study, focusing on the effects that psychological parental control has on the emerging adults' interaction with the environment and the stimulus of antisocial behaviour. Therefore findings in this study will strongly contribute to facilitating social workers and other professionals who have correspondence with parents and emerging adults. Giving greater insight into anti- social behaviour as a common dampening factor or phenomena in many societies where young adults have been entrapped in challenges such as alcohol and drug abuse, violence, unwanted pregnancy, gangsterism and unemployment to mention a few. Thus the study will facilitate in helping to understand the domain of antisocial behaviour and provide parents and professionals with information to caution against producing these types of behaviours. Furthermore, the results of this study provide knowledge to educators, professionals and parents with guidelines for early intervention that could greatly reduce or prevent antisocial behaviour.

3.10 Conclusion

The research design reflects that a cross-sectional design was used to achieve the aims and objectives of the study. This chapter also included information regarding the sample, the research instrument the data collection process and the data analysis of the study. Ethical considerations were taken into account during the process of data analysis and data collection to ensure full protection of

participants with regard to confidentiality and anonymity. The next chapter presents the results of the analysis.



CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter provides the results of the statistical analysis conducted for the study. The results are presented as (1) descriptive information about emerging adults, parental psychological control and antisocial behaviour of emerging adults, (2) relational characteristics between psychological controlling parenting and antisocial behaviour and (3) predictive characteristics of psychologically controlling parenting. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 17 (SPSS) was used in all the statistical calculations.

The following is a guide to abbreviations used in the analysis of the data:

Abbreviation	Variable
PPC	Parental Psychological Control
PPCF	Parental Psychological Control of Fathers
PPCM	Parental Psychological Control of Mothers
ASB	Antisocial Behaviour

4.1. An overview of the analyses

The following hypotheses evolved from the aims and objectives of the study:

Hypothesis 1: Psychologically controlling parenting practices will be positively related to antisocial behaviour of emerging adults. This hypothesis was tested by a Pearson Product-Moment correlation.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant difference between the extent to which mothers' and fathers' are psychologically controlling. This hypothesis was tested by a dependent *t*-test.

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant difference between the extent to which males and females engage in antisocial behaviour. This hypothesis was tested by an independent *t*-test.

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant difference between male and female perceptions of psychologically controlling parenting. This hypothesis was tested by an independent *t*-test.

Hypothesis 5: antisocial behaviour is predicted by parental psychological control. This was determined by a regression analysis.

4.2 Internal consistencies of measures

The instruments used in the study were, The Parental Psychological Control (PPC, Barber, 1996) and the Youth Self –Report (YSR, Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1987) questionnaires. The PPC measured parental psychological control of mothers and fathers, and the YSR measured the antisocial behaviour of emerging adults. The psychometric properties were applied using the

Cronbach alpha, which is a test reliability technique that requires only a single test administration to provide a unique estimate of the reliability for a given test (Gliem, et. al.2003). Table 4.1 illustrates the Cronbach alpha coefficients for parental psychological control and antisocial behaviour of emerging adults.

Table 4.1: Internal consistencies of Psychological Control and Antisocial Behaviour

Instrument	n (items)	Alpha
PPCM	8	.89
PPCF	8	.92
YSR	9	.78

According to Anastasi (1982), Cronbach Alpha coefficients above .75 are deemed to be acceptable.

The PPC (Barber, 1996) was used to measure psychological control of mothers and fathers. It is an 8-item instrument scored on a 3 point Likert-type scale ranging from 1= not like her/him and 3= alot like her/him. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the PPC for mothers was .89 and for fathers .92.

The YSR (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1987) was used to measure antisocial behaviour of emerging adults. The YSR is a 9-item instrument scored on a 3 point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = not true to 3= very true. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the YSR was .78. These Cronbach Alpha coefficients fall within the acceptable limits indicated by Anastasi (1982). Thus the instruments were considered reliable.

4.3 A Description of Emerging Adults

Table 4.2 provides an overview of the demographic variables of emerging adults. The demographics were living arrangements, marital plans of participants, parental marital status and heads of households.

Table 4.2: Demographic descriptions of emerging adults

Variables	Total Sample n =382	Males n =83 (%)	Females n = 299 (%)
Living Arrangements			
With mother	118 (30.9%)	23 (27.7%)	95 (31.85%)
With father	14 (3.7%)	8 (9.6%)	6 (2%)
With both parents	168 (44.0%)	26 (31.1%)	142 (47.5%)
With family member	42 (11.0%)	14 (16.9%)	28 (9.4%)
Friends	23 (6%)	3 (3.6%)	20 (6.7%)
Other	17 (4.5%)	9 (10.8%)	8 (2.7%)
Marital plans of emerging adults			
Yes	251 (65.7%)	54 (65.1%)	196 (65.6%)
No	38 (9.9%)	9 (10.8%)	29 (9.7%)
Unsure	93 (24.3%)	20 (24.1%)	73 (24.4%)
Parental Marital status			
Married	191 (50%)	38 (46%)	154 (52%)
Single	191 (50%)	45 (54%)	145 (48%)
Head of the household			
Mother	159 (41.6%)	33 (39.8%)	126 (42.1%)
Father	162 (42.4%)	31 (37.3%)	131 (43.8%)
Myself	20 (5.2%)	9 (10.8%)	11 (3.7%)
Sibling	6 (1.6%)	3 (3.6%)	3 (1.0%)
Grandparent	16 (4.2%)	5 (6.0%)	11 (3.7%)
Other	19 (5%)	2 (2.4%)	17 (5.7%)

For living arrangements, (see also Figure 4.1) the total sample indicated that the majority either lived with both parents (168 [44%]) or with their mothers (118 [30.9%]). The remaining 25% of the participants lived either with fathers (14

[3.7%]), family member (42 [11%]), friends (23[6%]) or people who were considered to be neither friends nor family (17 [4.5%]).

When comparing males and females, the results suggest that living arrangements for the majority of these groups were similar. The results indicate that for the overall sample, the marital status of parents of emerging adults were equal. When comparing males and females, the majority of the male participants (45 [54%]) rather than females (145 [48%]) indicated that their parents were single. When examining the head of the household, participants indicated that either their mothers (162[42.2%]) or their fathers (159[41.6%]) to head the household. Only 20 (5.2%) participants lived on their own with more males (9 [10.8%]) than females (11 [3.7%]) in this category.

Marital plans of emerging adults illustrate that, of the sample, 251 (65.7%) said *yes*, 38 (9.9%) said *no* and 93 (24.3%) said they were *not sure*. Comparisons of males and females indicate that both male and female participants were similar regarding their intentions to marry.

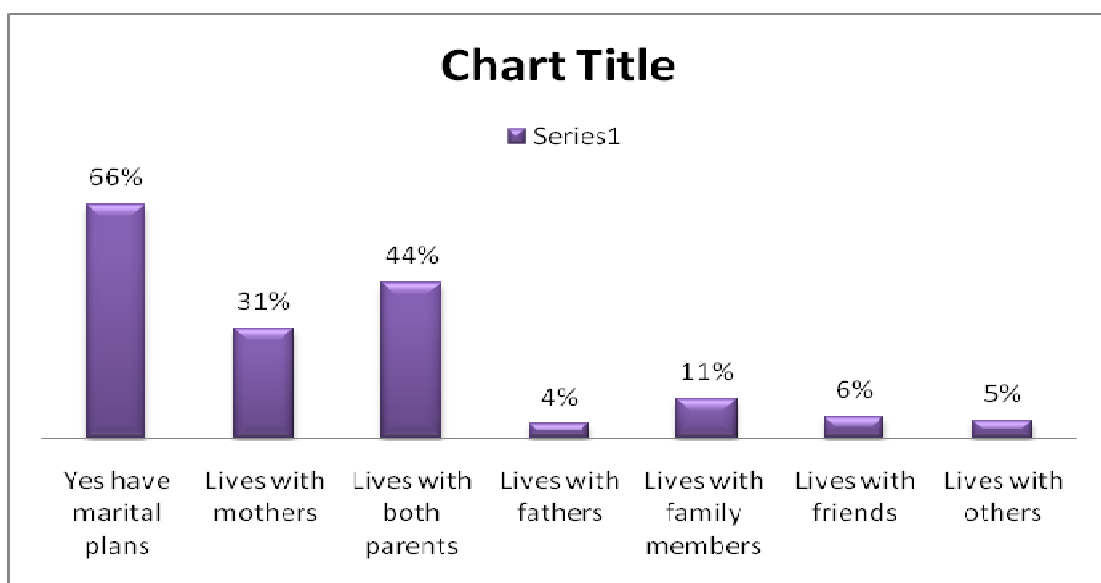


Figure 4.1: Living arrangements of emerging adults

4.4 Descriptive statistics of the variables

Means (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for the PPC of mothers and fathers, as well as the ASB of emerging adults are presented in Tables 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5.

Table 4.3 represents the mean and standard deviation for each of the 9 PPC-items for the perceived Psychological Control of Mothers for the total group and for boys and girls separately.

Table 4.3: Means and SD of items for Mother Psychological Control

Psychologically controlling mothers	n=382 M (SD)	Males n=83	Females N=299
My mother is a person who is always trying to change how I feel or think about things.	1.62 (.74)	1.53 (.75)	1.65 (.73)
My mother is a person who changes the subject whenever I have something to say.	1.31 (.62)	1.35 (.71)	1.30 (.61)
My mother is a person who often interrupts me.	1.42 (.72)	1.40 (.73)	1.43 (.71)
My mother is a person who blames me for other family members' problems.	1.20 (.55)	1.20 (.60)	1.19 (.54)
My mother is a person who brings up the past mistakes when she criticizes me.	1.49 (.76)	1.49 (.77)	1.49 (.76)
My mother is a person who is less friendly with me if I do not see things her way.	1.49 (.75)	1.42 (.77)	1.51 (.74)
My mother is a person who will avoid looking at me when I have disappointed her.	1.53 (.76)	1.45 (.74)	1.55 (.76)
My mother is a person, who if I have hurt her feelings, stops talking to me until I please her again.	1.59 (.80)	1.45(.74)	1.63 (.81)

For boys and girls, the highest mean score is found for the first item (“mothers were *always trying to change how [they felt or thought] about things*“ For girls $M = 1.62$, $SD = .74$ and for boys $M = 1.53$, $SD = .75$). Girls scored also relatively high for the items “if mothers’ *feelings were hurt, mothers would stop*

talking to their children until they [the mothers] were pleased again (M = 1.63, SD = .81) and “mother will avoid looking at me when I have disappointed her”(M=1.55, SD=.76).



Table 4.4 represents the mean and standard deviation for each of the 9 PPC-items for perceived Psychological Control of Fathers for the total group and for boys and girls separately.

Table 4.4: *Means and SD* of items for Father Psychological Control

Psychologically controlling fathers	n=382 M (SD)	Males n=83	Females N=299
My father is a person who is always trying to change how I feel or think about things.	1.37 (.94)	1.43 (.86)	1.35 (.96)
My father is a person who changes the subject whenever I have something to say.	1.19 (.83)	1.31 (.80)	1.16 (.83)
My father is a person who often interrupts me.	1.23 (.86)	1.29 (.82)	1.21 (.87)
My father is a person who blames me for other family members' problems.	1.05 (.71)	1.23 (.75)	1.00 (.70)
My father is a person who brings up the past mistakes when he criticizes me.	1.22 (.86)	1.37 (.88)	1.17 (.85)
My father is a person who is less friendly with me if I do not see things his way.	1.34 (.93)	1.51 (.90)	1.30 (.94)
My father is a person who will avoid looking at me when I have disappointed him.	1.31 (.91)	1.49 (.93)	1.26 (.91)
My father is a person who if I have hurt his feelings, stops talking to me until I please him again	1.32 (.93)	1.61 (.99)	1.24 (.90)

Fathers were mainly perceived as *always trying to change how [participants felt or thought] about things* ($M = 1.37, SD = .94$); were *less friendly if things were not seen their [fathers'] way* ($M = 1.34, SD = .93$); *avoided looking at them [the participants] when disappointed* ($M = 1.31, SD = .91$) and if *feelings were hurt, fathers would stop talking [to the participants] until they [the fathers] were pleased again* ($M = 1.32, SD = .93$). When comparing males and females, males scored highest for the item indicating that if fathers' *feelings were hurt, fathers would stop talking [to the participants] until they [the fathers] were pleased again* ($M = 1.61, SD = .99$). For females, the highest score was on the first item

“fathers were *always trying to change how [participants felt or thought] about things* ($M = 1.35, SD = .96$). As can be seen in Table 4.4 for each of the 9 items the mean score is higher for boys than for girls. This was not the case in Table 4.3. Table 4.5 represents the mean and standard deviation scores for each of the 8 items of the YSR (ASB) for the total group and for boys and girls separately. .

Table 4.5: Means and SD for items of Antisocial Behaviour

Antisocial Behaviour of emerging adults	n=382 M (SD)	Males n=83	Females N=299
I destroy my own things.	1.27 (.50)	1.33 (.57)	1.26 (.50)
I destroy things belonging to others.	1.12 (.37)	1.19 (.48)	1.10 (.33)
I disobey rules.	1.32 (.54)	1.42 (.65)	1.29 (.50)
I hang around with friends or other people who get in trouble.	1.29 (.57)	1.43 (.65)	1.25 (.54)
I lie or cheat.	1.45 (.59)	1.57 (.63)	1.41 (.57)
I steal things from places other than home.	1.04 (.21)	1.08 (.28)	1.03 (.18)
I swear or use dirty language.	1.73 (.70)	1.87 (.78)	1.70 (.68)
I cut classes or skip university.	1.58 (.64)	1.64 (.73)	1.56 (.61)
I use alcohol or drugs for non-medical purposes.	1.47 (.71)	1.70 (.81)	1.40 (.67)

The highest mean scores are found for the item “*swear or use dirty language*” ($M = 1.73, SD = .70$). This result was similar for males ($M = 1.87, SD = .78$) and females ($M = 1.70, SD = .68$). For boys and girls the lowest mean score is found for the item “I steal things from places other than home”.

Tables 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8 represent the mean and standard deviation Total Scores (sum of scores on 8 items for Parent Psychological Control for both mothers and fathers, and 9 items for antisocial behaviour of emerging adults across gender for the entire sample, males and females.

Table 4.6: Means and SD of Total Scores for the entire sample (n = 382)

Variables	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	SD
PPCM	11.66	8	24	4.27
PPCF	10.03	8	24	6.02
ASB	12.28	9	26	3.00

Parental Psychological Control Maximum Total Score = 24; Minimum = 8

Antisocial Behaviour Maximum Total Score = 27; Minimum = 9

The results in Table 4.6 suggest that mothers were perceived as very low in psychologically controlling ($M = 11.66$, $SD = 4.27$ on a scale ranging from 8 to 24). Fathers were perceived as being even slightly less psychologically controlling ($M = 10.03$, $SD = 6.02$). For antisocial behaviour, the results indicate that the participants' score rather low for antisocial behaviour ($M = 12.28$, $SD = 3.00$) on a scale ranging from 9 to 27.

Table 4.7: Means and SD of Total Scores for the male sample (n = 83)

Variables	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	SD
PPCM	11.29	8	24	4.62
PPCF	11.25	8	24	5.99
ASB	13.23	9	26	3.93

Parental Psychological Control Maximum Total Score = 24

Antisocial Behaviour Maximum Total Score = 27

Table 4.8: Means and SD of Total Scores for the female sample (n = 299)

Variables	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	SD
PPCM	11.76	8	24	4.16
PPCF	9.70	8	24	5.99
ASB	12.01	9	24	2.64

Parental Psychological Control Maximum Total Score = 24

Antisocial Behaviour Maximum Total Score = 27

Tables 4.7 and 4.8 suggest that males ($M = 11.29$, $SD = 4.62$) and females ($M = 11.76$, $SD = 4.16$) were similar in their perceptions of mother psychological control with mothers being perceived as more psychologically controlling than fathers. Male participants ($M = 11.25$, $SD = 5.99$) perceived their fathers to be more psychologically controlling than their female counterparts ($M = 9.70$, $SD = 5.99$). When considering gender differences, males ($M = 13.23$, $SD = 3.93$) perceived themselves to be engaging more in antisocial behaviour than females ($M = 12.01$, $SD = 2.64$).

4.5 Comparisons of groups

Dependent and independent t -tests were conducted to determine if there were significant perceived differences between (1) mother and father psychological control and (2) antisocial behaviour of emerging adults.

Tables 4.9 and 4.10 present the comparisons between perceived parental psychological control for mothers and fathers, and antisocial behaviour of emerging adults.

Table 4.9: Paired Differences of Mean Scores for PPCM and PPCF

	Mean	SD	SE	Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
PPCM and PPCF	1.62	6.76	.35	.94	2.30	4.69	381	.000

Table 4.9 shows that emerging adults perceived their mothers ($M = 11.66$, $SE = .22$) to be more psychologically controlling and their fathers ($M = 10.03$, $SE = .31$, $t(381) 4.69$, $p < .05$). This difference was significant.

Males and Females

Table 4.10: Means and SD (within parentheses) of t-test results for gender

	Males	Females	Levene's F	t	Sig.
PPCM	11.29 (4.62)	11.76 (4.16)	.48	-.89	.38
PPCF	11.25 (5.99)	9.70 (5.99)	.31	2.10	.04
Antisocial Behaviour	13.23 (3.93)	12.01 (2.64)	21.15	2.66	.01

Table 4.10 suggests that there was a significant difference between males ($M = 11.25$, $SE = .599$) and females ($M = 9.70$, $SE = .599$) regarding perceptions of fathers being psychologically controlling $t(380) = 2.01$, $p < .05$. This result was not found for perception of mothers. For antisocial behaviour, males ($M = 13.23$, $SE = .43$) perceived themselves to engage in more antisocial behaviour than females ($M = 12.01$, $SE = .15$). This difference was significant $t(380) = 2.66$, $p < .05$.

4.6 Intercorrelations between the variables

Inter-correlations are illustrated in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Intercorrelations between the variables

Independent variable	ASB of all participants (n=382)	ASB of males (n=83)	ASB of females (n=299)
PPCM	.33**	.35**	.35**
PPCF	.24**	.41**	.16**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.11 shows significant positive relationships between psychological control of mothers ($r = .33, p < .01$) and fathers ($r = .24, p < .01$) and antisocial behaviour of emerging adults. These correlations were found for both male and female participants. These findings suggest that higher parental psychological control was associated with higher antisocial behaviour of emerging adults.

4.7 Predicting Antisocial Behaviour of emerging adults

A hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine the contributions of Mother and Father Psychological Control as independent variables on Antisocial Behaviour of emerging adults as a dependent variable. The regression analysis was conducted to *firstly*, establish which independent variable was the strongest predictor on antisocial behaviour and *secondly*, to test the statistical significance of the model in order to predict the amount of variance in antisocial behaviour of emerging adults. Based on the literature in Chapter 2, with mothers having a stronger contribution than fathers to the

parent-child relationship, Father Psychological Control was entered first into the regression analysis in order to establish the contribution of fathers

Table 4.12: Regression Analysis predicting Emerging Adulthood

	B	SE B	B
Step 1			
Constant	11.09	.29	
Males	10.22	.85	
Females	11.35	.29	
PPC	.12	.03	.24*
Males	.27	.07	.41*
Females	.07	.03	.16*
Step 2			
Constant	8.9	.45	
Males	8.63	1.11	
Females	9.02	.47	
PPCF	.09	.02	.19*
Males	.21	.07	.32*
Females	.05	.04	.12*
PPCM	.21	.03	.30*
Males	.20	.09	.23*
Females	.21	.04	.34*

Note R² = .06 for Step 1; Δ R² = .15 for Step 2 (ps < .001). **p<.001. [Total sample]

Note R² = .16 for Step 1; Δ R² = .19 for Step 2 (ps < .001). **p<.001. [Males]

Note R² = .02 for Step 1; Δ R² = .13 for Step 2 (ps < .001). **p<.001. [Females]

Separate hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to predict antisocial behaviour of emerging adults. In step one of the regression analysis with antisocial behaviour as the dependent variable (Table 4.12), paternal psychological control ($\beta = .24, p < .001$) was entered and found to be a significant positive predictor of antisocial behaviour $F(1, 381) = 22.77; p < 0.001$; adjusted R² = 0.05. When mother psychological control was entered in step 2, father psychological control remained a positive predictor of antisocial

behaviour of emerging adults. Mother psychological control ($\beta = .30, p < .001$) showed to be a stronger predictor of antisocial behaviour $F(2, 380) = 32.07; p < 0.001$; adjusted $R^2=0.15$ than paternal psychological control for antisocial behaviour of emerging adults. The final model accounted for 15% of the variance of antisocial behaviour of emerging adults.

For males, the hierarchical regression analyses revealed similar results as found with the entire sample. Father psychologically controlling parenting in step one ($\beta = .41, p < .001$) predicted antisocial behaviour of male emerging adults. When mother psychologically controlling parenting was added in step two, father psychologically controlling parenting remained a predictor of antisocial behaviour of male emerging adults ($\beta = .32, p < .001$). Mother psychologically controlling parenting ($\beta = .16, p < .001$) positively predicted antisocial behaviour of male emerging adults. The F statistic was significant for father psychological control $F(1, 82) = 16.11; p < 0.001$; adjusted $R^2 = 0.16$; and for mother psychological control $F(2, 81) = 10.75; p < 0.001$; adjusted $R^2=0.19$. The final model for male antisocial behaviour accounted for 19% of the variance of antisocial behaviour of emerging adults.

For females, the hierarchical regression analyses revealed similar prediction results as found with the entire sample. Father psychologically controlling parenting in step one ($\beta = .16, p < .001$) predicted antisocial behaviour of female emerging adults. When mother psychologically controlling parenting was added in step two, father psychologically controlling parenting remained a predictor of antisocial behaviour of female emerging adults ($\beta = .12, p < .001$). Mother psychologically controlling parenting ($\beta = .34, p < .001$) positively

predicted antisocial behaviour of female emerging adults. The F statistic was significant for father psychological control $F(1, 298) = 7.27; p < 0.007$; adjusted $R^2=0.2$; and for mother psychological control $F(2, 297) = 23.05; p < 0.001$; adjusted $R^2=0.13$. The final model for female antisocial behaviour accounted for 13% of the variance of antisocial behaviour of emerging adults.

In summary

The results of this study were presented in the form of descriptive statistics and inferential statistics, showing frequencies, comparisons, correlations and predictions regarding mothers and fathers psychologically controlling parenting and antisocial behaviour of male and female emerging adults. The results show that the majority of emerging adults live at home with both their parents. Significantly mothers were more psychologically controlling than fathers for the entire sample of participants. When comparing male and female participants, results suggest that males, rather than females, perceived their fathers to be more psychologically controlling. There was no significant difference between how male and female participants perceived the parental psychologically controlling parenting practices of their mothers. Furthermore males perceived themselves to engage in more antisocial behaviour than females. The results show a significant positive relationship between psychological control and antisocial-behaviour of emerging adults across all groups. Finally both mother and father psychologically controlling were predictors of antisocial behaviours of emerging adults.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter integrates the theoretical framework, in chapter 2, with the results in chapter 4 in order to discuss the central hypotheses of the study as outlined in chapter 3. The limitations of the study are then presented followed by the conclusion and recommendations for future research.

There were five hypotheses generated to identify the specific objectives to be measured. These hypotheses included:

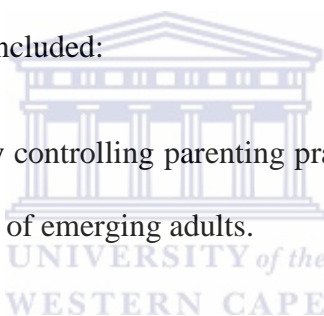
Hypothesis 1: Psychologically controlling parenting practices will be positively related to antisocial behaviour of emerging adults.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant difference between the extent to which mothers and fathers are perceived as psychologically controlling.

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant difference between male and female perceptions of parental psychologically controlling parenting.

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant difference between the extent to which males and females engage in antisocial behaviour.

Hypothesis 5: Antisocial behaviour is predicted by parental psychological control.



5.2 Parental Psychological Control

Psychological control is described as the excessive enforcement of power used to control thinking and feeling processes which in turn negatively hinders the person's emotional and psychological development (Barber, 1996). Additionally, psychological control places limitations on an individual's ability to gain autonomy and to develop decision-making skills (Barber, 2002). Similarly, psychological control has an internally destructive effect on individuals, such as internalised pain, feelings of hopelessness, depression, anxiety and low self-worth. Psychological control affects the person's inner state, but is not as visible to the eye of significant others such as an authoritarian parent who physically punishes a child (Barber & Hamilton, 2002).

The results of the current study suggest that emerging adults perceived their mothers as significantly more psychologically controlling than fathers. This result supports hypothesis 2 and extends previous research (Barber, 1996; 2001; Bendikas, 2010). A possible explanation for this finding could be that mothers and fathers have different interactive relationships with their children and are therefore perceived differently. For example, mothers are more likely than fathers to engage with their children, assume responsibility for their children, and care for and discipline their children (Barber & Olsen, 2005; Collins & Russell, 1991; Hart, et. al., 1992; Phares et al., 2008). Moreover, mother-child relationships often portray warmth and responsiveness, while father-child relationships are characterized by firmness and restrictiveness (Collins & Russell, 1991; Hart, et. al., 1992). These findings are well documented for children and adolescents but not for emerging adults.

The focus during the period of emerging adulthood is on the self, with emerging adults having to think about decisions about the future (Arnett, 2009). In order to make their own decisions, emerging adults need to acquire a sense of independence. Thus, the role of the parent should be more supportive rather than that of principal decision-maker, based on the assumption that sound relationships exist between the emerging adults and their parents (Chipman, et. al., 2000; Lamborn & Groh, 2009). While emerging adults need support from their parents, parents themselves may feel that they should be making the decisions for their children, especially if their children continue to live in the parental home. For this particular sample, the majority of participants live in the parental home. Although emerging adulthood is considered to be a period of independence, when young people study they are more likely to continue living in the parental home rather than on their own (Arnett, 2007). Thus, mothers may continue to regard their emerging adults as 'children' by washing their clothes, cleaning their rooms, paying their bills, feeding them and so on, while the participants should be doing these activities themselves. In doing these chores, mothers could additionally be making the decisions for their adult children and thus appear to be intrusive and in the process decrease the emotional maturity of emerging adults (Manzeske & Stright, 2009).

Parents could also be reluctant and pessimistic towards the acceptance of growing capabilities and independence of their children becoming adults (Bartle-Haring, Brucker & Hock, 2002). This moreover leads to parents' increasing attempts to control their adult children by intruding their physical privacy and emotional freedom. This could lead to arguments as this kind of control is restrictive to self learning and expression (Aquilino, 2006; Arnett,

2004). This control should be diminishing by parents during the period of emerging adulthood to allow for independence and autonomy (Arnett, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 1985),

5.2.1 Male and female differences

When comparing males and females, males rather than females perceived their fathers to be significantly more psychologically controlling than their mothers. This finding supports hypothesis 4 of the study. Few studies have examined gender differences between male and female perception of parental psychological control (Barber, 1996; 2001; Bendikas, 2010). This study extends previous research in this field. Similar studies have explained this finding in light of same sex identification especially in earlier developmental age groups (Barber, 1996; Vieno, Nation, Pastore & Santinello, 2009). During emerging adulthood, the theory of same sex identification could be a possible explanation for these results, but perhaps there are cultural expectations of boys to be responsible and make decisions. Furthermore, perhaps there is an expectation that sons, rather than daughters, should acquire adult roles earlier. When living at home, fathers could be holding the role of decision-maker and therefore not provide the space for their sons to make their own decisions. This approach could result in frustration and ultimately in antisocial behaviour.

Another possible explanation for this result is the study conducted by Bendikas (2010). She highlights that male emerging adults perceive fathers to be more psychologically controlling than mothers as a result of socialisation processes. However, the sample of participants in her study did not live in the parental home while studying. For this particular sample, males found their fathers

psychologically controlling possibly due to various cultural and religious social practices in which adult males rather than females are expected to leave home much earlier, assume responsibility and make their own decisions. It is also customary for fathers to make more of the decisions in the household than their adult children, if the children are living in the parental home because they are still considered to be 'children'. Since fathers are not as interactive with their children as mothers, when fathers negatively interact with their sons, more harm may be caused (Bendikas, 2010).

5.3 Antisocial behaviour

Antisocial behaviour is defined as external behavioural traits with regard to not obeying rules and laws (Baumrind, 2005). Similarly, Corsini (2002: 57) states that antisocial behaviour can be defined as “[opposition] to society or to existing social organization and moral codes”. In a further definition, he defines antisocial behaviour as “aggressive, impulsive and sometimes violent actions that flout social and ethical codes such as laws and regulations relating to personal and property rights”. According to Patterson’s model of antisocial behaviour (1990:264) antisocial behaviour is described as a developmental trait that “begins early in life and often continues into adolescence” and possibly extending into adulthood. The transition from adolescence into emerging adulthood consists because of changes associated with behavioural self regulation, which signifies a period when young people’s antisocial behaviours are at their peak. Examples of their antisocial behavioural activities include the use of substances, driving intoxicated and engaging in unprotected sex (Arnett, 2000, 2005; Schulenberg & Zarrett, 2006). Similarly, Reid, et al. (2002) found

antisocial behaviour to include aggressive encounters, self destruction and minor offences.

The results of this study suggest that the majority of participants scored low or antisocial behaviour with the highest score for antisocial behavioural activities sited as swearing or using dirty language. When comparing males and females, males scored significantly higher for antisocial behaviour than females. The largest difference was found on *use of alcohol or drugs for non-medical purpose*, with males citing more this type of antisocial behaviour than females. In addition to the current findings, several other studies have found differences in male and female antisocial behaviour, with males engaging more in antisocial activities than females (Chipman, 2000; Moffitt, 2001b, 2001c; Gorman-Smith & Loeber, 2005; Windle, 1990). Specifically, Bendikas (2010) found that more males than females engage in binge drinking and sexual risk-taking activities during emerging adulthood.

5.4 Parental psychological control and antisocial behaviour

The results of the current study show a significant positive association between parental psychological control and antisocial behaviour of emerging adults. Furthermore, while both mothers' and fathers' psychologically controlling practices predicted antisocial behaviour, the final model suggests that mother (rather than father) psychological control is a stronger predictor of antisocial behaviour of emerging adults. Mother psychological control accounted for 15% of the variance of antisocial behaviour. These results are similar to previous studies which found psychological control to be a significant predictor of youth problem behaviour (Barber, 1996; Barber, Loeber & Dishion, 1983; Olsen &

Shagle, 1994). Similarly, Walker (2004) suggests that parenting can be viewed as the foundation in which antisocial behaviour is produced. These studies have studied the relationship between psychologically controlling parenting practices and antisocial behaviour in previous developmental age groups, but very limited studies have focused on emerging adults. Bendikas's, (2010) study, conducted with emerging adults, also found similar relationships between maternal psychological control and certain aspects of maladjustment.

The expectation is that emerging adults would be independent from their parents and living on their own but .this particular sample lives at home and may perceive parents as inhibitive and intrusive (Barber, 1996) which could ultimately result in maladjustment (Baumrind, 2005:66). Maladjustment occurs as psychologically controlling parents are invasive to ones privacy, overprotective, domineering and controlling through guilt (Schaefer, 1965:554). Associated with manipulative parenting techniques such as guilt induction, shaming and love withdrawal (Barber, 1996). Hence, the association between psychological control and antisocial behaviour is developed based on parents who try to conform and manage their emerging adults' decisions with regard to their daily schedules, eating habits, financial practices and sexuality, which stimulates disagreements and arguments with the parent/s (Arnett, 2004; Aquilino, 2006), even more so for emerging adults living at home with their parents. This growing conflict between parent and child could result in behavioural outcomes of rebelliousness and antisocial behavioural tendencies of emerging adults. This tendency to behave antisocially could be an outlet to the restricted freedom of choice and individuality offered by psychologically controlling parents (Arnett, 2004; Aquilino, 2006).

5.5 Relevance of Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

The thrust of Self-Determination theory (SDT) is the development of the individual towards a sense of being self-determined and functioning at his/her optimal level of psychological well-being (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In order for an individual to function optimally, the three basic psychological needs to be satisfied, these are; relatedness, autonomy and competence. However, individuals can only function optimally if their environments are not controlling but autonomy-supporting. SDT supports this study by providing a sound basis for how controlling environments hinder the development of psychological well-being of emerging adults (Chirkov, et al., 2003; Van Steenkiste, 2005) Furthermore, not only is the psychological well-being hindered, but controlling environments encourage internalising and externalising behaviours (Soenens, 2006). Thus for this particular group of emerging adults, parents' psychologically controlling practices predict the antisocial behaviour of emerging adults. This suggests that the more psychologically controlling parents are, providing more controlling environments, emerging adults are more likely to exhibit antisocial behaviour. Ultimately, controlling environments result in emerging adults not feeling autonomous that is being able to make their own decisions; in anger and frustration they may not feel competent and possibly not feel related. They could therefore seek alternative groups or environments which are less controlling but which could be considered to offer opportunities to 'act out' in society.

5.6 Limitations of the study

The results of the study should be interpreted with caution since there are the following limitations to the study:

1. This study had possible mono-method bias as findings are based on data collected from a single source.
2. A small male sample (25%) participated in the study as compared to the larger female sample (75%) which could have implications for the comparisons conducted for this study.
3. This study only focused on university students in the CHS Faculty. Thus the findings would not be able to be generalised to a larger sample of emerging adults such as emerging adults who live away from the parental home or those who have not continued with tertiary education.
4. The racial categories in the study were; Coloured 45%, African 43%, White 7% and Asian 6% students. The sample therefore indicates that most participants were from the coloured and African race groups suggesting that culture was a possible confounding variable.

5.7 Conclusion

Emerging adulthood is described as a phase of exploration, growth, independence and autonomy (Arnett, 2004). While the expectation is that adulthood is signified by independence and decision-making, often this may not necessarily be the case. Often emerging adults tend to study rather than work and often remain in the parental home. This could result in increased tensions since parents view the adult as a 'child' and therefore continue to make the decisions in the home. Ultimately, the adult child becomes frustrated and reacts,

possibly antisocially. Although previous studies have identified similar findings in other age groups, this study provides important information for this age group in South Africa. As Barber, Olsen and Shagle (1994: pp 1121) state;

children who consistently perceive that their parents are always trying to change them, or who experience parental manipulative behaviour that threatens a disruption or discontinuance of the emotional bond between parent and child (e.g. love withdrawal), will likely have difficulty recognizing their own uniqueness or adequacy or will be unwilling to trust their own ideas or individuality for fear of losing key connections with caregivers.

This study could provide the foundation for future intervention.

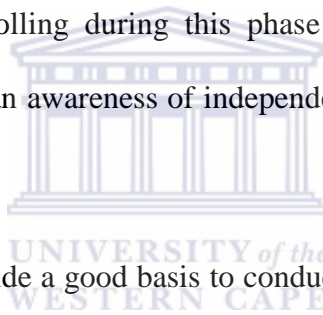
5.8 Recommendations

The focus of developmental research has often focused on parent-child interaction in the early stages of development. This study provides a basis for raising an awareness of the parent-child relationship during the phase of emerging adulthood. This phase encourages growth and learning in the sense of independence, decision making abilities, role taking skills and a strong sense of individuality which projects a knowing of who they are and what they stand for and where they headed. Thus based on the results of this study, the following are recommended:

- Interventions should be provided to enhance parent-emerging adult relationships; such as parenting skills workshops, parent-emerging adult camps and reading materials such as pamphlets for both parent and child.
- Interventions should be supplied to emerging adults who engage in antisocial behaviour and who have parents that are psychologically

controlling. Examples of these programs could be family counselling, activities and programs to help parents learn detachment accompanied with independence and teach emerging adults to be autonomous.

- Interventions which specifically focus on encouraging emerging adults to be independent during this development process of emerging adulthood. Consequently emerging adults have to move away from their parents' home in order to experience less control, and more support and monitoring which this phase of development requires.
- In a similar manner, interventions for parents who are perceived as psychologically controlling during this phase of development should also focus on raising an awareness of independence and self-identity for their emerging adults.



The results of this study provide a good basis to conduct further research in this field of study. Thus further research could:

- Include more variables such as self-identity, decision-making, psychological well-being and additional parenting processes or styles;
- Compare this phase of development with other phases in order to establish a trajectory of development of antisocial behaviour and psychological control;
- Have a 50/50 split of gender participants;
- Examine and control for the role of culture in further research studies.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

CONSENT FORM

Dear participants,

My name is Anja Human and I am a Masters student in Child and Family Studies, in the Social Work Department, situated at the University of the Western Cape. I have a particular interest to conduct a research study concerning emerging adulthood, which examines the relationship between psychologically controlling parents and anti-social behaviour. This study would require full time students of the Faculty of Community and Health Science (CHS), between the ages of 18- 25 years (male and female) to participate voluntarily in the research process. The purpose of the study is aimed at examining the effects of psychologically controlling parenting practices have on anti-social behaviour in emerging adults.

a. Consent form for participants:

I hereby provide permission for the researchers responsible for conducting this research to involve me as a participant in completing the research questionnaire that they have compiled and will be administering during the period of the research. I acknowledge that the information generated from this will be used for academic and research purposes.

I acknowledge that whilst participating in this research that I am entitled to the following rights:

1. Not to respond to any questions that may cause me personal harm and suffering.
2. To have the purpose of the research study explained to me prior to the commencement of the study.
3. To withdraw as a participant during the duration of the research and during the publishing of the final research project.

4. To have my identity protected during the duration of the research and during the publishing of the final research report.

I also acknowledge that my participation is completely voluntary and that I was not compelled by the researchers to participate. I also acknowledge that I have not been offered or expect any monetary compensation for participating in this research.

Signature of Acknowledgement:

Signed at (Place)

on (Date)

Researcher's details

For any further enquiries, the following persons may be contacted in relation to the study:

Supervisor: Dr. N. Roman (nroman@uwc.ac.za)



Research student:

Ms. A.R Human (anjababy.human46@gmail.com)

Thank you for your participation!

Appendix B

DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS:

○ **Please circle the relevant number**

1. Age (indicate in numerical value)

2. Undergraduate year (indicate in numerical value)

3. Gender:

Male	Female
1	2

4. Home-language:

isiXhosa	English	Afrikaans	isiZulu	Other	<i>Specify</i>
1	2	3	4	5	

5. Religion:

Christianity	Islam	Buddhism	Hinduism	Other	<i>Specify</i>
1	2	3	4	5	

6. (a) Number of siblings:

One	Two	Three	Four	More	<i>Specify</i>
1	2	3	4	5	

(b) You are born the:

Eldest	Second	Third	Fourth	Other	<i>Specify</i>
1	2	3	4	5	

7. Living arrangements:

With mother	With father	With both parents	Family member	Other	<i>Specify</i>
1	2	3	4	5	

8. Who heads your household?

Mother	Father	Myself	Sibling	Grandparent	Other	<i>Specify</i>
1	2	3	4	5	6	



Appendix C

QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR MOTHER

Please circle the relevant number

Psychological Control Mother: Statement	Not like her	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
My Mother is a person who is always trying to change how I feel or think about things	1	2	3
My Mother is a person who changes the subject whenever I have something to say	1	2	3
My Mother is a person who often interrupts me	1	2	3
My Mother is a person who blames me for other family members' problems	1	2	3
My Mother is a person who brings up past mistakes when she criticizes me	1	2	3
My Mother is a person who is less friendly with me if I do not see things her way	1	2	3
My Mother is a person who will avoid looking at me when I have disappointed her	1	2	3
My Mother is a person who if I have hurt her feelings, stops talking to me until I please her again	1	2	3

QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR FATHER

Please circle the relevant number

Psychological Control Father: Statement	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
My Father is a person who is always trying to change how I feel or think about things	1	2	3
My Father is a person who changes the subject whenever I have something to say	1	2	3
My Father is a person who often interrupts me	1	2	3
My Father is a person who blames me for other family members' problems	1	2	3
My Father is a person who brings up past mistakes when he criticizes me	1	2	3
My Father is a person who is less friendly with me if I do not see things his way	1	2	3
My Father is a person who will avoid looking at me when I have disappointed him	1	2	3
My Father is a person who if I have hurt his feelings, stops talking to me until I please him again	1	2	3

QUESTIONS: Please choose the answer that most closely relates

to you and as honestly as you can.

Appendix D

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please circle the relevant number

Anti-Social Behaviour: Statement	Not True	Somewhat True	Very True
I destroy my own things	1	2	3
I destroy things belonging to others	1	2	3
I disobey rules	1	2	3
I hang around with friends or other people who get in trouble.	1	2	3
I lie or cheat	1	2	3
I steal things from places other than home	1	2	3
I swear or use dirty language	1	2	3
I cut classes or skip university	1	2	3
I use alcohol or drugs for non-medical purposes	1	2	3