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THE EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED PARENTAL AUTHORITY ON ACADEMIC
SUCCESS, SELF-ESTEEM, SELF-CONFIDENCE, AND PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-
BEING

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UNIVERSITÉ DU QUÉBEC À TROIS-RIVIÈRES

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SUCCESS, SELF-ESTEEM, SELF-CONFIDENCE, AND PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-
BEING

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Cette thèse est rédigée en anglais tel qu'il est permis dans les règlements des études de cycles supérieurs (136) de l'Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières. Dans ce cas, le règlement interne mentionne l'obligation de présenter un exposé substantiel rédigé en langue française dans lequel sont présentés les objectifs, la méthodologie et les résultats obtenus; une discussion sur l'ensemble des articles publiés ou rédigés pour publication et du travail réalisé.

Abstract

Since the dawn of time, parents have protected, loved, nourished, and sheltered their children in order to ensure their family's survival. Although parental presence appears necessary, studies reveal discrepancies between parenting styles and child development. Thus, it seems crucial to decipher the impact of various parental styles on children's well-being. Parental involvement, participation, empathy, and control have been shown to impact directly a child's psychological, social, and cognitive development; however few studies have investigated the effects of perceived parental authority on the development of an individual. The objective of this study is to investigate the consequences of perceived parental authority on self-perception (self-esteem and self-confidence), psychological health, and academic success. We decided to study these intrinsic variables since they influence an individual's global development. In other words, to gain psychological, social, and cognitive stability, an individual must acquire a moderate level of self-esteem, self-confidence, and psychological well-being. Furthermore, these psychological variables provide an individual the necessary foundation to enhance their cognitive and social skills, such as academic achievement, career choices, future planning, and socialization. Thus, we noted an advantage to examining these four variables simultaneously with our perceived parental authority. Since parental control is a fairly objective reality,⁶ the researchers decided to evaluate the perceived nature of parental authority, therefore the subjective experience associated to being immersed in parental control. The following hypotheses were explored in this study: (1) Confirming the existence of a relationship between perceived parental authority, individual self-perception, academic success, and

psychological health, (2) Corroborating that participants from an authoritarian family (high on perceived parental authority) would display lower self-esteem, self-confidence, academic achievement, and poorer psychological health, (3) Validating that participants from an authoritarian family would display a negative emotional reaction towards parental authority, and (4) Testing a structural model of the relationships existing between perceived parental authority and our four variables. Four questionnaires (perceived parental authority questionnaire, Rosenberg's (1979) self-esteem inventory, self-confidence inventory (Garant & Alain, 1995), and psychological health questionnaire (Kovess, Murphy, Tousignant & Fournier, 1985) were distributed to 377 participants in a university and workplace settings to evaluate the current hypotheses. The results suggested that a negative relationship effectively existed between level of perceived parental authority, self-esteem, self-confidence, and academic success. Results revealed a positive relationship between perceived parental authority and psychological health. Furthermore, the findings yielded a significant relationship between perceived parental authority and emotional reaction to parental authority. The findings from this study answered numerous questions concerning the proper parenting strategies to employ for the education and discipline of children. In addition, clinicians and healthcare practitioners benefit from the results revealed by our study because it demonstrates how a client would benefit from providing equilibrium between parental control and empathy for their children's well-being. In the field of clinical psychology, the findings from this study are quite practical since practitioners can utilize this knowledge to assist families and individuals suffering from various psychopathologies caused by a lack of parental empathy, parental control, and family structure. Systematic,

interactional, cognitive behavioral or problem focused approaches could be employed in a clinical setting to assist families and individuals with their parenting skills and disciplinary problems.

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Résumé substantiel en français

Cette recherche explore les effets de la perception de l'autorité parentale sur la perception de soi (estime de soi et la confiance en soi), le bien-être psychologique et le succès académique. Les hypothèses suivantes ont été vérifiées dans cette étude : 1) confirmer une relation entre la perception de l'autorité parentale, la perception de soi, le succès académique et le bien-être psychologique; 2) vérifier si les participants provenant d'une famille autoritaire démontraient des faibles résultats au niveau de leur estime de soi, confiance en soi, rendement scolaire et bien-être psychologique; 3) valider que les participants provenant d'une famille autoritaire avaient une réaction négative envers l'autorité parentale; 4) évaluer un modèle structurel qui met en évidence la relation entre la perception de l'autorité parentale et les quatre variables. Quatre questionnaires (questionnaire sur la perception de l'autorité parentale, l'inventaire de l'estime de soi (Rosenberg, 1979), l'inventaire de la confiance en soi (Alain & Garant, 1995) et le questionnaire sur le bien-être psychologique (Kovess, Murphy, Tousignant, & Fournier, 1985) ont été administrés à 377 participants dans un contexte universitaire ou professionnel afin de vérifier nos hypothèses de recherche. Les résultats suggèrent qu'une relation négative existe entre la perception de l'autorité parentale, l'estime de soi, la confiance en soi et le succès académique. De plus, une relation positive existe entre la perception de l'autorité parentale et le bien-être psychologique (détresse). Finalement, les données révèlent qu'une relation existe entre la perception de l'autorité parentale et la réaction émotionnelle envers l'autorité parentale. En psychologie clinique, les résultats de cette recherche seront bénéfiques, car les professionnels de la santé mentale pourront assister les familles et les

individus souffrant de diverses psychopathologies associées à un manque d'empathie parentale, un contrôle parental excessif et/ou une dysfonction de la structure familiale.

Introduction

L'objectif de cette section est d'examiner l'impact de la participation parentale sur le développement infantile. Les rôles parentaux, les stratégies éducatives et l'engagement des parents envers le bien-être de leurs enfants seront révisés.

Dans notre société, les parents jouent un rôle primordial dans la vie de leurs enfants. Dès leur naissance, les parents exercent différents rôles, tels que la surveillance, la direction et la compassion envers leurs enfants. Les parents comblent les besoins de survie et d'amour de leurs petits. Si les parents n'étaient pas consciencieux et attentifs, le niveau de survie serait très faible chez les jeunes. L'habileté d'un enfant à vivre pleinement dans son entourage est basée principalement sur la présence et la participation des parents. Au début de la vie infantile, les bébés sont complètement dépendants sur leurs parents respectifs. Un parent attentif aux besoins de ses enfants est capable de distinguer les connotations attachées aux échanges verbaux avec leurs petits. Avec une présence parentale stable et consistante, les enfants apprennent à dépendre de leurs parents afin d'explorer leurs entourage d'une manière appropriée.

Le rôle parental change constamment durant les stades développementaux d'un enfant. En effet, les parents détiennent un rôle de pourvoyeur, de professeur et finalement, d'ami durant l'adolescence. On se pose souvent cette question : pourquoi les parents sont-ils si importants au développement psychique et physique d'un enfant? Le monde scientifique a fait plusieurs recherches afin de saisir la réponse à cette question.

En conclusion, les développements sociaux, psychiques, physiques et cognitifs dépendent largement de la participation, la présence, l'empathie et l'amour exercés par les parents. Dans le contexte théorique de cette thèse, nous allons revoir la documentation scientifique sur les styles parentaux et le développement infantile.

Dans cette section, nous allons examiner l'importance de la présence parentale sur le développement psychique d'un individu, tels que la formation de la personnalité, la création de l'estime de soi et l'émergence des troubles psychopathologiques.

Développement psychologique

Selon plusieurs psychologues, les parents influencent l'évolution psychologique d'un enfant. La documentation scientifique indique que la personnalité est grandement influencée par la participation et les gestes parentaux.

Freud (1912) confirme que les parents jouent un rôle crucial sur le développement de la personnalité de leur enfant. Un parent attentif aux besoins de ses petits facilite le développement approprié de la personnalité. Par exemple, un parent qui est intentionné aux besoins de ses enfants enclenche une stabilité émotionnelle chez celui-ci. Toutefois, une intégration inadéquate des gestes parentaux amènent une fixation à un stade psychosexuel de la personnalité, tels que le stade oral, anal, phallique et génital. Cette fixation engendre l'émergence d'une personnalité dysfonctionnelle, telle qu'une personnalité névrotique, psychotique ou autre.

Le modèle structurel de Freud (1912) stipule que la personnalité est créée de trois composantes : le ça, le moi et le sur-moi. Chaque composante exerce une tâche distincte sur l'environnement de l'enfant. En effet, le ça consiste à promouvoir la satisfaction des pulsions basées sur le principe du plaisir. En d'autres mots, le ça est axé sur la satisfaction immédiate des besoins primaires. Le ça ne considère pas les sanctions engendrées par ses actions. Le moi fonctionne sur le principe de la réalité. Il met en valeur les normes, valeurs et responsabilités sociales. Le moi facilite la socialisation en utilisant des points de références sociales (règle de conduite, règlement et sanctions sociales) pour faciliter l'intégration communautaire. Le moi emploie un mode décisionnel en évaluant les conséquences des désirs immédiats du ça. La troisième composante de la personnalité identifiée par Freud (1912) fut le sur-moi. Ce concept dicte que les décisions d'un individu doivent fondamentalement se conformer aux règles de la société. Selon les écrits, le sur-moi se développe graduellement lorsque l'enfant commence à s'identifier au parent du même sexe. L'enfant décide d'incorporer les valeurs, croyances et attitudes parentales afin d'atteindre une approbation constante de ses parents. Le processus d'identification parentale requiert que l'enfant apprenne des attitudes, des comportements et des principes parentaux afin d'obtenir un renforcement positif de sa famille. De plus, le sur-moi est divisé en deux parties : le soi-idéal et la conscience. Ces deux concepts sont basés sur l'internalisation des attentes parentales. Le soi-idéal représente l'image glorifiée du parent appartenant au même sexe que l'enfant. Le soi-idéal aide l'enfant à agir d'une manière qui garantie l'approbation et l'attention parentale. Un enfant apprend à prendre des décisions en considérant les valeurs, attitudes et croyances de ses parents. La conscience est décrite

comme l'habileté à distinguer adéquatement entre le bien et le mal. La conscience se développe essentiellement en intégrant les critiques, punitions et reproches des parents à travers les années.

Plusieurs chercheurs ont investigué plus profondément le sur-moi. Selon Eric Berne (1964), le sur-moi peut être décomposé en deux parties : le parent critique et le parent intentionné. Un parent intentionné est décrit comme étant un être aidant, stable et chaleureux. Ce type de parent facilite l'émergence des émotions positives chez l'enfant, tel que la fierté, la confiance et la compréhension. Un parent sévère amène l'enfant à sentir des émotions de culpabilité, tristesse et doute. Une faible estime de soi peut être remarquée chez les enfants qui ont internalisé un parent sévère et accusatoire.

En conclusion, nous réalisons que la participation parentale contribue à l'émergence d'une personnalité saine chez l'enfant. Si le parent est négligent, sévère ou accusatoire, l'enfant développe une personnalité vulnérable et faible. Donc, nous constatons que la présence parentale est nécessaire pour le développement d'une personnalité fonctionnelle et normale.

Maintenant que nous avons saisi l'effet de la présence parentale sur le développement, nous allons examiner l'impact de celle-ci sur l'évolution sociale de l'enfant. Dans cette section, nous allons examiner l'importance de la présence parentale sur le développement social d'un individu, tels que la formation de l'attachement, le

développement des habiletés sociales et l'intégration à la société par l'entremise de la socialisation.

Développement social

Afin de complètement cerner l'effet de la présence parentale sur l'acquisition des habiletés sociales d'un enfant, il faut réviser les écrits d'Erik Erikson (1968). Selon Erikson, un individu doit traverser huit stages pour acquérir une intégration sociale. Chaque stade requiert que l'individu atteigne une compétence sociale. Un parent intentionné, présent et stable facilite le développement des habiletés sociales à chaque stage. Leur niveau de chaleur, d'encouragement, et de compréhension aide les enfants à utiliser les valeurs sociales qu'ils/elles acquièrent au travers ces stades de développement, telles que la confiance, l'autonomie, l'innovation, la compétence, etc. Selon cette théorie, les parents deviennent le soutien social de base pour l'enfant. Un enfant ayant des parents intentionnés est plus apte à confronter les obstacles sociaux et à extraire des habiletés sociales pour faciliter son intégration dans la société. Toutefois, les enfants ayant des parents négligents ou absents sont moins aptes à développer les compétences pour socialiser adéquatement avec leurs pairs.

Les enfants ont besoin d'établir des relations profondes avec leur environnement pour devenir un citoyen proactif de cette société. Ces relations sont fondées sur les styles d'attachement qu'ils acquièrent durant leur enfance. Selon Bowlby (1969), les styles d'attachement sont fondés sur les interactions entre un bébé et son parent. L'enfant apprend

à aimer ses parents lorsqu'il/elle répond à ses besoins de base. Cette tendresse entre le bébé et son parent amène une sécurité émotionnelle chez le jeune. Avec cette sécurité, l'enfant devient apte à explorer son entourage et à développer une confiance en soi.

D'autre part, l'enfant exprime une réaction intense lorsqu'il/elle est confronté(e) à une séparation parentale. Ainsworth, Blehar, Water et Wall (1978) ont créé une typologie d'attachement en examinant les réactions infantiles vis-à-vis la séparation maternelle. Un attachement sécuritaire est défini comme la capacité d'accueillir une mère chaleureusement après son retour. Même après avoir vécu une détresse émotionnelle, l'enfant est capable de démontrer de la tendresse et de l'affection envers sa mère après son retour. Un attachement insécurisé est décrit par la réaction d'évitement, de colère et d'anxiété par le bébé après le retour de la mère. L'enfant essaie activement d'éviter sa mère après son retour. Il/elle est incapable de démontrer sa colère ou sa détresse à sa mère et donc, il/elle décide d'ignorer son parent. Le dernier est un style d'attachement ambivalent. L'enfant démontre une grande anxiété durant et après le retour de la mère. Selon Ainsworth (1978), l'attention et la présence parentale sont les ingrédients primordiaux pour le développement d'un attachement sécuritaire.

En plus, les études démontrent que notre style d'attachement à l'enfance a un impact sur nos relations interpersonnelles durant notre adolescence et notre vie d'adulte. Selon Hazan et Shaver (1987), les styles d'attachement que nous avons développé durant notre enfance deviennent des modèles de référence pour nos futures relations. En d'autres

mots, les enfants ayant vécu un attachement insécurisant avec leur parent seront plus aptes à répéter le même style d'attachement avec leurs amis (es) et/ou futurs conjoints(es).

En conclusion, les gestes, comportements et les réactions parentales ont un impact sur le bien-être social d'un enfant. Si les parents sont stables, aimables, encourageants et persistants, les enfants développent facilement les habiletés sociales et les styles d'attachement nécessaires pour bien s'assimiler à leur entourage. Dans la section suivante, nous allons examiner l'effet de la présence parentale sur le développement cognitif d'un enfant.

Dans cette section, nous allons examiner l'importance de la présence parentale sur le développement cognitif d'un individu, tels que l'acquisition linguistique, la curiosité intellectuelle et l'amélioration des habiletés cognitives par l'entremise de l'implication parentale.

Développement cognitif

Selon Piaget (1969,1970), les parents jouent un rôle fondamental dans l'apprentissage et l'acquisition de la langue. En encourageant les enfants à deviner le nom des objets dans leur entourage, les parents aident leurs petits à enrichir leur vocabulaire. En corrigeant leurs petits dans le jeu de devinette, les parents leur donnent les points de références pour bâtir un vocabulaire riche. De plus, les commentaires et suggestions des parents augmentent la confiance en soi de l'enfant et ceci facilite l'intérêt intellectuel. Les

parents deviennent les professeurs et ils démontrent à l'enfant comment interagir verbalement avec leur environnement. Avec la participation et la persistance des parents, les enfants développent des habiletés linguistiques avancées et la curiosité intellectuelle.

En plus, les études indiquent que les stades de développement cognitifs (sensoriel, pré opérationnel, concret et opérationnel formel) sont atteints plus efficacement avec la présence parentale. L'implication parentale augmente l'initiative et la compétence infantile. Lorsque les parents privent leur petit de leur présence et de l'interaction verbale, on remarque une stagnation intellectuelle. L'enfant ne perfectionne pas ses habiletés verbales et cognitives.

Dans cette section, nous allons examiner l'importance des styles parentaux sur le bien-être d'un enfant. Nous approfondirons la typologie des styles parentaux en révisant leurs définitions respectives et leurs effets sur le développement global d'un enfant. Nous allons vérifier les effets émotionnels, interactionnels et psychiques de chaque style parental sur l'évolution infantile.

Styles parentaux

Généralement, les parents emploient un style parental pour guider et éduquer leur petit. Selon Baumrind (1966,1971), les styles parentaux consistent à utiliser du contrôle et de l'empathie. Dépendamment du niveau et de l'intensité du contrôle et de l'empathie parentale, un style parental différent émerge dans les études. Cinq styles parentaux ont été

observés au travers les recherches de Baumrind (1971). Les styles autoritaire, démocratique, harmonieux, permissif, négligeant et rejetant sont observés dans la plupart des familles.

Le style autoritaire est défini par un niveau élevé de contrôle et un faible niveau d'empathie parentale. Les parents autoritaires exercent une pression sur leur enfant afin d'atteindre une obéissance complète. Ils croient que les enfants doivent avoir des règles de conduite rigides sans possibilité de dialogue. Une transgression des règles, normes ou valeurs parentales amène des sanctions chez l'enfant. Les parents appliquent des punitions lorsque les enfants n'obéissent pas à leurs directives. De plus, on observe que les enfants provenant d'une famille autoritaire ont une faible estime de soi. Ils doutent de leurs habiletés décisionnelles et ils essaient sans cesse de plaire à leurs parents. Malheureusement, les attentes élevées de ceux-ci causent généralement un échec chez les enfants (Lewis, 1981). De plus, les enfants provenant d'une famille autoritaire démontrent une personnalité renfermée, anxieuse et déprimée (Baumrind, 1971). Leur confiance en soi est basée profondément sur leur désir d'atteindre la reconnaissance et l'approbation de leurs parents. Les études confirment que les enfants provenant d'une famille autoritaire obtiennent des résultats scolaires plus élevés que la moyenne. Leur désir de satisfaire les attentes scolaires de leurs parents et d'éviter une punition explique ce résultat. D'autre part, les enfants ne développent pas adéquatement des compétences sociales, car leurs parents les encadrent profondément à la maison.

Le style démocratique est défini par un niveau élevé de contrôle et d'empathie parentale. Les parents employant un style démocratique exercent une structure et un encadrement familiaux. Toutefois, ils encouragent un dialogue entre les enfants et eux-mêmes lorsqu'il y a une désobéissance aux règles de conduite. Les parents employant un style démocratique utilisent des outils pour promouvoir un échange verbal avec leurs enfants afin de comprendre le rationnel de leurs transgressions. Ils ne désirent pas une obéissance totale, mais plutôt une relation égalitaire. Selon les études, les enfants provenant d'une famille démocratique développent une confiance en soi élevée, une meilleure acquisition de compétences sociales et un rendement scolaire de moyen à élevé. De plus, ces enfants semblent s'intégrer adéquatement dans la société, car ils sont aptes à respecter les consignes sociales tout en revendiquant celles-ci lorsqu'ils perçoivent une injustice. Une présence parentale stable et des punitions consistantes lors de transgressions comportementales amènent le développement d'une personnalité appropriée.

Le style permissif est défini par un faible contrôle et une empathie parentale élevée. Les parents employant un style permissif essaient de plaire à leurs enfants en évitant l'application de contrôle. Selon les parents permissifs, les enfants doivent obtenir une chaleur intense lors de leur développement. Les parents permissifs croient que l'application de punition parentale a un impact néfaste sur l'indépendance, la confiance et le bien-être psychologique de leur enfant. Donc, ils encouragent leurs enfants à prendre des décisions importantes en bas âge, même si ceux-ci ne possèdent pas les capacités cognitives à ce but. Généralement, les enfants provenant d'une famille permissive ont une confiance en soi

Le style démocratique est défini par un niveau élevé de contrôle et d'empathie parentale. Les parents employant un style démocratique exercent une structure et un encadrement familiaux. Toutefois, ils encouragent un dialogue entre les enfants et eux-mêmes lorsqu'il y a une désobéissance aux règles de conduite. Les parents employant un style démocratique utilisent des outils pour promouvoir un échange verbal avec leurs enfants afin de comprendre le rational de leurs transgressions. Ils ne désirent pas une obéissance totale, mais plutôt une relation égalitaire. Selon les études, les enfants provenant d'une famille démocratique développent une confiance en soi élevée, une meilleure acquisition de compétences sociales et un rendement scolaire de moyen à élevé. De plus, ces enfants semblent s'intégrer adéquatement dans la société, car ils sont aptes à respecter les consignes sociales tout en revendiquant celles-ci lorsqu'ils perçoivent une injustice. Une présence parentale stable et des punitions consistantes lors de transgressions comportementales amènent le développement d'une personnalité appropriée.

Le style permissif est défini par un faible contrôle et une empathie parentale élevée. Les parents employant un style permissif essaient de plaire à leurs enfants en évitant l'application de contrôle. Selon les parents permissifs, les enfants doivent obtenir une chaleur intense lors de leur développement. Les parents permissifs croient que l'application de punition parentale a un impact néfaste sur l'indépendance, la confiance et le bien-être psychologique de leur enfant. Donc, ils encouragent leurs enfants à prendre des décisions importantes en bas âge, même si ceux-ci ne possèdent pas les capacités cognitives à ce but. Généralement, les enfants provenant d'une famille permissive ont une confiance en soi

pairs. On les retrouve souvent en train d'abuser des substances, participer à la délinquance et rentrer dans multiples relations sexuelles en bas âge. Aussi, ces enfants développent diverses psychopathologies, telles qu'une personnalité état-limite, antisociale, obsessionnelle-compulsive et/ou la dépression.

À présent, nous comprenons les différences respectives entre les cinq styles parentaux. De plus, nous assimilons les effets généraux de chaque style parental sur le développement personnel d'un enfant. Essayons maintenant de comprendre la complexité reliée à la perception de l'autorité parentale sur les comportements, émotions et décisions des jeunes. Les chercheurs réalisent l'impossibilité de quantifier concrètement le contrôle parental, car celui-ci est un vécu subjectif chez chaque personne. Donc, nous examinons les écrits sur la perception de l'autorité parentale sur le développement global d'un individu.

La perception de l'autorité parentale

Plusieurs études démontrent que la perception de contrôle est essentielle dans la vie d'un individu. Une absence ou manque de contrôle amène une faible estime de soi, un sentiment d'anxiété, une détresse psychique et même la possibilité de développer diverses psychopathologies (Wortman & Brehm, 1975).

Nous présumons qu'une absence ou un manque de contrôle au sein de la famille peut aboutir aux mêmes résultats, tels qu'une faible confiance en soi, de l'anxiété et de la démotivation. Les recherches de Baumrind (1971) indiquent que les enfants subissant un

niveau élevé de contrôle parental démontraient des sentiments de colère et de tristesse. De plus, ils exprimaient des difficultés à apprendre des habiletés sociales. L'incapacité des jeunes d'exercer un contrôle sur leur environnement familial déclenche diverses problématiques. Un aspect qui est influencé par le contrôle parental est la perception de soi de l'enfant.

À présent, nous avons exploré la perception de l'autorité parentale sur le développement individuel. Nous allons continuer notre exploration en examinant les impacts de la perception de l'autorité parentale sur un aspect distinct du développement psychologique, c'est-à-dire la perception de soi (estime de soi et confiance en soi).

L'autorité parentale et la perception de soi

On définit la perception de soi comme une évaluation interne de nos sentiments et de nos pensées (James, 1890). La perception de soi englobe divers concepts, tels que l'estime de soi, la confiance en soi et l'efficacité de soi. La capacité de se juger positivement influence directement la perception de soi. Nos expériences d'enfance et nos interactions parentales sont les piliers de base pour la création de notre estime de soi.

Les études démontrent que nous utilisons les jugements des autres pour bâtir notre estime de soi. Selon Cooley (1902), les commentaires des autres sont incorporés dans notre estime de soi. En d'autres mots, notre entourage devient un miroir dans lequel nous

regardons nos qualités et défauts. Cooley (1902) indique que les parents et l'environnement social d'un enfant influence le niveau de confiance.

Selon Baumrind (1971), un enfant critiqué et/ou rabaissé par ses parents développe une faible estime de soi. Des enfants provenant d'une famille exerçant un contrôle parental élevé sont généralement évalués négativement par leurs parents, car ils sont incapables de satisfaire leurs attentes irréalistes. Donc, ces enfants n'obtiennent pas beaucoup de reconnaissance et d'approbation parentale. En d'autres mots, l'absence de reconnaissance positive de leurs parents amène une remise en question de leurs facultés intellectuelles. De plus, on observe chez ces jeunes des difficultés à prendre des décisions, car leur identité est basée sur les désirs parentaux. Ces enfants doutent de leurs habiletés parce qu'ils ont peur de décevoir leurs parents en prenant une mauvaise décision (Coopersmith, 1967).

Une recherche de Lamborn, Ritter, Leidermann, Roberts et Fraleigh (1991) souligne que les adolescents provenant d'une famille exerçant un faible contrôle parental développent une estime de soi supérieure à celle des enfants ayant des parents contrôlants. Dans cette étude, les enfants ayant vécu dans une famille contrôlante avaient une perception de soi négative concernant leurs compétences sociales et académiques. De plus, ces enfants étaient plus nerveux que les autres enfants, car ils avaient peur de déplaire à leurs parents. Aussi, les enfants provenant d'une famille contrôlante s'évaluaient plus sévèrement que leur confrères, parce qu'ils recherchaient davantage la reconnaissance parentale et la chaleur humaine.

Jusqu'à maintenant, nous avons exploré la perception de l'autorité parentale sur la perception de soi. Nous allons poursuivre notre exploration en approfondissant les impacts de la perception de l'autorité parentale sur un autre aspect du développement psychologique, c'est-à-dire la santé psychologique de l'individu (émergence de troubles psychologiques).

L'autorité parentale et la santé psychologique

Une bonne santé psychologique aide un individu à s'épanouir dans sa vie. Par contre, des troubles psychiques ou une psychopathologie importante peuvent nuire aux projets de vie d'un individu. Selon plusieurs cliniciens, (p. ex. Freud, (1912), les parents influencent le développement psychique d'un individu.

Selon Lamborn et al (1991), les enfants provenant d'une famille contrôlante démontrent un niveau élevé de détresse interne. Ces enfants et adolescents sont plus anxieux et angoissés, car ils veulent plaire à leurs parents et éviter des punitions. La pression constante d'atteindre les objectifs fixés par leurs parents amène une démoralisation interne. Aussi, ces enfants utilisent moins fréquemment les drogues et les autres substances parce que leurs parents exigent une obéissance complète aux lois sociales. De plus, ils semblent que ces jeunes aient une tendance à s'isoler des autres et à vivre des épisodes dépressifs lorsqu'ils sont incapables d'obtenir la reconnaissance de leurs parents. De plus,

leur incapacité à développer une identité individuelle amenait une dévalorisation personnelle. Une déviance sexuelle est observée chez ces jeunes.

Une autre étude (Barber, Olsen, & Shagle, 1994) a examiné l'effet du contrôle parental sur le bien-être psychologique et comportemental des adolescents. Dans cette recherche, les chercheurs ont présumé qu'un contrôle parental élevé influençait l'internalisation et l'externalisation de la détresse psychologique chez les adolescents. Les résultats révèlent une relation positive entre le contrôle psychologique et la détresse internalisée (anxiété, culpabilité, dépression et faible estime de soi). De plus, un contrôle psychologique exercé par les parents amenait des sentiments d'incertitude et de doute chez les adolescents. Une explication de ces résultats est que ces individus (adolescents subissant un contrôle psychologique et comportemental élevé) avaient peur de perdre l'amour, l'approbation parentale et/ou de subir la culpabilité. Ces adolescents essayaient de combattre des sentiments d'impuissance engendrée par une absence d'autonomie (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Jusqu'ici, nous avons exploré la perception de l'autorité parentale sur le développement psychique. Nous avons réalisé qu'une perception élevée d'autorité parentale peut engendrer des conséquences néfastes sur la santé psychologique des personnes, telles que l'émergence de troubles psychologiques, l'abus de substance, la délinquance et la déviance sexuelle. Nous allons poursuivre notre exploration en examinant la relation entre

l'autorité parentale et un autre aspect de la socialisation, c'est-à-dire la performance scolaire.

L'autorité parentale et le succès académique

Le domaine scolaire représente une partie importante de la vie d'un enfant. L'environnement scolaire stimule la curiosité intellectuelle, facilite l'apprentissage des concepts théoriques et favorise la création des relations sociales entre les étudiants. Toutefois, on remarque que les enfants venant d'une famille contrôlante obtiennent des notes scolaires moyennes à supérieures à l'école. Ces enfants sont envahis par une anxiété constante de bien performer aux examens afin de plaire à leurs parents et d'éviter des punitions.

Hess et Holloway (1984) ont évalué l'impact du contrôle parental sur la performance académique des enfants à l'école primaire et secondaire. Ils ont examiné les cinq facteurs suivants : 1) les interactions verbales entre la mère et l'enfant, 2) les attentes parentales envers le succès scolaire, 3) la relation affective entre un enfant et ses parents, 4) les valeurs parentales et 5) la discipline et le contrôle parental. Les résultats révèlent que les parents exerçant une discipline et un contrôle élevé influençaient positivement le succès scolaire de leurs enfants, ceux-ci ayant un rendement scolaire supérieur à la moyenne (Baumrind, 1971; Hess & Holloway, 1984; Marjoriebanks, 1979).

Par contre, une étude de Dornbusch, Ritter, Leidermann, Roberts et Fraleigh (1987) a obtenu des résultats différents. Les chercheurs ont examiné les effets des styles parentaux

sur le succès académique des adolescent(e)s. Une autoévaluation faite par les participants a démontré que les enfants provenant d'une famille contrôlante et/ou permissive obtenaient les plus faibles résultats scolaires. Les chercheurs ont présumé que les attentes élevées des parents contrôlant (autoritaires) causaient une pression intense sur la motivation des adolescents (es). De plus, les enfants provenant d'une famille permissive avaient peu de discipline parentale. Donc, ils/elles ne développent pas la motivation nécessaire pour se surpasser à l'école. Aussi, les adolescents provenant d'une famille démocratique (un niveau élevé de contrôle et d'empathie parental) avaient les meilleures notes scolaires. Ces adolescent(e)s ont obtenu des résultats scolaires supérieurs à la moyenne à cause du soutien inconditionnel qu'ils/elles ont obtenu de leurs parents. Donc, les résultats de cette recherche, le contrôle parental excessif aurait un impact négatif sur le succès académique chez les adolescents. Par contre, un contrôle parental modéré ou combiné avec une empathie parentale prononcée mènerait à un rendement scolaire supérieur à la moyenne.

En conclusion, les résultats des recherches précédentes démontrent que les enfants et les adolescents (es) répondent adéquatement à un niveau modéré de contrôle parental. Toutefois, un niveau excessif de contrôle enclenche des angoisses internes chez les individus. Cette anxiété influence négativement leur rendement scolaire. La motivation interne des enfants et adolescents provenant d'une famille contrôlante est d'éviter des punitions et d'obtenir l'appréciation parentale.

Ainsi, les recherches démontrent que les styles parentaux (impliquant contrôle et empathie parentale) ont un impact direct sur l'acquisition des compétences sociales et sur le développement psychologique d'un individu. Dans cette étude, nous allons examiner les effets de l'autorité/contrôle parental sur la perception de soi, le bien-être psychologique et le rendement scolaire. Dans la section suivante, nous allons présenter nos hypothèses de recherche.

Hypothèses

Cette thèse examine les effets de la perception de l'autorité parentale sur cinq variables : l'estime de soi, la confiance en soi, le bien-être psychologique, le succès académique et la réaction émotionnelle envers l'autorité parentale. Nous présumons qu'une relation existe entre la perception de l'autorité et nos cinq variables dépendantes. Les hypothèses de recherche sont les suivantes.

Hypothèse 1. Nous présumons que la perception de l'autorité parentale influence directement l'estime de soi. Nous supposons que plus les individus perçoivent leurs parents comme étant autoritaires, plus ils ont une faible estime de soi. D'autre part, nous spéculons qu'une réaction émotionnelle négative (c-à-d les participants perçoivent l'utilisation de l'autorité parentale comme étant néfaste à leur développement personnel) envers l'autorité parentale sera positivement associé à une faible estime de soi chez les participants.

Hypothèse 2. Nous examinons aussi la relation entre la perception de l'autorité parentale et la confiance en soi. Nous supposons que plus les individus perçoivent leurs parents comme étant autoritaires, plus ils ont une faible confiance en eux. De plus, nous attendons à ce qu'une réaction émotionnelle envers l'autorité parentale soit positivement associé à une faible estime de soi chez les participants.

Hypothèse 3. Nous émettons l'hypothèse d'une relation entre la perception de l'autorité parentale et le bien-être psychologique. Nous supposons que plus les individus perçoivent leurs parents comme étant autoritaires, plus ils ont une santé psychologique précaire. Donc, nous croyons que les individus qui décrivent leur famille comme étant autoritaire seront susceptibles de développer des problèmes de santé mentale, tels que des troubles anxieux, des symptômes dépressifs et des crises de colère. D'autre part, nous présumons qu'une réaction émotionnelle négative envers l'autorité parentale sera positivement associée à un faible bien-être psychologique chez les participants.

Hypothèse 4. Nous avons stipulé qu'une relation existe entre la perception de l'autorité parentale et le succès académique. Ainsi, plus les individus perçoivent leurs parents comme étant autoritaires, plus ils obtiendront des résultats scolaires faibles au primaire et au secondaire. Leur moyenne globale devrait démontrer leur inhabileté à bien performer à cause des angoisses internes déclenchées par les attentes élevées de leurs parents. D'autre part, nous proposons qu'une réaction émotionnelle négative envers

l'autorité parentale sera positivement associée à un faible rendement scolaire chez les participants.

Hypothèse 5. Finalement, nous évaluerons les effets de la perception de l'autorité parentale sur la réaction émotionnelle. On définit la réaction émotionnelle comme la réaction des individus envers l'utilisation de l'autorité parentale durant leur enfance. En d'autres mots, les participants peuvent évaluer l'emploi de l'autorité parentale comme étant un geste positif ou négatif entrepris par leurs parents. Nous présumons que plus les individus décrivent leurs parents comme étant autoritaires, plus ils auront une réaction négative envers l'utilisation de l'autorité parentale dans la discipline des enfants.

Afin d'approfondir notre compréhension de la perception de l'autorité parentale, nous avons voulu mettre en évidence l'inter-connectivité des variables. Nous avons exploré un modèle structurel des variables afin d'établir la séquence entre celles-ci. Plus précisément, nous avons évalué l'exactitude d'un modèle structurel entre nos variables. L'exactitude de notre modèle structurel nous permet de vérifier les liens causals entre nos variables.

Méthode

Participants

L'échantillon de 377 participants a été recruté à trois endroits: l'Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières et deux lieux de travail. Les participants étaient âgés de 18 à 64

ans. De plus, notre échantillon était composé de 284 femmes et 77 hommes. La moyenne d'âge de nos participants était de 25 ans ($E.T.= 8,29$).

L'auteure de cette thèse ou le professeur du cours ont administré les questionnaires durant trois périodes de classes: l'été 2004, l'automne 2005 et l'hiver 2006. Aucun critère de sélection particulier n'a été retenu pour recruter les participants. La participation à la recherche s'est faite sur une base volontaire et les participants n'étaient pas récompensés pour leur temps.

Instruments de mesure

Dans cette étude, quatre questionnaires ont été distribués aux participants. Tous les participants devaient remplir un formulaire de consentement avant de participer à la recherche. Le formulaire de consentement stipulait que la participation à ce projet de recherche se faisait sur une base volontaire. Aussi, les participants avaient le droit de se retirer à n'importe quel moment durant l'étude.

Le questionnaire sociodémographique. Ce questionnaire recueille des informations qualitatives concernant les participants, telles leur sexe, leur âge, la nationalité, le niveau d'éducation, la profession, le statut social, le statut familial, le rang dans la famille d'origine et le nombre d'enfants dans la famille.

Le questionnaire sur la perception de l'autorité parentale. Ce questionnaire été créé pour analyser la perception de l'autorité parentale durant l'enfance d'un participant. Le questionnaire est inspiré par la typologie des styles parentaux de Baumrind (1971). Selon Baumrind (1971), tous les styles parentaux englobent deux dimensions : le contrôle et l'empathie parentale.

Dans ce questionnaire, nous avons examiné la perception des participants envers le contrôle physique, psychologique et social de leurs parents. La première partie du questionnaire était composé de quinze items. Chaque catégorie de contrôle parental (physique, psychologique et social) comprenait cinq questions. Les participants devaient évaluer leur perception du contrôle parental qu'ils/elles ont vécu sur une échelle de 5-points Likert (1-Complètement en désaccord à 5-Complètement en accord). Un score total a été calculé pour chaque catégorie en additionnant les cinq items. Dans la deuxième partie du questionnaire, les participants devaient répondre à quinze questions. Les questions évaluaient la réaction émotionnelle vis-à-vis les trois types de contrôle parental. Les participants ont répondu à chaque question sur une échelle de 5-points de type Likert. Une indexe totale de score été calculé en additionnant les cinq items de chaque catégorie (contrôle psychologique, physique et social). Un résultat élevé sur la variable de la réaction émotionnelle envers l'autorité parentale indiquait que l'individu considéré l'utilisation de l'autorité parentale comme étant positive à son éducation. Par contre, un score faible indiquait une réaction négative envers l'utilisation de l'autorité parentale envers son éducation.

Dans ce questionnaire, les participants devaient évaluer leur rendement scolaire à l'école primaire et secondaire. Une échelle de 5 points de type Likert (5 Très fort: mes notes étaient très élevés et j'étais dans les premiers de classe à 1 Très faible: plusieurs cours étaient échoués) fut utilisée par les participants pour situer leur rendement académique. Une deuxième question était posée pour obtenir un pourcentage de leur moyenne cumulative lors de leurs études primaires et secondaires.

L'Inventaire d'estime de soi. Le troisième questionnaire administré aux participants était l'inventaire d'estime de soi (Rosenberg, 1962). Ce questionnaire était composé de dix items. Les questions avaient pour objectif d'évaluer le niveau d'auto-appréciation sur une échelle de 7 points de type Likert. Un résultat élevé à cet inventaire révèle une estime de soi positive et élevée. Toutefois, un faible score indique que l'individu avait une évaluation négative de soi.

Le questionnaire de la confiance en soi. L'objectif du questionnaire (Garant & Alain, 1995) est d'examiner les sentiments et les pensées que nous détenons envers nos succès personnels. Les participants avaient à s'auto-évaluer sur une échelle de 7 point de type Likert. Un score total est calculé en additionnant tous les items ensemble. Un résultat élevé sur le questionnaire révèle que le participant a une appréciation positive de ses compétences.

Le questionnaire sur le bien-être psychologique. Le dernier questionnaire évaluait la santé psychologique des participants (Kovess et al. 1985). On a demandé aux participants de répondre à vingt-neuf questions sur une échelle de 7-point de type Likert. Les participants devaient se rappeler de leurs expériences personnelles durant les 6 derniers mois afin de compléter le questionnaire. Le but de ce questionnaire était de recueillir des informations sur l'émergence de symptômes psychosomatiques et psychologiques dans la vie des participants. Quatre problèmes psychologiques étaient évalués dans ce questionnaire : l'anxiété, la dépression, l'agressivité et les dysfonctions cognitives. Un indice du bien-être psychologique est calculé en additionnant tous les items. Un résultat élevé du bien-être psychologique suggère que le participant souffre de plusieurs problèmes psychologiques et une grande détresse.

Déroulement

Les participants ont été sollicités dans leurs cours universitaires. Ils devaient d'abord compléter le formulaire de consentement puis les cinq questionnaires décrits précédemment.

Après avoir obtenu la permission d'assister au cours auprès du professeur, le chercheur a présenté un résumé de sa recherche aux étudiants. Une explication détaillée concernant le formulaire de consentement, la confidentialité, les avantages et désavantages des questionnaires et leur droit de retirer leur participation à n'importe quel moment, furent mentionnés aux étudiants. Après avoir présenté cette information, le chercheur a administré les questionnaires de recherche aux participants. Les étudiants qui ne voulaient pas

participer au projet de recherche devaient rester assis jusqu'à la fin du déroulement. Durant l'expérimentation, le chercheur demeura présent dans la classe pour répondre aux questions. Après une période de 15-20 minutes, le chercheur a recueilli les questionnaires complétés. Les formulaires de consentement ont été retirés des questionnaires afin de préserver la confidentialité des participants. À la fin de l'expérimentation, le chercheur a rappelé aux participants que du soutien immédiat était disponible s'ils/elles sentaient le besoin de consulter.

Des participants ont aussi été recrutés dans deux environnements professionnels : Shepell-FGI (un programme d'aide aux employés offrant des services psychologiques et du soutien immédiat aux clients d'une entreprise) et Fabricville (une compagnie spécialisée dans la vente de tissus et autres matériaux de couture). On demandait directement aux personnes de participer à la recherche. Le chercheur a expliqué l'objectif de la recherche, les limites de confidentialité et les avantages et inconvénients de l'étude. Le chercheur demeurait dans le même local que les participants afin de répondre à leurs questions.

Résultats

Cette étude évaluait la relation entre la perception de l'autorité parentale et les quatre variables suivantes : l'estime de soi, la confiance en soi, le succès académique et le bien-être psychologique. Une analyse corrélacionnelle été effectuée en utilisant le logiciel SPSS (version 12.0).

Hypothèse 1. La perception de l'autorité parentale et l'estime de soi. Le questionnaire de la perception de l'autorité parentale était composé de deux sous-catégories : la perception globale de l'autorité parentale et la perception globale de la réaction émotionnelle envers l'autorité parentale. Notre hypothèse stipulait qu'une relation existait entre la perception de l'autorité parentale et l'estime de soi. Les résultats confirment une relation significative négative entre les deux variables ($r = -0,30, p < 0,01$). Les résultats montrent qu'une perception élevée de l'autorité parentale est liée à une diminution de l'estime de soi des participants.

De plus, une relation significative et négative a été observée entre la réaction émotionnelle envers l'autorité parentale et l'estime de soi ($r = -0,22, p < 0,01$). Les résultats confirment notre hypothèse de base selon laquelle les individus ayant des réactions émotionnelles négatives ont une plus faible estime de soi.

Hypothèse 2. La perception de l'autorité parentale et la confiance en soi. Nous avons présumé qu'une relation existait entre la perception de l'autorité parentale (la perception globale de l'autorité parentale et la réaction globale envers l'autorité parentale)

et la confiance en soi. Une corrélation négative a été obtenue pour les deux sous-catégories. En d'autres mots, une relation négative existe entre la perception globale de l'autorité parentale et la confiance en soi ($r = -0,21$, $p < 0,01$). Nos résultats révèlent que les individus ayant perçu une autorité parentale élevée avaient une plus faible confiance en eux.

D'autre part, les analyses indiquent également une corrélation significative et négative entre la réaction globale envers l'autorité parentale et la confiance en soi ($r = -0,26$, $p < 0,01$). Ainsi, plus les participants réagissent négativement envers l'autorité parentale, plus ils affichent une faible confiance en eux.

Hypothèse 3. La perception de l'autorité parentale et le bien-être psychologique.

Nous proposons également une relation entre les deux variables suivantes, la perception globale de l'autorité parentale et la réaction émotionnelle globale envers l'autorité parentale et le bien-être psychologique. Comme prédit, une relation significative et positive été observée entre ces deux variables ($r = 0,34$, $p < 0,01$). Ces résultats confirment que les participants décrivant leurs parents comme étant autoritaires avaient un bien-être et une détresse psychologique plus élevée.

De plus, une relation similaire fut observée entre la réaction émotionnelle globale envers l'autorité parentale et le bien-être et la détresse psychologique ($r = 0,29$, $p < 0,01$). Ces résultats suggèrent que plus les participants avaient une réaction émotionnelle élevée envers l'autorité parentale, plus ils avaient de problèmes psychologiques.

Hypothèse 4. La perception de l'autorité parentale et le succès académique: Nous avons évalué la relation entre la perception de l'autorité parentale et le succès académique. Nous avons supposé qu'une relation négative existait entre la perception de l'autorité parentale et le succès académique. Les résultats ont confirmé cette relation négative ($r = -0,16, p < 0,01$). Plus les participants décrivaient leurs parents comme étant autoritaires, plus faible étaient leurs moyennes scolaires.

Hypothèse 5. La perception de l'autorité parentale et la réaction émotionnelle envers l'autorité parentale. Nous avons obtenu des résultats similaires pour cette hypothèse. Les données ont révélé une relation significative entre la perception de l'autorité parentale et la réaction émotionnelle ($r = 0,87, p < 0,01$). Ainsi, plus les individus décrivaient leurs parents comme étant autoritaires, plus ils avaient une réaction émotionnelle intense (élevée) envers l'utilisation de l'autorité parentale.

Modèle structurel des relations entre les variables

Une analyse par équations structurales été effectuée sur les données afin de vérifier l'exactitude du modèle proposé (voir figure 1, p.58). Les données de cette analyse supportent le modèle proposé. Ainsi, les diverses indices pertinents démontrent un bon ajustement du modèle aux données. Même si le Chi-carré est significatif, ($\chi^2(3) = 10,66, p < 0,01$), les autres indices se situent dans les normes acceptables. Par exemple, le GFI est 0,99, le NFI de 0,97 et le CFI de 0,98. De plus, le RMSR est plus petit que 0,05 (0,047).

Discussion

Les résultats de cette étude suggèrent qu'une relation importante existe entre la perception de l'autorité parentale et diverses composantes d'ordre socio-psychologique d'un individu. Selon les études sociales, la perception de l'autorité parentale facilite le confort émotionnel chez les enfants. Baumrind (1971) indique que les enfants requièrent un équilibre entre le contrôle parental et l'empathie parentale afin de s'ajuster adéquatement à leur entourage. Un manque d'implication parentale a un impact négatif sur l'estime de soi, la confiance en soi, le développement des troubles de personnalité, l'acquisition des habiletés sociales et le rendement scolaire.

Nous avons supposé que les individus provenant d'une famille contrôlante (contrôle parental élevé et faible empathie parentale) développeraient une faible estime d'eux-mêmes. Nos résultats confirment cette hypothèse. Lamborn et al. (1991) ont démontré que les enfants se fient principalement sur la reconnaissance, l'approbation et la gratification parentale pour augmenter leur estime de soi. Aussi, lorsque les personnes sont soumises à une pression psychologique (telle que la culpabilité, le manque de reconnaissance et la critique) par leurs parents autoritaires, ils/elles commencent à questionner leurs compétences. Donc, leur estime de soi diminue, car ils/elles ne reçoivent pas le soutien moral nécessaire de leur entourage.

Selon les études de Lamborn et al. (1991) et Coopersmith (1967), les individus provenant d'une famille autoritaire doutent de leurs compétences. Ces individus perçoivent leurs parents comme étant contrôlant, car ils/elles sont incapables de satisfaire les attentes

irréalistes de leurs parents. Par conséquent, ces personnes se retrouvent avec des doutes internes, une dépréciation de soi et une culpabilité vis-à-vis leur incapacité à plaire à leurs parents. Ceci amène une diminution dans leurs habiletés à s'auto évaluer adéquatement. Ils/elles deviennent leurs propres pires critiques et ils/elles dévalorisent leurs facultés intellectuelles, sociales et psychologiques. Généralement, ces personnes développent une faible estime de soi, car ils/elles internalisent les critiques, les reproches et les indifférences de leurs parents autoritaires.

Notre étude corrobore les résultats obtenus dans par les recherches antérieures dans le domaine de la confiance en soi et de l'auto-efficacité. Selon Bandura (1977), l'auto-efficacité émerge avec le sentiment de réussite. Lorsque les individus sont confrontés à des échecs, leurs valeurs internes diminuent. Ces personnes attribuent un échec à leurs propres faiblesses (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Bandura (1977) indique que les enfants qui se comparent négativement aux étudiants et à leur fratrie sont susceptibles de développer un faible niveau d'auto-efficacité. Nous avons découvert dans cette étude que les individus provenant d'une famille autoritaire étaient plus susceptibles de dévaloriser leurs habiletés, leurs facultés, leurs aptitudes et leurs compétences.

Le bien-être psychologique est défini comme l'habileté d'un individu à gérer divers facteurs de stress. Dans cette recherche, nous avons exploré trois aspects de la santé psychologique : la dépression, l'anxiété et l'agressivité. Nous avons voulu comprendre davantage les liens existant entre la perception de l'autorité parentale et les difficultés psychologiques. Les résultats obtenus démontrent une relation significative et positive entre la perception de l'autorité parentale et la détresse psychologique. Les individus percevant

leurs parents comme étant contrôlant possédaient une détresse psychologique plus élevée. Ces individus démontraient des symptômes dépressifs, anxieux et hostilité. Selon la documentation scientifique, un contrôle parental élevé a une influence négative sur la santé psychique d'un individu. Barber et al. (1994) ont montré que le contrôle psychologique et comportemental exercé par les parents empêche le développement du bien-être psychologique chez un individu. Les adolescents (es) provenant d'une famille autoritaire révèlent un niveau élevé de détresse émotionnelle, tels que l'anxiété, la culpabilité et la dévalorisation. De plus, on note que ces enfants développent plus de problématiques psychologiques (comme l'anxiété et la dépression).

Le succès académique a été évalué en examinant la moyenne globale des participants à l'école primaire et secondaire. Baumrind (1971) indique que les enfants provenant d'une famille démocratique ont obtenu les meilleurs résultats scolaires, car ils/elles avaient un soutien constant et un contrôle parental équilibré. L'estime de soi élevée des enfants provenant d'une famille démocratique influençait leur capacité à s'améliorer dans leurs études, car ils/elles s'appuyaient sur l'empathie morale de leurs parents. Dans notre recherche, les participants décrivant leurs parents comme étant autoritaires avaient une moyenne globale moins élevée à l'école primaire et secondaire que les autres participants.

En conclusion, les résultats de cette recherche ont démontré que des relations significatives existaient entre la perception de l'autorité parentale, la perception de soi, le succès académique et le bien-être psychologique. Nous avons observé l'émergence de relations causales entre ces variables. Cette étude a fourni des informations cruciales pour

faciliter l'éducation des enfants et l'intervention auprès de familles souffrant de problèmes disciplinaires.

Finalement, cette étude a ouvert une nouvelle dimension sur le contrôle et l'autorité parentale. Auparavant, les notions d'autorité et de contrôle parental n'étaient pas fréquemment explorées dans les rencontres de psychothérapie familiale et individuelle, car on avait peu d'information sur les effets néfastes et bénéfiques de ses conditions sur l'individu et la famille. Les résultats de cette recherche démontrent que les liens tissés entre la perception de l'autorité parentale et le développement personnel sont solides. En effet, des implications psychiques, comportementales et sociales sont engendrées par l'utilisation inappropriée du contrôle parental (une autorité parentale absente ou excessive). Nous croyons que les résultats de cette recherche pourront favoriser l'intervention clinique avec des familles en difficulté. Les intervenants utilisant les résultats de cette étude pourront détecter les facteurs problématiques concernant l'utilisation du contrôle parental pour l'éducation et la discipline des enfants.

Introduction

This section emphasizes the importance of parental involvement on a child's development and well-being. Parental roles, practices, and commitment towards the welfare of children are reviewed from an evolutionary perspective.

In our society, parents have a pivotal role in their children's lives. They guide, supervise, and care for their offsprings. They ensure their child's safety and satisfy their survival and nurturing needs. Without a conscientious and protective parent, the survival rate of an infant would be low. A child's ability to survive in his/her environment is based fundamentally on his/her parents' presence and protection. In the beginning years of a child's life, an infant is completely dependent on his/her parents. An attuned parent develops sensitivity toward his/her child and is able to decipher without any verbal exchange, his/her child needs. A child learns, at this point, that he/she can rely on his/her parent to understand and explore his/her surroundings.

The parental role changes as a child crosses various developmental stages. Parents evolve from a primary caregiver, to teacher and lastly to a friend in a child's life. Parents usually employ control and empathy to discipline their children. If a parent employs an excessive amount of control or empathy, the child development may be jeopardized. The perception of a child towards the utilization of parental control influences their overall adjustment to society. Perceived parental control severely impacts the psychological, cognitive, and social evolution of a child.

To further comprehend the consequences of perceived parental control, we parental control investigated the effects of perceived parental authority on five different variables: self-esteem, self-confidence, psychological health, academic success and emotional reaction towards parental control. The self-perception (self-confidence and self-esteem) variables evaluate the participant's self-referent feelings. The psychological health variable examines the internal distress of an individual in relation to anxiety, depression, hostility, cognitive dysfunctions. Academic success is defined as an individual scholastic achievement during the primary and high school years. Lastly, the variable entitled emotional reaction towards perceived parental control evaluates the individual's response towards being subjected to parental control. In other words, their understanding of the causes leading their parents to employ parental control during their childhood Furthermore, their emotional response and point of view (positive or negative) towards the utilization of parental control.

In conclusion, a child's social, psychological, and cognitive development is profoundly affected by parental involvement, warmth, and commitment. We commence our study with a literature review examining the impact of parental styles on child development.

Theoretical context

Theoretical context on child development and perceived parental authority

The presence of parental figures during the early years of child development is fundamental for the physical, psychological, and social survival of the offspring. Inadequate, insufficient or neglectful parental behaviours reveal negative consequence on the overall progression of a child's well-being. To fully comprehend the impact of parental participation, it appears essential to explore a child early developmental sphere, such as psychological, social and cognitive progression.

In this section, we will examine numerous empirical studies concerning the effects of parental presence, involvement, and participation on a child's psychological growth. The evolution of a child's personality, temperament, and psychopathology are influenced by parental implications. We will review these psychological constructs in the present section. In the subsequent sections of the theoretical context, we will investigate the impact of parental involvement on children social and cognitive development.

Psychological development

One of the pioneer theorists in the domain of personality, Freud (1912) confirmed in his writings that adequate parental involvement promoted a well-adjusted personality. Conversely, parental indulgence and neglect led to a dysfunctional personality and a possible fixation at various developmental stages. Freud's (1912) structural model stipulates that a personality is composed of three components: the id, ego and super-ego.

These concepts exist to satisfy a person's unconscious needs. The "id" represents the biological forces or needs of a person. The "id" operates on the pleasure principle where it requires immediate gratification of desires. As for the "ego", this concept encompasses societal norms, values and responsibilities, which an individual learns through socialization. The "ego" functions primarily by employing the realistic principle. The "ego" usually makes a decision by weighing the repercussions of satisfying the id's desires. Lastly, the "super-ego" is the last unconsciousness concept to evolve in a child's personality.

According to Freud (1923), the "super-ego" develops when a child identifies with the same-sex parent to maintain a harmonious relationship with his/her parents. In order to fully identify with the same sex-parent, the child incorporates parental values, morals and attitudes. The identification process requires a child to learn attitudes and behaviours that offer positive social reinforcement from his/her parents. Freud states that the "super-ego" has two parts: the "ego-ideal" and the "conscience". The "ego-ideal" represents the idealized view of one-self. It is often referred to as the glorified image of the same sex-parent. The "ego-ideal" acts in a manner that guarantees internal parental acceptance and praise. It is a mechanism within the "super-ego" that guides people to act according to their parents' teachings and values to obtain a sense of righteousness. Conscience is described as the ability to differentiate between appropriate and inappropriate behaviours. This capacity is learned through parental criticism and punishments.

Various researchers have further elaborated the structure of the "super-ego". Eric Berne (1964) created a parallel between Freud's "super-ego" construct and the analogy of

a parent. He indicated that the “super-ego” functions as an unconscious parent for the “id” and the “ego”.

Berne (1964) decomposed the “super-ego” into two parts: the “nurturing” and the “critical” parent. The “nurturing parent” was depicted as a “helping, caring and protective part of us that provided parental security and warmth”. These positive feelings occur when the person recalls moments where he/she behaved in a manner that coincided with parental standards, values and attitudes. The “nurturing parent” increases the child’s self-esteem. The “critical parent” component of the “super-ego” represents the part that often criticizes the individual’s thoughts and behaviours by evaluating them according to the parental standards. The “critical parent” can be very harsh and severe towards the individual and may induce feelings of shame, guilt, sadness and possibly depression. The “super-ego” has been labelled the term “parent” for two reasons. Firstly, the super-ego functions as a parent in that it encourages appropriate self-behaviours. Secondly, this concept evolves through parental identification.

In conclusion, we realize that parental involvement contributes towards the emergence and evolution of the “super-ego”. As a child grows older, he/she integrates his/her parents’ teachings about social norms, values, and expectations. These teachings become a crucial part of the child’s personality. As a child matures, he/she refers to his/her “superego” in order to evaluate the appropriateness of his/her actions. If the actions of the child match his/her parents’ teaching, then the child is filled with a sense of well-being and rightness. However, if the child’s actions negate the parental values, then he/she may experience discomfort in the form of guilt, anger or sadness. In subsequent

sections, we will examine the impact of parental involvement on a child's social development.

In the following section, we will explore the influence of parental involvement on social development constructs, such as socialization, acquisition of social skills, and attachment styles. Various contemporary theorists have discovered that attuned parental attention, participation, and involvement deter children from developing social problems. These children learn from their parental experiences techniques to facilitate their integration into society. Contrarily, children exposed to neglectful parenting styles, internalized flawed and biased social aptitudes, which led them to adopt anti-social, delinquent behaviours, and inadequate social attachments.

Social development

A pioneer in the realm of children and adult social development is Erik Erikson (1968). According to Erikson (1963), an individual goes through eight stages of social development to acquire proper socialization. Each psychosocial stage is described as a psychological crisis that requires resolution to attain social integration.

The first four stages of psychosocial development stages assist the infant-toddler to integrate essential socializing values, such as hope, will, purpose, and competence by going through psychosocial crisis. In the first stage, the infant (age 0-1 year old) learns about the concept of trust and mistrust. With respect to this theory, an infant with responsive parents incorporates more easily feelings of trust than an infant whose parents are neglectful towards his primary nurturing needs. Essentially, Erikson (1968) asserts that parental presence and sensitivity are the key ingredients for an infant's acquisition of individual or societal trust.

In the second stage, the toddler (age 1-2 years old) must struggle with feelings of doubt (shame) and autonomy (independence). During this age, a toddler starts to explore his environment. Some activities require the exertion of independence and autonomy, such as walking, using the toilet and talking. Once again, parents appear to impact the toddler development in this stage by providing encouragement and reassurance when he/she attempts new tasks. Devoted and optimistic parents promote feelings of autonomy and independence in the toddler. Neglectful or overprotective parents lead toddlers to feel ashamed and doubtful when they attempt a new task.

The third stage of psychosocial development (age 2-6 years-old) indicates that children must struggle with feelings of initiative and guilt. At this stage, children are more apt to interact with their surroundings and are inquisitive about the functioning of their environment. They engage more readily in social interactions with their peers and parents. A child who develops feelings of initiative tends to have parents who promote discipline while encouraging inquisitiveness. A child learns to touch, feel, and interact with some aspects of his/her surroundings while avoiding others. During this stage, parents play a pivotal role by incorporating discipline in the child's life. Absent or overprotective parents cause a fixation at this stage, which may cause a child to be overwhelmed with feelings of guilt and wrongdoing.

In the fourth stage of development (age 6-12 years-old), a child must struggle with feelings of competency versus inferiority. According to Erikson (1963, 1968), a child who starts attending school experiences social comparison. Once again, parents and teacher impact their development. If parents and teacher encourage the child to ask questions and promote intellectual stimulation, then the child is likely to develop a strong sense of competency. On the contrary, if a parent neglects a child's inquisitive nature, then feelings of inferiority are internally invoked. The last four stages of psychosocial development investigate the conflicts that an adult must resolve to attain social acceptance and a sense of well-being. Erikson's (1963, 1968) theory clearly indicates that parental involvement is necessary for the psychological and social development of a child. In addition, a child develops across these stages a trust in his/her parents. The parents are viewed as a support system from which the child can securely explore his/her surroundings.

Another author who contributed to the understanding of parental role and responsibility in child psychology is John Bowlby (1969). He based his attachment theory on the ethological principles of imprinting (Lorenz, 1952).

According to Lorenz, baby geese were born with a set of innate behaviours that assisted them to preserve their parents' attention. These behaviours ensured the survival of the babies since parents were more attentive to fulfilling their basic needs (e.g. eating, shelter and protection against predators).

Bowlby (1969) was inspired by Lorenz's research and results; he decided to verify if human babies also had built-in behaviours that attracted parents to them. The findings revealed that babies displayed specific behaviours that led to parental attention (e.g. cooing, smiling, crying and giggling). Overtime, these behaviours caused the parents to be emotionally protective of their infant. The emotional bond tightened and attachment was created between both parties. According to Bowlby (1969), attachment is described as a "strong emotional bond that develops between an infant and caregiver, providing the infant with emotional security." The infant usually develops a fondness to his/her primary caregiver, who is capable of satisfying his basic needs and providing physical stimulations.

Other theorists have continued their studies in the field of attachment. Ainsworth, Blehar, Water and Wall (1978) were the founders of the attachment typology. Ainsworth

(1978) had worked with Bowlby for many years and she based her research on the mother-infant relationship. She conducted her study on 26 mother-infant dyads (Ainsworth, 1978). She observed the infant's reactions to a "Strange Situation". The Strange Situation paradigm was described as a 20-minute scenario where an infant is placed in eight different situations. The Strange Situation begins in the waiting room where the participant mother and infant are introduced to a stranger. After a couple of minutes of interactions, the mother is requested to leave and return after a 5 minute interval. The infant is left alone with the stranger. When the mother returns, the infant and stranger interact for a couple of minutes. After a couple of minutes, the mother once again leaves the infant all alone in the room. In the last scenario, the infant is by him/herself since the stranger has also left with the mother. Throughout the playing of the Strange Situation, research assistants are coding the infant's reactions (e.g., feeding, crying, cuddling, eye contacts, and smiling) and mother's response styles.

According to researchers, infants demonstrate three reactions to parental separations (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Initially, the infant protests the departure of a parent by crying and refusing to be consoled by a stranger. Following this reaction, the infant falls into despair where he/she appears sad and passive to the situation. Lastly, the infant exhibits reactions of detachment and anger when the primary caregiver returns. The infant may actively avoid and distance him/herself from the parent despite the caregivers attempt to console the infant.

Ainsworth's (1978) research yielded three distinct infant reactions. Firstly, some children cried and displayed great despair when they were separated from their mother. However, when she returned, they greeted her with positive behaviours (e.g. smiles, cooing, and giggles). Ainsworth labelled this first group as the "securely attached" group. The second group of infants showed distress during parental separation and actively avoided the parent upon return. This group was classified as the "insecurely attached" and "avoidant". The last group of infants showed distress and extreme anxiety during parental separation and upon the return of the mother. The infant revealed anger and resistance to the parent's later ingratiation. This group was labelled as "ambivalent and anxiously attached".

Ainsworth's study supports the premise that infants develop a close bond with caregivers since they tend to experience negative emotions (e.g. anxiety, distress, and sadness) when they are separated. Ainsworth (1978) realized that one of the most important factors in facilitating attachment was "parental sensitivity" and "responsiveness". During the Strange Situation study, research revealed that infants forged secure attachment when the parent responded adequately to their needs. In other words, the level of parental responsiveness towards satisfying an infant's need equate to the type of attachment. Conversely, when parents were insensitive and lacked responsiveness to the infant's cries, the infant was more prone to develop an insecure or avoidant attachment style.

Various attachment researchers investigated the impact of childhood attachment on adult relationships. According to Hazan and Shaver (1987), adult attachments are derived

directly from the “working models (mental representation)” of past experiences. These working models stem from childhood recollection of parent-child relationships. Thus, adults who developed a secure attachment with their parents will forge more secure attachment with their friends, significant others, and children. Adversely, an adult who experiences an insecure parental attachment will display a similar attachment style with his/her peers, significant others and children.

Hazan and Shaver (1987) concluded that three different attachments occurred in adulthood. Firstly, a secure adult attachment entailed a sense of closeness and openness towards peers and significant others. The individual will not be haunted by thoughts of abandonment while initiating social contact. An avoidant adult attachment will emerge if the adult experienced rejection from a parent as a child. The avoidant attachment style will lead an individual to feel uncomfortable with others when dealing with issues of trust. Avoidant adults have trouble maintaining emotional intimacy with significant others. Lastly, an ambivalent attachment style is described as a state of uncertainty. An adult with an ambivalent attachment style prefers his/her love partner/peers to be more emotionally involved with him/her. He/she wishes to merge with a partner in the hope of avoiding any future rejection or abandonment.

Rohner and Rohner (1981) investigated the impact of parental acceptance-rejection. He conducted a cross-cultural research and discovered that despite ethnicity, religion, and culture, most children experienced parental rejection similarly. Children perceive parental

acceptance-rejection by weighing the intensity of four behaviours: parental warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect, and undifferentiated rejection. Rohner and Pettengill (1985) noticed that children react to parental rejection in a passive or active way. In other words, some children become very depressed, withdrawn, emotionally unresponsive or emotionally unstable with impaired self-esteem or struggles with feelings of inadequacy. When a child reacted in an active manner, he/she displayed feelings of anger, hostility, dependency or defensive independence, and violence. As these children grew older and became adults, they repeated their past parental experiences with their own children, thus perpetuating the dysfunctional parent-child relationships. Rohner and Kyoung-ho's (2002) study revealed that parental rejection-acceptance is a powerful universal predictor of youth and adult personality and behavioural adjustment disorder. Hence, children who experienced parental rejection are more prone to display dysfunctional social behaviours and intense psychological problems.

In conclusion, previous research confirms that children learn their attachment style through the recollection of past parental interactions. A parent's responsiveness, sensitivity, and attachment style appears to mold a child's future social development. Although social development increases a child's well-being and facilitate a child understanding of the world, we nonetheless realize that cognitive development is essential for appropriate child evolution. In the subsequent section, we will closely examine the impact of parental involvement and participation on a child's cognitive development.

In this section, we will review the literature surrounding the effects of parental involvement, participation, and care on a child's cognitive development. The acquisition of language and intellectual stimulation will be examined from the perspective of parental attentiveness. The implication of parental involvement on the cognitive development of a child will be investigated from a dual viewpoint: absence or presence of parents in a child's cognitive journey.

Cognitive development

So how does a parent influence a child's cognitive development? According to Piaget (1970), children usually turn to a parent to learn the art of communication. Most commonly, children tend to play a "guessing game" with parents. During this game, a child randomly assigns a name/title to an object. A parent becomes a teacher and provides feedback on the child's proper use or misuse of a word. Through parental feedback the child integrates various words and starts organizing world representations accordingly. Children build vocabulary and linguistic knowledge through parental involvement and sensitivity. If a parent is not responsive to a child's attempt to name an object, it will discourage him/her to continue with his/her linguistic learning process, which will lead to the stagnation of his/her verbal abilities. In addition, Piaget's (1970) study indicated that as a child passes through different stages of intellectual development (sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete and formal operational), he requires parental assistance to initiate cognitive curiosity and feelings of competency. Without parental presence, a child's understanding of various concepts is stunted.

Parental implication influences a child's appreciation and scholastic achievement. In this section, we will explore the effects of parenting strategies on adolescent academic endeavours.

Dornbusch, Ritter, Leidermann, Roberts and Fraleigh (1987) investigated the influence of parenting strategies on adolescent academic success. In this study, self-report questionnaires were administered to 7,836 adolescents studying in six high schools in the San Francisco area. The questionnaires evaluated the students' demographic characteristics, grades, perceptions of parental attitudes and behaviors, and family communication patterns. Adolescents were classified in one of the four parenting groups according to their preliminary questionnaires. Contrarily to Lamborn, Ritter, Leidermann, Roberts and Fraleigh (1985) study, results from this research revealed that children perceiving their parents as authoritarian or permissive obtained the lowest grades. It was speculated that high parental academic expectations (authoritarian parents) deterred an adolescent performance at school. As for the adolescents from permissive families, it was hypothesized that the lack of parental discipline and the avoidance of parent-child conflict impacted negatively the internal motivation of an adolescent to succeed at school. Adolescents from authoritative homes obtained the highest grades at school. These adolescents appear to place high internal academic objectives for themselves and often relied on their parents for support and guidance to acquire academic knowledge. The academic index of this study was calculated by adding the scores of the self-report questionnaire and the actual end of the year grade point average.

Dornbusch et al. (1987) investigated the impact of demographic information on academic performance. It was discovered that parents with a high educational background (completion of college and university degrees) usually employed an authoritative or permissive parenting strategy. These parents were more likely to provide their children with an open parent-child dialogue and realistic objectives. Thus, the children obtained high grades since their parents exhibited positive responsiveness. It was also noted that adolescents from different ethnic background reacted to parenting strategies in various ways. According to Dornbusch et al. (1987), Asian adolescents described their parents as highly authoritarian; however, their academic performance was the highest amongst all the ethnic groups (e.g. Hispanics, Blacks, and Whites). It seems that Baumrind's (1971) parenting style typology does not adequately represent all cultures and ethnicity, since it is based fundamentally on North American and European parenting standards.

In conclusion, various contemporary researchers maintain that parental presence (involvement, sensitivity, and responsiveness) is crucial for the psychological, social, and cognitive development of a child. Parental involvement is a term that is difficult to conceptualize since it encompasses numerous aspects of parental attention, warmth, and discipline. It, thus, appears crucial to explore a narrower construct such as parenting styles. In the next section, we will review literature pertaining to parenting styles.

The following section will explore the domain of parenting. To fully comprehend the ramifications of parental involvement, it appears necessary to define parenting style. Firstly, we will investigate the main factors constituting the concept of parenting style. Secondly, a parenting typology will be examined and lastly, the empirical consequences of parental control, which is a crucial element of the parenting typology, will be reviewed.

Our literature review consists primarily of articles focusing on the impact of parental control, styles, and strategies on child and adolescent development. In order to analyze the importance of parental control, an evolutionary approach was utilized in this research. According to various theorists (Freud, 1923, Erikson, 1968; Ainsworth, 1978) an individual's global development commences during childhood years. Furthermore, an adult refers to his childhood experiences and memories to adjust and evolve in society. Thus, we believe that studies centering on childhood and adolescent understanding of parental control are crucial to our research. We decided to discard articles centering on adult impression of parental control since they validated the information we obtained with the articles on child and adolescent development.

Parental authority

Diana Baumrind (1966, 1971), a developmental psychologist, investigated meticulously the realm of parenting. She was intrigued by parental attempts to control and socialize children (Baumrind, 1991a). After observing various parents and noting their interactions with their children, Baumrind (1971) formulated a parenting styles typology.

She based her typology on two distinct dimensions: parental responsiveness (warmth) and parental demandingness (control) (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). According to Baumrind (1971), **parental responsiveness** is described as “the parent’s willingness to promote individuality, self-regulation and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive and acquiescent to children’s needs and demands” Baumrind, 1991a, p. 61-62. As for **parental demandingness**, it is described as “the claims parents make on their children to become integrated into the family whole, by their maturity, demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and their willingness to confront the child who disobeys” (Baumrind, 1991a, p. 61-62). These parenting dimensions impact the child’s global development; namely parental demandingness impacts the development of appropriate behavioural and scholastic competencies while parental responsiveness influences the child’s social skills and psychological state (Barber, 1996).

In essence, these two dimensions (demandingness and responsiveness) are synonymous to parental authority and parental empathy. Baumrind’s four parenting styles are categorized according to the level of parental demandingness and parental responsiveness in the child’s family. These parenting style dimensions are: authoritarian, authoritative, permissive and uninvolved (see Table 1). The uninvolved parenting style has been subdivided into two categories: neglectful and rejecting (Baumrind, 1966, 1967, 1971, 1983, 1991a, 1991b; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Each of these parenting styles is influenced by the parents’ expectations, attitudes, behaviours, values, emotional involvement, and childhood experiences. In order to fully comprehend the importance of these two

dimensions (parental empathy and control), we will now review the parental typology in the following paragraphs.

As shown in Table 1, the first parenting style to emerge is authoritarian. Authoritarian parents are described as employing high level of control (high parental demandingness) and low level of empathy (low parental responsiveness). These parents have high expectations for their children and are prepared to use physical, social, or psychological punishments to attain complete compliance from the child. Authoritarian parents do not need to justify their actions and demands to their children. They do not engage in verbal exchange with their children since they want unquestioningly obedience. These parents rely on their values, religion, and culture to establish academic and social objectives for their children. Furthermore, they tend to "control, shade, mould their child's behaviours in accordance to set of standards of conduct, theologically motivated and formulated by higher authority" (Baumrind, 1971, p.25) They try to instil values and respect for authority and social system by encouraging law-abiding behaviours in their children.

Table 1

Parenting style typology

Level of responsiveness (Parental warmth)	Level of demandingness (Parental control)	
	<i>High</i>	<i>Low</i>
<i>High</i>	Authoritative	Permissive
<i>Low</i>	Authoritarian	Uninvolved (Neglectful or Rejecting)

According to Baumrind (1971), children raised with an authoritarian parenting style are anxious, withdraw, and unhappy. They react poorly to daily frustrations because they lack an independent identity. These children develop poor social skills since they have difficulties initiating and maintaining social relationships with their peers. Children from authoritarian homes exhibit a high amount of self-doubt and self-blame when faced with obstacles since they are preoccupied with parental disappointments (Lewis, 1981). Furthermore, these children often rely on their parents' guidance to make decisions. Despite their low self-confidence, these children tend to perform well at school because they allocate substantial amount of time and effort into completing their assignments (Baumrind, 1971).

Authoritative is the second parenting style that was developed and described by Baumrind (1971). This parenting style suggests that parents are high on parental demandingness and responsiveness. Namely, authoritative parents provide their children with support, empathy, love, and understanding (emotional support); however, they expect respect and obedience from their children in relation to social norms and family rules. Authoritative parents equally balance the amount of discipline with unconditional care. These parents often set realistic goals because they are aware of the physical, social, and emotional limits of their child. They encourage their children to explore their personal interests while promoting obedience to family and social norms. In addition, these parents initiate an open dialogue with their child when a transgression has been observed. Authoritative parents utilize supportive and punitive disciplinary strategies when

addressing disobedience. Instead of obtaining unquestionable compliance from their children, these parents explain the rationale behind their rules and provide the child with the opportunity to discuss a transgression. Authoritative parents want their children to be assertive as well as socially responsible, and self-regulated as well as cooperative (Baumrind, 1991a).

Usually, children from authoritative families show a happy and lively attitude. These children develop an appropriate sense of self since they are entitled to make their own decisions. They display more confidence and assertiveness when mastering a task (Baumrind, 1991a). In addition, they develop efficient social skills and they reveal no difficulties socializing with their peers and family. However, these children perform averagely at school. They do not exceed their parental expectations.

The third parenting style is named permissive (indulgent or non-directive). Parents that employ a permissive style are high on responsiveness (warmth) and low on demandingness (control). These parents provide the children with the household control and they rarely have any expectations towards them. They are afraid of having confrontations/arguments with their children; therefore, they (parents) provide them with all the household authority. Also, these parents place a high importance on their child's ability to self-regulate and exert independence. In essence, permissive parents want their children to make their own decisions; they do not want to implement social or household responsibilities since it will hinder their child's development. These parents are engaging

and continuously present towards their children. However, they are unable to provide any structural control in respect to social, moral or behavioural norms. Permissive parents are often described as lenient and non-traditional caregivers (Baumrind, 1967).

Overall, the children raised with a permissive parenting style present poor emotional regulation. Namely, they are unable to express appropriate emotions in different contexts. These children are often rebellious, defiant and exhibit antisocial behaviours when they are challenged. Also, they appear to struggle at school since they have low tolerance for persisting tasks. Furthermore, these children have strained social relationships with their peers because of their continuous defiance towards social norms (Baumrind, 1967).

The last parenting style from Baumrind's (1967) typology is uninvolved (rejecting-neglectful). Uninvolved parents are low in the responsiveness (warmth) and demandingness (control) dimensions. Neglectful parents are described as individuals absorbed with their own personal problems to such an extent that they are unable to care and discipline their child. These parents appear to be physically and emotionally absent from their child's life and are often engulfed with their personal concerns. They leave their children to their own doing and rarely offer any emotional support. A rejecting parenting style can be described as having a low level of responsiveness (warmth) and demandingness (control). These parents reveal a complete disinterest towards their child's upbringing. They often consider their child as the cause of their personal distress. They attribute their failures to the child's conception. An example of irrational attribution from a rejecting parent is: "My life was

better when I was alone, this child has forced me to lose my old lifestyle, I will never accept him/her". Due to these severe attributions, the rejecting parent actively avoids and dismisses his/her child. The child develops in a chaotic family environment where his/her primary caregiver does not provide any emotional/psychological support and avoids placing behavioural expectations on the child.

Children from uninvolved parents often develop severe personality disorders, such as anti-social or borderline personality disorders (Baumrind, 1971). These children have the lowest level of adjustments in terms of social competence, academic success, and psychological health (Baumrind, 1971). Usually, children from rejecting parents perform the worst at school and in social settings. They develop a distorted sense of self since they are not able to incorporate their parents' unconditional self-regard. These children are described as hostile, angry, and violent individuals. They constantly appear to be struggling with feelings of inadequacy and guilt due to the lack of parental involvement (Baumrind, 1967, 1971).

According to Baumrind (1966, 1967, 1971, 1991a), a fifth parenting style also exists in her research. Harmonious parents are defined as individuals who detain a high level of control in their family; however, they do not exercise their parental control because they want to maintain a harmonious environment at home. These parents deal with family conflicts by obtaining a unanimous consensus from all the family members. All the family members are delegated an equal amount of power and control in respect to decision

making. Baumrind (1971) defines harmonious parents as high on household expectations, low in emotional dependency and low in promoting infantile behaviors.

Although harmonious parenting appears to yield positive results for child upbringing, it does not belong to Baumrind's (1971) parenting typology because the concepts of parental demandingness and responsiveness are absent. Thus, harmonious parents are described as an outlier parenting style that emerges in a small population.

In conclusion, numerous theorists have demonstrated that the realm of parenting is broad and complex. The utilization of parental warmth and control appears fundamentally to the nurturing of a child. After reviewing the parenting typology, we believe it would be beneficial to expand our knowledge to the domain of perceived parental control. A construct we will examine to improve our understanding of the impact of parenting on an individual development.

In this current section, we explore the theoretical construct of perceived parental control. A definition of the term will commence our section. It will be followed by a complete analysis of the impact of perceived parental control on the overall development of a child and later on an adult.

Perceived Parental Control

“Perceived control” is a critical element in the development of self-identity and personality (Erikson, 1963). An individual who perceives him/herself as lacking control over the outcomes of his actions may believe that he/she is unable to achieve his life goals (DeCharms, 1968; Erikson, 1963, White, 1959). People considering themselves as lacking control exhibit two prominent emotional reactions: anger or sadness (Wortman & Brehm, 1975). According to Rodin (1986), individuals perceiving themselves as losing control tend to resolve their problems by actively searching for a solution or relentlessly “giving-up” when they face adversities. Each failure leads to a decrease of self-worth and self-esteem. According to Seligman (1975), learned helplessness is acquired when people encounter situations where they can’t exercise control over the final outcome of an event. Gradually, these individuals spiral into depression because they internalize their loss of control into different aspects of their lives.

The findings from the realm of perceived loss of control research can be applied to the domain of parenting. Current literature indicates that children react to a high degree of parental control with anger and sadness (Baumrind, 1971). These children often develop

poor social skills adjustment because of their inability to exert control on their own environment (Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987; Lewis, 1981). In addition, various theorists have studied the possibility of learned helplessness appearing in children and adolescents when faced with difficult situations. These theorists have discovered that children who perceive themselves as lacking control or residing in an unpredictable family environment resigned themselves more quickly when facing external obstacles.

According to a study conducted by Lau, Lew, Hau, Cheng and Berndt (1990), a relationship exists between high perceived parental control and emotional withdrawal in the population of Chinese children and adolescents. As per the current Western literature on the subject of perceived parental control, it appears that dominating parenting strategies lead children to become physically and emotionally isolated from their parents. In order to verify the present findings in a Chinese setting, the researchers recruited 925 educated Chinese individuals. These participants were asked to complete a questionnaire about their parents' child-rearing practices and their parents'-child relationship before the age of 12. This questionnaire evaluated three variables: perceived parental warmth, control, and permissiveness/over-protectiveness. As a subsequent measure, participants were requested to complete a sentence which evaluated the role adopted by the father or mother (disciplinarian or caring /nurturer). The results from this study confirmed that a greater level of parental warmth was associated with lower perceived parental control and greater perceived parental indulgence (Lau et al., 1990). Furthermore, low levels of perceived

parental control and high levels of perceived parental warmth were linked to greater family harmony. Another interesting result from the study revealed that Chinese children and adolescents were more responsive to maternal parenting strategies. In other words, if their mothers were perceived high on parental warmth and low on parental control, the child would evaluate positively the level of family harmony. Contrarily, if the participant's mother was perceived as highly controlling, the family environment would be viewed negatively. The findings from this research support the premise that perceived parental control is linked to family cohesion and harmony (Baumrind, 1971).

Theorists have demonstrated that perceived parental control has a direct impact on parent-child relationships and the social, psychological, and behavioural development of a child. However, mixed results have been discovered in relation to the caregiver's gender and the stage of child's development. A study by Shek (2006a) examined the impact of perceived parental control and the quality of parent-child relationships while controlling for the gender of the primary caregiver. Shek (2006b) distinguished between the maternal and paternal perceived parental control in his research in order to verify whether children were influenced by the Chinese doctrine of "strict father, kind mother". Questionnaires were administered to 3017 Chinese student participants. The mean age of the participants was 12 years old. The participants were asked to evaluate their family environment according to measures of behavioural control (parental knowledge, expectation, monitoring, discipline, demandingness, and Chinese parental control attributes), parental perceived psychological control and quality of parent-child relationship (satisfaction with parental control, child's

readiness to communicate with parents and perceived mutual trust). The results from the study showed that Chinese children reported higher maternal behavioural control (parental knowledge, expectation, monitoring, discipline, demandingness, and Chinese parental control attributes) and lower maternal psychological control in contrast to their fathers, which refuted the current Chinese perception of parental control. In addition, the findings of this study support the current development in the domain of perceived parental control. Chinese children perceived parental control as a means of demonstrating parental concern and support. Chinese children were more likely to attribute a positive quality to their parent-child relationship despite moderate level of parental behavioural control. However, a high level of perceived parental control was correlated to a negative evaluation of parental intentions. The result from this study supported Baumrind's (1971) writings on the importance of balancing the level of parental demandingness with parental warmth in a family environment. An extreme usage of the two parenting categories (parental demandingness and parental warmth) may cause a deterioration of parent-child relationships.

In conclusion, various studies demonstrate a direct relationship between parental control and a child's well-being. Some children develop a lower self-esteem, poorer social skills and overall feelings of inadequacy when they are subjected to high level of parental control. However, the findings reveal that a moderate amount of parental control is necessary for the proper socialization and psychological development of a child. Compliance to family rules and regulations aid the child to acquire appropriate social skills

and psychological well-being since a level of order is instilled in the family home. Nonetheless, to further understand a child's ability to incorporate parental control into his life, an important social sphere will be explored in the latter section. We will examine the impact of high and low level of parental control on a child and adolescent academic achievement.

In this section, we will be presenting findings in the realm of parental control and academic success. The objective of this section is to examine literature surrounding the social impact of being subjected to a high or a low level of parental control. Psychological and social consequence of parental control will be investigated in order to gain insight on a child and adolescent development.

Academic success and parental control

Contemporary research demonstrates a relationship between parenting styles and academic achievement. Hess and Holloway (1984) evaluated academic performance in preschoolers, primary and middle school children. The following five indicators were related positively to a higher academic standing in children: (1) verbal interactions between mother and child, (2) parental expectations of achievement, (3) positive affective relationship between children and parents, (4) parental beliefs and attributions about the child and (5) parental disciplinary and control strategies. In addition to the five factors of academic success, the study demonstrated that parental discipline and control were crucial components for a child's higher academic performance (Baumrind, 1971; Hess & Holloway, 1984; Marjoriebanks, 1979).

Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg and Dornbusch (1991) investigated the impact of four parenting styles on adolescent school achievement. They evaluated 4100 participants from 14-18 years old after classifying them in one of the four following parenting groups: authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent (permissive), or neglectful. These four groups were created after rating level of parental strictness/supervision and acceptance/involvement. The dependent variable was academic achievement and it was measured by the adolescent grade point average, academic competence subscale, and adolescent orientation towards school.

After administering self-report questionnaires, the findings indicated that children from authoritative families (e.g. high on acceptance and strictness) yielded higher academic competencies. These adolescents developed an appropriate level of self-reliance and confidence due to parental acceptance and support. However, in this study, adolescents from authoritative and authoritarian homes indicated no significant differences in their grade point average. Children from these two different parenting homes perform equally well in high school. The main difference between these two groups was that adolescents from authoritarian home had poor self-perception of their academic competencies. These adolescents negatively evaluated their scholastic abilities and they feared parental disapproval in respect to their academic standing.

Children from indulgent (permissive) families showed high scores on academic competences. However, their grade point average was not significantly higher than the

authoritarian adolescents. Adolescents from indulgent homes developed a high self-esteem about their academic potential. However, they were unable to apply their cognitive skills to their academic context.

As for the children coming from neglectful families, they performed the worst on the academic achievement variable. These children reported more difficulties integrating into their school environment. These children also exhibited a greater level of internalized distress on the questionnaire.

Another study explored the effects of parental support on self-determination in a high school setting (Gadbois, Green-Demers, & Pelletier, 2004). A sample of 286 high school students from the region of Quebec were administered three questionnaires to evaluate their interpersonal behaviors, identified obstacles to graduate from high school, and academic motivation inventory. The findings from this research suggest that participants evaluated parental support (e.g. encouragement of autonomy, information support, and interpersonal affiliation) positively in relation to their motivation to complete a high school education. Also, an adolescent motivation increased when he/she was provided with structured parental support (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In other words, the adolescents were more apt to pursue their high school education when their parents were involved in their studies.

Thus, we may conclude that perceived parental empathy is a key ingredient to the academic achievement of an individual.

Chao (1994) found in his research that Asian adolescents responded differently than North American children due to cultural differences in relation to perceived parental authority. In this study, questionnaires about parenting styles, such as authoritarianism and authoritativeness (Kochanska, 1990) were administered to American and Asian mothers (e.g. Chinese, Japanese, Koreans, and Vietnamese) and their adolescents. To understand the cultural variable, a questionnaire about the construct of “parental training” was developed by the researchers. In the Asian culture, parental training is based on the Confucian principle, which places importance on respecting elders and facilitating family unity. In addition, Asian parenting encompasses constructs such as “guan” and “chiao shun”. “Chiao shun” is a Chinese term that describes parental training which emphasizes appropriate childhood behaviors (Wu & Tseng, 1985). According to Wu et al (1985) “Guan” is defined as parental obligation to guide, govern, and love one’s child. The results from this study validate the Asian cultural concept of “guan” and “chiao shun”. Namely, Asian children are more receptive towards authoritarian upbringing because they perceive parental strictness as a means of demonstrating love, care, and discipline. These children do not attribute a negative assessment to parental control and restrictiveness. On the contrary, they believe it is a mode of parental conduct, which demonstrates concern, protectiveness, and guidance.

Chen, Dong and Zhou (1997) also confirmed the importance of cultural sensitivity when evaluating the effects of authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles on social adjustment and school performance in Chinese children. Data from the research indicate that children performed the worst academically when their parents exerted a high level of control and authoritarianism (e.g. control was defined as coerciveness, power-assertiveness, prohibitive strategies, emotional and behavioral constraints). Apparently, Chinese children reacted negatively to an excessive use of parental control by engaging in aggressive-disruptive behaviors, avoiding peer relationships, delaying the acquisition of social competencies, and struggling with academic achievements. It was hypothesized that children from highly authoritarian families exerted their feelings of frustration and anger by rebelling against their social systems (e.g. family and school) due to the lack of parental guidance and emotional support. Although the result of this study coincides with Western research on parental authority, it is important to note that the value and meaning that is placed on parental discipline, guidance, and supervision differ in the Eastern cultures. Only in extreme cases of authoritarianism would the Chinese children rebel against their family and social system. In most situations, Chinese children succeed better when their parents monitored and supervised their academic and social behaviors (Chen & Rubin, 1994).

In conclusion, the findings from various studies demonstrate that children and adolescents respond preferably to a moderate amount of parental control and empathy. Authoritative parenting style revealed the highest rate of academic success with children and adolescents. Also, we reviewed cross-cultural studies concerning parental control and

academic success. The results revealed that children from Asian ethnicity reacted differently to higher parental control due to their cultural values. These children and adolescents were more tolerant when subjected to parental control and discipline. Nonetheless, the studies demonstrated that Asian children exhibited negative social and psychological behaviors when their parents employed excessive amount of academic control. These studies validate the necessity to consider cultural sensitivity while interpreting the implication of parenting strategies in different cultures. A thorough understanding of cultural values, norms, and heritage is necessary to infer an appropriate conclusion of parental authority and child development. In the following section, we will review the psychological consequences of parental control on children.

In the following section, we will present the findings of various studies on the impact of parental control and the psychological development of a child. Usually, children acquire their sense of self-worth through parental praise and social comparison in a school environment. In the previous section, we explore the influence of parental control on a child's ability to succeed at school. Currently, we will examine the effects of parental control on the development of self-confidence, self-esteem, and self-efficacy in a child.

Effects of parenting styles on self-esteem, self-confidence, and self-efficacy

Many self-psychologists have explored the impact of subjective life experiences. Early theorists proposed that our sense of self is tied to others.

James (1890) is the first to define the dualistic nature of these subjective life experiences, which he labels the self. According to James, the self can be divided into two important components: the I and the Me. He further subdivides the Me into two important terms: self-concept and self-esteem. The term self-concept is synonymous to one's self-referent thoughts. Self-esteem is described as self-referent feelings one may have towards him/herself. For James (1890), the empirical self is analogous to the notion of self-concept. The empirical self has three important parts: the material, spiritual, and social self. The most crucial part of the self-concept is the social self. In addition, the social self derives its worth through the appraisal of an individual's personal relationships. According to this aspect of the social self, specific interaction with people directly influences the way a person perceives him/herself.

Charles Cooley (1902), another early self-theorist, also supports the importance of others on the construct of self-esteem. His reflected appraisal model is based on the premise that self-esteem develops largely through the eyes of other people. According to Cooley's (1902) theory, we gain insight about our self-esteem by looking at other people's reactions to our behaviours. Since parents are the primary caregivers in a family, their impact on children's self-esteem is paramount.

Current literature indicates that parenting styles influence a child's self-perception. A child inherently relies on his/her parents' acceptance, warmth, and understanding to form his/her self-identity. When a child perceives his parents' expectations as unrealistic, he/she undergoes psychological health that turns inwards. Children start doubting their competencies and self-worth. A negative self-image (e.g. self-referent thoughts about one's abilities) can arise. Feelings of unworthiness and disappointment haunt these children because they are not able to satisfy parental goals.

Coopersmith (1967) investigated parental attitudes and styles in relation to the development of self-esteem in 10-12 year old middle-class boys. The results from his study revealed that boys with high self-esteem had clearly enforced rules and regulations from their parents (e.g. primarily their mothers) and firm/decisive parental decision-making. Mothers who exercised an authoritative parenting style revealed the best results in respect to their boy's self-esteem. These boys showed confidence and self-reliance because their

mothers enforced realistic goals while providing empathy. Also, these mothers were high on parental control and reinforced rules by employing social punishments. These mothers were actively involved in their children's lives and placed an importance on their child's point of view. Authoritative mothers employed reasoning techniques to elicit parental control. In this study, the results revealed that high self-esteem boys viewed their authoritative mothers in a positive manner. They respected their mother's decisions and indicated that they deserved the assigned punishment because their mothers had explored the nature of their transgression during a parent-child conversation.

Children from authoritarian parents yield the lowest self-esteem scores. These children are haunted by feelings of anxiety and self-doubts since the parental expectations are beyond their reach. In addition, there is a lack of parental recognition and praise, which leads to self-doubt and self-loathing.

Coopersmith (1967) noted that self-esteem develops in accordance with parental praise and acceptance. He stated that the three key parental behaviours contributing to the development of high self-esteem in children are: enforcement of clear/realistic behavioural standards, openness towards children's rights and respect towards their children. If these three elements are present, then a child feels secure and is capable of appropriately exploring his environment. During the exploration phase, a child realizes the impact he/she has on his/her surroundings. Coopersmith (1967, p.187) concluded that: "Parents who establish rules and enforce them are presenting with a definition of reality... By their verbal

statements and their actions these parents led their children to believe that there is a shared world and that there are preferred solutions for the tasks, which they encounter... Parental resolutions provide the child with answers that diminish doubt and anxiety. To the child these answers are not merely one resolution among many but, coming as they do from the major authoritative force in his life, they assume the weight of Biblical injunction to the fundamentalist believe.”

Current researchers (Baumrind, 1983, 1991; Buri, 1989, Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989; Steinberg, 1990) demonstrate in their studies that an authoritative parenting style improves a child’s self-esteem because the parents employ a high level of empathy and support during childrearing. Also, these children realize that their parents’ affection is unconditional and will not diminish if they are unable to attain parental expectations.

A study by Lamborn et al. (1991) confirmed that adolescents from authoritative families developed higher self-esteem in comparison to adolescents from authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful families. The adolescents from authoritative families indicated a positive relationship with their parents in contrast to the adolescents from authoritarian, permissive, or neglectful families. Also, adolescents from authoritarian and neglectful homes yielded the worst score on self-esteem inventories. These adolescents perceive themselves negatively in relation to self-reliance, perceived social competence and perceived academic competence. The authors of this study explained these results by emphasizing the lack of family structure, involvement, and empathy in neglectful homes.

As for the adolescents from authoritarian homes, the high level of parental control, which entails complete obedience from the adolescent, diminishes the sense of individuality and competency. Adolescents from authoritarian families are nervous about displeasing their parents. They view themselves more harshly since these adolescents yearn for parental praise and warmth, which unfortunately, they lack in their life.

In conclusion, contemporary studies indicate that authoritarian, neglectful, and permissive parenting style led to a lower self-esteem in children and adolescents. Parental recognition, praise, and support appear to elevate an individual's level of self-esteem during the early years of his/her life. In the following section, we will examine a more specific construct of self-esteem: self-efficacy. The review of the literature related to self-efficacy will demonstrate the impact on the acquisition of social skills.

In the present section, we will review literature pertaining to self-efficacy, a sub-category of self-esteem. A definition of the theoretical construct will be examined; factors leading to the acquisition of self-efficacy, and the consequences of high versus low self-efficacy on the social development of an individual will be discussed.

Self-efficacy

Numerous researchers have investigated the importance of self-competency or self-efficacy in adolescent development. According to Bandura (1977, 1986, 1989), self-efficacy is defined as an individual's self-perception. A person evaluates his self-worth by

weighing his achievements and competencies. Bandura (1986) further elaborates the construct of self-efficacy by emphasizing the importance of personal accomplishments. According to Bandura and Wood (1989), people's judgments were drawn by evaluating the course of action taken to attain the designated performance in an assigned task. Self-efficacy influences the types of activities, scholastic interests, and future career aspirations that are pursued by an individual.

Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory demystifies self-efficacy by incorporating three dimensions, which are personal, cognitive, and social. Bandura (1989) mentions that individuals acquire a sense of competency through "**triadic reciprocity**". He elaborates that self-worth is influenced by these three elements: social environment (parents, peers, and scholastic institutions), cognitive abilities (ability to process, organize, synthesize, and incorporate information) and their personal interest/motivation. These three dimensions determine the level of self-efficacy an individual will develop. He further expands his theory by incorporating the impact of social surroundings on information processing. Social comparison conducted by peers, teachers, and parents influence feelings of adequacy. Individual praise and recognition obtained through social comparison increases an individual perception of self-efficacy. Secondly, an individual's ability to learn, process, organizes, and synthesizes information leads to a higher level of self-efficacy. Thus, an individual cognitive ability influences the level of self-efficacy he/she will develop. Thirdly, personal interest and motivation consist of the latter factor, which influences an individual's perception of self-efficacy. Personal capabilities have been divided into five

additional categories, which are symbolizing, forethought, vicarious learning, self-regulatory, and self-reflectiveness (Bandura, 1986). The interaction of these three factors effects and substantiates the perception one has of his/her ability to perform and excel in a desired field, activity, or task.

Empirical literature demonstrates that scholastic achievement is influenced by a student's level of perceived self-efficacy. Various studies have been conducted in the domain of scholastic achievement. Current results indicate that students who have a high level of self-efficacy (sense of competency while facing academic obstacles) tend to perform better than individuals with a low level of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986). Students with high self-efficacy reveal higher levels of resiliency. They are able to challenge and persevere when confronted with adversity. In addition, they expend higher levels of effort and energy to accomplish difficult tasks (Bandura, 1986). Comparatively, children and adolescents who perceive themselves low in self-efficacy doubt their performance in front of academic obstacles. Also, they are more likely to "give-up" readily when challenged. Since these children and adolescents adamantly believe they are incapable of accomplishing an academic task, they usually fail by default, which results in a decrease in perceived self-efficacy.

According to Bandura (1986), self-efficacy is a fluid self-appraisal that changes depending on developmental stages and social environment. Three factors are considered to elevate an individual's level of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986). The first factor is vicarious

learning of information. An individual observing someone accomplishing a task may incorporate virtually the abilities to achieve a similar task. Therefore, the individual indirectly acquires the necessary knowledge to perform well in a desired domain or task. The second factor is verbal persuasion. An individual may modify his/her level of self-efficacy through verbal praise and encouragement from a secondary person. A teacher, friend, or parent can increase an individual's perception of self-efficacy by highlighting his/her strengths. The last factor is defined as physical reactions to anticipated events. An individual's physiological reaction to performance may increase or decrease the perceived level of self-efficacy. Sweaty palms, accelerated heart rate and dryness of the mouth are all physiological symptoms of anxiety and may occur when an individual is required to perform an important task. Although these physiological symptoms are normal under certain circumstances, some people consider them to be signs of their inefficiency to perform a designated task. Hence, these people interpret their physiological responses as signs of their inadequacy.

In conclusion, we have overviewed the effects of parenting styles on self-esteem, self-confidence, and self-efficacy. The findings from numerous studies yielded that children and adolescents subjected to authoritative parenting style demonstrate a higher level of self-esteem and self-confidence. Social praise and parental recognition appear to facilitate the development of a higher self-worth. Also, self-appraisal and self-efficacy are enhanced when children are presented with high level of parental control and high level of warmth (authoritative parenting style). Conversely, children living in an authoritarian family

environment have higher self-doubt in relation to their competencies. They rely heavily on parental recognition to validate their self-view. Unfortunately, authoritarian parents have high and unrealistic expectations towards their children's accomplishments. Therefore, they are rarely satisfied with their child's achievement. Thus, these children develop lower self-esteem, self-confidence, and self-efficacy. Lastly, children from neglectful or rejecting family environment exhibit lower self-esteem due to an absence of parental involvement and praise. In this case, the child internalizes his/her parents disinterest as being a result of his/her inability to satisfy their desires. Thus, his/her internal self-blame causes a decrease in self-esteem, self-efficacy, and self-confidence. According to various theorists (Lamborn et al, 1991), low self-appraisal (e.g. self-esteem, self-confidence, and self-efficacy) impacts directly an individual's probabilities of developing psychological illness, such as depression, anxiety disorder, substance abuse, personality disorder, and anti-social, or delinquent behaviours. In the following section, we will continue to present literature surrounding the realm of psychological well-being or lack of, in relation to parental control.

In the following section, we will explore the literature surrounding the domain of psychological illness and health in relation to parenting styles. We will examine the effects of high versus low level of parental control (e.g: sub-category of parenting style) on a child's psychological health.

Parental authority and psychological health

A dysfunctional sense of well-being hinders a person's daily life. Although various factors may contribute to poor psychological health, it has been hypothesized that parental involvement may play a crucial role.

A study by Lamborn et al. (1991) indicates that children from neglectful homes report the highest level of internalized distress. These adolescents note higher psychological symptoms on anxiety, tension, depression, and somatic symptoms. These adolescents are more prone to engage in delinquent behaviours, school misconduct, and drug use due to a lack of parental control and warmth. On the other hand, adolescents from authoritarian homes reveal a high level of psychological health. These adolescents are anxious about meeting parental expectations but they appeared to be law-abiding teenagers. They show lower levels of drug use, school misconduct, and delinquent behaviours because of the strict family rules and parental control. Adolescents from indulgent (permissive) homes are disengaging from school and have lower scores on psychological health, disruptive behaviours, and delinquency. However, these adolescents were more deviant in relation to alcohol use and school misconduct. Adolescents from authoritative homes had

the lowest scores on psychological and somatic symptom scales, misconduct, and delinquent behaviours. These adolescents appear to rely on parental values to make decisions about appropriate behaviours.

According to contemporary developmental and social theorists, adolescents require a certain level of autonomy and structure to develop a well-adjusted personality (Erikson, 1968). Maccoby and Martin (1983) stipulate that adult caregivers tend to promote structure and predictability in an adolescent's life by promoting self-regulatory mechanisms, which reinforce the development of acceptable behaviours. Parents act as social role models and their reactions to maladaptive behaviours create a social reference point (social structure) for their children's future behaviours (Patterson, Capaldi, & Bank, 1989). As for the concept of autonomy, various researchers have demonstrated the positive outcome of decision-making in adolescents (Blos, 1979).

A study by Barber, Olsen and Shagle (1994) evaluated the influence of parental control on the psychological and behavioural well-being of adolescents. In this research, it was hypothesized that psychological and behavioural parental control contributed to internalized and externalized distress in young adolescents. Parental psychological control was defined as "patterns of family interactions that intrude upon or impede the child's individuation process, or the relative degree of psychological distance a child experiences from his or her parents and family" (Sabatelli & Mazor, 1985, p. 620). Psychological parental control would actively hinder the adolescent's ability to act in an autonomous

manner. According to Barber et al. (1994), the behavioural parental control was expressed as “family interactions that are disengaged or provide insufficient parental regulation of the child’s behaviours, as in excessive behavioural autonomy, lack of rules and restriction, and/or lack of knowledge of a child’s day-to-day behaviour”(p.1124). The construct of psychological and behavioural control was evaluated through self-report questionnaires, which were administered to 8th, 9th, and 10th grade adolescents and their families (surveys on family environment, child behaviours and personality inventory). A sample of 524 students and parents returned their completed questionnaires.

The result yielded a positive relationship between high parental psychological control and internalized distress (e.g. anxiety, guilt, depression, low self-reliance, and low self-confidence). Hence, parental psychological control induces feelings of uncertainty and self-doubt in adolescents. One explanation for these results is that these individuals are more likely to fear parental withdrawal of love and guilt-induction. These adolescents struggle with a sense of inadequacy and helplessness due to a lack of autonomy (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

In addition, the parental behavioural control variable revealed a significant relationship with externalized problems, such as impulsivity, aggression, delinquency, drug use, and sexual promiscuity. According to development theorists (Baumrind, 1971; Dishion & Loeber, 1985; Dornbusch et al., 1987), a lack of family structure leads to the emergence of externalized difficulties in children and adolescents. Children/adolescents experiencing a

laissez-allez, permissive, indulgent, or neglectful parenting style are more likely to seek opportunities to engage in delinquent and anti-social behaviours to obtain social attention. Furthermore, the absence of parental guidance, supervision, and attention cause feelings of anger, hostility, and frustration to emerge in adolescents.

In conclusion, empirical studies indicate that parental control has a direct impact on the psychological health and development of an individual. If parental involvement is abdicated during the critical stages of child development, then children grow up with a fragile personality (borderline, anti-social, or narcissistic personality), they may experience a greater level of psychological health (anxiety, depression) and exhibit significant behavioural, and adjustment problems (delinquency, drug abuse, and violence) (Baumrind, 1971; Dishion & Loeber, 1985; Dornbusch, et als., 1985; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Miller, McCoy, Olson & Wallace, 1986; Olweus, 1980; Patterson, Calpadi & Bank, 1989; Patterson & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1984).

To fully comprehend the ramifications of parenting styles on child development, a table presenting the findings of our literature review follows. In this table, we examine the direct impact of Baumrind's parenting typology (1971) on an individual's self-esteem, academic success, and psychological well-being. It is important to retain that parental control is a critical variable in parental conduct and thus, it influences a child's social and psychological adjustment.

Table 2 presents a summary of the findings on parenting styles, academic success, self-esteem, and psychological well-being. Contemporary research suggest that an authoritative parenting style yields the best results in terms of the academic achievement, development of self-perception, and psychological wellness. Contrarily, children from neglectful or rejecting families struggle enormously in the realms of academia, self-esteem, peer relationships, and psychological wellness. They are subject to self-depreciation and self-doubt due to a lack of parental concern and structure. As for children from authoritarian families, they have been described as performing well at school, but developing a lower self-perception and strained peer relationships. These children lack an independent self and sense of worth due to their controlling family environment. In addition, they are more likely to experience internal psychological health, which would manifest itself in the form of various psychopathologies (e.g. depression and anxiety). Lastly, children from permissive families are more likely to experience difficulties in the area of psychological wellness. As such, they appear to engage more frequently in delinquent behaviours and self-destructive acts, such as substance abuse. In terms of scholastic achievement and development of self-esteem, they demonstrate high to average scores.

Table 2

Synthesis of findings on parenting styles, academic success, self-esteem, and psychological health

Parenting styles	Academic success	Self-esteem	Psychological health
<i>Authoritarian</i>	High academic standing & overall good grade point average	Low self-esteem due to self-doubt	High level of internal distress
<i>Authoritative</i>	High academic standing & overall good grade point average	High self-esteem	Well adjusted psychologically & socially to their environment
<i>Permissive</i>	Medium to low academic standing	High self-esteem due to parental acceptance	Low psychological health but appear to abuse substance
<i>Neglectful</i>	Failing and struggling at school	Low self-esteem due to self-doubt	Rebellious, antisocial behaviours; delinquency & strained social relationships
<i>Rejecting</i>	Failing and struggling at school	Low self-esteem due to self-doubt	Rebellious, antisocial behaviours; delinquency & strained social relationships

In conclusion, contemporary literature demonstrates that parenting styles, which incorporate the concepts of parental control and warmth, have a direct influence on an individual's ability to develop adequately in the social and psychological domains. After conducting a thorough literature on parenting style, we will present in the subsequent section our research hypotheses.

In the present section, we will describe the main objectives of this research and the various hypotheses to be tested.

Hypotheses

After reviewing various empirical studies on parenting styles, we noticed that literature pertaining to perceived parental control was sparse. The majority of contemporary studies explored parental discipline and guidance in childhood and adolescence. However, hardly any studies investigated the impact of perceived parental authority (e.g. synonymous to parental control) on the development of self-views (self-esteem and self-perception), psychological wellness, academic endeavors, and emotional reactions towards the use of parental authority.

In this study, we examined the effects of perceived parental authority on five variables: self-esteem, self-confidence, psychological well-being, academic success, and emotional reaction to parental authority. We speculated that a relationship existed between perceived parental authority and our five dependent variables. In the following paragraphs, each hypothesis is presented.

Hypothesis 1. We hypothesized that perceived parental authority would influence the development of self-esteem. We presumed that individuals from a high-perceived parental authority background would reveal a lower score when evaluating their own self-

esteem. We considered these individuals to underestimate their own self-worth due to their harsh disciplinary environment.

Hypothesis 2. We investigated the relationship between perceived parental authority and self-confidence. We presumed that individuals from high-perceived parental authority environment would reveal lower score when evaluating their self-confidence. These participants would minimize their self-worth when comparing their abilities to others. Thus, they would yield a higher level of uncertainty and self-doubt about their ability to succeed in comparison to their peers.

Hypothesis 3. We hypothesized a relationship between perceived parental authority and psychological well-being. Individuals having authoritarian parents would demonstrate lower psychological wellness. These people are most likely to suffer from psychological illnesses, such as anxiety, depression, anger outburst, and possibly cognitive dysfunctions related to interacting with peers.

Hypothesis 4. We stipulated a relationship between perceived parental authority and academic achievement. We speculated that individuals from authoritarian families would yield moderate to low academic success in an elementary and high school setting. Their overall grade-point average would reflect their inability to perform in accordance to their actual potential due to high parental expectations.

Hypothesis 5. Finally, we investigated the impact of perceived parental authority on an individual's reaction to authority. We presumed that an individual from highly authoritarian families would react negatively to the use of physical, psychological, and social control from parents. We believed that they would integrate their own past experience of perceived parental authority to formulate their opinion and reaction towards parental authority.

In addition to these hypotheses, we tested the adequacy of a causal model relating these variables together. The model (Figure 1) tested the following relationships between our variables (p.62).

This model was inspired by the literature we reviewed previously. In essence, we noticed a strong relationship between perceived parental authority and our five variables; however, we were unable to extrapolate the sequence in which these variables influenced each other. Thus, we hypothesized the order and the linkage (direct or indirect) of the variables to perceived parental authority to further our understanding in this domain.

At the beginning of the model, perceived parental authority is predominant since it appears to directly influence all of our variables. According to Baumrind (1971), the level of parental demandingness (parental control) effects every facet of a child's development; however an individual's self-perception seems to be directly impacted by perceived parental authority. Thus, we presumed that perceived parental authority had an influence on self-perception (self-esteem and self-confidence). Literature demonstrates that individual self-views develop upon questioning one's capacity to succeed. Consequently, a positive or negative self-view emerges and influences psychological health (Lamborn et al, 1991).

Therefore, we speculate that a relationship exists between self-perception (self-esteem and self-confidence) and the emergence of psychological illnesses, such as depression, anxiety, and aggression. Numerous theorists confirm that negative or low psychological health hinder an individual's capacity to function in his/her social surroundings, thus we concluded that the construct of academic success would be associated with psychological health of a participant.

We placed the construct of academic success at the end of the model since perceived parental authority has a greater impact on an individual's self-esteem; although literature reveals that parental implication is necessary for the acquisition of cognitive skills. In other words, if a child is subjected to high level of perceived parental authority, he/she will develop lower self-perception (self-esteem and self-confidence). This low self-perception will cause an even lower psychological health (higher anxiety, depression and/or hostility), which by extension will led to a deterioration of overall cognitive abilities, such as concentration, memory, analytical capacities and reasoning. Since cognitive skills are essential during our academic journey. These participants will notice low academic scores during their scholastic studies.

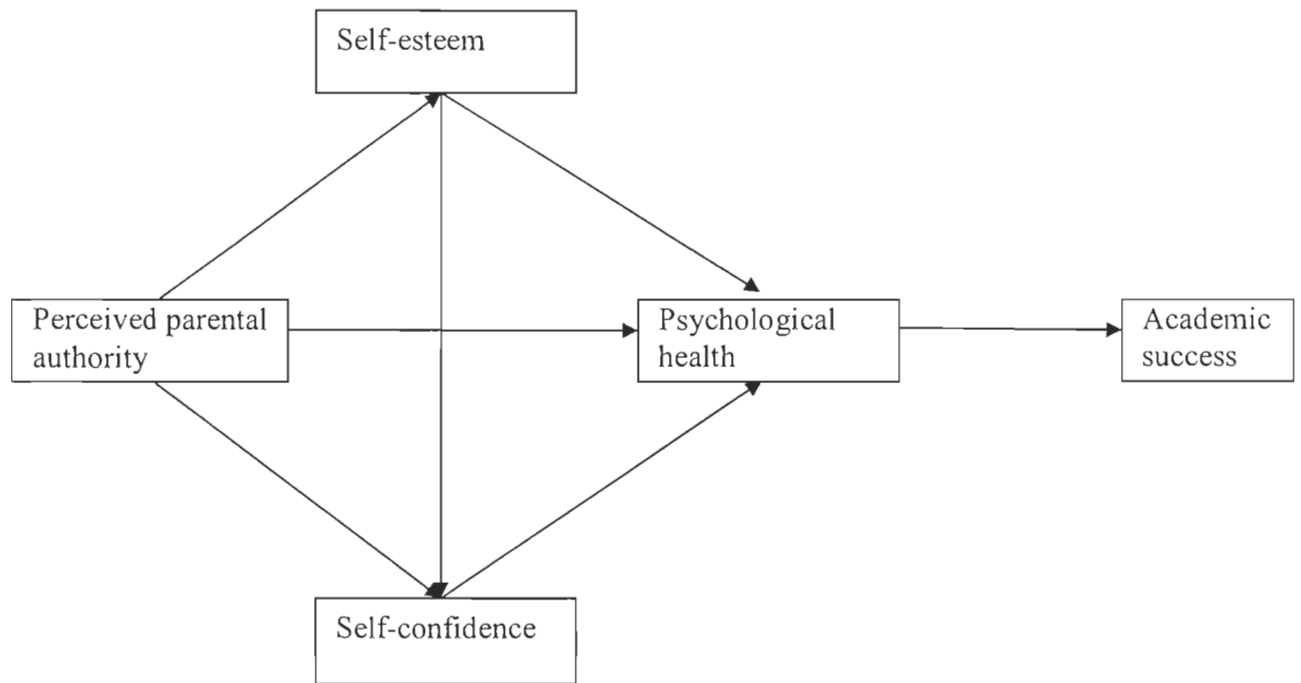


Figure 1. Schematic model of the correlations between variables.

Method

In the following section, we will cover two topics, which are participants' characteristics and material used in our research project. We will discuss the socio-demographic characteristics of our research participants. Furthermore, we will examine the validity and reliability of the questionnaires administered to our study sample.

Participants

A sample of 377 participants was recruited from two locations: workplace settings and l'Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières. The participants' age ranged from 18 to 64 years old. Our sample was comprised of 284 female and 77 male participants. The average age of our participant was 25 years-old ($SD = 8.29$).

The researcher or teacher administered the questionnaires during three different time periods: summer 2004, autumn 2005, and winter 2006. In this study, we did not use any selection criteria for the recruitment of participants. Participation was completely voluntary and the participants were not compensated for their time.

Materials

In this study, four questionnaires were distributed to the participants during the experiment. All participants had first to complete a consent form to participate in this study. The consent form stipulated that the participation in this research project was voluntary. Also, a withdrawal of participation was possible at any time during the study. Although the option of removing themselves from the study was presented, only one participant actually pursued this option after completing the perceived parental authority questionnaire.

The socio-demographic questionnaire. This questionnaire (see appendixes C and D) determined qualitative information about the participants, such as their gender, age, ethnicity, level of education, profession, social status, family status, rank in the family, and number of siblings. Since the questionnaire was primarily used to obtain descriptive data of the sample, the validity and reliability were not evaluated.

Perceived parental authority questionnaire. A perceived parental authority questionnaire was created to analyze the perception of parental authority during childhood. This questionnaire was based on Baumrind's typology of parenting strategies (1971). According to Baumrind (1971), parenting styles are composed of two factors: parental demandingness (control) and parental warmth (empathy). To further understand the concept of perceived parental control, three fundamental categories were explored in the questionnaire: physical, psychological, and social control.

For the first part of the perceived parental authority questionnaire, the participant completed fifteen questions. Each parental control sub-category (physical, psychological, and social control) was comprised of five items. Participants were requested to rate each item on a 5-point Likert-type scale (ranging from 1- Strongly disagree to 5-Strongly agree). For example, to evaluate the perceived parental physical control, a participant would complete the following statement by rating a score on 5-points Likert scale (1-Strongly disagree to 5-Strongly agree: “When I was a child and I did something wrong, my parents would physically punish me”. An index sub-score was computed for each perceived parental control category (i.e., physical, psychological, and social control). A total perceived parental control score was then calculated by adding the three perceived parental sub-categories. A high perceived parental control index score inferred that participants regarded their parents as controlling. Contrarily, a low score reflected that participants viewed their parents as lenient or not controlling (see appendixes E and F).

In the second part of the questionnaire, participants completed fifteen self-descriptive questions. These questions evaluated the individual’s emotional reactions to the three types of parental control. Participants were invited to rate their emotional reaction to physical, psychological, and social control on a 5-point Likert-type scale (ranging from “1- Good because I knew my parents loved me and had my best interest at heart to 5- Very bad because my parents were very controlling and authoritarian”). A sub-score index score was calculated for each subcategory of parental control by adding the participant’s scores on the

five self-descriptive statements. A total perceived parental emotional reaction score was calculated by adding the scores of three sub-categories of perceived emotional reaction to parental control (physical, psychological, and social control). A high emotional reaction towards perceived parental authority score suggested that participants viewed their parents as authoritarian and strict. Contrarily, a low emotional reaction towards perceived parental authority score suggested that participants considered their parents as authoritative (high on parental empathy and parental control).

In addition, the total score of perceived parental authority was calculated by adding the total perceived parental control and the total perceived parental emotional reaction score.

Cronbach's alpha was computed to verify the reliability of the questionnaire. The subscales of perceived parental control yielded the following results: perceived physical parental control ($\alpha = .83$), perceived psychological control ($\alpha = .89$) perceived social control ($\alpha = .72$). In addition, our results revealed an α of .91 for the total scale. The reliability of the second subscale of the questionnaire (emotional reaction to perceived parental control) revealed the following results for the three subcategories: emotional reaction to perceived physical control ($\alpha = .92$), emotional reaction to perceived psychological control ($\alpha = .84$), emotional reaction to perceived social control ($\alpha = .95$). Furthermore, after conducting reliability analysis on the total emotional reaction towards perceived parental control an α of .97 was obtained. To establish the overall internal consistency of the questionnaire, a

reliability analysis was computed on the total perceived parental authority scale and the result ($\alpha = .91$) demonstrated a high consistency for the overall subscale (total perceived parental control and total emotional reaction towards perceived parental control).

The content validity of the questionnaire was ascertained by evaluating the accuracy of the questionnaire items by various graduate faculty psychology professors. These judges reviewed the perceived parental authority questionnaire by providing comments and feedback about the level of accuracy of the theoretical concepts being displayed on the six scales (a) perceived parental physical control, (b) perceived parental psychological control, (c) perceived parental social control, (d) emotional reaction towards physical control, (e) emotional reactions towards psychological control, and (f) emotional reaction towards social control and the two subscales (total perceived parental control and total emotional reaction towards perceived parental control). Overall, the observers agreed upon the items used to describe the six scales and the two subscales on the questionnaire. A concurrent validity could not be established for this questionnaire due to the absence of similar tests or questionnaires on the subject of perceived parental authority. In addition, a criterion validity analysis was not conducted for the same reason because a similar test or questionnaire to evaluate the concept of perceived parental authority was unavailable.

Self-esteem inventory. The third questionnaire administered to participants was the Rosenberg's Self-Esteem inventory (Rosenberg, 1962). This questionnaire consists of ten self-referent questions. These questions evaluate individual level of self-referent feelings on

a 7-point Likert scale. The answers range from 1-Strongly agree to 7-Strongly disagree. Participants were asked to read the statement and evaluate the applicability of the affirmation to their personal life. A high score indicated a positive self-appraisal from the participant (see appendixes H and I).

In order to evaluate the reliability of the self-esteem inventory for this study, Cronbach's alpha was computed for the self-esteem inventory. An alpha of 0.84 was calculated. This score indicated a high consistency for this scale.

Self-confidence questionnaire. The fifth questionnaire to be completed by the participant was the self-confidence scale (Garant & Alain, 1995). The purpose of the questionnaire was to investigate self-referent thoughts concerning individual aptitudes towards personal success and social integration. Participants were asked to rate eighteen questions on a 7 point Likert scale (ranging from 1- Do not agree at all to 7- Completely agree) (see appendixes J and K).

To calculate the overall self-confidence score, all of the items were added together. A high self-confidence score on this questionnaire suggested a high level of self-competency. The reliability of the self-confidence questionnaire was evaluated by computing a Cronbach's alpha. A score of 0.86 was obtained. The self-confidence inventory is thus highly consistent in this study.

Psychological health questionnaire. The last questionnaire to be administered and completed by our participants was the psychological health scale (Kovess et al, 1985). In this scale, participants were asked to judge twenty-nine items on a 7-point Likert scale, (ranging from 1-Never to 7-Very Often). Participants were requested to evaluate each item within a 6 month interval. The purpose of this scale was to investigate the emergence of debilitating psychosomatic and psychological symptoms. Some examples of psychosomatic concerns were: intense headaches, stomach pains, trembling of the hands, heart palpitations, breathing problem, tightness of the muscles, etc. In order to evaluate psychological symptoms, the following concerns were reviewed in the questionnaire: erratic mood, sadness, irritability, loneliness, frustration, lack of energy, and desire. In this questionnaire, four psychological difficulties were investigated: anxiety, depression, aggressiveness, and cognitive dysfunctions (see appendixes L and M).

In order to compute an index of the psychological well-being, all of the subscales were added together. A high score on the total psychological health questionnaire suggested that the participant experienced numerous debilitating psychological problems.

To evaluate the reliability of the psychological health questionnaire for this study, Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the total score of the questionnaire. An alpha of 0.94 was computed for the total psychological health scale. The score indicated a high consistency of this scale.

Perceived academic success. The variable of academic success was calculated by self-disclosure. Two questions were employed to assess the academic success for each scholastic institution (elementary and high school). The participants were asked to evaluate their academic standing on a 5 points Likert scale for their elementary and high school education. The question was as follow: Where would you place your elementary and your high school grade point average? The answers to these questions ranged from (1) Very low- I would fail a lot of my classes, (2) Low- My grades were always under the class average, (3) Average- My grades were around the class average, (4) High- My grades were always above average, and (5) Very high- My grades were well above average and I was considered to be one of the best student in my class.

A total score for elementary and high school grade point average was calculated by adding all the individual scores of the participants. A high score indicated that the participant attain a high academic standing during their respective scholastic institutions. A second question was asked to the participants in order to place a numerical value to their grade point average. The participants were asked to recall their academic average at elementary and high school. The participants indicated their estimated percentage during their schooling. The individual scores were added together in order to create the total elementary grade point average. In addition, the individual scores from participants were added together to create a total high school grade point average score.

As we conclude this section, we would like to emphasize information that was discussed earlier on. Firstly, the socio-demographic characteristic of our population indicates that our sample consisted primarily of women from a university or workplace setting. Also, their average age was 25 years-old. In addition, we presented our experimental questionnaire in this section. As per our analysis, our questionnaires yielded high validity and reliability scores. Thus, we are confident that the variable measured by each questionnaire was accurate. In the following section, we will discuss our experimental procedure for this research project.

In this section, we will explore the experimental procedure employed for the implementation of our research project.

Procedure

This study employed a one point in time correlational design. Participants were solicited from their respective classrooms. They were asked to complete the informed consent form and four research questionnaires in order to participate in the research project.

After obtaining the teacher's permission to attend the course, the researcher presented a brief synopsis of the research study. A detailed explanation concerning the consent form (see appendixes A and B), the limits of confidentiality, the advantages and disadvantages of completing the questionnaires, and their irrevocable right to withdraw participation from the study at any time were mentioned during the presentation. Following this presentation, the researcher administered the questionnaires to willing participants. Uninterested students remained silent for a period of fifteen to twenty minutes to ensure a silent environment for the testing phase. The researcher remained in the classroom for support and further clarification pertaining to the questionnaires.

After an allocated time of 15 to 20 minutes, the researcher gathered the completed questionnaires. The consent form was removed from the questionnaires to preserve anonymity and confidentiality. The researcher reminded the participants of the availability of immediate support, and the opportunity to seek additional information about the study by directly contacting the researcher or her supervisor. If a participant felt distraught (e.g. anxious, confused, frustrated, etc) after completing the questionnaire, he/she was requested to contact by phone the researcher or the thesis supervisor for a short-term counselling session. Also, the participants were encouraged to present themselves at the thesis supervisor's office (UQTR) if they were unable to connect by phone with the researchers.

Following the initial contact, the participant was provided a debriefing session. In order to fully aid the participant, the researchers did not place a time constraint for the debriefing session.

During the testing phase, one participant required psychological support. A debriefing session was completed with the student, where the therapist explored the emotional ramifications of the questionnaire on the participant's psychological well-being. After ensuring the student's psychological welfare was intact, the therapist directed the participant to his/her personal healthcare provider. A follow-up assistance was not rendered since a healthcare professional was previously monitoring the psychological health of the individual. This participant's questionnaire was removed from our data.

Individuals were also recruited from two work environments: Shepell-Fgi (e.g. an employee assistance program company where employee's respond to emergency clinical calls and provide psychological resources to their callers) and Fabricville (e.g. a company

specializing in selling fabrics and patterns for dress-making). They were asked directly to participate. The researcher explained thoroughly the purpose of the study, the limits of confidentiality and possible risks and advantages in completing the questionnaires. In most cases, the researcher remained in close proximity during the completion of the questionnaires so that any questions pertaining to the scales could be answered promptly.

In conclusion, we have discussed the experimental procedure for conducting this research project. In the following section, we will present our result findings.

Results

The objective of this section is to introduce the statistical analysis and respective findings of our research project. We will begin this section by examining our descriptive analysis, main findings in relation to our hypotheses and lastly, our path analysis of a structural model.

Descriptive analysis

We conducted descriptive statistics to explore and characterize our sample of participants. The following characteristics were analyzed to attain an adequate representation of our sample: gender, age, level of education, profession, ethnicity, religion, social status, type of family, rank in the family, number of siblings, and spoken language in household. During the study, some participants did not complete certain socio-demographic questions.

Gender and age. A sample of 377 participants was recruited and analyzed in this study. Our sample of participants was composed of 284 females (78.7%) and 77 males (21.3%) (see appendix O). Sixteen participants did not answer the age and gender related questions. We understand this difference in participation by the prominence of woman in the fields of psychology and nursing.

Our primary recruitment site was the University environment, l'Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières. The mean age for our sample was 25 years-old (SD= 8.29).

Education and profession. From our sample, 351 participants responded to the socio-demographic question pertaining to their highest level of scholastic achievement. Our participants' educational background was quite varied: 79.2% (n= 278) of our participants graduated with a bachelor degree, 10.3% (n= 36) were college graduates, 6.3 % (n= 22) were graduating from a doctoral degree, 2.3% (n=8) were masters graduates, 1.7% (n= 6) were high school graduates, 0.3% (n= 1) had completed a university certificate. In addition, their professional standing differed: 77% (n = 221) were students while 15% (n=44) were professionals, 1% (n=2) were in a managerial position, 5% (n=15) described themselves as blue collars, 1% (n=3) was unemployed and 1% (n=1) was in the others category. These individuals were either nursing or psychology students. They were completing either a psychology certificate or a bachelor degree in psychology or in nursing.

Ethnicity, religion, and social status. A total of 296 participants responded to the socio-demographic question concerning their ethnicity. Eighty-six percent (86.5%) of the respondents (n=256) were Canadian, 6.4% (n=19) were Europeans, and 7.1% (n=21) were from another ethnicity, such as Asian, Indian, and other. A total of 274 participants reported their religious belief on the socio-demographic questionnaire. We observed that those participants differed in terms of their religious beliefs: 85.4% (n=234) of our sample was Catholic, 7.3% (n=20) were atheist and 7.3% (n=20) were either Muslim, Jewish, or Buddhist. Also, a sample of 312 participants disclosed their social status in the

questionnaire. These participants' social status revealed that 47.4% (n=148) were single, 7.1% (n=22) were married, 6.1% (n=19) were common-law, 1% (n=3) were divorced and 38.5% (n=120) categorized their relationship as differing from the four previous social status.

Type of family. A total of 314 participants disclosed their family structure in the questionnaire. When the participants were requested to reveal information about their respective families, the following information resulted: 76.8% (n=241) of participants were from a nuclear family (both parents together), 14.3% (n=45) were from a single parent family, 7.6% (n=24) were from a reconstructed/blended family, and only 1.3% (n=4) were from other type of families (e.g. living with grandparent or siblings).

Rank in the family and number of siblings. From our sample, 308 responded to the question pertaining to their family rank in the socio-demographic questionnaire. In our study, 40.3% (n=124) of the respondents were the eldest children of the family, 26.9% (n=83) were the middle child, and 19.8% (n=61) were the youngest in the family. In addition, a total number 307 participants reported the number of siblings in their biological family. Our pool of participants revealed that their family was composed of at least two children 43% (n= 132), 25.1% (n=77) stated that the family had three children, and 16.9% (n=52) were an only child, and 15% (n=46) indicated they had more than 3 siblings.

Language spoken in household. From our sample, 326 participants indicated their first spoken language on the socio-demographic questionnaire. The last characteristic of our sample showed that 88%, (n=287) of our participants were French speaking and 12% (n=39) were English speaking.

Main Results

In this study, we investigated the relationships between perceived parental authority and the following four variables: self-esteem, self-confidence, academic success, and psychological health. A correlational analysis was performed on the data using SPSS (version 12.0). Our five hypotheses were tested and in this section, we will examine the findings from the statistical analysis.

Hypothesis 1: Perceived parental authority and self-esteem. The perceived parental authority questionnaire was composed of two subscales: "total perceived parental control" and "total reaction to perceived parental control". Our hypothesis stipulated that a relationship existed between perceived parental authority and an individual's self-esteem. The findings from the analysis revealed a significant negative relationship between the total perceived parental control and self-esteem ($r = -0.30, p < 0.01$) (see Table 3, p.83). The results suggested that the higher the perceived parental control the lower the self-esteem in our participants.

Also, a significant negative relationship was discovered for the subscales of emotional reaction towards parental control and self-esteem ($r = -0.22, p < 0.01$). These results confirmed our hypothesis that individuals with negative reactions towards perceived parental control (e.g., individuals who described their personal experience of perceived parental control as being negative and/or harmful) had lower self-esteem scores.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived parental authority and self-confidence. In this study, we presumed that a strong relationship existed between perceived parental authority (total perceived parental control and total emotional reaction towards perceived parental control) and self-confidence. As can be seen on the Table 3, a significant negative relationship was discovered for both of our subscales of perceived parental authority. A negative relationship between self-confidence and total perceived parental control indicated that individuals from controlling families evaluated their skills and competencies more severely in comparison to their peers ($r = -0.20, p < 0.01$).

Furthermore, our findings revealed a significant negative relationship between participants' emotional reactions towards perceived parental authority and their self-confidence level ($r = -0.26, p < 0.01$). These results confirmed that participants who reacted negatively to their controlling family environment disclosed lower self-worth in relation to their respective peer group.

Hypothesis 3: Perceived parental authority and psychological well-being. In our research, we advanced the hypothesis that a relationship occurred between the following two variables: perceived parental authority (total perceived parental control and total emotional reaction towards perceived parental control) and psychological well-being. As predicted, a significant positive relationship was discovered between these two variables ($r = 0.34, p < 0.01$). These results confirmed that the more individuals perceived their

respective families as controlling, the higher they scored on psychological health (e.g. depression, anxiety, and anger).

In addition, a similar relationship was ascertained between the following two subscales: participant's emotional reaction towards perceived parental authority and psychological health ($r = 0.29, p < 0.01$). These findings validated that individuals with a higher reaction towards perceived parental authority displayed higher levels of psychological health over their lifetime.

Hypothesis 4: Perceived parental authority and academic success. We investigated the relationship between perceived parental authority and the academic success variable. We hypothesized that a negative relation would emerge between these variables. As hypothesized, the directionality of results yielded a significant negative relationship between these variables ($r = -0.16, p < 0.01$). Hence, these findings established that the more individuals perceived their families as controlling the lower their GPA's scores in elementary and high school.

In addition, our statistical analysis demonstrated that a positively significant relationship emerged between the emotional reaction towards parental authority and academic success ($r = 0.51, p < 0.01$). These results reveal that individuals with high GPA's had a higher negative response towards the usage of parental authority. In other

words, participants with high GPA's have a higher negative emotional reaction towards the usage of parental authority.

Hypothesis 5: Perceived parental authority and emotional reaction towards the concept of parental authority. Our results yielded a significant positive correlation between perceived parental authority and emotional reaction towards the concept of parental authority ($r = 0.87, p < 0.01$). Thus, our results suggest that individuals who perceived their families as controlling, have a higher negative emotional reaction towards the construct of parental control. In other words, participants' perceiving their parents as controlling had a higher negative reaction towards the usage of parental control. Thus, these individuals consider the utilization of parental control as being as a negative experience.

More statistical analysis was conducted on the data to further elaborate the relationships between self-esteem, self-confidence, psychological health, and academic success and to formulate a theoretical model for our structural analysis. In the following section, we will examine the relationship we observed between our variables.

As shown on Table 3, significant positive relationship between self-esteem and self-confidence ($r = 0.60$, $p < 0.01$) was discovered. These findings sustained the premise that individuals with high self-esteem conjointly have high self-confidence. Various studies have demonstrated that a strong association exist between these two theoretical constructs due to their common capacity to evaluate self-referent feelings towards personal accomplishments and failures (Coopersmith, 1967).

When self-esteem and psychological health were examine closely, a negative correlation was found between these two variables ($r = -0.42$, $p < 0.01$). These findings indicate that participants with high self-esteem develop lower psychological health in their daily lives.

After conducting a correlational analysis on self-esteem and academic success variables, the results yielded a negative significant relationship ($r = -0.21$, $p < 0.01$). These findings confirmed the premise that individuals with low self-esteem obtained lower grade-point averages at school.

A negative significant relationship was revealed between the psychological health and academic success variables ($r=-0.15$, $p < 0.01$). These findings indicated that lower level of psychological health (higher psychological health) related to a lower grade point average at elementary and high school.

Our results yielded a negative relationship between self-confidence and psychological health variables ($r= -0.52$, $p < 0.01$). These findings suggested that individuals with high self-confidence appeared to have low psychological health.

We hypothesized that self-confidence and elementary and high school academic success would demonstrate a positive relationship. The results from our analysis displayed a significant positive association between these two variables ($r= 0.16$, $p < 0.01$). These findings showed that higher self-confidence led to high academic performance.

In conclusion, we found significant relationships between our variables. These finding lead us to formulate a theoretical model to examine how these variables might relate to each other.

Table 3
Correlations between self-esteem, self-confidence, psychological health, and
academic success ($N= 377$)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1-Parental authority		-0.30*	-0.20*	0.34*	-0.16*	0.56*
2-Self-esteem			0.60*	-0.42*	0.21*	-0.22*
3-Self-confidence				-0.52*	0.16*	-0.26*
4-Psychological well-being					-0.15*	0.29*
5-Academic success						-0.09
6-Emotional reaction towards parental authority						

Note: * $p < 0.01$.

Testing a model of relationship between the variable

A structural path analysis, using Lisrel version 8.80, was conducted on the data to establish the directionality of the relationships between our variables. The theoretical model was inspired by the literature review and a sequence was elaborated for the variables (Grace & Pugeseck, 1998). A stipulation was advanced concerning the directionality of the variable. The literature inspired hypothesis was as follow: the perceived parental authority would directly influence self-esteem and self-confidence. Self-esteem would further impact the self-confidence of a person, and all these variables (perceived parental authority, self-esteem, and self-confidence) would have an effect on psychological well-being. Lastly, psychological well-being would impact the academic success of a person.

The results from our analysis yielded a model with significant relationships and parsimonious fits (see Figure 2, p.87). Overall, the findings obtained by the structural analysis further supported our initial hypothesis about the relationships between perceived parental authority, self-esteem, self-confidence, psychological health, and academic success. Also, the independence model testing the hypothesis of no relationships between the variables is easily rejected ($\chi^2 (10), N = 375 = 403.09, p < 0.01$). The theoretical model was then tested. The various fit indices revealed that the data fit the estimated model very well. Even though the Chi Square was significant ($\chi^2 (3) = 10.66, p < 0.01$), all other fit indices are within the accepted ranges. For instance, the GFI is 0.99, NFI is 0.97, and the

CFI is 0.98, which correspond to what is generally accepted. Moreover, the RMSR is smaller than 0.05 (0.047), within the accepted range (< 0.05 to 0.08).

The findings revealed a direct significant negative association between perceived parental authority and self-esteem ($\beta = -0.31, p < 0.01$). Also, a direct non-significant ($\beta = 0.04, p < 0.01$) negative link was observed between perceived parental authority and self-confidence. We further noted that a direct significant positive relationship emerged between perceived parental authority and psychological health ($\beta = 0.20, p < 0.01$). In addition, a direct significant positive relationship appeared between self-esteem and self-confidence ($\beta = 0.60, p < 0.01$).

The findings also yielded a direct negative relations between self-esteem and psychological health ($\beta = -0.15, p < 0.01$), and between self-confidence and psychological health ($\beta = -0.38, p < 0.01$). Thus, the finding suggests that low self-esteem and low self-confidence influence negatively the psychological health of an individual. However, a positive direct significant relationship appeared between perceived parental authority and psychological health ($\beta = 0.20, p < 0.01$). Therefore, high perceived parental authority impacts by increasing the psychological distress of an individual. Lastly, we noticed a direct negative significant relationship between the psychological health and academic success variables ($\beta = -0.15, p < 0.01$). These results confirmed that a negative psychological state of health decreased a person's academic performance.

In conclusion, the findings from our statistical analysis reveal the existence of strong (positive and negative) relationships between our variables. Namely, we discovered that perceived parental authority had a significant negative relationship with an individual's self-esteem, self-confidence, and academic success. Therefore, participants who perceived their parents as being highly controlling yielded lower scores on their self-esteem, self-confidence, and academic success scales. Furthermore, perceived parental authority was positively correlated with an individual's psychological health. In other words, participants perceiving their parents as highly controlling were likely to reveal higher scores on their psychological health scales. Thus, they revealed higher accounts of depression, anxiety, and anger outburst. Lastly, the analysis of our theoretical model of relationships between variables yielded significant results and parsimonious fits (see Figure 2, p.87). In the subsequent section, we will discuss the contemporary implications of these research findings on the field of parenting and clinical interventions.

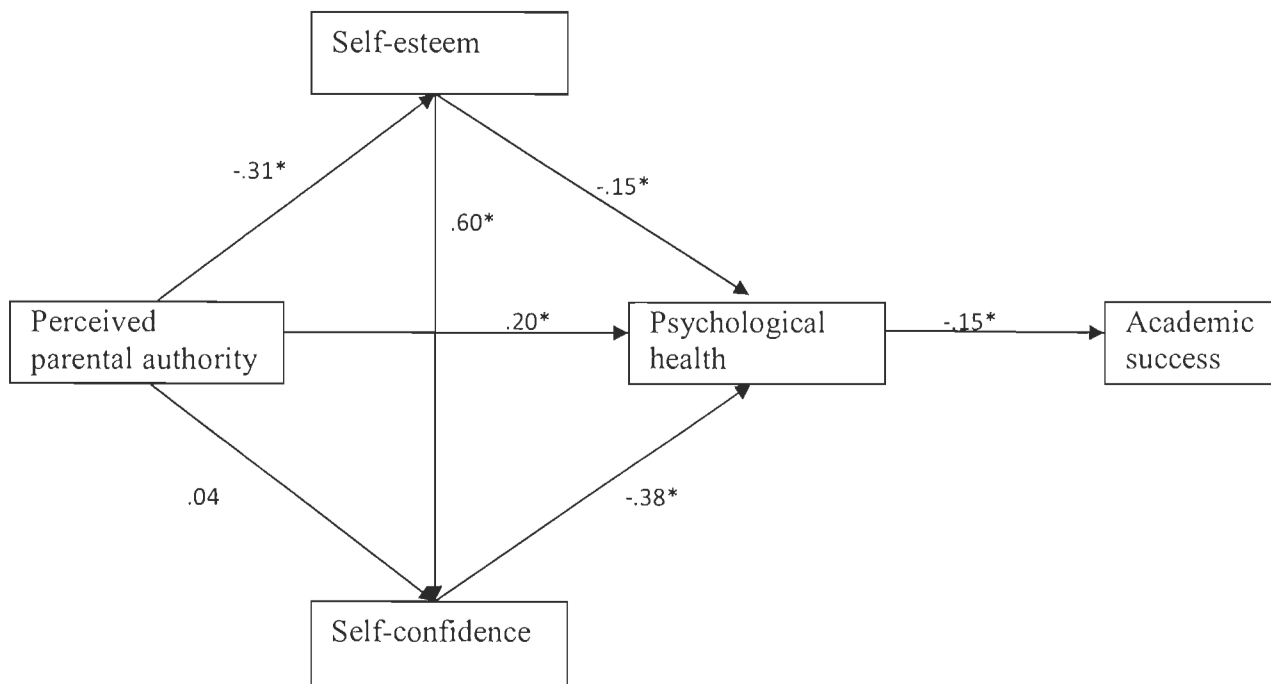


Figure 2. Final path-analytical model: Impact of perceived parental authority on self-esteem, self-confidence, psychological health, and academic success.

Discussion

In this section, we will recapitulate our statistical findings by making parallels with different empirical studies. We will continue by exploring the theoretical implications of our results on the field of child and clinical psychology. Also, we will examine the limits and liabilities of our results, and lastly, we will discuss a theoretical clinical intervention model, which utilizes the construct of perceived parental authority in an individual or family therapy setting.

The findings from this study suggest an important relationship between perceived parental authority and various socio-psychological components of an individual's life. According to social theorists, perceived parental authority provides emotional comfort to children. Baumrind (1971) indicated that children require a balance between parental empathy and control to adjust appropriately to their social surroundings. A lack of parental involvement has been related to dysfunctions in the realm of self-esteem, self-confidence, personality disorders, psychological problems, poor social skills, and deficient academic performance.

In this study, we hypothesized that individuals who perceived themselves as coming from highly controlling families (high on parental control and low on parental empathy) would yield low self-esteem. Our results confirmed this hypothesis. Lamborn et al. (1991) elaborated that individuals' rely on parental acknowledgement, praise, and gratification to build their self-esteem. When an individual experiences psychological pressure (e.g. induction of guilt, lack of praise/recognition, and criticisms) from

authoritarian parents, he/she starts questioning his/her competencies. Hence, his/her self-esteem plummets until he/she receives praise from his/her respective surroundings or social network. In proportion to Lamborn et al. (1991) and Coopersmith (1967), the results obtained from this research suggest that individuals who thought they were coming from controlling families tend to question their competencies and self-worth. These individuals perceive their parents as being controlling because they are unable to attain their high expectations. Consequently, these people often struggle with self-doubt, self-depreciation, and guilt, which lower their self-esteem.

Individuals' sense of competency and efficacy are closely related to their abilities to succeed at various tasks in their social environment. Social comparison increases internal self-confidence. Our findings yielded a negative relationship between perceived parental authority and self-confidence. In accordance to our results, individuals from high-perceived parental authority families had lower self-confidence. Overall, these participants devalued themselves while comparing their skills and endeavours with their respective peer group.

Our study confirmed previous findings from the realm of self-confidence and self-efficacy. According to Bandura (1977), self-efficacy is derived from one's sense of accomplishment. When individuals are faced with failures, their self-worth diminishes since they connect their loss to internal attributes as opposed to external factors (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Bandura (1977) indicated that children who are compared negatively to

their classmates or siblings by their teachers and/or parents are more prone to experience lower self-efficacy. We discovered in this study that individuals from perceived highly authoritarian parents (high perceived parental authority) were more susceptible to minimize their skills, aptitudes, and competencies (their self-confidence and self-efficacy) because of low parental empathy and high parental control. Authoritarian parents were more likely to criticize and diminish their children's accomplishment in order to make them perform better in a designated activity (school, extra-curriculum activities, or sports) (Baumrind, 1971). Also, controlling parents often highlight the strengths of another individual (e.g. classmate, siblings, or other) to further motivate their child. Although the desired objective of these parents is to increase their child's determination and performance, it is unlikely to achieve this effect. Generally, the impact of these social comparisons causes an inadequate self-view (e.g. self-confidence, self-esteem) (Brown, 1998). In this empirical study, our results confirmed that high perceived parental authority amounts to lowered levels of self-confidence. These findings concur with previous results obtained in the domains of self-confidence and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977).

Psychological health is defined as an individual's ability to cope appropriately with daily life stressors. For the purpose of this study, we explored three areas of psychological health: depression, anxiety, and hostility. We wished to comprehend the possible links between perceived parental authority and psychological health.

The results from our study demonstrated a positive association between perceived parental authority and psychological health. Individuals who thought they came from highly controlling families indicated a higher level of psychological health. They were more prone to endorsing statements confirming the existence of depression, anxiety, and anger outburst. According to contemporary literature, high parental control impacts negatively with the psychological health of an individual. Barber et al. (1994) discovered that psychological and behavioural high parental control hindered the internal and external sense of well-being of an individual. Adolescents from authoritarian families revealed higher level of emotional distress (e.g., anguish, guilt, and shame) and psychological symptomatology (e.g., anxiety and depression) because of parental control.

Literature further indicates that individuals from highly controlling families were more likely to become depressed due to an absence of parental support. Also, they are more susceptible to developing various forms of anxiety disorders (e.g. generalized anxiety disorder, panic attacks, obsessive-compulsive disorder) (Lamborn et al., 1991).

In this study, our results showed a relationship between high-perceived parental authority and a high level of psychological distress. We can extrapolate, based on previous research, that individuals from our sample were more prone to develop depression, anxiety concerns, and anger outbursts because of their history of living in a controlling family environment.

Academic achievement was evaluated through elementary and high school grade point averages. Participants were requested to recall their overall averages from their childhood educational institutions. According to literature (Chao, 1994), children from authoritarian families performed well at school. However, they often struggled with feelings of inadequacy in the realm of academia. Authoritarian parents appeared to set high academic standards for their children. Unfortunately, most children were unable to meet their parental expectations. Hence, they developed a state of internal distress and doubt, which gradually manifested itself as anxiety and fear. Often, these individuals became more demanding and critical of themselves due to a lack of parental praise.

Baumrind (1971) indicated that children from authoritative families attained higher grade point averages at school because they experienced an adequate degree of parental warmth and control. These children were more likely to have higher self-esteem when performing on a test because of a positive sense of self-worth created by parental understanding. In addition, we noticed that these children were more likely to have higher career aspirations due to a self-recognition of personal competencies. In our empirical study, participants who said they came from high-perceived parental authority families had lower grade point average in elementary and high school. These results indicate that individuals from highly controlling families had lower overall grade point averages. Thus, our results refuted the findings from previous scientific studies in this domain. It is fundamental to mention that our sample was recruited primarily from a Western population. Therefore, the existence of cultural variability could be present.

According to Markus and Kityama (1991, 1998), western culture promotes an individualistic lifestyle, where the needs and wants of an individual prevail over those of the society. Contrarily, in an eastern culture, an individual builds his/her identity by satisfying the needs of the collective (family, community, and peers). In this culture, an individual is part of a system. The acceptance of parental discipline and control is part of the social norms that each individual adheres to in the community. A lack of parental control is considered to be a sign of rejection and neglect from the parents (Chao, 1994). Consequently, individuals from western culture respond differently to high levels of parental control due to their core values and lifestyle. These individuals appear to perform worse in an academic setting since they appear to internalize their parents' discipline to a personal academic weakness.

Empirical studies in the field of child development have provided valuable information concerning parental control (Baumrind, 1971). During the completion of this research project, we examined numerous scientific articles pertaining to the domain of self-perception (self-esteem, self-confidence, self-efficacy, and self-worth), psychological health (e.g. development of psychopathology in individuals), and academic success. Every article we reviewed provided fundamental information about an existing relationship between perceived parental authority and another variable (e.g. self-esteem, self-confidence, psychological health, and academic success). However, we failed to locate any structural model linking these variables together. Thus, we decided to create a hypothetical structural model to further comprehend the plausible causal associations

between these variables. In order to formulate the theoretical model, we extrapolated from our readings the causal relationship of our variables. The construct of perceived parental authority preceded all the other variables. We regrouped the self-perception variables (self-esteem and self-confidence) (Brown, 1998) and hypothesized a direct relationship of these variables to perceived parental authority. Furthermore, based upon previous literature, we theorized that self-esteem and self-confidence had a direct impact on an individual's psychological health. Following this line of thought, we concluded that psychological health influenced their academic achievement.

In order to test this hypothetical model, we conducted a structural equation analysis using Lisrel version 8.80. According to our results, the structural model fit rather well our data. Our theoretical model is unique and innovative since it provides a sequential structural prototype to the realm of parenting. Although the results from this study are significant, it is important to note that there are limitations in the usage of path analysis. In the present case, we realize that a plausible causal relationship exists between our variables; however, we could not confirm the directionality of the causal relationship (e.g. is perceived parental authority affecting an individual's self-esteem or is a person self-esteem impacting their perception parental authority?). Our results primarily reveal a strong fit of the tested theoretical model. Nonetheless, the results from this study are interesting and they provide a significant prototype for the fields of parenting and child development.

Research limitations

Although our study revealed interesting findings in the field of perceived parental authority, the following section explores certain restraining factors which may have influenced the directionality of our results.

Our sample was recruited primarily in a University setting. The educational standing of the participants is possibly different from the normal population. The demographic information indicated a higher percentage of women participants. Furthermore, our sample was largely a North American population. As discussed, cultural differences and variability may have impacted the outcome of this research.

In addition, our sample age range was quite large since it encompassed individuals from different age groups. As we indicated previously, our mean age was 25 years-old with a standard deviation of 8.29. Therefore, our sample age was quite diversified. We believe the versatility of our participants' age may have impacted the results of our study since they may have trouble recalling the level of perceived parental authority due to their older age.

Furthermore, our questionnaire was aimed at evaluating the level of perceived parental authority in the realm of physical, psychological, and social control. We noticed, during the experiment, that participants inquired about the difference in the parenting

style of both parents. Many participants mentioned that they were subjected to two different parenting styles by their respective parents. In order to attain consistency in our results, we recommended to the participants to rate our questionnaire in accordance to their principal parenting style. Therefore, we encouraged participants to report their experience in relation to the parenting strategies that were more frequent. Although we brought forth a suggestion to assist with the homogeneity of our results, we do question the impact of this phenomenon on our findings. Ideally, we would have appreciated the participants to rate both parents in the questionnaire.

The impact of gender differences on parenting strategies was not explored. We realized that parents might have employed a certain parenting style according to the gender of their children. According to Chen (1994), Chinese mothers were more authoritarian towards their sons. Literature revealed that little girls were not subjected to harsh discipline because of social and cultural factors. Although this may have impacted our findings, we are unable to determine it with certainty.

Another factor which might impact the viability of our findings is the retrospective nature of our data. All of our participants were requested to recall their childhood experience in relation to parental authority and emotional reaction towards perceived parental control. It is thus their perceived parental authority that was important to us to study. To fully comprehend the effect of this variable on our study, we conducted a brief literature review on autobiographical memories.

According to Mazzoni and Vannucci (2007), three memory distortions exist in our society. They are the following: hindsight bias, misinformation effect, and the production of false autobiographical memories.

The first memory distortion to emerge in contemporary literature was the hindsight bias (Fischhoff, 1975). This type of memory bias is defined as a “tendency to change a previous judgment in the direction of newly provided information” (Pohl, 2007). A hindsight bias occurs when an individual re-evaluates an incident after receiving subjective information after the event. Post-incident information influences the participant’s judgment and causes cognitive dissonance, which results in an inaccurate evaluation of the previous information. Thus, participants feel more compelled to modify their point of view to obtain consistency with post-incident information (Mazzoni et al., 2007).

Secondly, the misinformation effect is described as the impact of new erroneous facts to the recall of an event or situation. A study conducted by Loftus (1975) tested participants after they witnessed a certain event. The findings revealed that misled participants from the experimental group (individual provided false information about an event they had witnessed) were more likely to perform poorly on a recognition test than those in the control group. It was concluded that participants doubted the witnessed event

when they were presented with false, inaccurate, or distorted information (McCloskey & Zaragoza, 1985).

The last memory distortion to emerge is the production of false autobiographical memories. This paradigm explores the difficulties of recalling childhood memories. According to Mazzoni, Loftus and Kirsch (2001), three conditions are required for the production of false memories. Firstly, individuals must have minimal retention of the autobiographical event. In other words, they have limited details or information concerning a childhood memory. Secondly, the presence of personal and social beliefs, values and ideals are interjected during the recalling phase of the event in question. Thirdly, the individual is forcefully provided new and inaccurate information about the event (Mazzoni et al, 2001).

In this research, the author has investigated the impact of perceived parental authority on four variables: self-esteem, self-confidence, academic success, and psychological health. To explore this research hypothesis, the author asked the participants to recall childhood experiences in relation to perceived parental authority. Questions and concerns arose around the reliability of the results due to the possibility of autobiographical memory distortions during the recall of childhood parenting. The following points sustain the accuracy of our research findings.

According to Mazzoni and Scoboria (in press), the production of false autobiographical memories occurs under three circumstances: (a) lack of information pertaining to the event being recalled, (b) the forceful presentation of false and inaccurate information concerning the event being remembered and (c) the influence of strong social and individual beliefs, values and ideals towards the event.

In our study, the participants were not provided new or inaccurate information about their childhood parenting experience. Our questionnaire was formulated with neutral questions where the participants were asked to evaluate the likelihood of an experience in question. For example, participants were asked to judge the following question on a 7-point Likert scale: When I was young and if I did something wrong, my parents used to punish me physically. If the participant did not experience corporal punishment, he/she was able to check: does not apply to me. The participant was not forced to answer the question, if he/she had no recollection of it. Further, to avoid biasing the participant's recall, the author avoided the use of narrative stories or descriptions of experiences related to parental control in the questionnaire despite the longstanding contributions of these approaches to the realm of empirical research. Thus, the participants were not provided information about a third party in relation to childhood parental control. They were asked to respond to their own subjective experience with minimal interference from the researcher. The author was careful not to provide additional information or inaccurate points of view concerning parental control.

In this research, participants were asked to recall their childhood in accordance to their perception of parental authority. According to Mazzoni et al (2001), an individual will be more likely to create false autobiographical memories if he/she does not have adequate episodic memory concerning the event or incident. The memories being recalled in this questionnaire are in relation to participants' perception of their primary caregivers. Since parents are the primary nurturers of their children from birth to adulthood, it is unusual if not impossible to have no cognitive representation of their interaction with oneself. Children rely fundamentally on their parents for physical, psychological, and social development (Baumrind, 1971). Hence, it appears improbable that they would not have a cognitive schema of their interactions with their respective parents. Therefore, the possibility of lacking memory about parental control and related dynamic seems unfounded in this study.

A person's values and beliefs towards a situation/event may increase the likelihood of creating false autobiographical memories (Mazzoni & Scoboria, in press). If we apply this fact to our study, we have to presume that people with strong view about parental control will create false memories about their own childhood experience to support their view. Thus, people with strong views against utilizing parental control would create false memories concerning their childhood to validate their stance on parenting. If we apply this rationale to our study, a couple of weaknesses emerge. We noticed that a participant would need to create multiple memories to validate his/her stance on parental authority because the research questionnaire explored three different

types of parental control: social, psychological, and physical. A participant would be required to recall detailed occasions where his/her parents employed physical control, social punishment, and psychological pressure. The amount of time allocated to the completion of the questionnaire was around 15-20 minutes. The fabrication of false memories would be time consuming since they would require an elaborate cognitive processing and analysis. Participants would not be able to complete the questionnaire in a timely fashion and would therefore provide an incomplete questionnaire, which would be eliminated from the study.

Also, it is possible that the participant had differing beliefs towards parental authority, such as: “a child should experience social and psychological control but not physical”. The difference in their primary belief would yield an inconsistent score on the three parental control scales. Therefore, the global perceived parental authority score would not qualify as a being high on the perceived parental authority variable and would only contribute to error variance.

This study was primarily developed and implemented to investigate the **subjective nature** of the theoretical concept of parental control. The researchers acknowledged the limitations attached to assessing the accuracy of autobiographical memories. To overcome the obstacle of false memory distortions, the experimental hypothesis evaluated the subjective view of parental control. The purpose of the study was not to validate the participants’ experiences but to explore the impact of their

subjective interpretation of parental control on their social (academic success) and psychological (self-esteem, self-confidence, and psychological health) development. Therefore, we realize there was a need to attain personal and individual information from the participants about their experience of parental control to complete our research. The main objective of the study was to understand the impact of subjective life experiences concerning childhood parental control on the lifelong progress of an individual.

We based our decision to pursue this subjective analysis of self-perception on the fundamental principles of psychotherapy. According to Carl Roger's (1980), the primary function of a psychologist is to aid clients with their personal experience in a therapeutic setting. In the humanistic approach, the psychologist relies on the hearsay of a client to develop clinical interventions and action plans. The clinician provides unconditional positive regard to a client in the hope of instigating change. Generally, psychologists do not have the means to attain confirmation of the personal information shared in the session with the client due to the limits entailed by their professional code of ethic. However, they base their interventions on the client's view and interpretation of the identified problem. Clinicians realize that they need to address the issues from the client's subjective perception to resolve the problems in question.

In conclusion, we decided to pursue an investigation surrounding the subjective experience of parental authority from an adult perspective in the hope of gaining more insight into the functioning and development of an individual. We have adopted a

clinical outlook towards our research since our secondary objective is to promote a conceptual model of clinical interventions to aid individuals and families experiencing psychological health due to perceived parental authority.

Clinical applications of the scientific results discovered from this study

An experimental research would not be rendered complete until scientific and clinical benefits are extracted from its findings. In this section, we would like to present some clinical applications of perceived parental authority in the realm of psychotherapy.

According to literature, numerous psychological problems emerge in families due to inadequate parenting strategies. Employing strict parenting styles may create a chaotic family environment. The impacts of an authoritarian family environment on a child or adolescent are quite diverse (e.g. low self-esteem, low motivation, lack of interest, emotional despair, absence of peer support, and low academic achievement). In addition, the family environment equally affects authoritarian parents. Authoritarian parents may encounter feelings of anxiety and anger related to the lack of structure and discipline in their household.

Generally, these families request assistance from a health care professional after a traumatic incidence (e.g., physical child abuse) or due to an identified psychological

problem related to one or many family members. When these families finally consult a healthcare professional, they are already in a state of crisis.

In the realm of individual and family therapy, a therapist can shed light on the identified problem by exploring four areas: assessing parenting style (level of parental control and parental empathy), nature of parenting style (nature, purpose, advantages, and disadvantages), type of appropriate parenting style and adequate intervention techniques to induce behaviour modifications in parents and children. After reviewing our research findings, in the next section, we propose a tentative therapeutic model for family therapy based on issues related to high-perceived parental authority.

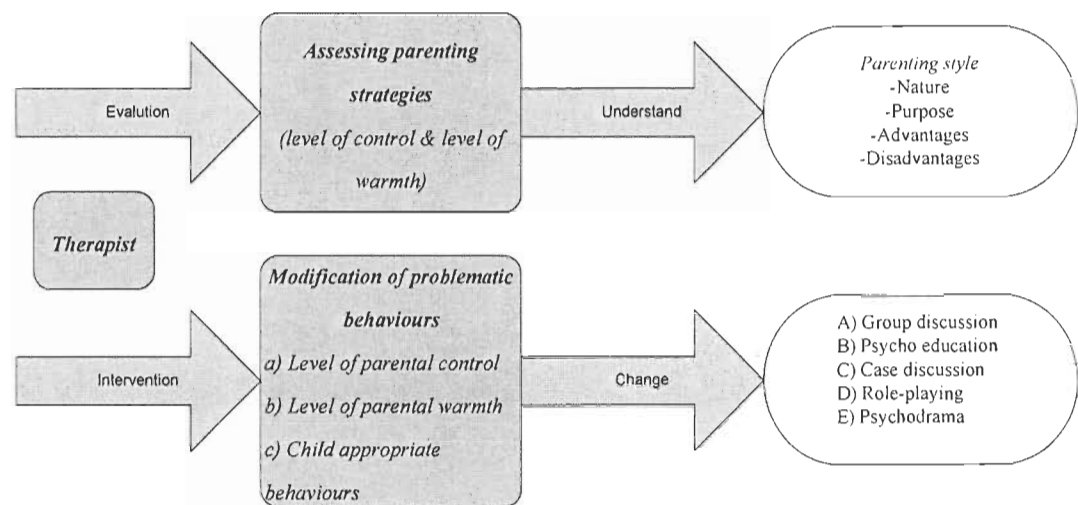


Figure 3. Schematic representation of a family therapy intervention model

Figure 3 illustrates a clinical intervention approach to family discord stemming from inappropriate utilization of parental control. The family therapist has two primary goals in this intervention model: evaluation and intervention. To accomplish the first objective, the therapist assesses the level of actual and perceived parental authority in the family environment. The clinician may employ questionnaires or interviews to evaluate the level of parental control in the family unit. To correctly comprehend the perceived and actual parental authority, the therapist explores the nature (type of parenting style), the purpose (the objective of the parenting strategies), the advantages (the types of gains that the parents and children will obtain) and the disadvantages (negative consequences) from the perspectives of all the family members. To achieve the second objective, the therapist facilitates therapeutic changes by addressing the following concepts: level of parental warmth, control, and children misbehaviour. To promote therapeutic changes in these

domains, the therapist employs the following intervention strategies: group discussion, case presentation, role-playing, psycho-education, and psychodrama. Since change is gradual and requires reinforcement, the clinician highlights appropriate behaviours through praise, encouragement, and positive empathetic validation.

Overall, we realized that our results would benefit healthcare professionals since they would become adept at detecting psychological issues related to high-perceived parental authority. Hence, they would refer the family more promptly to a counselling service, which would avoid further complications. In addition, the therapist would be in a better position to assist since he/she would have a better understanding of the impacts of perceived parental authority on a psychological state. Furthermore, the therapist could set therapeutic objectives according to parental control and empathy.

Consequently, we can presume that the findings from this study would assist professionals to detect, comprehend, and treat issues surrounding contexts where high-perceived parental authorities are prevalent.

Conclusion

Parents influence children in many ways and often leave an everlasting mark on their lives. Parental involvement, empathy, and control are aspects of parenting that are often questioned and scrutinized by researchers. Theorists have speculated that a high level of parental control and a low level of parental empathy equate to a dysfunctional self-view in children.

In this research, our primary objective was to explore the realm of perceived parental authority and the potential impact on an individual's self-esteem, self-confidence, psychological health, and academic success. We hypothesized that a negative relationship existed between high-perceived parental authority, self-esteem, self-confidence, and academic success. A positive relationship was discovered between high-perceived parental authority and high psychopathology (low psychological health). The results from our analysis substantiated our hypothesis and further validated the contemporary literature on parenting styles. Therefore, a high-level of perceived parental authority led to a low self-esteem, self-confidence, and academic success. In addition, high level of perceived parental authority was correlated with high psychological health (e.g. high psychological distress).

We encountered certain nuisance variables such as the discrepancies between parenting styles of both parents, cultural, and gender difference and lastly, the retrospective nature of our

questionnaire. Although these variables were controlled to a certain degree, we rest aware of their possible impact on our results. Consequently, we would suggest future researchers to explore parenting styles from conjoint parental perspectives and to be cautious when reporting their results.

Overall, this research has opened a new dimension on parental control and authority. These findings could facilitate the clinical interventions provided to affected families members (e.g. parents, children, and adolescents). A global understanding of a child's and adolescent's perceived parental authority can assist a clinical practitioner to the deciphering of the family dynamic, structure, and identified problems. In addition, the clinician could provide the child and adolescent with some guidelines and literature to aid them with the rational of the perceived parental authority. Furthermore, the parents would simultaneously benefit from this research since the clinician could provide insight about the child-parent conflict by emphasizing the impact of perceived parental control on their family dynamic. For healthcare professionals, the results of this study have provided new information to detect, understand, and treat issues centering on perceived parental authority.

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Appendix A

English version of the consent form

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

The purpose of this research is to evaluate the impact of the perceived parental authority on self perception, academic success and psychological health. The study will be conducted by Iram Nasim Ahmad, a doctoral candidate in the Clinical Psychology program at l'Université de Québec at Trois-Rivières, under the supervision of Dr. Michel Alain, professor at the Faculty of Graduate studies in Psychology at l'Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières.

To participate in this research project, the participant must be between 18 and 60 years of age. Each participant is required to complete four questionnaires during a single setting. The duration of the experiment has been estimated to 15 minutes.

Participation in this research does not involve any types of risks for the participants. However, it is possible that certain individuals may experience some discomfort in answering some questions.

If the participant experiences any discomfort, malaise, or disturbance during his/her participation in the experiment, he/she must notify the researcher immediately so that proper measures be taken to rectify the existing situation. The researcher has planned alternative methods to diminish the participant's psychological health. The supervisor of the Research Project, Dr. Michel Alain, 819-376-5085 ext: 3532, will be available at all times, to consult and receive participant feeling anxious, distressed, or disturbed after answering the

questionnaires. In the case where the participant requires immediate professional aid, the researcher will bring the individual to the Centre Universitaire de Service en Psychologie at l'Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières for a psychological consultation.

The director, the researcher and research associates will be the only ones who will have access to the data collected. In addition, all personal information which could identify the participant will be removed so as to ensure complete confidentiality and anonymity. An identification number will be assigned to each questionnaire so that the participant personal information remains anonymous. In addition, the research project will provide only group results. In other words, the study will not use or print any individual score. Lastly, after the completion of the research project, the data collected will be destroyed so as to preserve the confidentiality of the participants.

The participant is completely free to decline and remove his/her participation during the experimentation without any negative judgment or risks. He/she does not need to justify his/her motives for discontinuing his/her participation in the study. The researcher has the right to remove a participant from the experimentation at any point during the research project. However, the researcher must provide an explanation to justify the removal of the participant from the study.

I, _____, acknowledge that I understand the nature and purpose of the current research project on the effects of perceived parental authority on academic

success, self-perception and psychological health and I understand the consequences, limitations and impact of my participation. I accept to participate in this study freely, without any pressure or obligations. I accept and I authorize the researcher to use all the information that I will provide in my questionnaires for the purpose of this doctoral dissertation.

Participant Signature

Researcher and Research Director Commitment Form

I, Iram Nasim Ahmad, candidate for the doctoral psychology program (intervention and research) at UQTR, under the supervision of Dr. Michel Alain, professor at the Faculty of Graduate Studies in Psychology at l'Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières, commit to follow rigourously the methodology of the present research project on the effects of perceived parental authority on academic success, self-perception (self-confidence and self-esteem) and psychological health according to the dispositions that has been provided by the Comité permanent de déontologie de la recherche de l'Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières. Also, I commit to protect the physical, psychological and social integrity of all the participants during the experimentation process and to ensure the confidentiality of data that will be collected. In the case of psychological discomfort and distress, I wherefore promise to provide all the pertinent resources to diminish the participant psychological anxiety or discomfort.

Student signature
Department of Psychology
Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières

Signature of Research Director
Department of Psychology
Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières

Appendix B

French version of the consent form

CONSENTEMENT DU PARTICIPANT

Cette étude vise à explorer les effets de la perception de l'autorité parentale sur la perception de soi, le succès académique et la santé psychologique chez les adultes. Cette recherche est réalisée par Iram Nasim Ahmad, étudiante au doctorat en psychologie, profil intervention et recherche, sous la responsabilité du professeur Dr Michel Alain du Département des cycles supérieurs de la psychologie de l'Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières.

Pour participer à la présente recherche, les individus doivent avoir entre 18 et 60 ans. La participation à cette recherche implique de la part des participants de répondre à quatre questionnaires dans le cadre d'une rencontre individuelle avec l'expérimentatrice. La durée de la passation des questionnaires est estimée à environ 15 minutes.

Il est important de mentionner que la participation à cette recherche n'entraîne aucun risque pour les individus.

Toutefois, il est possible que certaines personnes éprouvent parfois un inconfort vis-à-vis certaines questions.

Le participant doit signaler tout inconfort, malaise, ou dérangement découlant de sa participation à la recherche, à la personne qui supervise l'épreuve. Le responsable de la recherche a prévu des mécanismes visant à atténuer ces effets négatifs. Le directeur de recherche, Dr Michel Alain, (819) 376-5085 poste 3532 serait disponible à tout temps afin de recevoir les participants qui éprouvent un malaise. De plus, en cas d'urgence la

responsable de la recherche serait en mesure d'amener les participants au Centre Universitaire de Service en Psychologie.

Les informations recueillies lors de ces épreuves seront utilisées uniquement par les personnes impliquées dans la recherche et seront traitées de façon strictement confidentielle et anonyme en retirant les noms des participants. Des numéros d'identification seront inscrits sur chaque questionnaire afin assurer l'anonymat du participant. Aussi, les rapports scientifiques ne feront état que des résultats de groupe. Finalement, les questionnaires seront détruits lorsque la recherche serait complétée.

Pour conclure, il faut préciser que vous êtes complètement libre de retirer votre participation de la recherche à tout moment, sans avoir à justifier votre décision et sans en subir de préjudice. L'expérimentatrice peut retirer un participant de la recherche mais elle doit lui en donner le motif.

Je, _____, reconnais avoir été suffisamment informé(e) du projet de recherche sur les effets de la perception de l'autorité parentale sur le succès académique, la perception de soi et la santé psychologique et de bien comprendre ce que ma participation à cette recherche implique pour moi. En toute connaissance et en toute liberté, j'accepte d'y participer et j'autorise le responsable à utiliser les résultats de ma participation selon les informations qu'il m'a fournies.

Signature du participant

ENGAGEMENT DE L'ÉTUDIANT ET DU DIRECTEUR DE RECHERCHE

Je, Iram Nasim Ahmad, étudiante au doctorat en psychologie, sous la supervision de Dr Michel Alain, m'engage à mener la présente recherche portant sur les effets de la perception de l'autorité parentale sur le succès académique, la perception de soi (confiance en soi et estime de soi) et la santé psychologique selon les dispositions acceptées par le Comité permanent de déontologie de la recherche de l'Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières et à protéger l'intégrité physique, psychologique et sociale des participants tout au long de la recherche et à assurer la confidentialité des informations recueillies. Je m'engage également à fournir aux participants tout le support permettant d'atténuer les effets négatifs pouvant découler de la participation à cette recherche.

Signature de l'étudiante

Signature du directeur de recherche

Appendix C

English version of the socio-demographic questionnaire

Identification Number: _____

Socio-demographic
information

GENDER: AGE:

LEVEL OF EDUCATION: Profession:

ETHNICITY: Religion:

Social Status _____ SINGLE
 _____ MARRIED
 _____ COMMON IN LAW
 _____ WIDOWER
 _____ OTHER

TYPE OF FAMILY: _____ MONOPARENTAL
 _____ RECONSTRUCTED FAMILY
 _____ NUCLEAR (BOTH PARENTS)
 _____ OTHER (PLEASE SPECIFY)

RANK IN THE FAMILY (ELDEST, MIDDLE, YOUNGEST):

NUMBER OF SIBLINGS:

Appendix D

French version of the socio-demographic questionnaire

Information socio-démographique

SEXE:

ÂGE:

ÉDUCATION:

PROFESSION:

ETHNICITÉ:

RELIGION:

STATUS SOCIAL

☐ CÉLIBATAIRE
☐ MARRIÉ
☐ CONJOINT DE FAIT
☐ DIVORCÉ
☐ AUTRE

STYLE FAMILIAL:

☐ MONOPARENTAL
☐ FAMILLE RECONSTRUCTURÉE
☐ FAMILLE NUCLÉAIRE
☐ AUTRE (SPÉCIFIÉ)

RANG DANS LA FAMILLE (AÎNÉ, CADET, DERNIER OU AUTRE):

NOMBRE D'ENFANT DANS VOTRE FAMILLE D'ORIGINE:

Appendix E

English version of the perceived parental control questionnaire

Questionnaire

Read each question attentively and then circle the answer that describes the relationship you had with your parents. Please choose an answer (5- Completely agree to 1- Completely disagree) that describes you and your perceived relationship with your parents.

Part 1

When I was young and I did something wrong, my parents used to punish me physically.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Don't agree Nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

___ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, my parents used to insult me when I was not good.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Don't agree Nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

___ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, my parents used to send me to my room without because I did something inappropriate.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Don't agree Nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

___ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, my parents frequently punished me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Don't agree Nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

___ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, I used to cry a lot because my parents would punish me too harshly (physically or verbal punishment)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Don't agree Nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

___ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

Part 2

When I was young, my parents used to make me feel bad because I did not do what they expected of me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Don't agree Nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

___ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, I felt obliged to do what my parents wanted. If I failed to meet their expectation, I used to feel guilty.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Don't agree Nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

___ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, I had the impression that my parents exerted emotional pressure on me so that I would do exactly what they desired.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Don't agree Nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

___ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, I used to think often that I was not a good person because my parents made me feel as though they were not proud of me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Don't agree Nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

___ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, I had a lot of remorse and guilt when I did not obey my parents. I used to consider myself to be a bad person if I did not follow my parent's wishes.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Don't agree Nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

___ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

Part 3

When I was young, my parents used to choose my friends.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Don't agree Nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

___ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, I was forced to meet people that my parents wanted me to be friend with.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Don't agree Nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

___ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, my parents did not allow me to go to my best friend's house.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Don't agree Nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

___ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, my parents would not let me have friends from my own age group.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Don't agree Nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

___ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

At school, I was often alone because I never had the opportunity to meet kids outside of the school environment.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly	Disagree	Don't agree Nor	Agree	Strongly agree

disagree		disagree		
----------	--	----------	--	--

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

Part 4

Answer only the questions that describe your childhood family environment.

When I was young, I used to feel _____ when my parents used to punish me physically.

1	2	3	4	5
Good	A little bit good	Nor good no bad	A little bit bad	Very bad
Because I knew my parents loved meant had my best intentions at heart.	I knew my parents loved me and they had good intentions at heart		Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.	Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, I used to feel _____ when my parents insulted me because I was not behaving properly.

1	2	3	4	5
Good	A little bit good	Nor good nor bad	A little bit bad	Very bad
Because I knew my parents loved meant had my best intentions at heart.	I knew my parents loved me and they had good intentions at heart		Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.	Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, I used to feel _____ when my parents sent me to my room because I did something wrong.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

Good	A little bit good	Nor good no bad	A little bit bad	Very bad
Because I knew my parents loved meant had my best intentions at heart.	I knew my parents loved me and they had good intentions at heart		Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.	Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

4) When I was young, I used to feel _____ when my parents punished me.

1	2	3	4	5
Good	A little bit good	Nor good no bad	A little bit bad	Very bad
Because I knew my parents loved meant had my best intentions at heart.	I knew my parents loved me and they had good intentions at heart		Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.	Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

5) When I was young, I used to feel _____ when I cried because my parents my parents had hurt me physically or verbally through a punishment or otherwise.

1	2	3	4	5
Good	A little bit good	Nor good no bad	A little bit bad	Very bad
Because I knew my parents loved meant had my best intentions at heart.	I knew my parents loved me and they had good intentions at heart		Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.	Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

Part 5

When I was young, I used to feel _____ when my parents made me feel bad because I did not do something they wanted.

1	2	3	4	5
Good	A little bit good	Nor good no bad	A little bit bad	Very bad
Because I knew my parents loved meant had my best intentions at heart.	I knew my parents loved me and they had good intentions at heart		Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.	Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, I used to feel _____ when my parents obliged me to do something that I did not want.

1	2	3	4	5
Good	A little bit good	Nor good no bad	A little bit bad	Very bad
Because I knew my parents loved meant had my best intentions at heart.	I knew my parents loved me and they had good intentions at heart		Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.	Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

3) When I was young, I used to feel _____ when my parents exerted emotional pressure on me so that I would do what they desired.

1	2	3	4	5
Good	A little bit good	Nor good no bad	A little bit bad	Very bad
Because I knew my parents loved meant had my best intentions at heart.	I knew my parents loved me and they had good intentions at heart		Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.	Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, I used to feel _____ because I believed that I was not a good person since my parents seemed to not be proud of me.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

Good	A little bit good	Nor good no bad	A little bit bad	Very bad
Because I knew my parents loved meant had my best intentions at heart.	I knew my parents loved me and they had good intentions at heart		Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.	Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, I used to feel _____ when I did not obey my parents.

1	2	3	4	5
Good	A little bit good	Nor good no bad	A little bit bad	Very bad
Because I knew my parents loved meant had my best intentions at heart.	I knew my parents loved me and they had good intentions at heart		Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.	Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

Part 6

When I was young, I used to feel _____ when my parents chose my friends.

1	2	3	4	5
Good	A little bit good	Nor good no bad	A little bit bad	Very bad
Because I knew my parents loved meant had my best intentions at heart.	I knew my parents loved me and they had good intentions at heart		Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.	Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, I used to feel _____ when my parents forced me to meet people that they wanted me to be friend with.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

Good	A little bit good	Nor good no bad	A little bit bad	Very bad
Because I knew my parents loved meant had my best intentions at heart.	I knew my parents loved me and they had good intentions at heart		Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.	Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, I used to feel _____ when my parents would not let me to go my best friend's house.

1	2	3	4	5
Good	A little bit good	Nor good no bad	A little bit bad	Very bad
Because I knew my parents loved meant had my best intentions at heart.	I knew my parents loved me and they had good intentions at heart		Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.	Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, I used to feel _____ when my parents would not let me have friend of my own age group.

1	2	3	4	5
Good	A little bit good	Nor good no bad	A little bit bad	Very bad
Because I knew my parents loved meant had my best intentions at heart.	I knew my parents loved me and they had good intentions at heart		Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.	Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

When I was young, I used to feel _____ when I was all alone because my parents would not let me make friends outside of the school setting.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

Good	A little bit good	Nor good no bad	A little bit bad	Very bad
Because I knew my parents loved meant had my best intentions at heart.	I knew my parents loved me and they had good intentions at heart		Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.	Because my parents were controlling and authoritarian.

____ Place an X if the situation does not apply to you.

Where would you place your parent's level of authority and control over you during your childhood?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Low	Low	Average	High	Very high
My parents were neither controlling nor authoritarian towards me.	My parents were a little bit authoritarian and controlling towards me.	My parents were averagely authoritarian and controlling towards me.	My parents were highly authoritarian and controlling towards me.	My parents were very authoritarian and controlling towards me.

Where would you place your elementary grade point average on this scale?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Low	Low	Average	High	Very high
I would fail a lot of classes.	My grades were always under the class average.	My grades were around the class average	My grades were always above the class average	My grades were well above the average and I was considered to be one of the best students of my class.

What was your elementary grade point average?

_____ %

Where would you place your high school grade point average on this scale?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Low	Low	Average	High	Very high
I would fail a lot of classes.	My grades were always under the class average.	My grades were around the class average	My grades were always above the class average	My grades were well above the average and I was considered to be one of the best students of my class.

What was your high grade point average?

_____ %

Thank you !

Appendix F

French version of the perceived parental authority questionnaire

Lorsque je faisais quelque chose de mal, mes parents me punissaient physiquement.

1	2	3	4	5
Complètement en désaccord	Désaccord	Ni en désaccord ou en accord	En accord	Complètement en accord
Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.				

Mes parents m'insultaient lorsque je n'étais pas fin(e).

1	2	3	4	
Complètement en désaccord	Désaccord	Ni en désaccord ou en accord	En accord	Complètement en accord
Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.				

Des fois, il arrivait à mes parents de m'enfermer dans ma chambre sans me donner à manger parce que j'avais fait une bêtise.

1	2	3	4	5
Complètement en désaccord	Désaccord	Ni en désaccord ou en accord	En accord	Complètement en accord
Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.				

J'étais souvent puni(e) par mes parents.

1	2	3	4	5
Complètement en désaccord	Désaccord	Ni en désaccord ou en accord	En accord	Complètement en accord
Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.				

Il m'arrivait souvent de pleurer parce que mes parents m'avaient fait mal (physiquement ou verbalement).

1	2	3	4	5
Complètement en désaccord	Désaccord	Ni en désaccord ou en accord	En accord	Complètement en accord
Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.				

Partie 2

Mes parents me faisaient me sentir très mal lorsque je ne faisais pas ce qu'ils voulaient.

1	2	3	4	5
Complètement en désaccord	Désaccord	Ni en désaccord ou en accord	En accord	Complètement en accord

_____ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Je me sentais obligé à faire ce que mes parents voulaient parce qu'ils pouvaient me faire sentir coupable.

1	2	3	4	5
Complètement en désaccord	Désaccord	Ni en désaccord ou en accord	En accord	Complètement en accord

_____ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

J'ai l'impression que mes parents exerçaient de la pression émotionnelle sur moi quand je ne faisais pas ce qu'ils désiraient.

1	2	3	4	5
Complètement en désaccord	Désaccord	Ni en désaccord ou en accord	En accord	Complètement en accord

_____ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Il m'arrivait souvent de penser que je n'étais pas bon(ne) parce que mes parents n'étaient pas fiers de moi.

1	2	3	4	5
Complètement en désaccord	Désaccord	Ni en désaccord ou en accord	En accord	Complètement en accord

_____ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

J'avais beaucoup de remords lorsque je n'obéissais pas à mes parents. Je me considérais comme étant une mauvaise personne.

1	2	3	4	5
Complètement en désaccord	Désaccord	Ni en désaccord ou en accord	En accord	Complètement en accord

_____ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Partie 3

Mes parents choisissaient mes amis(es).

1	2	3	4	5
Complètement en désaccord	Désaccord	Ni en désaccord ou en accord	En accord	Complètement en accord

_____ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Souvent, j'avais à rencontrer des personnes que mes parents voulaient que je fréquente.

1	2	3	4	5
Complètement en désaccord	Désaccord	Ni en désaccord ou en accord	En accord	Complètement en accord

_____ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Je ne pouvais pas aller à la maison de ma/mon meilleur(e) ami(e) quand j'étais jeune.

1	2	3	4	5
Complètement en désaccord	Désaccord	Ni en désaccord ou en accord	En accord	Complètement en accord

_____ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Mes parents ne me laissaient pas avoir d'amis (es) de mon âge quand j'étais jeune.

1	2	3	4	5
Complètement en désaccord	Désaccord	Ni en désaccord ou en accord	En accord	Complètement en accord

À l'école, j'étais seul souvent parce que je n'avais pas la possibilité de rencontrer des personnes de mon âge à l'extérieur de l'école.

1	2	3	4	5
Complètement en désaccord	Désaccord	Ni en désaccord ou en accord	En accord	Complètement en accord

_____ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Partie 4

Répondez seulement aux énoncés qui s'appliquaient à votre contexte familial.

Je me sentais _____ lorsque mes parents me punissaient physiquement.

1	2	3	4	5
Très bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur et ils m'aimaient.	Passablement bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur	Ni bien ni mal	Un peu mal parce qu'ils étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté	Très mal parce que mes parents étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté.

_____ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous

Je me sentais _____ lorsque mes parents m'insultaient parce que je n'étais pas fin (e).

1	2	3	4	5
Très bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur et ils m'aimaient.	Passablement bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur	Ni bien ni mal	Un peu mal parce qu'ils étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté	Très mal parce que mes parents étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté.

_____ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Je me sentais _____ lorsque mes parents m'enfermaient dans ma chambre sans me donner à manger parce que j'avais fait une bêtise.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

Très bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur et ils m'aimaient.	Passablement bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur	Ni bien ni mal	Un peu mal parce qu'ils étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté	Très mal parce que mes parents étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté.
--------------------------------------------------------------------------	---------------------------------------------------------------	----------------	----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

___ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Je me sentais _____ lorsque j'étais puni(e) par mes parents.

1	2	3	4	5
Très bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur et ils m'aimaient.	Passablement bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur	Ni bien ni mal	Un peu mal parce qu'ils étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté	Très mal parce que mes parents étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté.

___ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Je me sentais _____ lorsqu'il m'arrivait de pleurer parce que mes parents m'avaient fait mal (physiquement ou verbalement).

1	2	3	4	5
Très bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur et ils m'aimaient.	Passablement bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur	Ni bien ni mal	Un peu mal parce qu'ils étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté	Très mal parce que mes parents étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté.

___ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Je me sentais _____ lorsque mes parents me faisaient me sentir mal parce que je ne faisais pas ce qu'ils voulaient.

1	2	3	4	5
Très bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur et ils m'aimaient.	Passablement bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur	Ni bien ni mal	Un peu mal parce qu'ils étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté	Très mal parce que mes parents étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté.

_____ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Je me sentais _____ lorsque mes parents m'obligeaient à faire quelque chose que je ne voulais pas faire.

1	2	3	4	5
Très bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur et ils m'aimaient.	Passablement bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur	Ni bien ni mal	Un peu mal parce qu'ils étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté	Très mal parce que mes parents étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté.

_____ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Je me sentais _____ lorsque mes parents exerçaient de la pression émotionnelle sur moi quand je ne faisais pas ce qu'ils voulaient.

1	2	3	4	5
Très bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur et ils m'aimaient.	Passablement bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur	Ni bien ni mal	Un peu mal parce qu'ils étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté	Très mal parce que mes parents étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté.

_____ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Je me sentais _____ lorsque j'avais l'impression que mes parents n'étaient pas fiers de moi.

1	2	3	4	5
Très bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur et ils m'aimaient.	Passablement bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur	Ni bien ni mal	Un peu mal parce qu'ils étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté	Très mal parce que mes parents étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté.

_____ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Je me sentais _____ lorsque je n'obéissais pas à mes parents.

1	2	3	4	5
Très bien	Passablement bien	Ni bien ni mal	Un peu mal	Très mal
Parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur et ils m'aimaient.	Parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur		Parce qu'ils étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté	Parce que mes parents étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté.

___ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Partie 6

Je me sentais ___ lorsque mes parents choisissaient mes amis(es).

1	2	3	4	5
Très bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur et ils m'aimaient.	Passablement bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur	Ni bien ni mal	Un peu mal parce qu'ils étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté	Très mal parce que mes parents étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté.

___ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Je me sentais ___ lorsque mes parents m'obligeaient à rencontrer des personnes que je ne voulais pas fréquenter.

1	2	3	4	5
Très bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur et ils m'aimaient.	Passablement bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur	Ni bien ni mal	Un peu mal parce qu'ils étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté	Très mal parce que mes parents étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté.

___ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Je me sentais ___ lorsque mes parents ne me laissaient pas aller à la maison de ma/mon meilleur(e) ami(e).

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

Très bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur et ils m'aimaient.	Passablement bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur	Ni bien ni mal	Un peu mal parce qu'ils étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté	Très mal parce que mes parents étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté.
--------------------------------------------------------------------------	---------------------------------------------------------------	----------------	----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

___ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Je me sentais ___ lorsque mes parents ne me laissaient pas avoir d'amis (es) de mon âge.

1	2	3	4	5
Très bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur et ils m'aimaient.	Passablement bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur	Ni bien ni mal	Un peu mal parce qu'ils étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté	Très mal parce que mes parents étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté.

___ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Je me sentais ___ lorsque j'étais seul(e) à l'école parce que je n'avais pas eu la possibilité de rencontrer des personnes de mon âge à l'extérieur de l'école.

1	2	3	4	5
Très bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur et ils m'aimaient.	Passablement bien parce que mes parents voulaient mon bonheur	Ni bien ni mal	Un peu mal parce qu'ils étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté	Très mal parce que mes parents étaient contrôlant et ils ne voulaient pas accepter ma volonté.

___ Cochez si l'énoncé ne s'applique pas à vous.

Selon vous, où vos parents sont-ils situés sur le niveau du contrôle et d'autorité parental.

1	2	3	4	5
Très faible	un peu	Moyen	Assez	Très fort
Mes parents n'étaient pas contrôlant ou sévères à mon égard	Mes parents étaient un peu contrôlant et sévères à mon égard.	Mes parents étaient moyennement contrôlant et sévères.	Mes parents étaient assez contrôlant et sévères à mon égard.	Mes parents étaient très contrôlant et sévères à mon égard.

Où situerez-vous votre moyenne cumulative à l'école primaire sur cette échelle?

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

Très faible	Faible	Moyen	Fort	Très Fort
Plusieurs cours étaient échoués.	Mes notes étaient en dessous de la moyenne de la classe	Mes notes étaient aux alentours de la moyenne de la classe	Mes notes étaient en haut de la moyenne de la classe.	Mes notes étaient très élevés et j'étais dans les premiers de classe.

Quelle était votre moyenne cumulative à l'école primaire?

_____ %

Où situerez-vous votre moyenne cumulative à l'école secondaire sur cette échelle?

1	2	3	4	5
Très faible	Faible	Moyen	Fort	Très Fort
Plusieurs cours étaient échoués.	Mes notes étaient en dessous de la moyenne de la classe	Mes notes étaient aux alentours de la moyenne de la classe	Mes notes étaient en haut de la moyenne de la classe.	Mes notes étaient très élevées et j'étais dans les premiers de classe.

Quelle était votre moyenne cumulative à l'école secondaire?

_____ %

Merci beaucoup!

Appendix G

English version of Rosenberg's Self-Esteem inventory

Appendix H

French version of Rosenberg's Self-Esteem inventory

Questionnaire d'attitude (S.E.)

Pour les questions suivantes, indiquez à quel point vous êtes d'accord avec chacun des énoncés suivants en indiquant le nombre correspondant à la réponse de votre choix sur l'échelle suivante.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Entièrement						Pas du tout
d'accord						d'accord
1. Je pense que je suis une personne de valeur, au moins autant que les autres.						<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Je pense que j'ai un certain nombre de bonnes qualités						<input type="checkbox"/>
3. A tout prendre, je suis porté(e) à croire que je suis un(e) raté(e).						<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Je suis capable de faire des choses aussi bien que n'importe qui.						<input type="checkbox"/>
5. J'ai l'impression que je n'ai pas grand-chose pour lequel être content(e) de moi.						<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Je m'aime et je m'accepte comme je suis.						<input type="checkbox"/>
7. En général, je suis satisfait(e) de moi-même.						<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Je souhaiterais avoir plus de respect pour moi-même, m'accepter davantage que je ne le fais présentement.						<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Parfois, je me sens très inutile.						<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Parfois, je pense que je ne suis pas bon(ne) à grand-chose.						<input type="checkbox"/>
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Appendix K

English version of self-confidence scale

ATTITUDE SCALE

Indicate how much you agree with each of the following statements by circling the appropriate number on the scale.

	Do not agree at all	Somewhat agree				Completely agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. _____	I have come to have doubts about my ability to succeed in life.					
2. _____	I have sometimes given up on doing something because I thought I didn't have the ability to succeed.					
3. _____	I do not share my ideas with others very often because I question their values and I am afraid the others might make fun of me.					
4. _____	I don't worry when I meet new people. I am interesting and there is no reason for them not to like me.					
5. _____	I trust myself when I have to anticipate and solve a future problem.					
6. _____	I feel that something bad may happen if I do not make some changes in my behaviours or life.					
7. _____	Nobody can make me change my beliefs when I hold them strongly.					
8. _____	I have a tendency to give up easily when I face difficult problems.					
9. _____	I am confident of performing well when I try a new sport or physical activity.					
10. _____	I am afraid of making a mistake when I have to make quick decisions.					
11. _____	I am sure of success when I pursue important goals.					
12. _____	I feel I can make a good impression when I have to.					
13. _____	I am not sure I can face emergency situations.					
14. _____	I lack confidence when I am in a new and unknown situation.					
15. _____	I feel comfortable when I have to take the initiative and act independently of others.					
16. _____	I prefer to consult with other people when I have to make important decisions.					
17. _____	When I am done with a task, I often wonder if I have done it right.					
18. _____	I can do anything I want to do because I have confidence in myself.					

Appendix L

French version of self-confidence questionnaire

ÉCHELLE Confiance en soi

Pour les questions suivantes, dites à quel point vous êtes d'accord avec chacun des énoncés suivants en indiquant le chiffre correspondant à la réponse de votre choix sur l'échelle suivante.

1	3	7
Pas du tout d'accord	Moyennement d'accord	Entièrement d'accord
1. Il m'arrive d'avoir des doutes sur mes habiletés à réussir dans la vie.		<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Il m'est arrivé d'abandonner une activité parce que je pensais ne pas avoir assez d'habiletés pour la réussir.		<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Je n'échange pas beaucoup avec les autres car je doute de mes opinions et j'ai peur qu'ils se moquent de moi.		<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Je ne suis pas inquiet-e quand je rencontre de nouvelles personnes. Je me sens digne d'intérêt et il n'y a pas de raison pour qu'ils ne m'aiment pas.		<input type="checkbox"/>
5. J'ai confiance en moi quand je dois prévoir et régler un problème futur.		<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Je sens que je pourrais échouer si je ne fais pas certains changements dans mes comportements ou dans ma vie.		<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Personne ne peut me faire changer mes croyances quand j'y crois fortement.		<input type="checkbox"/>
8. J'ai tendance à abandonner facilement quand je fais face à des problèmes difficiles.		<input type="checkbox"/>
		<input type="checkbox"/>

9. Je suis confiant-e de bien réussir quand j'essaie un nouveau sport ou une nouvelle activité physique

10. J'ai peur de me tromper quand je dois prendre des décisions rapides.

☐

11. Je suis sûr-e de réussir quand je tente d'atteindre des buts importants.

☐

12. Je me sens capable de faire bonne impression quand il le faut.

☐

13. Je ne suis pas sûr-e de pouvoir faire face aux situations d'urgence.

☐

14. Je doute de mes aptitudes quand je me retrouve dans une situation nouvelle et inconnue.

☐

15. Je me sens à l'aise quand je dois prendre des initiatives et agir indépendamment des autres.

☐

16. Je préfère consulter d'autres individus quand je dois fournir un jugement consciencieux et sage.

☐

17. Après avoir terminé une tâche, il m'arrive de me demander si je l'ai réussie.

☐

18. Je peux faire tout ce que j'ai envie car j'ai confiance en moi.

☐

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Appendix M

English version of the psychological health questionnaire

BEP

Read carefully each statement and indicate the number that corresponds to the way you felt about yourself in the last **6 months**. Do not hesitate to write the number in the corresponding square. (ex. nos. 2, 3, 5, ou 6).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Never						Very often
1. Feel low in energy or slowed down							<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Feel faint or dizzy							<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Have your heart pound or race when not physically Active							<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Have trouble concentrating							<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Feel hopeless about the future							<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Fell lonely							<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Have your mind go blank							<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Lose sexual interest or pleasure							<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Sweat when not working hard or overheated							<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Feel downhearted or blue							<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Feel tense or keyed up							<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Lose your temper							<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Have an upset or sour stomach							<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Feel bored or have little interest in things							<input type="checkbox"/>

- | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 15. Notice your hands trembling | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 16. Feel fearful or afraid | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 17. Have trouble remembering things | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 18. Have trouble getting to sleep or straying asleep | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 19. Cry easily or feel like crying | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 20. Have trouble getting your breath | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21. Have a poor appetite | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 22. Have to avoid certain things, places, activities because they frighten you..... | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 23. Feel nervous or shaky inside | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 24. Have any thoughts about possibly ending your life | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 25. Feel critical of others | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 26. Feel easily annoyed or irritated | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 27. Get angry over things that are not too important | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 28. Have difficulty making decisions | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 29. Have tightness or tension in your neck, back, or other muscles | <input type="checkbox"/> |

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*Appendix N**French version of psychological health questionnaire*

Échelle du bien-être psychologique

Lisez attentivement chaque phrase et indiquez le numéro de l'échelle qui reflète le mieux comment vous vous sentez depuis les derniers six mois. N'hésitez pas à utiliser tous les numéros de l'échelle (ex. nos. 2, 3, 5, ou 6). L'échelle est définie de la manière suivante

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jamais						Très souvent
1. Vous êtes-vous senti(e) ralenti(e) ou avez-vous manqué d'énergie?						<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Avez-vous eu des étourdissements ou l'impression que vous alliez vous évanouir?						<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Avez-vous senti que votre cœur battait vite ou fort, sans avoir fait d'effort physique?						<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Avez-vous eu des difficultés à vous concentrer?						<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Vous êtes-vous senti(e) désespéré(e) en pensant à l'avenir?						<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Vous êtes-vous senti(e) seul(e)?						<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Avez-vous eu des blancs de mémoire?						<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Avez-vous perdu intérêt ou plaisir dans votre vie sexuelle?						<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Avez-vous transpiré sans avoir travaillé fort ou avoir eu trop chaud?						<input type="checkbox"/>

- | | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 10. Vous êtes-vous senti(e) découragé(e) ou avez-vous eu les bleus? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 11. Vous êtes-vous senti(e) tendu(e) ou sous pression? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 12. Vous êtes-vous mis(e) en colère contre quelqu'un ou quelque chose? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 13. Avez-vous eu l'estomac dérangé ou senti des brûlements d'estomac? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 14. Vous êtes-vous senti(e) ennuyé(e) ou peu intéressé(e) par les choses? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 15. Avez-vous remarqué que vos mains tremblaient? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 16. Avez-vous ressenti des peurs ou des craintes? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 17. Avez-vous eu des difficultés à vous souvenir des choses? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 18. Avez-vous eu des difficultés à vous endormir ou à rester endormi(e)? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 19. Avez-vous pleuré facilement ou vous êtes-vous senti(e) sur le point de pleurer? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 20. Avez-vous eu de la difficulté à reprendre votre souffle? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21. Avez-vous manqué d'appétit? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 22. Avez-vous dû éviter des endroits, des activités ou des choses parce que cela vous faisait peur? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 23. Vous êtes-vous senti(e) nerveux(se) ou agité(e) intérieurement? | <input type="checkbox"/> |

24. Avez-vous pensé que vous pourriez mettre fin à vos jours?	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. Avez-vous eu envie de critiquer les autres?	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. Vous êtes-vous senti(e) facilement contrarié(e) ou irritable?	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. Vous êtes-vous fâché(e) pour des choses sans importance?	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. Avez-vous eu des difficultés à prendre des décisions?	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. Avez-vous eu des tensions ou des raideurs dans votre cou, votre dos ou d'autres muscles?	<input type="checkbox"/>
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Appendix O

Frequency table of gender differences

Table 4

Representation of gender differences in the sample population

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Variable	Men	77	20.3	21.3	21.3
	Woman	284	74.9	78.7	100.0
	Total	361	95.3	100.0	