

The Relationship Between High School Students' Self-Compassion and Perceptions of
Parental Involvement

By

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A Thesis Submitted in
Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

Education Specialist in School Psychology
School Psychology Graduate Program

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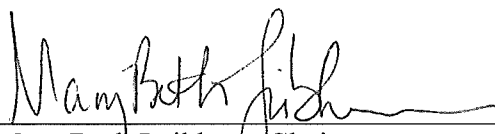
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May, 2018

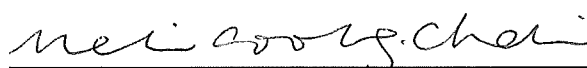
Graduate Studies

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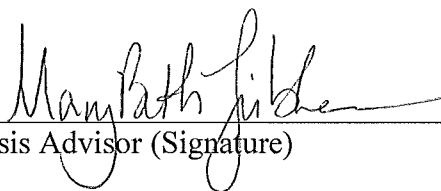
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The University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire, 2018
Under the Supervision of Dr. Mary Beth Leibham

This study examined the relationship between high school students' self-reported levels of self-compassion and perceived parental involvement. Self-compassion is defined as the ability to be supportive and understanding towards oneself during instances of failures. Self-compassion is an important coping skill because of the likelihood that everyone will experience disappointments at some point in their life. The development of self-compassion may be associated with parenting behaviors such as parental involvement and over-parenting. Parental involvement refers to developmentally appropriate assistance in a child's life, while over-parenting refers to developmentally inappropriate assistance. The results from this study did not reveal a significant relationship between self-compassion and parental involvement. Limitations of this study, as well as suggestions for future research, are addressed.


Thesis Advisor (Signature) 5/17/18
Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I would like to thank my thesis advisor, Dr. Mary Beth Leibham for her continuous support in the planning, executing, and writing of this thesis. I would not have completed this thesis before leaving campus without her help. I would like to thank her for all of the time she spent meeting with me, answering questions, and reading over my work and helping me improve my writing.

I would also like to thank my colleagues and Drs. Mary Beth Tusing, Melissa Coolong-Chaffin, and Michael Axelrod for their support and encouragement throughout this process.

I would also like to express my gratitude to my practicum supervisor, Jessica Arnold, for helping me collect my thesis data. This thesis would not be complete at this time without her help.

Finally, I would like to thank my close friends and family for always supporting me throughout my schooling and believing in me.

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The Relationship Between High School Students' Self-Compassion and Perceptions of Parental Involvement

Parenting Styles

Numerous studies have linked parenting styles with children's behavioral, cognitive, and socioemotional development (Baumrind, 1965, 1991; Grolnick, 2009; LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011; Locke et al., 2012). There are four general parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful/uninvolved) and these parenting styles are differentiated by varying degrees of demandingness/control and responsiveness/warmth (Baumrind, 1966; Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Demandingness/control is defined as setting high expectations for behavior, monitoring behavior, enforcing punishment, and being involved in activities (Pinquart, 2016).

Responsiveness/warmth is defined as being accepting, nurturing, sensitive, and supportive (Pinquart, 2016).

Authoritative parenting encompasses both high demandingness and high responsiveness. Authoritative parents have high expectations for their children, they make decisions with their children through parental reason and power, and they encourage independence (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Authoritarian parenting is characterized by high demandingness and low responsiveness. Authoritarian parents value respect for authority, are obedience oriented, and expect their orders to be followed without justification or bargaining (Baumrind, 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). They do not negotiate with their children. Permissive parenting is characterized by low demandingness and high responsiveness. Permissive parents consult with their children about decisions and give explanations for rules, but they do not enforce rules or exercise

much control over their children. Finally, neglectful/uninvolved parenting is defined as low demandingness and low responsiveness. Neglectful/uninvolved parents tend not to set or enforce rules, are inconsistently involved in their children's lives, and often have little knowledge of what their children are doing.

Children with authoritative parents tend to be more independent, mature, responsible, self-confident, and have higher self-esteem (Baumrind, 1966; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). In various studies, adolescents who characterized their parents as authoritative displayed significantly higher levels of academic competence, lower levels of problem behavior, and higher levels of psychosocial development in comparison to adolescents from authoritarian, permissive, or neglectful families (Lamborn et al., 1991; Pinquart, 2016). Baumrind's (1991) study found that adolescents from authoritarian homes were more likely to develop internalizing problem behavior (e.g., disruptive emotional responses such as intense irritability) and may be less independent. Authoritarian parenting is also associated with lower social competence with peers, low self-esteem, and external locus of control (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Permissive (or indulgent) parenting has been associated with childhood outcomes of impulsivity, aggression, and lacking independence or the ability to take responsibility (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Researchers found that adolescents of permissive parents reported greater social competence in comparison to adolescents of authoritarian parents, but adolescents of permissive parents were more likely to report more school misconduct, drug use, and somatic symptoms (Lamborn et al., 1991). Adolescents of neglectful parents reported the poorest outcomes of psychosocial development, academic competence, problem behavior, and internalizing behaviors (e.g., anxiety, tension,

depression) in comparison to adolescents from all other parenting styles (Lamborn et al., 1991). The adolescents who reported neglectful families were significantly worse on each of the outcomes mentioned previously in comparison to the authoritative households. Interestingly, the researchers found that adolescents in the neglectful families were not significantly different from adolescents in the authoritarian households on outcome variables related to self-confidence, nor were they significantly different from adolescents in the permissive households regarding behavioral problems, engagement in school, self-reliance, or somatic symptoms (Lamborn et al., 1991).

Over-parenting

A newer area of research within the context of parenting styles has focused on the concept of over-parenting. Over-parenting is a comprehensive term that includes many types of parenting styles such as helicopter parenting, lawnmower parenting, concerted cultivation, etc. Most often, over-parenting involves both high demandingness and high responsiveness and is characterized by developmentally inappropriate assistance to children and adolescents. Many times, parents engaging in over-parenting are providing developmentally inappropriate assistance to their children in an attempt to improve their children's academic or personal success (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011; Locke et al., 2016; Segrin et al., 2013). Behaviors involved in over-parenting include excessive parental monitoring, making decisions that the child is capable of making, and extreme levels of communication with the child and/or the child's teachers. Over-parenting has been associated with negative outcomes in young adults including social anxiety, reduced life skills, lower levels of resilience, reduced self-efficacy, lower well-being, and a sense of entitlement (Bradley-Geist & Olson-Buchanan, 2014; Kouros et al., 2017; Locke et al.,

2012). Additionally, over-parenting is related to children's inability to develop autonomy in academic settings (Locke et al., 2012). Simply put, researchers argue that over-parenting prevents children from experiencing opportunities to help them become more autonomous and resilient (Locke et al., 2012).

Authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles share similar traits with over-parenting (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011). Parents who utilize authoritarian parenting styles are similar to parents who engage in over-parenting in that both parents are highly involved in their children's decision-making and daily experiences. However, parents exhibiting over-parenting may take even *more* responsibility for solving a problem for their child compared to authoritarian parents. Parents demonstrating over-parenting also take more responsibility than authoritarian parents for preventing failure or aversive outcomes for their children. In doing so, these parents often prevent their children from learning how to solve problems or confront challenges. When parents take on the responsibility of solving their children's problems or preventing any challenges for their children, they potentially delay their children's development of independence or autonomy (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011; Reed et al., 2016).

Over-parenting is also similar to the authoritative parenting style because both the parents who practice authoritative parenting and those who engage in over-parenting exhibit assertiveness and the use of reason with their children (Baumrind, 1966). However, researchers find that parents who over-parent are invasive in *specific* areas of their children's lives, such as education and athletics, because they believe it is advantageous for their children (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011). Parents demonstrating over-parenting may be appropriately involved in certain areas of their child's life, but

they often become invasive with their child's education and/or athletic paths. In summary, parents who over-parent surpass authoritative and authoritarian parents in the degree of intrusiveness in academics, hindering their children's ability to gain self-sufficiency.

Parental Involvement and Over-parenting

Parental involvement (also known as autonomy support) is defined as developmentally or contextually appropriate engagement and participation in a child's life (Bradley-Geist & Olson-Buchanan, 2014; Reed et al, 2016). The distinction between parental involvement and over-parenting has to do with the degree of behavior exhibited and how typical the behavior is considered in society. For example, parental involvement includes reading over a child's paper after the child asks their parent to proofread. Over-parenting might involve a parent asking to read every paper their child writes or going as far as writing their child's paper for them to ensure a decent grade. Parental involvement is positively associated with school achievement and socioemotional development, but too much parental involvement (over-parenting) is negatively associated with young adults' school engagement and well-being (Padilla-Walker & Nelson, 2012; Schiffrin et al., 2014).

Positive parental involvement is considered important for child development and academic success (Pomerantz et al., 2007; Schiffrin et al., 2014). Parental involvement facilitates healthy development, including positive academic, emotional, and social outcomes such as positive peer relationships and few behavior problems at school (Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009; Schiffrin et al., 2014). High levels of maternal involvement have also been associated with more prosocial behaviors and hope among adolescents, and

parental involvement has been linked to children's well-being (Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009). Previous research also demonstrated that parental involvement was positively related to student achievement (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005; Locke et al., 2016). Additionally, developmentally-appropriate parental involvement was associated with positive student outcomes across elementary, middle, and high school years (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005). However, other studies have demonstrated that certain parenting techniques have detrimental impacts on children over the course of development and there is a certain point in development where parental involvement stops benefitting children (Locke et al., 2016; Schiffrin et al., 2014).

Parental involvement and over-parenting have also been explored in college student populations. Bradley-Geist and Olson-Buchanan (2014) explored the differences in college experiences of students who reported parents with over-parenting traits compared to students who reported parents exhibiting more appropriate parental involvement traits. They found that over-parenting was associated with lower self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is defined as one's belief in one's ability to succeed in specific situations or accomplishing tasks. On the other hand, typical parental involvement was associated with increased self-efficacy and more frequent intentions to go to graduate school. Not surprisingly, over-parenting was more likely among the students who lived at home with their parents during college compared to those students who lived outside of their parental unit (Bradley-Geist & Olson-Buchanan, 2014). Other researchers have also explored over-parenting and parental involvement as they related to general self-efficacy and found that over-parenting was negatively related to self-efficacy while parental involvement was positively related to self-efficacy, life satisfaction, and physical health

(Reed et al., 2016).

In addition to the college setting, over-parenting has also been examined within a workplace context (Bradley-Geist & Olson-Buchanan, 2014). It was hypothesized that over-parenting would be significantly related to maladaptive responses to workplace scenarios and the results supported this hypothesis. Maladaptive responses included endorsing solutions that placed the blame on others rather than taking responsibility for oneself. Researchers found that over-parenting was associated with maladaptive workplace responses, and the relationship was predicted by self-efficacy. Low self-efficacy predicted the relationship between over-parenting and maladaptive workplace responses (e.g., placing the blame on others or relying on others rather than taking responsibility; Bradley-Geist & Olson-Buchanan, 2014).

Over-parenting and young adults' well-being have been examined in multiple studies (Kouros et al., 2017; LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011). The psychological aspect of well-being was assessed in one study, and it was measured using the eudemonic well-being measure (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011; Ryff, 1989). Eudemonic well-being measures autonomy, positive relations with others, environmental mastery, personal growth, purpose in life, and self-acceptance (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011). Another study (Kouros et al., 2017) assessed general well-being utilizing the well-being subscale from the Inventory for Depression and Anxiety Symptoms (IDAS; Watson et al., 2007). In both studies, college students who reported that their parents engaged in over-parenting had lower scores of overall well-being and also felt more negatively about themselves (Kouros et al., 2017; LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011). One study found over-parenting related to lower levels of well-being for females only (Kouros et al., 2017).

Additionally, Kouros et al. (2017) found that parental involvement was related to higher well-being. These studies also found that students who perceived their parents as over-parenting indicated higher levels of dysphoria and social anxiety, were more likely to be medicated for anxiety and/or depression and to take pain pills without a prescription (Kouros et al., 2017; LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011). Contrary to the over-parenting results, parental involvement was related to less social anxiety and lower dysphoria (Kouros et al., 2017).

A final area in which over-parenting has been examined is that of homework completion. Using a scale that assessed beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors that can contribute to over-parenting, Locke et al. (2016) predicted that higher scores on the scale would be associated with increased likelihood of endorsing the beliefs that homework is in part a teacher's and parent's responsibility. The hypothesis was supported in that parents who scored higher on the over-parenting scale reported more responsibility for themselves and the teachers in regard to their child completing homework. Ultimately, over-parenting was associated with the assumption that parents and teachers are more responsible for homework completion.

Self-compassion

Self-compassion, a relatively new construct being examined in psychological research, involves "being open to and aware of one's own suffering, offering kindness and understanding towards oneself, desiring the self's well-being, taking a nonjudgmental attitude toward one's inadequacies and failures, and framing one's own experience in light of the common human experience" (Neff et al., 2005, p.264). Simply put, it is an adaptive coping mechanism that involves being kind to oneself after setbacks or instances

of failure (Neff, 2003a). Self-compassion entails three components: self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness (Neff, 2003b). Self-kindness involves extending kindness and understanding to oneself rather than judgment or self-criticism. Common humanity involves viewing one's experiences as similar to the experiences of all humans rather than feelings of isolation. Finally, mindfulness involves keeping one's painful thoughts and feelings balanced rather than over-identifying with those feelings and becoming swept away by them.

Self-compassion has been linked with mental health and well-being among adolescents and young adults (Bluth et al., 2017; Hall et al., 2013; Neff & McGehee, 2010). More specifically, self-compassion has been negatively correlated with depression and anxiety and positively correlated with feelings of social connectedness and greater life satisfaction (Bluth et al., 2017; Neff & McGehee, 2010; Neff et al., 2005). The relationship between self-compassion and anxiety/depression symptoms differed across age and between genders. When examining for age and gender differences in self-compassion, it has been found that women had slightly lower levels of self-compassion compared to men, and self-compassion levels were similar across all ages for males but differed across age groups for females (Bluth et al., 2017; Neff et al., 2005). Older females reported lower levels of self-compassion than younger females (Bluth et al., 2017). Self-compassion was similarly associated with lower anxiety levels for males and females at younger ages, but it differed for the older adolescent age group. In the older adolescent age group, self-compassion was associated with lower anxiety levels to a greater extent among males compared to females.

Self-compassion has also been examined within the context of academic settings,

particularly as it relates to academic motivation. Neff et al. (2005) found that self-compassion was positively associated with mastery goals and perceived competence, and negatively associated with performance-approach goals and performance-avoidance goals. In other words, students who reported higher levels of self-compassion were more likely to view failure as a learning opportunity, while students who reported lower levels of self-compassion had a tendency to avoid situations of potential failure. Self-compassion was not related to grade point average. The researchers also assessed the link between self-compassion and achievement goals *after* a perceived academic failure to replicate the findings from above in a more realistic context. Consistent with the first findings, self-compassion was positively related to mastery goals and negatively related to performance-avoidance goals after a perceived academic failure.

Additionally, self-compassion was related to more adaptive coping strategies when confronted with academic failure. Neff et al. (2005) did not find a difference in self-compassion levels of students who perceived their exam grade as a failure and those who did not. However, their findings replicated and confirmed the idea that self-compassionate individuals are more kind to themselves when they fail, and they are more aware that failure is a natural part of life. Self-compassionate people see failure as a method to learn and to grow rather than worrying that failure is part of their identity. Researchers have also looked more specifically at the coping strategies involved in self-compassion (Karanika & Hogg, 2015). Self-compassion likely entails a more adaptive form of self-acceptance compared to self-esteem, and self-acceptance plays an important role in how people cope with problems. Different coping strategies were examined in their relationship to self-compassion. Individuals who used a common humanity strategy

(comparing oneself to others in similar situations) acknowledged their suffering and personal failure as part of a shared experience by comparing themselves to people similar to or worse off. People who balanced an external locus of control and internal locus of control (mindfulness) coping strategy were able to balance their feelings without suppressing or exaggerating those feelings. In summary, the study found that coping strategies that exemplified self-compassion rather than self-esteem were more helpful and exhibited greater emotional balance (Karanika & Hogg, 2015). The most self-compassionate coping strategies involved unconditional self-worth and non-threatening comparisons.

The Current Study

Over-parenting refers to a developmentally inappropriate level of parental monitoring of children's behaviors, and it has been associated with children's failure to develop self-sufficiency in academic settings, reduced self-efficacy, and lower well-being (Bradley-Geist & Olson-Buchanan, 2014; Kouros et al., 2017; Locke et al., 2012). It is not a practice that begins in college (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011), but rather, likely begins in early childhood and continues through elementary, middle, and high school. Given that over-parenting often entails removing challenges and obstacles from children's/adolescents' lives, it is possible that children who experience over-parenting have fewer adaptive coping mechanisms since they have had little exposure to challenging situations. Further, it is possible that minimal exposure to challenging situations prevents someone from practicing the skills involved in self-compassion, namely self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness. For this reason, the current study explored the link between self-compassion and over-parenting, with the expectation

that over-parenting and self-compassion are inversely related.

In addition to the exploring the link between over-parenting and self-compassion, the current study also explored the link between parental involvement and self-compassion. Parental involvement has been associated with increased self-efficacy and higher well-being. Therefore, it was hypothesized that parental involvement would be associated with higher levels of self-compassion since involved parents support their children without hindering the development of autonomy.

Method

Participants

The initial sample of participants included 32 adolescents (50% female; 97% 18 years old) from a small, rural high school in the Midwest. A total of 25 (52% female) participants provided usable data by the end of the study and were included in final analyses. All participants were 18 years old and self-identified as heterosexual. This sample represented the ethnic demographics of the school population. The ethnic breakdown of the school population was 97% White, 2% Asian, and 1% Black. The free and reduced lunch status of the district was 38%.

Materials

Self-compassion. Participants completed the 26-item *Self-Compassion Scale (SCS;* Neff, 2003a; see Appendix A). The scale includes 6 subscales: self-kindness (5 items), self-judgment (5 items), common humanity (4 items), isolation (4 items), mindfulness (4 items), and over-identification (4 items). Sample items include “I try to be loving towards myself when I'm feeling emotional pain” and “When I fail at something important to me I become consumed by feelings of inadequacy.” (1 = *almost never* to 5 = *almost always*; α

= .92). Three subscales were reverse coded for data analysis because they were negatively worded: self-judgment, isolation, over-identification. The SCS was summed and then divided by the number of items to compute an average SCS score.

Parental involvement. Participants completed a modified 8-item *Parental Involvement Scale* (Bradley-Geist & Olson-Buchanan, 2014; see Appendix B). Sample items include “How often do your parents/guardians help you with schoolwork (e.g. studying for exams or proof-reading papers)?” and “How often do your parents/guardians ask you about your social life?” (1 = *never* to 5 = *always*; $\alpha = .86$ for the original, 9-item scale). The scale is unidimensional and the items assessed students’ perceptions of involved parenting. One item was omitted from the original scale because the item was not applicable to high school students. This scale was summed and then divided by the number of items to compute an average parental involvement score.

Over-parenting. Participants completed a 5-item *Over-parenting Scale* (Bradley-Geist & Olson-Buchanan, 2014; see Appendix C). Sample items include “My parents/guardians have interfered in my life when I wish they wouldn’t have” and “I sometimes wish my parents/guardians would ‘back off’ and stay out of my business.” (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .83$). The scale is unidimensional and the items assessed students’ perceptions of over-involved parenting. This scale was summed and then divided by the number of items to compute an average over-parenting score.

Procedure

Participants were recruited from a rural high school in the Midwest. All seniors who were 18 years old at the time of the study were invited to participate. A convenience sampling method was used for this study. Students who participated in the study

completed an anonymous online survey during their senior advisory period. After initial demographic questions, participants completed the self-compassion, parental involvement, and over-parenting scales. The survey was estimated to take about 20 minutes to complete. Each student completed the same survey through Qualtrics with the exception that the presentation of the parenting scales and *SCS* were counterbalanced.

Results

Internal consistency reliability estimates, means, and standard deviations are reported for all measures included in this study. Correlations among the measures are also reported in Tables 1 and 2. The internal consistency reliability estimates of the three scales were computed using SPSS and the results were adequate (Green & Salkind, 2005; Warner, 2008). The reliability estimates for each scale were: $\alpha = .87$ for the *Parental Involvement Scale*, $\alpha = .91$ for the *Over-parenting Scale*, and $\alpha = .84$ for the *Self-Compassion Scale*.

It was hypothesized that over-parenting would be associated with lower levels of self-compassion. Further, it was also hypothesized that parental involvement would be associated with higher levels of self-compassion. Self-compassion scores were obtained by reverse-coding the negatively worded composites and then averaging a total self-compassion score. Scores on the *SCS* ranged from 2.27 to 4.08 ($M = 3.2$, $SD = .53$). The average overall score of self-compassion was moderate. Participants reported slightly lower levels on the negative subscales of self-compassion, self-judgment ($M = 2.6$, $SD = 0.86$), isolation ($M = 2.5$, $SD = 0.95$), and overidentification ($M = 2.3$, $SD = 0.79$), and slightly higher levels on the positive subscales of self-compassion, self-kindness ($M = 2.9$, $SD = 0.79$), common humanity ($M = 3.0$, $SD = 0.97$), and mindfulness

($M = 2.9$, $SD = 0.83$). Parental involvement and over-parenting scores were obtained by averaging the total score for each scale. Scores on the *Parental Involvement Scale* ranged from 1.25 to 4.63 ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 0.78$), and scores on the *Over-parenting Scale* ranged from 1.00 to 4.80 ($M = 2.5$, $SD = .97$). Examination of histograms indicated that the distribution shapes were approximately normal for all of the variables.

Bivariate correlations were performed to assess whether levels of self-compassion were related to parental involvement and over-parenting. The results did not support the hypotheses. Table 1 presents correlations among the *SCS*, *Parental Involvement*, and *Over-parenting* scales. The results suggested there was not a statistically significant relationship between parental involvement and level of self-compassion, $r(23) = .14$, $p < .50$; Figure 1 presents a scatterplot portraying the relationship. The results also suggested there was not a statistically significant relationship between over-parenting and self-compassion, $r(23) = -.25$, $p < .23$; Figure 2 presents a scatterplot portraying the relationship.

Additional bivariate correlations were performed to assess whether average levels of parental involvement and over-parenting were related to the individual subscales of self-compassion. Table 2 presents correlations among the parenting scales and the subscales of the *Self-Compassion Scale*. Parental involvement was positively correlated with one positive subscale of self-compassion: common humanity, $r(23) = .42$, $p < .05$. Over-parenting was positively correlated with one negative subscale of self-compassion: overidentification, $r(23) = .51$, $p < .01$.

Table 1. Correlations Among Self-Compassion, Parental Involvement, and Over-parenting

	<i>Self-Compassion</i>	<i>Parental Involvement</i>
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Parental Involvement	.15	-
Over-parenting	-.25	.15

Table 2. Correlations Among Parental Involvement, Over-parenting, and the Self-Compassion Subscales

	OP	PI	SC	SC_K	SC_SJ	SC_H	SC_I	SC_M	SC_O
1. Over-parenting (OP)		.15	-.25	.09	.33	.22	.34	-.07	.51**
2. Parental Involvement (PI)	.15		.15	.20	.12	.42*	.14	.21	.04
3. SC_Overall (SC)	-.25	.15		.53**	-.64**	.44*	-.70**	.74**	-.63**
4. SC_Kindness (SC_K)	.09	.20	.53**		.05	.66**	.05	.55**	.12
5. SC_Self-Judgment (SC_SJ)	.33	.12	-.64**	.05		.19	.76**	-.11	.74**
6. SC_Humanity (SC_H)	.22	.42*	.44*	.66*	.19		.18	.56**	.26
7. SC_Isolation (SC_I)	.34	.14	-.70**	.05	.76**	.18		-.30	.74**
8. SC_Mindfulness (SC_M)	-.07	.21	.74**	.55**	-.11	.56**	-.30		-.23
9. SC_Overidentification (SC_O)	.51**	.04	-.63**	.12	.74**	.26	.74**	-.23	

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Figure 1. The Correlation Between Self-Compassion and Parental Involvement

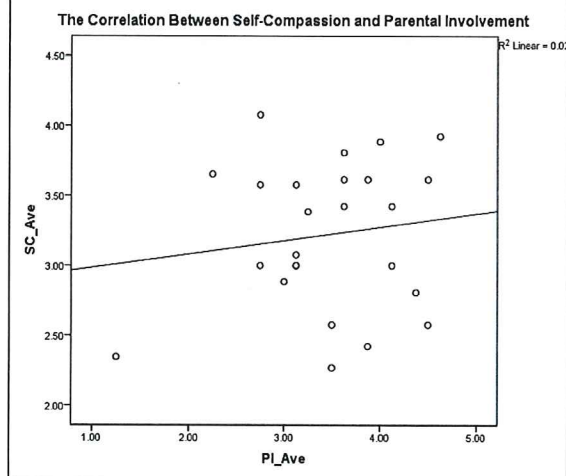
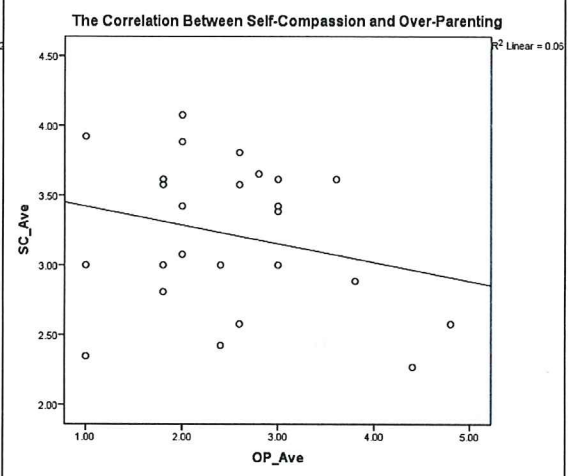


Figure 2. The Correlation Between Self-Compassion and Over-parenting



Discussion

The aim of the study was to investigate the relationships between varying degrees of parental involvement and self-compassion. Over-parenting behaviors can include resolving children's problems for them and preventing children from experiencing difficulties by stepping in and removing obstacles and barriers from their paths. Consequently, these children may have fewer opportunities to practice and develop effective coping mechanisms such as self-compassion. Self-compassion involves being kind to oneself following disappointments or failure (Neff et al., 2005). Therefore, it was hypothesized that over-parenting and parental involvement were related to self-compassion, such that over-parenting is related to lower self-compassion and parental involvement is related to higher self-compassion. The results of the study did not support either hypothesis. Contrary to the hypotheses, over-parenting and parental involvement were not related to self-compassion. However, over-parenting was positively correlated with one negative subscale of self-compassion, overidentification, and parental involvement was positively correlated with one positive subscale of self-compassion, common humanity.

On average, the participants in this study reported a moderate level of self-compassion. Therefore, there is room for growth for self-compassion among the participants in this study. There was a general trend of slightly higher levels of self-compassion on the positive subscales and slightly lower levels of self-compassion on the negative subscales of self-compassion. Participants also reported an overall lower level of over-parenting and a moderate level of parental involvement, on average. If indeed participants reported reliable data and their answers were not impacted by social

desirability, it is reassuring that the participants reported a low level of over-parenting, and it is reassuring that participants reported a moderate level of parental involvement.

Previous research has found that over-parenting was related to lower self-efficacy and overall well-being, while parental involvement was related to higher self-efficacy and overall well-being (Bradley-Geist & Olson-Buchanan, 2014; Kouros et al., 2017; LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011). Over-parenting was also related to increased measures of depression and anxiety symptoms, while parental involvement was related to decreased measures of depression and anxiety symptoms. Depression is related to overidentification and feeling alone and isolated, and overidentification was related to over-parenting in the present study.

Additionally, previous research has found that self-compassion was positively correlated with greater life satisfaction, feelings of social connectedness, and more adaptive coping strategies following academic failures, while self-compassion has been negatively correlated with depression and anxiety (Bluth et al., 2017; Hall et al., 2013; Karanika & Hogg, 2015; Neff & McGehee, 2010; Neff et al., 2005). More adaptive coping strategies following failure is related to common humanity and being able to view failure as something that happens to everybody, and common humanity was related to parental involvement in the present study.

There are a number of limitations of the present study. First, the use of a convenience sampling procedure was a limitation. Random sampling is the best procedure to produce more reliable and generalizable results. Also, the sample size of the study was not sufficient. The intended sample size was a minimum of 30-50 participants to produce sufficient power for analyses. The sample size was too small, which increases

the risk of committing a Type II error, or a false negative. It is possible that the study failed to detect a relationship among the variables when there is actually a relationship among the variables.

The study also only included 18 year olds from one high school, which limits potential generalizability of the data. The data were obtained using self-report methods, and it is possible that many of the participants are unaware of the practice of over-parenting. Participants may not have had an adequate understanding of what constitutes excessive parenting behaviors. Or, it is possible that the participants responded to the self-report measures in a way that presented them in a more favorable light and they did not admit that their parents exhibit over-parenting behaviors. Additionally, the parenting scales utilized have not been widely researched and might have threatened the internal validity of the study. The parenting scale items were developed for college-aged students so the questions may not have been the best measures for high school seniors.

Future research should address the limitations of the present study. Future research should incorporate a minimum of 50 participants to reduce the chance of committing a Type II error. Additionally, participants should be recruited from different schools (rural, suburban, and urban) in order to obtain more reliable and generalizable results. Future research should also incorporate students of broader age range, such as 16-18-year olds rather than simply 18-year olds. Over-parenting is known to exist before students transition to college or the workforce, so it is useful to analyze over-parenting during ages when children start to develop more autonomy during high school years.

Finally, the scale used to measure over-parenting in this study was not originally created for use with high school students. Therefore, the over-parenting scale chosen for

this study might not have represented over-parenting adequately enough for the given population and it is another limitation of this study. Some of the items on the scale might be developmentally appropriate behaviors of parents given the age of the students. Consequently, future studies should address this limitation by developing an over-parenting scale for adolescents.

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Appendix A

Self-Compassion Scale

<u>Subscale</u>	<u>Items</u>
Self-Kindness	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I try to be understanding and patient towards those aspects of my personality I don't like.^[SEP] 2. I'm kind to myself when I'm experiencing suffering. 3. When I'm going through a very hard time, I give myself the caring and tenderness I need.^[SEP] 4. I'm tolerant of my own flaws and inadequacies. 5. I try to be loving towards myself when I'm feeling emotional pain.
Self-Judgment	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. When I see aspects of myself that I don't like, I get down on myself. 7. When times are really difficult, I tend to be tough on myself. 8. I can be a bit cold-hearted towards myself when I'm experiencing suffering.^[SEP] 9. I'm disapproving and judgmental about my own flaws and inadequacies.^[SEP] 10. I'm intolerant and impatient towards those aspects of my personality I don't like.
Common Humanity	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 11. When I feel inadequate in some way, I try to remind myself that feelings of inadequacy are shared by most people.^[SEP] 12. I try to see my failings as part of the human condition. 13. When I'm down and out, I remind myself that there are lots of other people in the world feeling like I am.^[SEP] 14. When things are going badly for me, I see the difficulties as part of life that everyone goes through.
Isolation	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 15. When I fail at something that's important to me I tend to feel alone in my failure.^[SEP] 16. When I think about my inadequacies it tends to make me feel more separate and cut off from the rest of the world.^[SEP] 17. When I'm feeling down I tend to feel like most other people are probably happier than I am.^[SEP] 18. When I'm really struggling I tend to feel like other people must be having an easier time of it.
Mindfulness	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 19. When something upsets me I try to keep my emotions in balance.

	<p>20. When I'm feeling down I try to approach my feelings with curiosity and openness.^[SEP]</p> <p>21. When something painful happens I try to take a balanced view of the situation.^[SEP]</p> <p>22. When I fail at something important to me I try to keep things in perspective.</p>
Over-Identification	<p>23. When something upsets me I get carried away with my feelings.</p> <p>24. When I'm feeling down I tend to obsess and fixate on everything that's wrong.^[SEP]</p> <p>25. When something painful happens I tend to blow the incident out of proportion.^[SEP]</p> <p>26. When I fail at something important to me I become consumed by feelings of inadequacy.</p>

Response scale: almost never, occasionally, about half of the time, fairly often, and almost always

Appendix B

Parental Involvement Scale

1. How often do your parents/guardians ask you about school? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
2. How often do your parents/guardians help you with schoolwork (e.g. studying for exams or proof-reading papers)? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
3. How often do your parents/guardians ask you about your grades? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
4. How often do your parents/guardians ask you about your social life? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
5. How often do your parents/guardians ask you about your job and career plans? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
6. How often do your parents/guardians give you advice or tell you what to do about school? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
7. How often do your parents/guardians give you advice or tell you what to do in your social life? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
8. With regard to your job and future career plans, how often do your parents/guardians give you advice or tell you what to do? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Response scale: never, rarely, sometimes, frequently, and always

Appendix C

Over-parenting Scale

1. I think my parents/guardians are too overly involved in my life.☐
2. I feel like my parents/guardians sometimes smother me with their attention.☐
3. My parents/guardians have interfered in my life when I wish they wouldn't have.☐
4. I sometimes wish my parents/guardians would "back off" and stay out of my business.☐
5. My parents/guardians are too controlling of me and my life.☐

Response scale: strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, strongly agree