ROLE OF PARENTING BEHAVIOURS AND SELF-ESTEEM ON ATTITUDE TOWARDS ANTISOCIAL BEHAVIOURS AMONG ADOLESCENTS IN IDO-OSI EKITI, EKITI STATE.

BY

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CERTIFICATION

I certify that this study was carried out by AJAYI KEMISOLA ENIOLA (PSY\14\2020) of the Department of Psychology, Faculty of Social Sciences, Federal University, Oye Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria, under my supervision.

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DEDICATION

This research project is dedicated to God Almighty, the Supreme Being and ultimate explanation to my existence.

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First and foremost I return all the glory to the Almighty God the giver of my life, Knowledge and wisdom, the creator and finisher of my faith during the odds of my life and he has helped me to commence and complete this course and this project to him all thanks is due.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the prediction of attitude towards anti-social behaviours among adolescents in Ido-Osi Ekiti from parenting behaviours(positive involvement ,supervision and monitoring, positive discipline techniques, consistency in the discipline techniques and corporal punishment). and self-esteem. Ex-post facto research design was adopted in the study. Simple random sampling and convenience sampling was used to select 300 participants of which 280 was fit for data analysis. The study discovered that all dimensions to include parent involvement, positive parenting, poor monitoring supervision, inconsistent discipline and corporal punishment jointly predicted attitude towards anti-social behaviours $F\ (5, 282) = 8.315$; $p<.01$ *with* $R = 0.36$ $R^2 = 0.13$, *Adolescents with high self-esteem* ($X = 36.14$) *were not significantly different in attitude towards crime from those with low self-esteem* ($X = 34.56$), $t = 1.698$; $df = 288$, $p > .05$ *Parental behaviours and self-esteem jointly predicted attitude towards anti-social behaviours* $F\ (6, 281) = 10.071$; $p<.05$ *with* $R = 0.36$ $R^2 = 0.13$. *findings suggests that parents should involve in their children's affairs and reduce level of corporal punishment.*

Word count: 163
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Antisocial behaviour is a broad term utilized in describing negative behaviours especially those that defy the norms of the immediate society. Therefore, the exact description of antisocial behaviour becomes a culture defined concept such that anti-social behaviours are popularly recognized as violations of cultural norms. Human activities are guided by norms which make the concept of antisocial behaviour quite broad, (Macionis, 2000).

Over the years, antisocial behaviour clearly have debatable dimensions especially when categorising individuals involved in anti-social behaviours. The very existence of some categories of people can be troublesome to others. What seem to be the conflicting issues is the establishment of the exact difference between non-conformity and anti-social behaviours. For example, negative cases of rule breaking such as stealing from a convenience store, or driving while intoxicated are different from protesting against a governmental policy. Antisocial behaviours include, but are not limited to the following: armed robbery, theft, rape, cultism, corruption, and examination malpractice, malpractice in banks, advance fee fraud, money laundering, lying, sexual promiscuity, assault and cruelty to others, physical and verbal abuse.

Antisocial behaviour in adolescence is predictive of numerous problems in adulthood, including crime, mental health concerns, substance dependence, and work problems (Moffitt, Caspi, Harrington, & Milne, 2002).because of the personal, economic, and social toll of antisocial behaviour, extensive attention has been directed toward elucidating factors that increase risk for engaging in antisocial behaviour during adolescence. For example, child attributes and contextual variables, including parenting and the broader family ecology, have

received much support as factors in the emergence of conduct problems during middle childhood and the subsequent development of more serious anti-social in adolescence (Campbell, Shaw, & Gilliom, 2000; Dishion & Patterson, 2006; Lahey & Waldman, 2003). In line with a focus on child attributes and contextual mechanisms and the development of antisocial behaviour, the present study examined child dispositions, including sensation seeking, pro sociality, and negative emotionality, and contextual factors, including parental knowledge of adolescent activities and neighbourhood dangerousness, as predictors of antisocial behaviour from early to middle adolescence. Furthermore, a transactional perspective suggests that deviations from normal behaviour are not solely related to factors within the individual or context but, rather, to interactions between child attributes and context (Sameroff, 2000; Sameroff & Mackenzie, 2003).

Depending on the context, child attributes may serve as sources of either vulnerability or resilience in the development of psychopathology (Nigg, 2006). This interactive interplay is particularly salient for antisocial behaviour during the transition to adolescence, because both time outside the home and the seriousness of antisocial behaviour increase during adolescence (Dodge, Coie, & Lynam, 2006). Child dispositions associated with antisocial behaviour, particularly those that may be linked to risky early child temperament and/or later adult personality traits, may be exacerbated when a young adolescent lives in a relatively dangerous neighbourhood or when parents have little knowledge of their adolescent's activities and whereabouts (Lynam et al., 2000).

Numerous studies have examined the role of parenting in the explanation of the course and cause antisocial behaviour especially among adolescents. The highlight of these studies is that several aspects of parents' behaviour are associated with adolescent problem behaviour (Simons & Conger, 2007). These studies, indicate that parental knowledge of adolescents' whereabouts and activities is an important predictor of antisocial behaviour

(Patterson, 1982; Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992).Parental knowledge and behaviour has often been conceptualized as primarily a function of parenting practices, such as parental monitoring (e.g., soliciting information from an adolescent) and parental control (e.g., requiring information prior to granting permission). This means that active parent involvement is a combination of solicitation and control which increases parental knowledge and ultimately acts as a protective factor against poor psychosocial outcomes for adolescents. Parental support is the largest influence on creating preferable behaviour in adolescents. A parent is a model towards their children. Research on modelling has shown that when parents are held in high esteem and are the main sources for reinforcement, their child is more likely to model them (Simons, Whitbeck, Conger, and Conger 1991). If a parent acts in a negative way, the child is more likely to follow their parent's negative attitude. They are also more likely to generalize this attitude to the rest of society. Thus, parents have much influence over their child's behaviour. From birth, a parent will mould and shape behaviours suitable to the norms of society through childrearing and socialization processes. However, there are certain parenting techniques that have a greater impact on a child's behaviours. The largest is parental support (Barnes et al 2006). Parental support is behaviours toward the child, such as praising, encouraging, and giving affection. They show the child that he or she is valued and loved. In multiple studies, it has been found that support from parents bonds the adolescent to institutions and builds their self-control (Barnes et al 2006). This building of self-control will hinder deviant behaviours from forming.

The relationship between anti-social behaviour and self-esteem among adolescents has received renewed attention during the past decade and it is currently a topic of debate among many researchers (Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robins, Moffitt, & Caspi 2005). One side of the argument focused on the 'low self-esteem hypothesis' in which research indicates that an individual who experiences real-world externalizing problems report lower levels of

self-esteem (Fergusson & Horwood 2002). This view suggests that aggression and antisocial behaviour in children are an expression of children's low self-esteem (low self-esteem hypothesis (Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robins, Moffitt, & Caspi 2005). Ostrowsky (2009) suggested that aggression may provide individuals with low self-esteem with an increased sense of power and independence, that aggression may serve as attention seeking behaviour which enhances self-esteem, or that individuals with low self-esteem may externalize blame for their problems and failures to protect themselves against feelings of inadequacy, inferiority, and shame, which leads to aggression towards others (Ostrowsky 2009).The focus on egotism (i.e., favourable self-appraisals) as one cause of violent aggression runs contrary to an entrenched body of wisdom that has long pointed to low self-esteem as the root of violence and other antisocial behaviour. Indeed, if high self-esteem is a cause of violence, then the implications may go beyond the direct concern with interpersonal harm. Many researchers share the opinion that high self-esteem is desirable and adaptive and can even be used as one indicator of good adjustment (Heflbrun, 1981; Kahle, Kulka, & Klingel, 1980; Taylor, 1989; Taylor & Brown, 1988; Whifley, 1983), but this one-sidedly favourable view of egotism would have to be qualified and revised. Unfavourable impressions of oneself may not be an unmitigated good from the perspective of society if they lead to violence.

1.2 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Adolescence is a period of life which many people portrayed as "storm and stress". While the majority of young people can successfully develop to positively functioning individuals, some people are less lucky and may become "social dropouts" such as school dropouts, social deviants or even criminal offenders. As in most world communities, Nigeria is of no exception in experiencing the prominent problem of youth delinquency. Stories such as "13-years-old drug addict seeking help" (The Sun 2012), "teenage girl working as dating

partners and prostitute for tuition fee" (Apple Daily 2013) are just snapshots of everyday lives in this populated country. Despite the slightly decreasing trend of overall youth crime rate reported in the last decade (2004-2013) according to research findings on youths and crimes, the number of young delinquents who aged 16 to 21 being arrested for non-violent crimes such as, shop theft, drug offences, sexual offences, etc. is increasing.

The problem is that more and more individuals are now entering into crime related activities of which even stricter measures to curb these issues do not seem to be fully effective. There seem to be a decline in the positive construct of the adolescent which has effectively interplayed with the environmental issues of inadequate parenting. The problem has so eaten deep into the fabric of the society that the affected population of individuals do not seem to show any form of remorse for the crisis. This means that at a quick rate, more adolescents are developing negative dispositions to the issue of delinquent and antisocial behaviours. These individuals see anti-social behaviour as a normal way of life, driving a desire to continue in that pattern despite the plea from the society against the evils of their actions. For a more potent solution, the society must therefore focus on the construct of the individuals and impose more parenting responsibilities to the preventions and correction of antisocial behaviours. By focusing in the individual, adolescents must be developed to build a better notion of the self and understand the concept of worth attached such that they can say no to situations that warrants it. This is because those adolescent involved in anti-social behaviours have low understanding of they really are and are constantly faced with challenges of personal decision.

It seems that parents are overwhelmed with perceived higher level of parental responsibilities and so neglect important parental interactions with their children. Unconsciously, the children are at the receiving end of the negative consequence of this.

Some of the adverse consequence may include poor decision-making, high level of conformity and low self-esteem among other associated problems.

In line with these research findings, this research purports to answer the following research questions.

I. Does parenting behaviours (positive involvement, supervision and monitoring, positive discipline techniques, consistency in discipline techniques, and corporal punishment). predict attitude towards antisocial behaviours among adolescents in ido-osi, Ekiti-State?

II. Is there a significant difference between adolescents with high self-esteem and adolescents with low self-esteem on attitude towards antisocial behaviours?

III. Does parenting behaviours (positive involvement, supervision and monitoring, positive discipline techniques, consistency in discipline techniques, and corporal punishment). and self-esteem jointly or independently predicts attitude towards antisocial behaviours among adolescents in Ekiti State?

1.3 OBJECTIVE OF STUDY

The major purpose for conducting this study is to examine the role of parenting behaviour and self-esteem on anti-social behaviours among adolescents in Ekiti State.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES ARE:

i To predict attitude towards anti-social behaviours among adolescents in Ekiti State from parenting behaviours (positive involvement, supervision and monitoring, positive discipline techniques, consistency in discipline techniques, and corporal punishment).

ii To examine the differences between adolescents with high self-esteem and adolescents with low self-esteem on attitude towards anti-social behaviours

iii To examine the joint and independent prediction of attitude towards anti-social behaviours among adolescents in Ekiti State from parenting behaviours (positive involvement,

supervision and monitoring, positive discipline techniques, consistency in discipline techniques, and corporal punishment). and self-esteem

1.4 RELEVANCE OF STUDY

This study will contribute to the growing body of knowledge pertaining to understanding the cause and prevention of antisocial behaviours among adolescents and youths. In this regard, researchers will be able understand the impact of variations in parental behaviours and self-esteem on the dispositions towards anti-social behaviour of adolescents. More importantly, the information derived from the research will provide knowledge to parents on how some of their negative attitudes and behaviours negate their children behaviours. The study is therefore important to the field of developmental psychology as the information derived from the research can provide parents with adequate information on building better relationships with their children.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1.1 Attachment Theory

Research by developmental psychologist Mary Ainsworth in the 1960s and 70s underpinned the basic concepts, introduced the concept of the "secure base" and developed a theory of a number of attachment patterns in infants: secure attachment, avoidant attachment and anxious attachment. A fourth pattern, disorganized attachment, was identified later. In the 1980s, the theory was extended to attachment in adults. Other interactions may be construed as including components of attachment behaviour; these include peer relationships at all ages, romantic and sexual attraction and responses to the care needs of infants or the sick and elderly.

To formulate a comprehensive theory of the nature of early attachments, Bowlby explored a range of fields, including evolutionary biology, object relations theory (a branch of psychoanalysis), control systems theory, and the fields of ethology and cognitive psychology. After preliminary papers from 1958 onwards, Bowlby published the full theory in the trilogy Attachment and Loss (1969–82).

Within attachment theory, attachment means an affectionate bond or tie between an individual and an attachment figure (usually a caregiver). Such bonds may be reciprocal between two adults, but between a child and a caregiver these bonds are based on the child's need for safety, security and protection, paramount in infancy and childhood. The theory proposes that children attach to caregivers instinctively, for the purpose of survival and, ultimately, genetic replication. The biological aim is survival and the psychological aim is security. Attachment theory is not an exhaustive description of human relationships, nor is it

synonymous with love and affection, although these may indicate that bonds exist. In child-to-adult relationships, the child's tie is called the "attachment" and the caregiver's reciprocal equivalent is referred to as the "care-giving bond". Infants form attachments to any consistent caregiver who is sensitive and responsive in social interactions with them. The quality of the social engagement is more influential than the amount of time spent. The biological mother is the usual principal attachment figure, but the role can be taken by anyone who consistently behaves in a "mothering" way over a period of time. In attachment theory, this means a set of behaviours that involves engaging in lively social interaction with the infant and responding readily to signals and approaches. Nothing in the theory suggests that fathers are not equally likely to become principal attachment figures if they provide most of the child care and related social interaction. Some infants direct attachment behaviour (proximity seeking) towards more than one attachment figure almost as soon as they start to show discrimination between caregivers; most come to do so during their second year. These figures are arranged hierarchically, with the principal attachment figure at the top. The set-goal of the attachment behavioural system is to maintain a bond with an accessible and available attachment figure. "Alarm" is the term used for activation of the attachment behavioural system caused by fear of danger. "Anxiety" is the anticipation or fear of being cut off from the attachment figure. If the figure is unavailable or unresponsive, separation distress occurs. In infants, physical separation can cause anxiety and anger, followed by sadness and despair. By age three or four, physical separation is no longer such a threat to the child's bond with the attachment figure. Threats to security in older children and adults arise from prolonged absence, breakdown in communication, emotional unavailability or signs of rejection or abandonment.

Significance of attachment patterns

There is an extensive body of research demonstrating a significant association between attachment organizations and children's functioning across multiple domains. Early

insecure attachment does not necessarily predict difficulties, but it is a liability for the child, particularly if similar parental behaviours continue throughout childhood. Compared to that of securely attached children, the adjustment of insecure children in many spheres of life is not as soundly based, putting their future relationships in jeopardy. Although the link is not fully established by research and there are other influences besides attachment, secure infants are more likely to become socially competent than their insecure peers.

Relationships formed with peers influence the acquisition of social skills, intellectual development and the formation of social identity. Classification of children's peer status (popular, neglected or rejected) has been found to predict subsequent adjustment. Insecure children, particularly avoidant children, are especially vulnerable to family risk. Their social and behavioural problems increase or decline with deterioration or improvement in parenting. However, an early secure attachment appears to have a lasting protective function. As with attachment to parental figures, subsequent experiences may alter the course of development. The most concerning pattern is disorganized attachment. About 80% of maltreated infants are likely to be classified as disorganized, as opposed to about 12% found in non-maltreated samples. Only about 15% of maltreated infants are likely to be classified as secure. Children with a disorganized pattern in infancy tend to show markedly disturbed patterns of relationships. Subsequently their relationships with peers can often be characterized by a "fight or flight" pattern of alternate aggression and withdrawal.

Affected maltreated children are also more likely to become maltreating parents. A minority of maltreated children do not, instead achieving secure attachments, good relationships with peers and non-abusive parenting styles. The link between insecure attachment, particularly the disorganized classification, and the emergence of childhood psychopathology is well-established, although it is a non-specific risk factor for future problems, not a pathology or a direct cause of pathology in itself. In the classroom, it appears

that ambivalent children are at an elevated risk for internalizing disorders, and avoidant and disorganized children, for externalizing disorders.

2.1.2 Identity Theory

The identity theory was developed by Burke and Tully in 1977 to explain the development of self-esteem from self-identity. According to these theorist, an identity is a set of meanings that represent the understandings, feelings, and expectations that are applied to the self as an occupant of a social position (Burke & Tully 1977; Stets & Burke 2000). These meanings serve as standards or reference levels in an identity-control system (Burke 1991). There are four main conceptual parts to each identity-control system: the identity standard, the comparator, the output, and the input. Identity standards provide an internal reference for the individual about the meanings and expectations that are to be maintained. Inputs into the system are perceptions of self-relevant meanings in the social environment. The comparator compares these perceptual inputs with meanings contained in the standard. The output of the system is meaningful behaviour that works to alter the situation so that a match between self-relevant perceptions of the situation and meanings contained in the standard is maintained. This is the self-verification process. The normal operation of a role identity (the self-verification process) results in behaviour that produces a match between self-relevant meanings in the situation and the meanings and expectations held in the identity standard. The actions taken to do this constitute the role behaviours of the person occupying the role, and these behaviours enact/create/sustain the social structure in which the role is embedded. Perceptions of the behaviours that are relevant to the identity the individual is seeking to verify thus become relevant to the verification of that identity (Burke & Reitzes 1981). Self-esteem is the ratio of "successes" to "pretensions" implying a relationship between what individuals accomplish and their goals. This pairing is similar to the pairing of self-relevant

perceptions ("successes") and the standard or goal ("pretensions") in identity theory. Put simply, identity theory focuses on the degree to which individuals are able to achieve a match between an identity goal or "ideal" (the identity standard) and perceptions of the environment or the "actual" performance of the self, much like James's focus on the degree to which successes match pretensions. Therefore, self-esteem can be thought of as a direct outcome of successful self-verification. Perceptions of what is "accomplished" or the "actual" are perceptions that arise from three distinct processes related to role performance within groups: reflected appraisals, social comparisons, and self-attributions (Rosenberg 1990).

The first two processes are more strongly related to worth-based self-esteem than efficacy based self-esteem (Gecas 1982). When individuals receive self-verifying feedback within the group (through reflected appraisals and social comparisons), feelings that one is accepted and valued by others within the group are reinforced, increasing worth-based self-esteem (Brown & Lohr 1987; Burke & Stets 1999; Ellison 1993). Indeed, it has been suggested that worth-based self-esteem is most at risk when an individual is faced with possible exclusion from social groups (Leary & Downs 1995). In contrast, efficacy-based self-esteem is more likely to result from self-attributions. When individuals reflect on their behaviour and observe that they have been successful at maintaining a match between situational meanings and identity standards, efficacy-based self-esteem results from such "successful" behaviour (Bandura 1977, 1982; Burke & Stets 1999; Franks & Marolla 1976; Gecas & Schwalbe 1983). For example, if a worker considers that part of her identity as a worker is to strive to maintain low levels of absence from work, she will make sure that she misses as little of work as possible. She may accomplish this by such behaviours as setting an alarm to make sure she gets up on time, taking proper care of her car so that it is a reliable source of transportation to work, and going in on days that she is under the weather. When these behaviours enable her to maintain high levels of attendance at work, she is likely to feel

that she can control the situation around her such that she is able to miss as few of days of work as possible, producing efficacy-based self-esteem. However, if she is unable to regularly attend work because of oversleeping or car troubles, she is likely to feel frustrated that she is unable to control the events around her, decreasing her efficacy-based self-esteem.

Furthermore, if she receives feedback from a superior that acknowledges her high level of attendance at work, she is likely to feel that that her behaviours are valued at work, thereby increasing her worth-based self-esteem. If the superior thinks that her attendance is inadequate, on the other hand, she is likely to feel rejected and unappreciated, reducing her worth-based self-esteem. In this way, self-esteem is gained and lost through self-verification processes. The above processes are related to role performance within a group and suggest that both role performance and group membership are simultaneously relevant and important. For this reason, the verification of role identities within a group should produce both worth-based and efficacy-based self-esteem. While self-verification increases feelings of competency and worth, disruption of the self-verification process has been shown to have negative emotional consequences. Distress in the form of depression and anxiety can result from a disruption in the self-verification process (Burke 1991, 1996; Higgins 1989). Other negative emotions such as jealousy (Ellestad & Stets 1998) and anger (Bartels 1997) have also been identified as resulting from disruption of the self-verification process. Individuals are likely to experience these negative emotions when perceptions of the environment and meanings contained in identity standards do not match, in other words, when the self-verification process is disrupted. When disturbances to self-verification are large, or more persistent, people may extricate themselves from the situation or shed the identity in order to avoid the negative feelings that arise from persistent discrepancies between situational meanings and identity standards. In the interest of maintaining the social structure and interpersonal relationships, however, this possibility must be minimized. Therefore, people

must have resources that can support them through these periods ensuring that negative emotions do not become too overwhelming. Self-esteem seems to be one such resource that functions to maintain individuals and social relationships.

Individuals with high self-esteem are more likely than those with low self-esteem to perceive feedback as consistent with their positive self-views, to work to discredit the source of the feedback, and to access other important aspects of the self to counteract negative feedback (Blaine & Crocker 1993; Spencer, Josephs & Steele 1993; Steele 1988). Others argue that those with high self-esteem have a more stable sense of self and are more stable emotionally, both qualities that provide them an "emotional anchor" (Campbell, Chew & Scratchley 1991). People with high self-esteem appear to have more "cognitive resources" at their disposal, enabling them to deal more effectively with unsatisfactory circumstances (Baumgardner, Kaufman & Levy 1989). Thus, self-esteem has been found to protect the self from "stressors" such as experiences and information that might otherwise prove "harmful" to the self (Longmore & DeMaris 1997; Spencer, Josephs & Steele 1993), distress (Cohen 1959; Coopersmith 1967; Rosenberg 1979), and especially depression (Burke 1991; Pearlin & Lieberman 1979).

Swann (1983) points out that some process acts to sustain individuals as they seek to modify the environment so that feedback verifies the self. When individuals encounter stressors, namely situations in which self-verification is problematic, self-esteem sustains individuals while they work to alter situational meanings in an effort to restore the match between situational meanings and identity standards (Burke 1991, 1996). For example, if an individual has a student identity that implies getting good grades and he or she fails an exam, high self-esteem helps to buffer the depression, anger, or anxiety that he or she might feel as a result of not being able to verify that identity. Over time, the student with high self-esteem will work to alter meanings in the situation by studying harder so that a better grade is earned

on the next exam, thereby bringing meanings in the social situation back to reflect the meanings in the student identity. When self-verification becomes problematic and an individual would normally experience distress, self-esteem should provide a buffer against the negative emotions associated with disruption in self-verification processes. Self-esteem protects the individual from potentially debilitating emotions as they work to re-establish and maintain a match between standards and perceptions. Self-esteem can buffer the individual from such negative effects both directly and indirectly. Not only should self-esteem be associated with higher levels of well-being (direct buffering effect), but self-esteem should also moderate the effects of a lack of self-verification (indirect buffering effect).

2.1.3 Terror Management Theory

Greenberg, Pyszczynski, and Solomon's (1986) Terror Management Theory (TMT) was the first empirically oriented theory to address the question of why people need self-esteem. It posits that people are motivated to pursue positive self-evaluations because self-esteem provided a buffer against the omnipresent potential for anxiety engendered by the awareness of mortality (an awareness unique to the human species). Terror Management Theory (TMT) proposes that the combination of a biologically rooted desire for life with the awareness of the inevitability of death (which has resulted from the evolution of sophisticated cognitive abilities unique to humankind) gives rise to the potential for paralyzing terror.

According to TMT, our species "solved" the problem posed by the prospect of existential terror by using the same sophisticated cognitive capacities that gave rise to the awareness of death to create cultural worldviews: humanly constructed shared symbolic conceptions of reality that give meaning, order, and permanence to existence; provide a set of standards for what is valuable; and promise some form of either literal or symbolic immortality to those who believe in the cultural worldview and live up to its standards of value. Thus, TMT conceptualizes self-esteem as resulting from one's own assessment of the

extent to which one is living up to internalized cultural standards of value. The people around the individual play an important role in the process of maintaining both self-esteem and faith in the internalized version of the cultural worldview from which self-esteem is ultimately derived. Both self-esteem and faith in one's cultural worldview are thus maintained through a process of consensual validation (Festinger, 1954; Swann, 1987).

Consequently, when others agree with one's conception of reality and evaluation of self, it implies that these conceptions are correct and based in external reality; when others disagree with these conceptions, it threatens to undermine this faith and confidence. Thus, from the perspective of TMT, self-esteem is a culturally derived construction that is dependent on sources of social validation, it is essentially defensive in nature, and it functions to provide a buffer against core human fears. The earliest direct assessments of the TMT analysis of the self-esteem motive tested the anxiety buffer hypothesis. In the initial test of this hypothesis, Greenberg, Solomon, et al. (1992) demonstrated that boosting self-esteem with positive feedback on a personality test led to lower levels of self-reported anxiety on the State Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1970) in response to graphic video depictions of death. Two subsequent studies showed that both positive personality feedback and success on a supposed test of intelligence led to lower levels of physiological arousal (specifically, skin conductance) in response to the threat of painful electric shock, levels no higher than those exhibited by participants not threatened with shock. Additional support for the anxiety buffer hypothesis was provided by Greenberg et al. (1993), who demonstrated that both experimentally enhanced and dispositionally high self-esteem lead to lower levels of defensive distortions to deny one's vulnerability to an early death. Whereas in control conditions participants reported whatever level of emotionality (high or low) they had been led to believe is associated with a long life expectancy, participants with dispositionally high or experimentally enhanced self-esteem did not show this bias. An important question

regarding self-esteem in the literature concerns whether self-esteem serves functions other than anxiety reduction in the ultimate service of death denial. TMT posits that, phylogenetically, the self-esteem motive emerged as a side effect (by-product) of the evolution of the sophisticated intellectual abilities that made members of our species aware of their inevitable mortality. However, self-esteem undoubtedly provides other benefits for the individual as well. For example, positive evaluations may simply feel good, thus contributing to the individual's general level of positive affect, although why they make people feel good, whether it is by increasing feelings of security or through other mechanisms, requires specification. High levels of self-esteem also provide the sense of efficacy that is necessary for engagement in difficult activities and that provides resources for coping with difficulties, setbacks, and failures (Carver & Scheier, 1981, 1998). However, TMT views these as ancillary benefits of the protection against core anxiety that self-esteem provides. Thus, according to TMT we could say that the need self-esteem is an evolved mechanism (perhaps an expatiation that came about due to the evolution of sophisticated intellectual abilities in humans), since self-esteem provides a shield against a deeply rooted fear of death inherent in the human condition.

Many writers have observed that human beings possess a fundamental motive to seek inclusion and to avoid exclusion from important social groups and that such a motive to promote gregariousness and social bonding may have evolved because of its survival value (Campbell & Foster, 2006; Ainsworth, 1989; Barash, 1977; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Baumeister & Tice, 1990; Bowlby, 1969; Hogan, 1982; Hogan, Jones, & Cheek, 1985). Since solitary human beings in a primitive state were unlikely to survive and reproduce, it would be appropriate to deduce that certain psychological systems (like self-esteem) evolved that motivated people to develop and maintain some minimum level of inclusion in social relationships and groups. This notion gets added credence since human beings have evolved

to be a highly social species, and many of the adaptive problems our ancestors faced would have involved negotiating their social world

2.1.4 Social Development Theory

This theory was proposed by Catano in 1996. The social development model seeks to explain a broad range of distinct behaviours ranging from the use of illegal drugs to homicide. Crime, including violent and nonviolent offending and drug abuse, is viewed as a constellation of behaviours subject to the general principles incorporated in the model. By considering evidence from research on the etiology .of both delinquency and drug abuse, it is possible to identify general constructs that predict both types of behaviour and to use this knowledge in specifying predictive relationships in the development of antisocial behaviour. Used here, the terms delinquency and drug use refer to behaviours. All behaviours are subject to influence from a variety of forces. The same principles, factors, or processes that influence one behaviour should predict other behaviours. At the least, this suggests that a theory of antisocial behaviour should be able to predict both drug use and criminal behaviour, whether committed by children or adults. More ambitiously, it suggests a search for universal factors, mechanisms, or processes that predict all behaviour.

This implies a general theory. Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990), for example, have proposed "A General Theory of Crime," which attributes all criminal behaviour to a single theoretical construct: low self-control. It is clear empirically that multiple biological, psychological, and social factors at multiple levels in different social domains that is, within the individual and in the family, school, peer group, and community all contribute to some degree to the prediction of delinquency and drug use. Risk factors for drug abuse and criminal behaviour include community norms favourable to these behaviours, neighbourhood disorganization, extreme economic deprivation, family history of drug abuse or crime, poor

family management practices, family conflict, low family bonding, parental permissiveness, early and persistent problem behaviours, academic failure, peer rejection in elementary grades, association with drug-using or delinquent peers or adults, alienation and rebelliousness, attitudes favourable to drug use and crime, and early onset of drug use or criminal behaviour. (For reviews, see Hawkins, Catalano, & Miller, 1 992b; Loeber, Stouthamer-Loeber, Von Kammen, & Farrington, 1991; Simcha-Fagan et al., 1986). Investigators have also noted variability in responses to risk exposure and have sought to identify protective factors that enhance the resilience of those exposed to high levels of risk and protect them from undesirable outcomes.

Three broad categories of protective factors against stress in children have been identified: (1) individual characteristics, including resilient temperament, positive social orientation, and intelligence (RadkeYarrow & Sherman, 1990); (2) family cohesion and warmth or bonding during childhood; and (3) external social supports that reinforce the individual's competencies and commitments and provide a belief system by which to live (Garmezy, 1985; Werner, 1989). As distinct from risk factors, protective factors are hypothesized to operate indirectly through interaction with risk factors, mediating or moderating the effects of risk exposure (Hawkins P.t al., 1992b; Rutter, 1990).

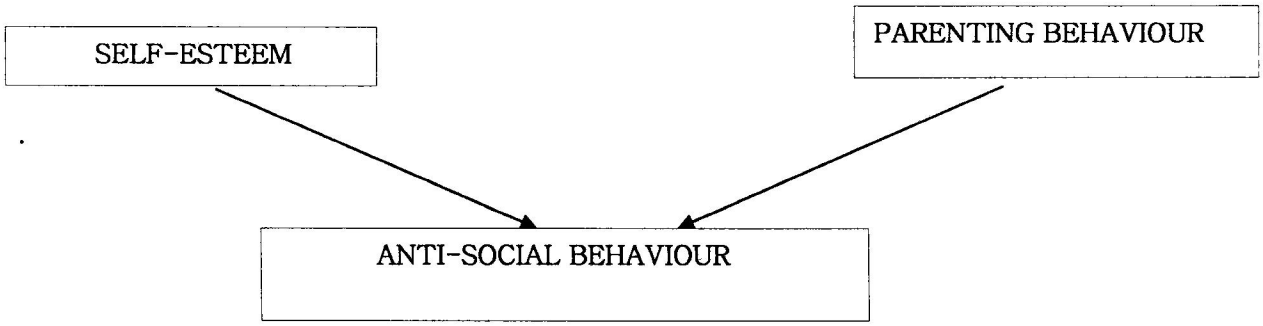
The social development model incorporates these key features to include; Inclusion of both delinquency and drug use. Both delinquency and drug abuse are predicted by the theory; Developmental, perspective. Four distinct, developmentally specific sub models incorporate notions of age-specific problem and prosocial behaviour.

The theory identifies salient socialization units and etiological processes for each of four phases of social development preschool, elementary school, middle school, and high school. The phases are separated by major transitions in the environments in which children are socialized; they are not conceived as stages of cognitive or moral development (Kohlberg,

1969, 1976; Piaget, 1965). Transitions from the home environment to elementary school and from the relatively self-contained classrooms of elementary school to the modularized environments of middle school are nearly universally experienced transitions accompanied by shifts in the balance of influence among socializing units of families, schools; and peers. The four sub models delineate specific predictors for each developmental period. The theory describes reciprocal processes of causation between developmental periods in which behaviours at one period arc expected to subsequent social development processes.

The theory organizes the evidence regarding risk and protective factors for delinquency and substance use by hypothesizing the theoretical mechanisms through which these factors operate to increase or decrease the likelihood of antisocial behaviour.

2.2 THEORETICAL CONCEPTUALIZATION



The explanation to the diagram above is that attitude towards anti-social behaviours of adolescents is predicted by self-esteem and the parental behaviours. In essence, negative disposition to antisocial behaviours can be traced to self-esteem and parenting behaviours.

2.3 Related Empirical Studies

2.3.1 Age and Gender Difference in Anti-Social Behaviour

Burt and Neiderhiser (2009) point out that age is one of the main characteristics which can determine antisocial behaviour among children and adolescents. Moreover, Letourneau et al. (2013) suggest that age might be used as a moderator variable on the relationship between

social economic status and delinquency. In contrast, age impact leads to decreasing environmental factors on antisocial behaviour as shown in behavioural genetics research. However, Kazdin (1987) reported that conduct disorder was more common among boys than girls and that sex differences further affected the age of onset of conduct disorder. Girls tended to engage in conduct disorder starting between ages 14 and 16, whereas, many boys engaged in conduct disorder at the age of 11 years.

According to Geolge (2012), the findings obtained from different studies on possible influence of gender on social problems are not consistent. There are some evidence for the specific impact of gender on relationship between behaviour problems and delinquency among adolescents. In some of these studies, the effect of juvenile delinquency anticipated in boys whereas adult crimes as a type of antisocial behaviour contributed to both genders.

A recent Nigerian study on the relationship between gender and antisocial behaviour showed that female adolescents showed that they know that taking illegal drugs are great risks (Theresa 2016). From the study, it was also indicated that female respondents were involved in illicit sex than the male respondents (Theresa 2016). In contrast, it is proposed that the influence of delinquent behaviour in adolescents might be occurred with a delay in girls (Topitzes et al. 2011). Furthermore, there were some visible results for adolescents' tendency for antisocial behaviour. Various risk factors intervened delinquency and crimes happened by both genders. As such, adolescent boys were more eager to externalize antisocial behaviour, school obligation, social-emotional skills, and school achievements. This could reveal the relationship between behaviour problems and crime in adolescence period. On the contrary, parental factors, externalizing problems, cognitive process, and educational performance were more predicted in adolescent girls (Topitzes et al. 2011).

Another research carried out by Foy et al. (2012) indicated that trauma, as consequences of delinquent behaviour, has an effective role in increasing of antisocial

behaviour in girls than in boys. In fact, the effects of gender differences on the relationship between antisocial behaviour and delinquency illustrated different mixed results. Social control theory ascertains that the antisocial behaviour in both genders would be rooted in learning processes taken place in their socializing environments such as their family, friends and schools. These models also explain the various rates of antisocial behaviour in males and females which is considered as the gender gap in delinquency. Males actually possess more chances to learn and show antisocial behaviour because of lower supervision by their families on them. This is the popular characteristics of conventional environments while highly conducting with unconventional groups.

In addition, it is believed that social control theory (Hirschi, 1969) and the theory of crime (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990) can explain the reasons for lower rates of delinquency in females as they traditionally have more attachment to conventional contexts, in particular to their families. This, in turn, leads to more commitment to conventional norms on the part of women in traditional settings. In contrast, results obtained from research on both genders inclined to deduce that due to higher exposure to risk factors for antisocial behaviour such as higher contact with delinquent peers, lower parental monitor, less connection to family and school, males are more apt to involve in antisocial behaviour (Elliot, Huizinga, &Ageton, 1985; Storvoll & Wichstrom, 2002). Other studies, however, emphasize that to comprehend the role of gender in deviant behaviour, it is inadequate to take in the samples from females to investigate and prove whether females replicate what are ascribed by males. As a matter of fact, it is crucial to suggest other models to take the existence of differential socialization routes into consideration. This fact can explain the influence of both possibilities, that is, unequal exposure of males to risk/protection factors and what helps to construct personal identities. These factors play a great role in varieties of performance for potentially antisocial behaviour.

Steffensmeier and Allan (1996) suggest a theoretical model in which the important concept is organization of gender. In other words, a series of factors that can cause differences in the social life structures of males and females such as gender norms, identity, affiliate concerns, and moral development are taken into account. The model determines fewer numbers of crimes committing by females. The reason might refer to the feminine gender who assumes to engage in affection, caring others, and sustaining interpersonal relations. These aspects and concepts are not well-matched with delinquent and deviant behaviour. On the contrary, the organization of males' identity is associated with some characteristics including competitiveness for attaining social positions. As such, a male person's own wishes and concerns precede others' wills, and thus, males become more appropriate and have more inclination and tendency for antisocial behaviour. There are scant number of studies on correlation between age and gender identity and deviant behaviour. Referring to above mentioned relationship; Pearson correlation analysis was applied to determine relationship between age and gender and adolescent's antisocial behaviour and independent sample t-test was applied to compare the antisocial behaviour in males and females. In the related literature, the impact of gender identity on those variables which are relevant to adolescent deviation was investigated by using an independent t-test (López& Rodríguez-Arias, 2010). The findings revealed that there was a significant relationship between age and gender on antisocial behaviour among adolescents. Hence, this study also makes attempts to compare the differences of adolescents' deviant behaviour in both genders, that is, males and females.

2.3.2 Causes and Prevalence of Anti-Social Behaviour in Nigeria

In a more recent study, it was discovered that the most common antisocial behaviour exhibited by the Nigerian adolescents include examination malpractice, lateness, abortion, stealing, rape, cultism and rudeness (Isaiah 2015).Isaiah (2011) reported that media influence,

peer influence, school and home environment were the main causes of behaviour problems of these adolescents after he observed secondary school students with hearing impairment.

Nwokolo, Anyamene and Efobi (2011) also discovered that antisocial behaviour, like bullying was as a result of peer influence. The study found out that home factor contributed to antisocial behaviours among students with hearing impairment. These home factors included lack of good rapport among parents and children, vulgar language from parents, more than one spouse (polygamy), giving the child too many domestic activities, drunkard parents and hawking after school.

From the findings of Obani (2002),it was revealed that stress condition in the family like homelessness, joblessness of the parents and poverty, frequent violent quarrels between parents, possibility of separation, prolonged parental illness, early loss of parent(s) and frequent changes of parental figures may make the child to be socially, emotionally and psychologically maladjusted.

2.3.3 Parenting and Anti-Social Behaviour

Patterson's studies of juvenile delinquency (Patterson, 1982; Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992), indicate that parental knowledge of adolescents' whereabouts and activities is an important predictor of antisocial behaviour. Parental knowledge has often been conceptualized as primarily a function of parenting practices, such as parental monitoring (e.g., soliciting information from an adolescent) and parental control (e.g., requiring information prior to granting permission) (Crouter & Head, 2002). That is, active parent involvement, through solicitation and control, increases parental knowledge, which ultimately acts as a protective factor against poor psychosocial outcomes for adolescents.

Despite the numerous studies linking parental knowledge and adolescent outcomes (Darling, Cumsille, Caldwell, & Dowdy, 2006; Dishion & McMahon, 1998; Patterson & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1984), questions remain about how these constructs are connected.

Recent studies have questioned the assumption that parental knowledge is primarily a by-product of parental practices. Indeed, parents may receive information about their adolescent's activities through (a) asking their adolescent, (b) limiting or controlling their adolescent's activities, or (c) the adolescent's self-disclosure (Kerr & Stattin, 2000).

Kerr and Stattin (2000) suggested that parental knowledge may be more related to individual differences in adolescent self-disclosure than the result of parental practices (Stattin & Kerr, 2000). One implication of their research is that parental control and monitoring may both be positively associated with parental knowledge, yet these are clearly different constructs. In fact, they have suggested that specific parenting behaviours, such as soliciting information from the adolescent, may be relatively unimportant in determining levels of parental knowledge. A second implication is that parenting style, as indicated by the emotional climate of the relationship, may be more important in establishing a relational context in which adolescents feel comfortable sharing information, thereby increasing parental knowledge. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between parenting practices, parenting style, and adolescent self-disclosure, using a sample of Italian middle school students. Subsequent studies (Darling et al., 2006; Fletcher et al., 2004; Laird, Pettit, Bates, & Dodge, 2003; Smetana, Crean, & Daddis, 2002; Soenens et al., 2006) have continued to explore Kerr and Stattin's (2000; Stattin & Kerr, 2000) hypotheses.

Soenens et al. (2006) argued that the relation between parenting behaviours and adolescent self-disclosure is more complex because the relation between parenting practices and adolescent disclosure has to be considered in the broader context of the quality of the parent– child relationship. Through structural equation modelling, Soenens et al. demonstrated that self-disclosure mediated the relations between parenting practices (monitoring and control) and parental knowledge, which in turn was related to antisocial behaviour and affiliation with peers engaging in problem behaviour.

Reviews of Kerr and Stattin (2000; Stattin & Kerr, 2000), along with subsequent studies, suggest that their conclusions may be limited by the data sources, analysis strategies, and sample characteristics. Specifically, some of these studies used single data sources (either the parent or the adolescent). Fletcher et al. (2004), for example, used only adolescent self-reports of these measures. In studies where information was available from both parents and children, such as Soenens et al. (2006), the information was analysed separately. Thus, the association between variables might be partly a methodological artefact. Another limitation is that the majority of related studies have focused on middle and late adolescence (from 14 to 21 years of age). However, early adolescence is a critical period in the development of many risk behaviours (Moffitt, Caspi, Dickson, Silva, & Stanton, 1996). Further, although peers may become a more important reference group in shaping adolescent behaviours (Brown, Mounts, Lamborn, & Steinberg, 1993; Meeus & Dekovic, 1995), numerous studies show that the parent– child relationship remains important for the psychosocial adjustment of young adolescents (M. B. Simons, Chen, Abroms, & Haynie, 2004; R. L. Simons, Chao, Conger, & Elder, 2001; Snyder & Huntley, 1990). Some have even suggested that early adolescence is the key period in which a trajectory is set for future behaviour problems (Pettit, Bates, Dodge, & Meece, 1999). In addition, a majority of these studies did not address whether the relationships between parental monitoring, self-disclosure, and antisocial behaviour differ according to a child's gender. For example, Gorman-Smith and Loeber (2005) found that parental monitoring was an important predictor of delinquency for both adolescent boys and girls.

Researches form Scaramella, Conger, & Simons, 1999; Spoth, Neppl, Goldberg-Lillehoj, Jung, & RamisettyMikler, 2006 have found that a positive relationship with parents is associated with fewer social and behavioural problems for both genders. The emerging literature on the relationship between child self-disclosure and parental knowledge is

inconclusive with respect to the impact of gender; some studies found no gender differences (Soenens et al., 2006), and others reported different patterns for males and females (Crouter & Head, 2002). In general, studies suggest that male adolescents tend to self-disclose less frequently to parents about risky behaviours (e.g., sexual behaviour; Consedine, Sabag-Cohen, & Krivoshekova, 2007), raising the question of whether Kerr and Stattin's (2000; Stattin & Kerr, 2000) model and subsequent models that include self-disclosure are gender specific.

Even fewer studies have examined the relation between parental monitoring and self-disclosure based on parents' gender. However, several studies suggest that there are differences in the parenting styles of mothers and fathers and that some of these differences may be evidenced in their children's delinquent behaviour. For example, maternal and paternal differences have been observed in aspects of child rearing such as emotional sensitivity and structuring of children's play (Lovas, 2005). In relation to parenting style, L. G. Simons and Conger (2007) observed that fathers were less likely to practice authoritative parenting. Also, studies of single parents show that parents' gender is a significant predictor of adolescents' involvement in alcohol and drug use (Hoffman & Johnson, 1998).

In fact, Demuth and Brown (2004) found that single fathers had higher family incomes but were less involved and provided less supervision and monitoring; these differences were associated with more antisocial behaviour. Although their study was conducted on a U.S. sample, the mother–father differences are consistent with the parental roles in many Italian families (Claes et al., 2005), where fathers are more likely to be more involved in managing the economic wellbeing of the family than in child rearing (Ramella & Sindoni, 1997).

2.3.3 Self Esteem and Anti-Social Behaviour

Kaplan (1978) is perhaps among the first pioneers in researching the relationship between self-esteem and delinquency. He proposed the "self-derogation theory" (or termed oppositely "self-enhancement theory") which was based on the human motive to "maximize the experience of positive self-attitudes and to minimize the experience of negative self-attitudes" (Kaplan 1980:8). Kaplan's self-derogation theory links low self-esteem to many adolescent problems, which suggests that adolescents with self-derogation or low self-esteem are more likely to turn to delinquent behaviours or peer associations to enhance their self-esteem. According to Kaplan (1978, 1980), adolescents with low self-esteem have always undergone unsatisfactory experiences in the conventional society and these experiences have created painful feelings of doubt about their self-worth. Seeking to alleviate these painful feelings, the child tends to adopt the role of others and guide his own behaviour by perceiving, evaluating, and expressing attitudes towards himself and others in such a way that he feels good, i.e. maximizing positive self-attitudes and minimizing negative self-attitudes to satisfy his personal needs. Thus, under the notion of self-esteem motives, adolescents with low self-esteem are urged "internally" to engage in deviant behaviour aiming at boosting their self-image (for example, I am able to attract friends, or I don't need to rely on you, I have the ability to act on my own). Adolescents with low self-esteem are in greater self-enhancing need and are more vulnerable to others' expression of rejection or experience of failures. Hence, low self-esteem adolescents will be more upset when they experience failure and rejection and will be more prone to adopt deviant behaviour.

Subsequent to Kaplan's postulation of the self-derogation model, a number of studies have found some empirical support for the notion of a negative association between low self-esteem and delinquency (Donnellan et al. 2005; Kaplan, Johnson, and Bailey 1986; Owens 1994; Shin and Yu 2012). Using a longitudinal design, Kaplan and colleagues showed that

negative self-beliefs (e.g. rejection by teacher, rejection by parents, self-derogation attributes and so on) were positively correlated with delinquent behaviours. In a more recent study, after controlling for some potential confounding variables Donnellan and colleagues (2005) found a robust relation between low self-esteem and externalizing problems and delinquency. The linkage held for different age groups, different measurement methods of self-esteem, and after controlling for potential confounding variables.

By comparing the effects of positive and negative self-views, Owens (1994) showed that the effect of self-deprecation on delinquency was significantly stronger than that of positive self-views. This suggested that negative beliefs about oneself played a stronger role in leaning toward delinquency than did an erosion of positive self-attitudes. Shin and Yu (2012) found that students who could not gain teachers' or parents' assurance were more likely to seek acceptance from their peers by involving in delinquent behaviours. In a study of possible selves and negative health behaviours during early adolescence, Aloise-Young and colleagues (2001) suggested that adolescent cigarette smoking and alcohol use were related negatively to the number of positive expected selves and the balance between expected selves and feared selves. However, empirical results were not consensual in delineating the relation between self-concept and delinquency as Kaplan and colleagues predicted (e.g. Brownfield and Thompson 2005; Jang and Thornberry 1998; Wells and Rankin 1983). Contrary to the prediction of self-derogation theory, Jang and Thornberry (1998) found that low self-esteem did not increase associations with delinquent peers or predict delinquent behaviour as Kaplan and his colleagues predicted. However, they did find that delinquent associates had significant self-enhancing effects on later self-esteem.

Wells and Rankin (1983) also observed that the effect of self-esteem on subsequent delinquent behaviour was rather weak. Similarly, Owens (1994) did not find significant evidence to support the hypothesis that self-deprecation would have a positive effect on

delinquency, and that delinquency would have a negative effect on self-deprecation. Furthermore, while the association between low self-esteem and delinquency was questioned, some studies reported positive instead of negative association between delinquency and self-concept.

In a study Brownfield and Thompson (2005) showed that self-concept could moderately predict delinquency, and this predictive power of self-concept on delinquency remained strong even after Social Control Theory measures (i.e. attachment, commitment and belief) was added to the regression model. However, one should note that the beta coefficients of self-concept in both regression models were positive, implying that higher self-concept was associated with more delinquency. Adopting a multidimensional model of self-concept, Leung and Lau (1989) found that delinquency had a positive instead of negative correlations with social self-concept and physical self-concept, but academic self-concept had a negative effect on delinquency. Moreover, there were studies pointing out that the relation between self-esteem and delinquency could be an indirect one which was mediated by maladaptive achievement strategies, school adjustment, and internalizing problems such as depressive symptoms (Aunola et al. 2000). Some other research found that this relationship could be bi-directional and dynamic in nature. In other words, there could be countervailing reciprocal relationship between self-esteem and deviant behaviour (Rosenberg, Schooler, and Schoenbach 1989).

Rosenberg and colleagues (1989) found that low self-esteem fostered delinquency and that continuing engaging in delinquency could enhance self-esteem. In a recent study Shin and Yu (2012) also noted that young people's self-esteem could be enhanced once their problem behaviours had received peer support, and their increasing self-esteem could further promote their engagement in problem behaviour. Putting together, it was undeniable that

empirical results supporting the notion of low self-esteem being predictive of delinquency were rather inconsistent.

2.3.4 Parenting Behaviour and Development of Self Esteem

A vast amount of research has linked child dispositional traits, including early temperamental attributes and later personality traits, with an array of outcomes, including psychopathology. Temperament theories emphasize early appearing, relatively stable differences in children's behavioural styles and regulation of emotion in response to affectively significant stimuli (Lahey, Waldman, & McBurnett, 1999; Rothbart, Posner, & Hershey, 1995; Wachs & Bates, 2001). Theories of personality similarly emphasize relatively stable global differences in behaviour and response to the environment (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Although temperament contributes to later personality development, and many temperament traits map onto adult theories of personality (Shiner & Caspi, 2003; Wachs & Bates, 2001), most research on temperament has been confined to infancy and childhood. However, temperamental attributes also have been studied during adolescence and adulthood (John, Caspi, Robins, Moffitt, & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1994; Rothbart, Ahadi, & Evans, 2000).

Eisenberg, Hofer, and Vaughan (2007) suggested that under controlled (externalizing) behaviour is predicted by low levels of effortful control, high levels of impulsivity, and high levels of negative emotionality, as demonstrated by their longitudinal research (Eisenberg et al., 2001). Frick and Morris (2004) suggested that developmental precursors to callous-unemotional traits including fearlessness and impaired conscience development may have unique associations with covert antisocial behaviours and psychopathy in late childhood and adolescence.

A recently proposed developmental propensity model of anti-social examines dispositions that fit with the theoretical perspectives described above (Lahey & Waldman, 2003). This propensity model is an attempt to integrate older propensity theories (Farrington,

1995; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Hirschi, 1969) with recent theory and empirical research on temperament, personality, and developmental theories of anti-social behaviour. Research on this model has yielded three factors: daring, negative emotionality, and pro-sociality (Lahey et al., 2008). Daring was central to Farrington and West's (1993) description of predictors of crime and encompasses high-energy activities and other risk-taking opportunities that are theoretically related to traits such as sensation seeking and novelty seeking. Furthermore, daring may be inversely related to Kagan's temperamental dimension of behavioural inhibition (Kagan, Reznick, & Snidman, 1988).

Negative emotionality is the second factor in Lahey et al.'s (2008) model and is proposed to relate to the Big Five factor of neuroticism, as reflected in frequent and intense experience of negative emotions. Numerous forms of psychopathology are associated with high levels of negative emotionality (Clark & Watson, 1991). Furthermore, oppositional traits, including irritability and defiance, are indicative of high levels of negative emotionality and frequently precede more serious forms of antisocial behaviour (Lahey et al., 1999). Prosociality is the third dimension and includes empathy, dispositional sympathy, respect for rules, and guilt in response to misdeeds. Conceptually, pro-sociality shares some common ground with the Five-Factor Model's (McCrae & Costa, 1997) dimension of agreeableness. High levels of empathy, guilt in response to misdeeds, and other aspects of agreeableness should protect children against involvement in antisocial activities.

Furthermore, pro-sociality is inversely related to callous/unemotional traits (Lahey & Waldman, 2003). Both callous/unemotional traits and low levels of pro-sociality show a similar pattern of modest yet reliable correlations with anti-social behaviour, suggesting that pro-sociality and anti-social behaviour are similar but not synonymous constructs (Barry et al., 2000; Lahey et al., 2008).

2.4 HYPOTHESIS

i Parenting behaviours (positive involvement, supervision and monitoring, positive discipline techniques, consistency in discipline techniques, and corporal punishment).will independently or jointly predict attitude towards anti-social behaviours among adolescents in Ekiti-State.

ii Adolescents with high self-esteem will report negative attitude towards antisocial behaviours than adolescents with low self-esteem.

iii Parenting behaviours (positive involvement, supervision and monitoring, positive discipline techniques, consistency in discipline techniques, and corporal punishment). and self-esteem will independently or jointly predict attitude towards anti-social behaviours among adolescents in Ekiti State.

2.5 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

PARENTING BEHAVIOUR

Parenting behaviour can be defined as the behaviours involved in raising a child. In this research, five dimensions of parenting behaviour will be used to describe the parents' behaviour. These dimensions include positive involvement with children, supervision and monitoring of the child, use of positive discipline techniques, consistency in the use of such discipline techniques and the use of corporal punishment.

SELF-ESTEEM

Self-esteem in this context is defined as the manner an individual perceives him or herself. In clearer terms, it is a personal evaluation of oneself and the resulting global feelings of worth associated with one's self-concept.

ATTITUDE TOWARDS ANTI-SOCIAL BEHAVIOURS

In this study, attitude towards anti-social behaviours are negative feelings and beliefs about activities or actions that violates the norms of the immediate society. it is negative because

the individual does not see anything wrong with anti-social behaviours.

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

This chapter represents the methodology and procedures employed in the collection of necessary data and relevant information pertinent to the study.

3.1. Research Design

This study adopts An Ex-post facto research design to examine the after-the-fact clarification on how self-esteem and parenting behaviour influences disposition towards anti-social behaviour because the events has occurred prior to the research. Parenting behaviours (positive involvement, supervision and monitoring, positive discipline techniques, consistency in discipline techniques, and corporal punishment). and self-esteem on antisocial behaviour

3.2. Setting and Participants

The study was carried among adolescents (secondary school students) in Ido-Osi Ekiti, Ekiti State. The study utilized three hundred (300) adolescents in Ido-Osi, Ekiti State. The participants were 288 (87 male, 201 female) secondary school students with age range of 9 to 19 years and mean age of 16.12 years (SD = 1.09). The researcher selected 92(31.9%) of research participants from Methodist Girls school, 99(34.4%) from Ekiti Parapo College and 97(33.7%) from Notre Dame Grammar School. Regarding religious affiliation, 258 (89.6%) are Christians 24(8.3%) were Moslems and 6 (02.1%) are Traditional worshippers.

3.3 Sampling

This research adopt a simple random and a convenience sampling technique sampling technique. In terms of using the simple random sampling technique, the researcher utilized the information derived from the ministry of education in Ekiti state pertaining to the number of schools in Ido-Osi Ekiti. The researcher then randomly selected three of these schools for the conduct of the research. Convenience sampling is used in the administration of instruments to research participants while the research also adopts purposive sampling

because the researcher is interested in specific group of individuals in the population which notably adolescents in Ido-Osi, Ekiti State. However, research participants include 100 students each from the schools.

3.4. Instruments

Data for the study was collected using validated psychological instrument to collect information from the participants of the study. The questionnaire consisted of four separate instruments which includes the socio-demographic information of the participants of the study. The instrument consists of five sections namely A, B, C and D.

3.4.1. Section A: Demographic Variables

This consists of items measuring socio-demographic information of the participants, such as gender, age, religion, and level of study. Gender was reported as (male=1 and female=2); actual age is given (16-21); religious affiliation is reported as Christianity, Islam and Traditional; senior secondary school class is reported as (SS1=1, SS2=2 and SS3=3).

3.4.2. Section B: The Self-Esteem Scale

The self-esteem scale (Rosenberg, 1965), was used to measure self-esteem. It is a 10 item scale used to measure global feelings of self-worth by measuring both positive and negative feelings about the self. All items were answered using a 4-point Likert scale format ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The Rosenberg self-esteem scale presented high ratings in reliability areas; internal consistency was .77, minimum co-efficient of reproducibility was at least .90. Alpha co-efficient ranging from .72 to .87. However, in the current study, the researcher reported a reliability coefficient alpha of .401

SCORING: Items 2, 5, 6, 8, and 9 are reverse scored. Give "Strongly Disagree" 0 point, "Disagree" 1 points, "Agree" 2 points, and "Strongly Agree" 3 points. Sum scores for all ten items. Keep scores on a continuous scale. Higher scores indicate higher self-esteem.

3.4.3. Section C: Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ)

The Alabama parenting questionnaire was developed by Frick, P. J.in 1991. The instrument consists of 40 items. The APQ measures five dimensions of parenting that are relevant to the etiology and treatment of child externalizing problems: (1) positive involvement with children, (2) supervision and monitoring, (3) use of positive discipline techniques, (4) consistency in the use of such discipline and (5) use of corporal punishment. The average reliability across the APQ scales is .68. However, in the current study, the researcher reported a reliability coefficient alpha of .824. The APQ has good psychometric properties including criterion validity in differentiating clinical and nonclinical groups (Dadds, Maujean, & Fraser, 2003; Frick, Christian, &Wooton, 1999; Shelton et al., 1996). Frick et al. (1999) reported a mean r^2 across its five scales of 0.24 for predicting child symptoms of ODD and CD. Independent investigations have also shown the APQ to be an informative assessment tool.

3.4.4. Section D: The Antisocial Behaviour Disposition Scale (ABDS)

Antisocial Behaviour Disposition Scale (ABDS) is the third instrument. The ABDS was developed based on literature review of Crick and Grotpeter (1995), Claes and Lacourse (2001). The scale initially had 26-items. Face and content validation of the instrument by 3 lecturers in the Department of Psychology UNN reduced the items to 22. Item analysis of the instrument using 60 SSI students of National Grammar School, Enugu reduced the items to 16 and yielded an alpha coefficient of .89. However, in the current study, the researcher reported a reliability coefficient alpha of .703. The scale is a multiple-choice scale (Likert-type), and it ranges from Never = 1, through rarely = 2, Sometimes = 3, to Always= 5.

3.5. Procedures

The researcher began the research process by seeking a letter of approval from the Head of the Department to be introduced to the institution where data is to be collected for

the research work. Also, the number of schools at Ido-Osi local government was sourced from the ministry of education in Ekiti State. After this, there was a random sampling of the schools at which only three schools was selected by the researcher for the conduct of the research.

The researcher then proceeded to the field to begin the data collection process. The validated psychological instrument was administered to the participants in their regular classrooms by the researcher. The researcher explained to the participants the purpose and the importance of their participation in this study. In addition, the researcher assured the participants of the confidentiality of their response and that their response would be used only for research purposes. After collation of all questionnaire booklets, the participants' responses is then scored by the researcher and entered into the computer for statistical analysis.

3.6. Statistical methods

Data obtained is analysed using the Statistical Packaged for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and software package. Descriptive statistics such as frequency, mean, percentages, standard deviation, was conducted to describe the socio demographic information of the respondents. Hypothesis stated is tested using inferential statistics. Hypothesis one is tested using regression analysis. Hypothesis two is analysed using independent sample t-test to determine group differences. Hypothesis three is tested using regression analysis. The p-value of 0.05 is used for test of statistical significance.

3.7 Ethical consideration

Ethical issues of assurance is given to research participants on basis of confidentiality and discretion of the study. Participants was made to realise that the study would help them in understanding and dealing with some important issues in life such as understanding their own self and how parenting behaviours influenced their disposition to anti-social behaviours.

3.8 Statistical Techniques

Data was analysed using the Statistical Package for social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. Descriptive such as age, gender distribution and other social demographics was analysed using the simple descriptive statistics such as mean and simple percentages. However, the hypotheses were tested using inferential statistics. The first hypothesis was tested using the simple regression statistical technique to examine the prediction of parenting behaviours (positive involvement, supervision and monitoring, positive discipline techniques, consistency in discipline techniques, and corporal punishment). on the attitudes towards anti-social behaviours. The second hypothesis was tested using the independent t-test to examine the difference between individuals with low and high self-esteem on attitude towards anti-social behaviour. The last hypothesis was tested using the multiple regression statistical technique.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Hypothesis one states that parenting behaviours will independently or jointly predict attitude towards anti-social behaviours among adolescents in Ekiti-State. The hypothesis is tested using multiple regression. The result is presented in table 4.1

Table 4.1 Multiple Regression Analysis of Attitude towards anti-social behaviours by the dimensions of parenting behaviours

Variables	ß	t	P	R	R^2	F	P
Parent involvement	-.110	-1.54	>.05	.36	.13	8.315	<.05
Positive Parenting	.175	2.49	<.05				
Poor monitoring supervision	.081	1.15	>.05				
Inconsistent discipline	.153	2.33	<.05				
Corporal punishment	.180	2.82	<.05				

From Table 4.1, it can be observed that all dimensions to include parent involvement, positive parenting, poor monitoring supervision, inconsistent discipline and corporal punishment jointly predicted attitude towards anti-social behaviours F (5, 282) = 8.315; p<.01 with R = 0.36 R^2 = 0.13. This suggests that both variables jointly accounted for 13% variation in attitude towards anti-social behaviours among adolescents in Ekiti State. However, contribution of Positive parenting (β= .18; t = 2.49, p <.05), inconsistent discipline (β= .15; t = 2.33, p <.05) and corporal punishment (β=.18; t = 2.82, p <.05)was significant in the joint prediction. Therefore, the hypothesis was confirmed.

Hypothesis two states that Adolescents with high self-esteem will report negative attitude towards antisocial behaviours than adolescents with low self-esteem. The hypothesis is tested using the t-test for independent groups. The result is presented in table 4.2

Table 4.2: t-test for Independent group showing differences in High and Low self-esteem on attitude towards undergraduate among adolescents in Ekiti State.

Self-Esteem	N	Mean	SD	df	T	P
Anti-social Behaviour High	143	36.14	7.14	288	1.698	>.05
Low	145	34.56	8.60			

From Table 4.2, the result of the t-test shows that adolescents with high self-esteem (X = 36.14) were not significantly different in attitude towards crime from those with low self-esteem (X = 34.56), t = 1.698; df = 288, p >.05. The results imply that self-esteem did not significantly influence attitude towards crime among adolescents in Ekiti State. Therefore, hypothesis two was not confirmed.

Hypothesis three states that self-esteem and parenting behaviours will independently or jointly predict attitude towards anti-social behaviours among adolescents in Ekiti-State. The hypothesis is tested using multiple regression. The result is presented in table 4.3

Table 4.3 Multiple Regression Analysis of Attitude towards anti-social behaviours by the dimensions of parenting behaviours and self esteem

Variables	ß	t	P	R	R^2	F	P
Parent involvement	-.127	-1.83	>.05	.42	.17	10.071	<.05
Positive Parenting	.156	2.27	<.05				
Poor monitoring supervision	.078	1.15	>.05				
Inconsistent discipline	.157	2.45	<.05				
Corporal punishment	.156	2.51	<.05				
Self-esteem	.224	4.07	<.05				

From Table 4.3, it can be observed that all dimensions to include parent involvement, positive parenting, poor monitoring supervision, inconsistent discipline and corporal punishment and self-esteem jointly predicted attitude towards anti-social behaviours F (6, 281) = 10.071; p<.05 with R = 0.36 R^2 = 0.13. This suggests that both variables jointly accounted for 18% variation in attitude towards anti-social behaviours among adolescents in Ekiti State. However, contribution of Positive parenting (β= .16; t = 2.27, p <.05), inconsistent discipline (β= .16; t = 2.45, p <.05), corporal punishment (β=.16; t = 2.51, p <.05) and self-esteem (β=.22; t = 4.07, p <.05) was significant in the joint prediction. Therefore, the hypothesis was confirmed.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Discussion

The study discovered that all dimensions of parenting behaviour predicted attitudes towards anti-social behaviours among adolescents. Such dimensions of parenting behaviours includes parent involvement, positive parenting, poor monitoring supervision, inconsistent discipline and corporal punishment. This was supported by Isaiah(2015) who found out that antisocial behaviours among students with hearing impairment are caused by media influence, vulgar language from the teachers, lack of counsellors in the schools, ineffective administration of schools, peer influence, excessive corporal punishment, lack of external supervision, broken home and lack of parental care. Poor monitoring independently predict attitude towards antisocial behaviours which is also established by literature on parenting. In this regard, Soenens et al. (2006) argued that the relation between parenting behaviours and adolescent self-disclosure is more complex because the relation between parenting practices and adolescent disclosure has to be considered in the broader context of the quality of the parent– child relationship. Soenens et al. demonstrated that self-disclosure mediated the relations between parenting practices (monitoring and control) and parental knowledge, which in turn was related to antisocial behaviour and affiliation with peers engaging in problem behaviour.

it was discovered that self-esteem did not significantly influence attitude towards crime among adolescents. This is supported by Donnellan and colleagues (2005) who found a robust relation between low self-esteem and externalizing problems and delinquency. The linkage held for different age groups, different measurement methods of self-esteem, and after controlling for potential confounding variables. Also, by comparing the effects of positive and negative self-views, Owens (1994) showed that the effect of self-deprecation on

delinquency was significantly stronger than that of positive self-views. This suggested that negative beliefs about oneself played a stronger role in leaning toward delinquency than did an erosion of positive self-attitudes. Shin and Yu (2012) found that students who could not gain teachers' or parents' assurance were more likely to seek acceptance from their peers by involving in delinquent behaviours. In a study of possible se0lves and negative health behaviours during early adolescence, Aloise-Young and colleagues (2001) suggested that adolescent cigarette smoking and alcohol use were related negatively to the number of positive expected selves and the balance between expected selves and feared selves.

5.2 Conclusion

The aim of the study was to predict attitude towards attitude from parenting behaviours and self-esteem. From the findings of the study, the researcher concludes that dimensions of parenting behaviour interactively predict attitude towards anti-social behaviours. However, specific parental behaviours such as positive parenting, inconsistent discipline and corporal punishment predict attitude towards anti-social behaviours. The study also concludes that self-esteem independently predict attitude towards anti-social behaviours. Also, self-esteem and parenting behaviours interactively predict attitude towards anti-social behaviours. This means that attitude towards anti-social behaviours could be explained from several parenting behaviours as well as the self-esteem of the adolescent.

5.3 Recommendations

Suggestions and recommendations of the current study were made on the basis of reducing the increasing negative attitude towards anti-social behaviours among adolescents. One of which is the encouragement of parent involvement among parents. Parental involvement is a parenting behaviour that focuses on being involved in the decision making of a child. It involves initiating what steps a child should take when posed with a problem and how to act in diverse situations. Parental involvement is reducing in numerous families of the world,

once parents can get involved with their children, there should be a level of reduction in the vulnerability of children getting endeared to anti-social behaviours. The current study also suggest that there should be a reduction of corporal punishment among parents. Corporal punishment happen to be one of the parental behaviours that predict attitude towards anti-social behaviours among adolescents. This means that the potency of corporal punishment is on the decline and as such should be discourages. More so, if corporal punishment as a parenting behaviour is effective then the teachers in school should from the extensive usage of corporal punishment. Frequent utilization of corporal punishment might lead to increase in the attitude towards anti-social behaviour.

5.4 Limitation of Study

One of the limitations of the current is the focus on secondary school adolescent. To an extent, these set of adolescent are not exposed to the realities of life and as such may not provide an adequate holistic picture of what sort of dispositions typical adolescents hold. Also, the adolescents were selected in a single local government. The location of the sample therefore does not allow for adequate generalisation of research findings.

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APPENDIX

FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OYE-EKITI

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

QUESTIONNAIRE

INFORMED CONSCENT FORM

This study is being conducted by AJAYI KEMISOLA ENIOLA, an Undergraduate student of Federal University Oye-Ekiti; Ekiti-State. The study is self-sponsored as part fulfillment of the award of B.Sc. Psychology. The study is going to be for a period of 6 months.
I am conducting a research on the cause of anti-social behavior among adolescents in EKITI-STATE.
Please note that your answers will be confidential and NOT release to anyone else. Result obtained from this result will be made available to authorities for prompt intervention.
Your participation in this study will not cost you anything. Your honest answers will be highly appreciated. You are free to refuse and withdraw at any given time if you choose to. We will greatly appreciate your help in responding to the questions and also taking part in the study.

Consent: now that the study has been well explained to me and I fully understand the consent of the study process. I will be willing to take part in the study.

.....

.....

Signature/thumbprint of participant/ date signature of interviewer/date

SECTION A

Sex: Male ( ) Female ( ) Age (16-19).....

Class ..... Department: .....

Name of school .....

Religious Affiliations: Christianity ( ) Islam ( ) Traditional ( )

SECTION B:

INSTRUCTION:*Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement.*

1=Strongly disagree	2=disagree	3= agree	4= strongly agree

S/N	Items	1	2	3	4
1	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.				
2	At times I think I am no good at all.				
3	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.				
4	I am able to do things as well as most other people.				
5	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.				

6	I certainly feel useless at times.				
7	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.				
8	I wish I could have more respect for myself.				
9	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.				
10	I take a positive attitude toward myself.				

SECTION C:

INSTRUCTION: ***The under listed words or phrases show a number of ways young people usually feel or react to situations. Kindly indicate by ticking on any of the options that best describe the way you feel.***

1 =Never	2= rarely	3= sometimes	4=always

S/N	ITEMS	1	2	3	4
1	It is certainly best to keep my mouth shut when I'm in trouble.				
2	When I was young, I stole things.				
3	It would be better if laws were thrown away.				
4	I think most people would lie to get ahead				
5	I was suspended from school for bad behaviour.				
6	People are honest chiefly because they are afraid of being caught.				
7	People use somewhat unfair means to gain profit or an advantage rather than to lose it.				
8	Criticism or scolding hurt me terribly.				
9	I blame a person for taking advantage of people who leave themselves open to it.				
10	I have been so entertained by cleverness of some criminals that I have hoped they would get away with it.				
11	People make friends because friends are likely to be useful to them.				
12	When people find themselves in trouble, the best thing for them to do is to agree upon a story and stick to it.				
13	The person who provides temptation by leaving valuable properties unprotected is about as much as to blame for its theft as the one who steals it.				
14	When I was young, I did not go to school when I should have.				
15	It is all right to get around the law if you don't actually break it.				
16	I feel good when I cheat others and get away with it.				

SECTION D:

INSTRUCTION: ***The following are a number of statements about your family. Please rate each item as to how often it typically occurs in your home.***

1 =Never	2= almost never	3= sometimes	4=often	5=always

S/N	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	You have a friendly talk with your parents					
2	Your parents tell you that you are doing a good job.					
3	Your parents threaten to punish you and then do not do it.					
4	Your parents help with some of your special activities (such as sports, church youth groups).					
5	Your parents reward or give something extra to you for behaving well.					

6	You fail to leave a note or let your parents know where you are going.					
7	You play games or do other things with your parents.					
8	You talk your parents out of punishing you after you have done something wrong.					
9	Your parents ask you about your day in school?					
10	You stay out in the evening past the time you are supposed to be home					
11	You parents helps you with your homework.					
S/N		1	2	3	4	5
12	Your parents give up trying to get you to obey them because it's too much trouble.					
13	Your parents compliment you when you have done something well					
14	Your parents ask you what your plans are for the coming day.					
15	Your parents drive you to a special activity					
16	Your parents praise you for behaving well					
17	Your parents do not know the friends you are with					
18	Your parents kiss and hug you when you have done something well					
19	You go out without a set time to be home					
20	Your parents talks to you about your friends					
21	You go out after dark without an adult with you					
22	Your parents let you out of a punishment early (like lift restrictions earlier than they originally said)					
23	You help plan family activities					
24	Your parents get so busy that they forget where you are and what you are doing					
25	Your parents do not punish you when you have done something wrong					
26	Your parents go to a meeting at school like PTA meeting or a parent/teacher conference					
27	Your parents tell you that they like it when you help out around the house					
28	You stay out later than you are supposed to and your parents don't know it					
29	Your parents leave the house and don't tell you where they are going					
30	You come home from school more than one hour past the time your parents expects you to be home					
31	The punishment your parents give depends on their mood					
32	You are at home without an adult being with you					
33	Your parents spank you with their hand when you have done something wrong					
34	Your parents ignore when you are misbehaving					
35	Your parents slap you when you have done something wrong					
36	Your parents take away a privilege or money from you as a punishment					
37	Your parents send you to your room as a punishment					
38	Your parents hit you with a belt or other object when you have done something wrong					
39	Your parents yell or scream at you when you have done something wrong					
40	Your parents calmly explain to you why your behavior was wrong when you misbehave					
41	Your parents use time out (makes you sit or stand in a corner) as a punishment					
42	Your Parents give you extra chores as punishment.					

FREQUENCIES

Statistics

		Sex	Class	NameOfSchool	ReligiousAffiliation
N	Valid	288	288	288	288
	Missing	0	0	0	0

Frequency Table

Sex

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	87	30.2	30.2	30.2
	Female	201	69.8	69.8	100.0
	Total	288	100.0	100.0	

Class

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	JSS3	1	.3	.3	.3
	SSS1	60	20.8	20.8	21.2
	SSS2	122	42.4	42.4	63.5
	SSS3	105	36.5	36.5	100.0
	Total	288	100.0	100.0	

Name Of School

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Methodist Girls High School	92	31.9	31.9	31.9
	Ekitit Parapo College	99	34.4	34.4	66.3
	Notre Dame Grammar School	97	33.7	33.7	100.0
	Total	288	100.0	100.0	

Religious Affiliation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Christianity	258	89.6	89.6	89.6
	Islam	24	8.3	8.3	97.9
	Traditional	6	2.1	2.1	100.0
	Total	288	100.0	100.0	

Descriptives

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	256	9.00	19.00	16.1172	1.08913
Valid N (listwise)	256				

Reliability for Self-esteem scale

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	252	87.5
	Excluded[a]	36	12.5
	Total	288	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.401	10

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Est1	3.0516	.89783	252
Est2	2.6230	.89973	252
Est3	3.0397	.80239	252
Est4	3.0714	.83431	252
Est5	2.4008	.93306	252
Est6	2.8929	.91927	252
Est7	2.8254	.94535	252
Est8	1.8413	.78240	252
Est9	3.2897	.90561	252
Est10	3.0079	.96137	252

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Est1	24.9921	10.255	.232	.344
Est2	25.4206	10.476	.190	.361
Est3	25.0040	9.972	.351	.304
Est4	24.9722	9.844	.354	.299
Est5	25.6429	11.067	.073	.408
Est6	25.1508	10.304	.211	.352
Est7	25.2183	10.681	.132	.385
Est8	26.2024	14.704	-.487	.566
Est9	24.7540	9.947	.284	.322
Est10	25.0357	9.811	.275	.323

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
28.0437	12.393	3.52030	10

Reliability for Parenting Questionnaire

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	168	58.3
	Excluded[a]	120	41.7
	Total	288	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.824	42

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
St1	3.9464	1.40682	168
St2	3.9940	1.17099	168
St3	3.0952	1.40673	168
St4	3.7083	1.54127	168
St5	4.1667	1.23650	168
St6	2.6488	1.56741	168
St7	3.0833	1.33769	168
St8	2.0238	1.42666	168
St9	4.1786	1.22997	168
St10	1.7083	1.19055	168
St11	2.9345	1.43164	168
St12	2.5417	1.65191	168
St13	4.1726	2.63099	168
St14	3.7381	1.37226	168
St15	3.2857	1.39779	168
St16	4.3036	1.12009	168
St17	2.0357	1.45550	168
St18	3.1131	1.52985	168
St19	1.9762	1.39697	168
St20	3.4821	1.47625	168
St21	1.7262	1.25112	168
St22	2.3512	1.37619	168
St23	3.5298	1.42234	168
St24	1.8214	1.27303	168
St25	2.1786	1.45315	168
St26	4.1429	1.27756	168
St27	3.5000	1.56305	168
St28	1.8095	1.19356	168
St29	1.9643	1.29898	168
St30	1.9167	1.25930	168
St31	3.0000	1.38426	168
St32	2.6369	1.39471	168
St33	2.7202	1.49220	168
St34	2.4762	1.50827	168
St35	2.8631	1.45974	168
St36	2.0298	1.32424	168

St37	2.3274	1.38208	168
St38	2.4643	1.35758	168
St39	3.0119	1.46000	168
St40	3.6845	1.47287	168
St41	2.3274	1.35583	168
St42	2.4940	1.46821	168

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
St1	117.1667	424.547	.222	.822
St2	117.1190	419.040	.396	.818
St3	118.0179	422.078	.265	.821
St4	117.4048	418.171	.299	.820
St5	116.9464	425.332	.245	.821
St6	118.4643	420.418	.257	.821
St7	118.0298	422.807	.269	.821
St8	119.0893	414.249	.398	.817
St9	116.9345	425.331	.247	.821
St10	119.4048	421.799	.331	.819
St11	118.1786	419.297	.308	.820
St12	118.5714	416.989	.291	.820
St13	116.9405	420.751	.108	.832
St14	117.3750	420.128	.309	.820
St15	117.8274	421.689	.274	.820
St16	116.8095	427.089	.238	.821
St17	119.0774	420.946	.273	.820
St18	118.0000	414.515	.362	.818
St19	119.1369	421.688	.274	.820
St20	117.6310	421.803	.254	.821
St21	119.3869	420.287	.342	.819
St22	118.7619	426.147	.200	.822
St23	117.5833	416.185	.365	.818
St24	119.2917	427.106	.203	.822
St25	118.9345	422.421	.249	.821
St26	116.9702	425.155	.239	.821
St27	117.6131	414.287	.356	.818
St28	119.3036	419.626	.375	.818
St29	119.1488	422.990	.275	.820
St30	119.1964	420.087	.343	.819
St31	118.1131	418.592	.333	.819
St32	118.4762	420.586	.295	.820
St33	118.3929	410.479	.441	.816
St34	118.6369	424.556	.202	.823
St35	118.2500	417.338	.334	.819
St36	119.0833	416.077	.399	.817
St37	118.7857	420.601	.298	.820
St38	118.6488	418.181	.349	.818
St39	118.1012	422.834	.240	.821
St40	117.4286	416.246	.349	.818
St41	118.7857	420.205	.312	.819
St42	118.6190	422.752	.240	.821

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
121.1131	439.382	20.96145	42

Reliability for Attitude toward Antisocial Behaviour

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	234	81.3
	Excluded[a]	54	18.8
	Total	288	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.703	16

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ant1	2.2436	1.17761	234
Ant2	3.1880	1.03112	234
Ant3	3.2393	1.02039	234
Ant4	2.4658	1.15016	234
Ant5	3.7009	.90554	234
Ant6	2.3120	.98099	234
Ant7	2.1282	1.03616	234
Ant8	2.4487	1.18264	234
Ant9	2.5214	1.10867	234
Ant10	3.0470	1.08141	234
Ant11	2.0000	.97611	234
Ant12	2.4103	1.08958	234
Ant13	2.7265	1.12425	234
Ant14	3.5128	.91356	234
Ant15	2.2735	1.13186	234
Ant16	3.5000	.95500	234

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Ant1	41.4744	47.212	.238	.697
Ant2	40.5299	47.203	.295	.689
Ant3	40.4786	48.834	.180	.702
Ant4	41.2521	45.734	.346	.683
Ant5	40.0171	50.214	.110	.707
Ant6	41.4060	47.315	.309	.688
Ant7	41.5897	45.840	.394	.678
Ant8	41.2692	44.369	.424	.673
Ant9	41.1966	45.987	.348	.683
Ant10	40.6709	47.587	.247	.695
Ant11	41.7179	46.839	.348	.684
Ant12	41.3077	44.746	.447	.671
Ant13	40.9915	45.579	.369	.680
Ant14	40.2051	49.949	.129	.705
Ant15	41.4444	45.458	.374	.680
Ant16	40.2179	49.244	.171	.702

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
43.7179	52.444	7.24180	16

Correlations

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Age	16.1172	1.08913	256
Class	5.1493	.75265	288
SelfEsteem	21.5208	4.24505	288
ParentingStyleScale	120.4861	22.24742	288
AntisocialBehaviour	35.3438	7.93637	288

Correlations

		Age	Class	SelfEsteem	ParentingStyleScale	AntisocialBehaviour
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	.139*	-.053	.236**	.184**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.026	.398	.000	.003
	N	256	256	256	256	256
Class	Pearson Correlation	.139*	1	-.076	-.063	-.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.026		.200	.288	.845
	N	256	288	288	288	288
SelfEsteem	Pearson Correlation	-.053	-.076	1	-.077	.130*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.398	.200		.194	.027
	N	256	288	288	288	288
ParentingStyleScale	Pearson Correlation	.236**	-.063	-.077	1	.292**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.288	.194		.000
	N	256	288	288	288	288
AntisocialBehaviour	Pearson Correlation	.184**	-.012	.130*	.292**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.845	.027	.000	
	N	256	288	288	288	288

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Age	16.1172	1.08913	256
Class	5.1493	.75265	288
ParentInvolvement	35.4722	7.64859	288
PostiveParenting	22.6597	5.17588	288
PoorMonitoringSupervision	20.6528	8.50236	288
InconsistentDiscipline	15.1181	4.58067	288
CorporalPunishment	8.6076	4.08987	288
SelfEsteem	27.1424	4.80315	288
AntisocialBehaviour	35.3438	7.93637	288

Correlations

		Age	Class	ParentInvolvement	PostiveParenting	PoorMonitoringSupervision	InconsistentDiscipline	CorporalPunishment	SelfEsteem	AntisocialBehaviour
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	.139*	.117	.071	.261**	.169**	.076	.051	.184**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.026	.062	.260	.000	.007	.224	.415	.003
	N	256	256	256	256	256	256	256	256	256

Class	Pearson Correlation	.139*	1	-.026	.001	-.033	-.007	-.084	-.013	-.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.026		.665	.992	.574	.904	.156	.831	.845
	N	256	288	288	288	288	288	288	288	288
ParentInvolvement	Pearson Correlation	.117	-.026	1	.607**	-.003	.170**	.206**	.146*	.059
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.062	.665		.000	.959	.004	.000	.013	.319
	N	256	288	288	288	288	288	288	288	288
Postive Parenting	Pearson Correlation	.071	.001	.607**	1	.035	.159**	.182**	.148*	.168**

	Sig. (2-tailed)	.260	.992	.000		.550	.007	.002	.012	.004
	N	256	288	288	288	288	288	288	288	288
PoorMonitoringSupervision	Pearson Correlation	.261**	-.033	-.003	.035	1	.501**	.438**	.052	.243**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.574	.959	.550		.000	.000	.383	.000
	N	256	288	288	288	288	288	288	288	288
InconsistentDiscipline	Pearson Correlation	.169**	-.007	.170**	.159**	.501**	1	.264**	.042	.250**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.904	.004	.007	.000		.000	.474	.000
	N	256	288	288	288	288	288	288	288	288

Corporal Punishment	Pearson Correlation	.076	-.084	.206**	.182**	.438**	.264**	1	.136*	.265**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.224	.156	.000	.002	.000	.000		.021	.000
	N	256	288	288	288	288	288	288	288	288
SelfEsteem	Pearson Correlation	.051	-.013	.146*	.148*	.052	.042	.136*	1	.261**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.415	.831	.013	.012	.383	.474	.021		.000
	N	256	288	288	288	288	288	288	288	288
AntisocialBehaviour	Pearson Correlation	.184**	-.012	.059	.168**	.243**	.250**	.265**	.261**	1

Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.845	.319	.004	.000	.000	.000	.000	
N	256	288	288	288	288	288	288	288	288

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Regression for Hypothesis One

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	CorporalPunishment, PostiveParenting, InconsistentDiscipline, PoorMonitoringSupervision, ParentInvolvement[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: AntisocialBehaviour
b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.358[a]	.128	.113	7.47440

a. Predictors: (Constant), CorporalPunishment, PostiveParenting, InconsistentDiscipline, PoorMonitoringSupervision, ParentInvolvement

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2322.572	5	464.514	8.315	.000[b]
	Residual	15754.397	282	55.867		
	Total	18076.969	287			

a. Dependent Variable: AntisocialBehaviour
b. Predictors: (Constant), CorporalPunishment, PostiveParenting, InconsistentDiscipline, PoorMonitoringSupervision, ParentInvolvement

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	24.740	2.570		9.628	.000
	ParentInvolvement	-.114	.074	-.110	-1.543	.124
	PostiveParenting	.269	.108	.175	2.494	.013
	PoorMonitoringSupervision	.076	.066	.081	1.154	.249
	InconsistentDiscipline	.265	.114	.153	2.327	.021
	CorporalPunishment	.349	.124	.180	2.824	.005

a. Dependent Variable: AntisocialBehaviour

T-Test for Hypothesis Two

Group Statistics

	SelfEsteem	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
AntisocialBehaviour	High	143	36.1399	7.14104	.59716
	Low	145	34.5586	8.60223	.71438

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
AntisocialBehaviour	Equal variances assumed	2.932	.088	1.696	286	.091	1.58124	.93229	-.25378	3.41626
	Equal variances not assumed			1.698	277.936	.091	1.58124	.93109	-.25165	3.41413

Regression for Hypothesis Three

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	SelfEsteem, InconsistentDiscipline, PostiveParenting, CorporalPunishment, PoorMonitoring Supervision, ParentInvolvement[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: AntisocialBehaviour
b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.421[a]	.177	.159	7.27638

a. Predictors: (Constant), SelfEsteem, InconsistentDiscipline, PostiveParenting, CorporalPunishment, PoorMonitoringSupervision, ParentInvolvement

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3199.209	6	533.201	10.071	.000[b]
	Residual	14877.760	281	52.946		
	Total	18076.969	287			

a. Dependent Variable: AntisocialBehaviour
b. Predictors: (Constant), SelfEsteem, InconsistentDiscipline, PostiveParenting, CorporalPunishment, PoorMonitoringSupervision, ParentInvolvement

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	16.305	3.249		5.019	.000
	ParentInvolvement	-.132	.072	-.127	-1.827	.069
	PostiveParenting	.239	.105	.156	2.275	.024
	PoorMonitoringSupervision	.073	.064	.078	1.146	.253
	InconsistentDiscipline	.272	.111	.157	2.453	.015
	CorporalPunishment	.304	.121	.156	2.514	.013
	SelfEsteem	.371	.091	.224	4.069	.000

a. Dependent Variable: AntisocialBehaviour