

Amorose 2016

SDT

- (Ryan & Deci, 2002) an indicator of motivation involves determining the degree to which **one's overall pattern of reasons for participation are more or less self-determined** in nature
- scholars have used a **self-determination index (or relative autonomy index)** to capture the overall degree of self-determined motivation a person possesses in a particular context (see Ryan, Connell, & Grolnick, 1992; Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002)
- Research has consistently found that engaging in activities for **more self-determined reasons is associated with positive cognitive, affective, and behavioral outcomes** (Ryan & Deci, 2002; Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002; Weiss & Amorose, 2008)
- **identifying factors related to the promotion and development of self-determined motivation** is an important goal
- the behaviors exhibited by adults (coaches and parents/caregivers) are particularly influential in the context of sport (Brustad et al., 2001; Garcia Bengoechea & Strean, 2007; Keegan et al., 2010; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Weiss et al., 2012).
- a key dimension of social influence from a SDT perspective is **the extent to which others are autonomy-supportive versus controlling** (Amorose, 2007; Amorose & Anderson-Butcher, 2016; Joussemet, Landry, & Koestner, 2008; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Ryan & Deci, 2002)
- an authority figure who is autonomy-supportive engages in behaviors that **acknowledge** their subordinates' thoughts and feelings, **encourages choice and self-regulation** of people's own behavior, and **minimizes the use of pressure and demands** to control them
- pressuring their subordinates to think, feel, and act in a way consistent with the desires of the authority figure characterizes a controlling interpersonal style
- those who are autonomy-supportive engage in behaviors that **help to promote self-determined motivation** by supporting or **facilitating the fundamental psychological needs for competence** (i.e., to perceive our behaviors and interactions with the environment as effective), **autonomy** (i.e., to perceive our actions and thoughts to be freely chosen and that we are the origins of our behavior), and **relatedness**

Need/Gap

- there is a **paucity of research** testing the motivational consequences associated with autonomy-supportive behaviors exhibited by **athletes' parents/caregivers**
- evidence of the positive effects of parental autonomy support on self-determined motivation can be found in **academics** (e.g., Niemiec et al., 2006; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2005), **physical education** (e.g., Vierling, Standage, & Treasure, 2007), and **leisure-time physical activity** (e.g., Hagger et al., 2009)
- little research exists examining parental autonomy support in **youth sport contexts**,
- scholars, such as Fredricks and Eccles (2004), have suggested that **exploring the differential effects of fathers and mothers is a worthwhile line of inquiry**
- studies typically instruct athletes to report on the behaviors or relationships with **their most prominent parent** (e.g., Jowett & Cramer, 2010)
- sometimes researchers **combine mothers and fathers together** in a single parent dimension, such was the case with Gagne, et al. (2003) who only measured the gymnasts' perceptions of overall parental autonomy support rather than exploring the behaviors of the athletes' mothers and fathers separately
- the few exceptions (e.g., Babkes & Weiss, 1999; Ullrich-French & Smith, 2006, 2009) suggest that treating mothers and fathers separately may provide a more nuanced and complete understanding of parental influence
- Ullrich-French and Smith (2009) provided evidence suggesting that mothers were more salient than fathers when predicting continuation of sport participation in a sample of youth soccer players
- exploring the degree to which mothers and fathers differentially engage in autonomy-supportive behaviors and whether the effect of autonomy support from mothers and fathers uniquely, or in combination, affect their children's self-determined motivation **should make a meaningful contribution to the literature**
- another significant limitation is the lack of research specifically testing the independent and combined effects of coaches, and parents
- recent studies have specifically focused on testing whether the combined effect of multiple social influences contributes to the understanding of various motivational outcomes in sport above and beyond the independent effects of these social influences (e.g., Jowett & Cramer, 2010; Riley & Smith, 2011; Ullrich-French & Smith, 2006, 2009)

- the utility of considering the combined or interactive nature of these relationships

Other concepts/constructs:

- the emergence of significant interactions would support a threshold versus an additive model of supportive relationships (see Laursen & Mooney, 2008)
- additive model: psychological responses would improve with each addition of a supportive relationship; perceiving high levels of support from one's mother and father would result in more positive psychological responses
- a threshold model views support as potentially redundant
- SDT also provides some evidence supporting the threshold model
- using latent class analysis, Guay and colleagues uncovered three groups of high school students who varied on the amount of perceived autonomy support provided by their mother, father, and teacher: (1) reported low autonomy support from all 3 sources; (2) reported moderate autonomy support from all 3 sources, and (3) reported low autonomy support from their father, but moderate support from their mother and teacher
- Results showed that (1) students reporting low autonomy support from all three sources were significantly lower on self-reported perceptions
- students reporting moderate autonomy support from their mothers and teachers, but low autonomy support from their fathers were no different than the students reporting moderate support from all three sources on the self-reported motivational variables
- perceiving low autonomy support from one source (i.e., fathers) generally did not result in more negative motivational outcomes

Brauer 2016

Topic

Associations between parenting in early adolescence and delinquency throughout adolescence.

Parental monitoring (behavioral control) is negatively associated with delinquency in the short term

Parental pressure (psychological control) shows immediate and long-lasting associations with delinquency

Decision-making autonomy is negatively associated with delinquency in the long term, yet may exacerbate delinquency in early adolescence by increasing exposure to delinquent peers.

Parenting

- Which parenting strategies are most effective for raising happy, well-adjusted, and nondeviant children?
- "Tiger moms" raise better children (Chua, 2011; Juang, Qin, & Park, 2013)
- "Helicopter parenting" protects or smothers children (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011; Padilla-Walker & Nelson, 2012).
- Whether, how, and to what extent parents should grant **autonomy or exert control** over their children.
- Prior conceptualizations of parenting (Barber, 1992; Deci & Ryan, 1987) to distinguish between three distinct types of control-related parenting practices: behavioral control, psychological control, and autonomy support.
- I describe how each of these practices might constrain or enable adolescent delinquency by influencing the development of self-control or exposure to delinquent peers.
- some forms of parental control (e.g., supervision) effectively inhibit delinquency
- other (e.g., coercive) forms may trigger delinquency and other undesirable outcomes
- in the developmental psychology literature, the consequences of parental control are expected to depend upon whether parents rely on behavioral or psychological forms to elicit compliance from children (Barber, 1992; Grolnick, 2003)
- Behavioral control involves setting, monitoring, and enforcing clear normative expectations for children's behaviors (e.g., structure; demandingness; firm control).
- psychological control (PC) involves manipulative or psychologically intrusive attempts to control children's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors
- PC resembles criminological conceptualizations of coercive parenting

- PC is intended to pressure, manipulate, or coerce youth into compliance through the threat of physical punishment, guilt induction, love withdrawal, by instilling anxiety, or by invalidating the child's perspective (Barber & Harmon, 2002; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010)
- psychological research shows behavioral control associated with desirable child outcomes, including fewer antisocial behaviors or mental health problems and better cognitive development, and PC associated with undesirable child outcomes (e.g., Bean, Barber, & Crane, 2006; Coley, Votruba-Drzal, & Schindler, 2008; Hoeve et al., 2009; Leschied, Chiodo, Nowicki, & Rodger, 2008).
- criminological and psychological research converge on two key findings -- parents' behavioral control practices appear to promote prosocial development and inhibit delinquency, and parents' PC practices seem to undermine prosocial development and exacerbate delinquency

SDT

- **behavioral control practices do not have uniformly desirable effects** on children's behaviors throughout adolescence
- **self-determination theory** (SDT; see Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000) is a theory of human motivation and development that assumes people have intrinsic needs, including the need for autonomy
- behaving in a self-determined or autonomous manner is **critical to one's optimal functioning** (Deci & Ryan, 1987, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2006; for a summary, see Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2005)
- autonomy refers to the **"experience of integration and freedom,"** or to the **"desire to self-organize experience and behavior** and to have activity be concordant with one's **integrated sense of self"** (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 231).
- **intentional or goal-directed human behaviors** can be **classified as more or less autonomous**, or as falling somewhere on a continuum that ranges from controlled to self-determined.
- self-determined, or autonomous, behaviors are those that **"are initiated and regulated through choice as an expression of oneself"** (Deci & Ryan, 1987, p. 1024)
- **"endorsed by the whole self** and experienced as action **for which one is responsible"** (p. 1025)
- **controlled behaviors** – described as being **"pressured and coerced** by intrapsychic and environmental forces,"
- strict reliance on behavioral control practices may produce a form of contingency- dependent, controlled compliance, or "controlled self-regulation," that is unlikely to be maintained in the absence of anticipated rewards or punishments in the long term (Deci & Ryan, 1987; Grolnick, 2003; Ryan & Deci, 2006)
- when parents pressure their children to act in particular ways, whether through internal (psychologically controlling) or external (behaviorally controlling) practices, they may see their efforts backfire (Grolnick, 2003)
- SDT posits that parental provisions of autonomy support foster a child's capacity for independent decision making and are crucial to the development of autonomous self-regulation
- Autonomy-supportive parents attempt **"to grasp and acknowledge the child's perspective, use minimal controls to foster behavior, and provide choice when possible"** (Ryan, Deci, Grolnick, & La Guardia, 2006, p. 815).
- Parents recognize and support their children's autonomy in different ways
- communicative forms of autonomy support include explaining decisions to children as well as listening to and showing empathy for children's perspectives
- decision-making forms of autonomy support include providing children a say in important rules or decisions as well as encouraging children to act upon their own interests and values
- children exposed to autonomy- supportive parenting practices exhibit greater levels of creativity, better academic performance, stronger relational attachments, and fewer internalized and externalized problems compared to children who are not exposed to such practices (Grolnick, 2003; Ryan et al., 2006)
- SDT is only one of many perspectives to emphasize the importance of autonomy for human development (cf. Allen, Hauser, Bell, & O'Connor, 1994; Arnett, 2000; Baumrind, 1966, 1978; Blos, 1979; Bowlby, 1973; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986)
- SDT has garnered much empirical support and is frequently used to predict and interpret associations between parenting and child developmental outcomes (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1987; Grolnick, 2003; Grolnick, Gurland, DeCoursey, & Jacob, 2002; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2005)
- mixed evidence concerning the relationship between autonomy support and adolescent delinquency

- decision-making autonomy in early adolescence is associated with more delinquency in early adolescence yet less delinquency in late adolescence
- the positive association between decision-making autonomy and delinquency in early adolescence is mediated by changes in delinquent peer pressure
- parents granting them freedom to make decisions about where and with whom they socialize in early adolescence may experience more delinquent opportunities in unstructured peer socializing environments (Osgood & Anderson, 2004)
- or they may be more susceptible to delinquent peer influences when their self-identities are still stabilizing (Dishion, Nelson, & Bullock, 2004; CULTIVATING CONFORMISTS OR RAISING REBELS? 463 Goldstein et al., 2005)
- parents imposing stricter limits on autonomy at this stage of development may effectively shelter their children from risky social settings at a time when youth are particularly susceptible to group pressures to conform (Beveridge & Berg, 2007; Goldstein et al., 2005; Harris-McKoy & Cui, 2013).

Need/Gap

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Other concepts/constructs:

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Chang 2016

- the effect of autonomy support on self-determined motivation
- 126 elementary school physical education (PE) students
- a six-week intervention period
- Perceived teacher autonomy, perceived autonomy in PE, and self-determined motivation in PE were pre- and post-tested using validated questionnaires
- Significant increases in perceived teacher autonomy and perceived autonomy in PE were observed in the autonomy support group, but not in the control group. Intrinsic motivation was higher in the autonomy support group than that in the control group. From an experimental perspective, these findings suggest that the autonomy support was successfully manipulated in the PE classes, which in turn increased the students' perceived autonomy and intrinsic motivation.
- Psychological research has shown that students that are motivated often display stronger effort, intention, and persistence in behavior (Bryan and Solmon, 2007; Pintrich, 2003)
- In PE, creating a motivational learning environment is important to facilitate engagement and learning (Braithwaite et al., 2011; Todorovich and Curtner-Smith, 2002; 2003)
- according to the SDT, in an educational setting in particular, a learner's level of motivation is positioned on the continuum polarized by intrinsic motivation (i.e., undertaking an activity for its own sake) and amotivation (i.e., lack of any motivation) (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Ntoumanis, 2001)
- four levels of extrinsic motivation: integrated regulation, identified regulation, introjected regulation, and external regulation (Deci and Ryan, 1985)
- (1) integrated regulation, a learner is motivated by reckoning the significance of a behavior. For example, a student recognizing the health benefits of PA believes regular exercising is a part of daily life and then take actions in behavior.
- (2) identified regulation, a learner's motivation is often derived from the sense of identity in engaging in the behavior. For example, when PA is viewed as a behavior that defines the self as a person, the student's exercise intention, effort, and persistence become proactive.
- (3) introjected regulation, motivation tends to be characterized by a sense of guilt or jeopardy (e.g., feeling guilty for not committing time to exercise as planned). Using the same example as above, a learner with introjected regulation may feel the urge not to disappoint people (including themselves) and then discipline to participate in PAs.
- (4) external regulation, a learner's motivation relies on the extent to which he/she may obtain a reward or avoid a punishment as consequence of the behavior. Examples of external regulation in PE include

receiving praise/criticism from the teacher for displaying active participation in PA both in and outside of PE classes

- three innate psychological needs: competence (feeling competent and capable), autonomy (having choice and control), and relatedness (feeling affiliated with others in the context) (Deci and Ryan, 1985)
- the extent to which these three needs are supported and satisfied largely dictates the level of self-determined motivation (Deci and Ryan, 1985)
- supporting learners' needs for perceiving competence, autonomy, and relatedness in PE classes predicts autonomous motivation, which in turn predicts participation in leisure-time PA (Hagger et al., 2005; Ntoumanis, 2005; Shen et al., 2009)
- more self-determined students with higher levels of motivation tend to exert higher effort (Cox et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2010) and experience greater intention (Lim and Wang, 2009; Taylor et al., 2010), enjoyment (Cox et al., 2013; McDavid et al., 2014), PA levels (Cox et al., 2013; Taylor et al., 2010), active game participation (Wallhead et al., 2013), and enhanced cardiorespiratory fitness (Shen et al., 2009)
- providing strong support for autonomy stands out as the most salient factor for eliciting self-determined motivation and motivational responses (Hagger et al., 2005; Lonsdale et al., 2013; Shen et al., 2009).
- this study successfully manipulated the PE lessons by supporting students with more autonomy
- increased levels of autonomy
- enhanced students' intrinsic motivation, which is viewed as the highest level of motivation in all situations

Chen 2015

- Whether satisfaction and frustration of the psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence, (BPNT; Deci and Ryan, Psychol Inquiry 11:227–268, 2000; Ryan and Deci, Psychol Inquiry 11:319–338, 2000), contributes to participants' well-being and ill-being, regardless of their cultural background and interpersonal differences in need strength, as indexed by either need valuation (i.e., the stated importance of the need to the person) or need desire (i.e., the desire to get a need met).
- Study 1: adolescents from Belgium and China; autonomy and competence satisfaction had unique associations with well-being and individual differences in need valuation did not moderate these associations.
- Study 2: participants from Belgium, China, USA, and Peru; satisfaction of each of the three needs was found to contribute uniquely to the prediction of well-being, whereas frustration of each of the three needs contributed uniquely to the prediction of ill-being
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- . Consistent with Study 1, the effects of need satisfaction and need frustration were found to be equivalent across the four countries and were not moderated by individual differences in the desire for need satisfaction. These findings underscore BPNT's universality claim, which states that the satisfaction of basic needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence represent essential nutrients for optimal functioning across cultures and across individual differences in need strength.

Concept of "Need"

- people say they need smart-phones; advertisements aim to convince us that we need the products they sell
- in such cases, the concept of "need" refers to desires or preferences
- in other contexts, the term refers to what is essential or necessary for well-being and healthy functioning
- a person needs vitamins and nutrients, and children need responsive caregivers
- grounded in Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT), one of the six mini-theories of Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci and Ryan 2000; Ryan and Deci 2000)
- three basic psychological needs – autonomy, relatedness, and competence
- satisfaction of these psychological needs is said to be universally essential for human thriving
- when these needs get frustrated, maladjustment and even psychopathology is said to result (Ryan et al. in press; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013)
- many psychologists, including those adopting a social-constructive perspective, have eschewed the existence of universal psychological needs

- instead arguing that psychological needs are cultural constructions that reflect variations in socio-cultural values (e.g., Buttle 1989; Rist 1980; Roy 1980)
- a relativist perspective, they assume that individuals especially, if not only, benefit from satisfaction of the needs which they value or desire (Hofer and Busch 2011; Iyengar and DeVoe 2003)
- SDT maintains that there are certain needs whose fulfillment is necessary for well-being, regardless of differences in the extent to which people or society value or desire these needs (Chirkov et al. 2003; Deci and Ryan 2000)

Gap/Need

- .Yet, few, if any, studies have directly examined whether the self-reported valuation of the need or the desire felt for the satisfaction of a need moderates the association between need satisfaction and well-being and the association between need frustration and ill-being. Even fewer, if any, have examined these associations across different cultures.

SDT

- within BPNT, a basic psychological need is considered innate and its satisfaction is said to represent a universally essential experience for well-being (Ryan and Deci 2000)
- this assumption is derived from SDT's organismic–dialectical meta-theory, which views humans as active, growth-oriented organisms equipped with an inherent integrative tendency
- satisfaction of the basic psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence is said to function as a fundamental nutrient that energizes the integration process and that contributes to health and psychological well-being
- needs can also be actively blocked or thwarted
- low need fulfillment would fail to foster the growth potential of individuals, the frustration of these needs would elicit defensiveness, ill-being, and even psychopathology (Bartholomew et al. 2011; Ryan et al. 2006; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013)
- relatedness satisfaction refers to the experience of intimacy and genuine connection with others (Ryan 1995)
- relatedness frustration involves the experience of relational exclusion and loneliness
- competence satisfaction involves feeling effective and capable to achieve desired outcomes (Deci 1975; Ryan 1995)
- competence frustration involves feelings of failure and doubts about one's efficacy
- Baumeister and Leary (1995) and McAdams (1989) have elaborated on the need to belong, and White (1959) proposed competence motivation as a primary human propensity
- autonomy refers to the experience of self-determination, full willingness, and volition when carrying out an activity
- autonomy frustration involves feeling controlled through externally enforced or self-imposed pressures (deCharms 1968; Deci and Ryan 1985)
- the link between need satisfaction and well-being has been observed
- (a) at the level of individual differences, with those who report higher psychological need satisfaction feeling better about themselves (e.g., higher self-esteem, Deci et al. 2001) and their lives in general (e.g., life satisfaction, Kasser and Ryan 1999); and
- (b) at the intrapersonal level, showing that day-to-day fluctuations in psychological need satisfaction co-vary with day-to-day fluctuation in well-being (e.g., Ryan et al. 2010)
- education (e.g., Mouratidis et al. 2011), the workplace (Van den Broeck et al. 2010), health care (Williams et al. 2011)
- need frustration to relate uniquely to ill-being (e.g., Bartholomew et al. 2011; Stebbings et al. 2012)
- (1) binge eating symptoms as an outcome (Verstuyf et al. 2013); (2) objective (i.e., physiological) marker of distress (Bartholomew et al. 2011)

Corwyn 2016

- relations between paternal autonomy support and four aspects of adolescent social competence and responsibility at age 16
- relations were observed between paternal autonomy support and three of the four aspects of social behavior examined for daughters (but not sons)

- for daughters, paternal autonomy support was moderated by family conflict for both resistance to peer pressure and responsible behavior
- temperament of daughters moderated the relation between paternal autonomy support and resistance to peer pressure

Conceptualization of fathers

- Prior to 1980, fathers' roles: disciplinarian, breadwinner, and gender-role model (primarily with sons)
- Recent conceptualizations: multiplicity of functions within the family system (Cabrera, Fitzgerald, Bradley, & Roggman, 2014; Grossmann, Grossmann, Kindler, & Zimmermann, 2008; Lamb & Lewis, 2010; Lamb & Tamis-LeMonda, 2004)
- Many scholars believe that fathering is fundamentally different from mothering; fathering cannot be explained by the traditional parenting models used to guide research on mothers (Day & Mackey, 1989; Popenoe, 1996)
- Recent conceptualizations of fathering: highlighted indirect effects on offspring (e.g., via marital support) and paternal behaviors that were once considered the primary domain of mothering (e.g., nurturance; Lamb, 2000; Paquette, 2004)
- theories have evolved to highlight positive forms of father involvement and their influence on positive child outcomes (Cabrera, Tamis-LeMonda, Bradley, Hofferth & Lamb, 2000; Paquette, 2004; Pleck, 2007)

Sensitivity Support

- link between **parental sensitive support** for **autonomy** and adolescent **social competence** may be stronger for fathers than for mothers (Grossman et al., 2002; Marsiglio, Amato, Day & Lamb, 2000; NICHD Early Child Care Research Network [ECCRN], 2004; Paquette, 2004)

Gap/Need

- few studies have focused on positive **paternal** behaviors and their influence on **adolescent social competence** and **responsibility**

This Study

- The focus of this study is on fathers' sensitive support for autonomy, partly because autonomy support from parents (and others) is believed to promote self-regulatory behavior and the individuation process during early adolescence, with implications for long-term social competence and social relationships (Oudekerk, Allen, Hessel, & Molloy, 2015)
- parents' sensitive autonomy support helps foster children's self-regulatory competencies that lead to adaptive behavior and achievement (Allen, Chango, Szwedlo, Schad, & Marston, 2012; Bradley & Corwyn, 2007, 2013; Dishion & Patterson, 2006; Eamon, 2001; Eisenberg et al., 2005; Guay, Ratelle, & Chanal, 2008)
- the link between self-regulatory competencies and adaptive functioning is particularly strong during adolescence (Gestsdottir & Lerner, 2008)
- behavior that supports autonomy stands in contrast to psychologically controlling behavior, which can lead adolescents to discount their own judgment and be more susceptible to external influences (Grolnick, 2003; Joussemet, Landry & Koestner, 2008; Oudekerk et al., 2015)
- actions that support autonomy include encouragement to express oneself and encouragement to make one's own decisions
- behavior that is coercive, intrusive, or otherwise psychologically controlling (Barber, Bean & Erickson, 2001; Silk, Morris, Kanaya, & Steinberg, 2003)

SDT

- humans are intrinsically motivated to engage in interesting activities and to adopt the values and behaviors observed in their social environments (Ryan, Deci, Grolnick, & La Guardia, 2006)
- these motivational tendencies serve to promote the universal human needs to feel related, competent, and autonomous
- parental autonomy support helps children learn autonomously to self-regulate their behavior, values, and attitudes that promote successful development (Joussemet et al., 2008)

Attachment Theory

- Paquette (2004) borrowed tenants from *attachment theory* to argue that fathers must be sensitive to the child and build an emotional bond before autonomy support will have the desired effect on children

- research has found that paternal sensitivity and synchrony in exploratory play help children form a secure attachment to fathers, a base from which children develop capacities and proclivities to function as socially competent agents later in life (Bretherton, 2011; Palm, 2014)
- the link between parental sensitive support for autonomy and adolescent social competence may be stronger for fathers than for mothers (Leidy, Schofield, & Parke 2013)
- Paquette (2004; see also Grossman et al., 2002; Marsiglio et al., NICHD ECCRN, 2004), paternal sensitive support for autonomy may play a bigger role than maternal sensitive support for autonomy in facilitating the processes by which children become more agentic and learn to adjust to the demands of the world outside the immediate family, especially as regards social competence (Flanders, Leo, Paquette, Pihl, & Seguin, 2009; Paquette 2004) and peer relations (Parke et al., 2004)
- fathers' sensitive autonomy support predicted teacher-reported social skills (e.g., cooperation, assertion, and self-control in the school environment) during the early school years

Costa 2016

"relationship between parenting and psychological outcomes

the role of need satisfaction/frustration (measured independently) as mediators of the association between parental psychological control, autonomy support and psychological outcomes

in association with vitality and depression – developmental outcomes typically measured in SDT as outcomes for well- and ill-being" "302 late adolescents (14 - 17)

Italian

" *parental psychological control was positively associated with feelings of need frustration and depression

*parental autonomy support was positively associated with feelings of need satisfaction and vitality

*need satisfaction promoted feelings of vitality

*need frustration led to feelings of depression

*satisfaction of needs was a full mediator of the relationship between autonomy support and vitality

*frustration of needs was a full mediator of the relationship between psychological control and depression"

"•Parental psychological control refers to the display of a conditionally approving attitude towards children and, more specifically, involves engagement in a host of intrusive parenting tactics to make children think, behave, or feel in parentally approved ways (Barber 1996).

•intrusive and manipulative strategies such as guilt induction, disappointment, shaming, isolation, personal attacks, and love withdrawal to make their child comply with their expectations and also to change the child's opinions, emotions, and thinking patterns (Barber 1996).

•(SDT; Deci and Ryan 1985; Ryan and Deci 2002) represents a broad framework for the study of human motivation and personality development.

•the degree to which human behaviours are autonomous or self-determined

•the personal and contextual factors which facilitate or undermine people's intrinsic motivation, psychological development and well-being (Ryan and Deci 2000)

•three universal psychological needs that must be satisfied for effective functioning and psychological health, namely autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Ryan and Deci 2000).

•SDT defines these needs as nutriment that are essential for people's survival, growth, and integrity (Ryan et al. 1996).

•The need for autonomy refers to the desire to self-organize one's experience and to feel one's behaviour as freely chosen (DeCharms 1968).

•The need for relatedness refers to the desire to feel connected to others, to love and to care (White 1959).

•Finally, the need for competence refers to the desire to feel effective and skillful in activities (Baumeister and Leary 1995).

•Deci and Ryan (2000) asserted that there was no instance of optimal, healthy development in which the basic needs were neglected, and that psychological health required satisfying all three needs.

•Many studies showed that satisfaction of these basic psychological needs was highly correlated with well-being (Reis et al. 2000; Sheldon et al. 1996).

•Well-being reflects a sense of vitality and inner wellness that characterizes the fully functioning organism (Ryan and Deci 2001).

- According to SDT, the indicator par excellence to assess eudaimonic well-being (meaning and self-realization; degree of functioning) is subjective vitality, defined as one's conscious experience of possessing energy and aliveness (Ryan and Deci 2001; Ryan and Frederick 1997)
- Vitality is associated with feelings of positive mood states, vigor, and activated positive affect (Ryan and Deci 2008)
- Vitality has been shown to positively relate to need fulfilment and corresponds to the experience of oneself as a potential origin of action (Ryan and Frederick 1997)
- In SDT it is assumed also that need supportive parental behaviours would facilitate satisfaction of basic psychological needs, while need thwarting parental behaviours would forestall satisfaction of needs (Deci and Ryan 2000).
- The constructs of parental need thwarting and need support refer to parents' actual or perceived behaviours, that is, what they do (or are perceived to do) to either thwart or support children's needs (Soenens and Vansteenkiste 2010)
- Soenens and Vansteenkiste (2010) suggested that parental psychological control, as a feature of a need-thwarting parenting style, could have a direct influence on all three needs and could explain why parental psychological control is related to ill-being.
- Specifically, through the use of intrusive techniques, psychologically controlling parents press children to comply with the parents' own personal standards and needs, irrespective of the children's needs and values.
- Psychological control thwarted experiences of autonomy in children and adolescents (Vansteenkiste et al. 2005).
- it was thought to disrupt the development of emotional autonomy by interfering with adolescents' ability to establish and express their own thoughts and feelings and by disturbing the psycho-emotional boundary between parents and their children (Barber and Harmon 2002)
- autonomy-supportive behaviours would represent need supportive behaviours (Soenens and Vansteenkiste 2010; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013)
- Autonomy-supportive parenting is one important dimension of a need-supportive parenting style.
- Autonomy-supportive parents support their children's volitional functioning, for instance, taking the child's frame of reference, providing meaningful choices, encouraging initiative, and providing a relevant rationale when introducing rules (Grolnick et al. 1997).
- For such parents is important to support their offspring's autonomous regulation, because various developmental and motivational researchers (Hill and Holmbeck 1986; Ryan and La Guardia 2000; Steinberg 1989) consider the emergence of a more autonomous functioning as a crucial developmental process for adolescents.
- Adolescents, in fact, should develop their own opinion and try to get their ideas across even when their parents disagree with them.
- Parental autonomy support refers to the active support of the child's capacity to be self-initiating and autonomous (Ryan et al. 2006) and is not akin to promoting permissiveness, or neglect.
- Permissiveness, in fact, would reflect the opposite of parental structure while neglect would reflect the opposite of parental involvement rather than a lack of autonomy support (Chirkov et al. 2010).
- Costa et al. (2015d) showed that parental psychological control was a better (and even unique) predictor of internalizing distress compared to autonomy-support; psychological basic needs fully mediated the association between psychological control and internalizing distress.
- Unfortunately, the measures for psychological basic needs used in these studies did not allow for differentiation between experiences of need satisfaction and need frustration; furthermore, they did not include both measures of well- and ill-being as outcomes. "

Costa 2018

- **Trait emotional intelligence (trait EI)** is defined as people's perceptions of their **emotional world** (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007; Petrides et al., 2016).
 - Trait EI integrates the longstanding **study of emotions** from a personality perspective (Petrides et al., 2016).
 - a constellation of emotional dispositions measurable through self-report (Petrides et al., 2007)
 - could promote a positive development in adolescents and predicts a number of affect-related outcomes

1.1. Antecedents of trait EI

- personality and trait EI have high phenotypic and genetic correlations, suggesting that trait EI and personality could have similar heritability estimates and mechanisms
- studies generally indicated that parents' rearing style assists as a partial mediator in the transmission of parental characteristics to their offspring (Kitamura et al., 2009; McAdams et al., 2014)

1.2. Parenting and trait EI

- the theoretical frameworks of emotional development showed that parenting practices are significantly related with adolescents' emotional domain
- Alegre and Benson (2010) showed that parental availability and harsh parental discipline were significantly correlated with adolescents' trait EI
- Argyriou, Bakoyannis, and Tantaros (2016) reported in their correlational study that trait EI was statistically significant for parental authoritativeness and authoritarianism
- Abdollahi, Talib, and Motalebi (2013) have shown a positive correlation between trait EI and supportive parenting style and a negative correlation between trait EI and neglectful parenting style perceived by late adolescents
- Recent studies reported that **autonomy-supportive parenting** and **parental psychological control** were demonstrated as crucial for adolescent emotional development (Brenning, Soenens, Van Petegem, & Vansteenkiste, 2015; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010)
- few studies have dealt with investigating the relationship of trait EI with parental psychological control and autonomy support
- Gugliandolo, Costa, Cuzzocrea, and Larcan (2015a) showed in a cross-sectional study that parental psychological control is negatively related with trait EI and that trait EI was a mediator in the relation between perceptions of parental psychological control and maladjustment
- Asghari and Besharat (2011) instead found a significant correlation between perception of paternal autonomy support and trait EI in adolescents.

1.3. Parental autonomy support and psychological control

- Parental autonomy support is a form of parenting that facilitates the establishment of a secure, stable, and positive sense of self (Brenning et al., 2015; Ryan & Deci, 2017).
 - Autonomy-supportive parenting tends to be empathetic, encouraging adolescents to express their emotions and desires.
 - Furthermore, this type of parenting offers meaningful choices to adolescents and creates a warm environment that allows discussion of rules and exploration and reflection of emotions.
- In contrast, the opposite pole of parental autonomy support is represented by **psychological control**.
 - **Psychologically controlling** parents ignore adolescents' perspectives and use manipulative behaviours such as guilt-tripping and emotional cut-off to impose their own viewpoints, thereby reducing adolescents' expression of opinions and emotions (Ryan & Deci, 2017).
- **Parental autonomy support** yields various benefits and promotes optimal psychosocial development in adolescents (Vasquez, Patall, Fong, Corrigan, & Pine, 2016).
 - positively correlated with well-being (van der Kaap-Deeder, Vansteenkiste, Soenens, & Mabbe, 2017),
 - socio-emotional development (Matte-Gagné, Harvey, Stack, & Serbin, 2015) and
 - vitality (Costa, Cuzzocrea, Gugliandolo, & Larcan, 2016).
- At the opposite, **parental psychological control** is consistently associated with
- maladjustment and ill-being (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010)
- depressive symptoms (Bleys, Soenens, Claes, Vliegen, & Luyten, 2018),
- frustration intolerance (Filippello, Harrington, Costa, Buzzai, & Sorrenti, 2018) and
- relational aggression (Baumgardner & Boyatzis, 2017).

1.4. Antecedents of parental autonomy support and psychological control

- Costa, Barberis, Gugliandolo, Cuzzocrea, & Liga, 2018; van der Kaap-Deeder et al., 2015 showed that **parents who experienced more need satisfaction reported to be more autonomy-supportive**
 - parents who experienced more **need frustration reported to be use more psychological control**.
- Van der Kaap-Deeder, Boone, and Brenning (2017) reported that participants with a higher level of **evaluative concerns perfectionism** related **negatively to providing autonomy support**, and positively to providing **psychological control**.
- Finally, Prinzie, Stams, Deković, Reijntjes, and Belsky (2009) reported that higher levels of **agreeableness and lower levels of neuroticism** were related to **more parental autonomy support and less psychological control**.
- there is a **lack of depth into the emotional aspects**.

- parents who are able to understand adolescents' needs and feelings and to support them
- **parental psychological control** is characterized by an use of the emotional relationships between parents and adolescent to control the adolescent (Ryan & Deci, 2017)
- **psychological-controlling** parents tend to manipulate adolescent's thoughts and feelings accordance to their own needs
- **parental autonomy support** is characterized by a positive and empathic attitude on behalf of parents towards their adolescent (Ryan & Deci, 2017); this empathic disposition is crucial facet in the trait EI domain (Petrides et al., 2016).

1.5. Maternal and paternal contribution

- An increasing number of researches (Brenning, Soenens, Van Petegem, & Kins, 2017; Guay, Ratelle, Duchesne, & Dubois, 2018) have begun to address issues concerning parenting through a perspective of **mutual relationships between fathers and mothers**,
- suggesting that **personal characteristics of one parent could be related** also with the parental use of **psychological control and autonomy support of the other parent**
- Murdock, Lovejoy, and Oddi (2014) showed that both **maternal and paternal positive and negative affect** were related with both paternal and maternal controlling and supportive parenting behaviours.
- Bleys et al. (2016), instead, have shown that parental self-criticism was related only with same-parent psychological control and no with psychological control of other-parent. Costa, Gugliandolo, Barberis, Cuzzocrea, and Liga (2018), showed also that **maternal need frustration and maternal need satisfaction** were related not only with maternal but also with paternal psychological control and autonomy support.
- For these reasons, to have a broader picture of parental dynamics is clear **the need to investigate the interplay of paternal and maternal trait EI with respect to psychological control and autonomy support toward their adolescent**. It can be expected, in fact, that one parent's tendency to be empathic could be emulated by the other parent in the relationship with the adolescent, using autonomy support. At the opposite, parent with low trait EI tend to have difficult to withstand pressure and could transmit this stressful condition to their partners who might respond using psychological control with the adolescent.

Depestele 2017

"whether autonomy-supportive and controlling parenting are related to the presence/absence of binge-eating/purging behavior and/or non-suicidal self-injury in adolescents with an eating disorder (ED)"

53 ED patients and parents (53 mothers; 37 fathers) "•This study is important because it highlights that correlations are not causation and could relate either way; in this case ED □ parental control, rather than parental control □ ED

•In sum, research suggests that parents may be more controlling and less autonomy-supportive when patients display BP behaviors and/or engage in NSSI. These associations are important to be examined as theory and research suggest that autonomy-suppressing and controlling parenting may serve to maintain or worsen ED symptoms (Ryan, Deci, & Vansteenkiste, 2016; Strauss & Ryan, 1987). Thus, adolescent patients and parents may get caught in a negative vicious circle of deteriorating symptoms and quality of interaction. " "•This study is important because it highlights that correlations are not causation and could relate either way; in this case ED □ parental control, rather than parental control □ ED

•Parental style can be characterized along several dimensions, one of which is defined by the extent to which parents support the autonomy development of their child (parental autonomy support) or the extent to which parents intrude upon their child's thoughts, feelings and behavior in a controlling way (parental psychological control; Barber, 1996; Grolnick & Pomerantz, 2009).

•Only one study has simultaneously examined autonomy-supportive and controlling parenting in relation to ED symptoms.

•Reilly, Stey, and Lapsley (2016) found, in a sample of undergraduate students, that psychologically controlling (but not autonomy-supportive) parenting was related to ED symptoms.

•Although there is evidence linking autonomy-supportive and psychologically controlling parenting—at least indirectly—to ED symptoms, it has not been examined specifically whether these parenting variables are related to the presence of binge-eating / purging behaviors (BP) or non-suicidal self-injury (NSSI), which are known to increase the complexity of the ED problems (Claes & Muehlenkamp, 2014). "

Duineveld 2017

Well-Being

- Well-being is important for the quality of our lives, cognitive capacity, physical health, and social productivity over the life course (Huppert, 2007)
- In the current study well-being is used as an operational definition and is identified through a combination of well-being (i.e., life satisfaction and self-esteem) and lack of psychological distress (i.e., depressive symptoms and emotional exhaustion), following Keyes' model of complete state mental health, in which it is important to explore both the presence and absence of mental illness and mental health symptoms (Keyes, 2002, 2005).
- In the current research the presence of mental health will be examined with subjective well-being measures of life satisfaction and self-esteem, and the absence of mental illness with subjective well-being measures of depression and emotional exhaustion

Determinants of Well-Being at Educational Transitions

- As argued by Ryan and Lynch (1989) even as adolescents gain independence in various domains in life, parental supports for autonomy continue to be critical to well-being.
- Stage-environment fit theory outlines how optimal development occurs when the needs of a person fit with opportunities in different stages of life (Eccles & Midgley, 1989)
- fit occurs between a young person's need in the transition (e.g., increased autonomy) and the social environment (e.g., autonomy supportive parenting)
- a mismatch between the needs and environment can have negative influences on behavior, motivation, and well-being (Eccles et al., 1993; Gutman & Eccles, 2007)
- The mismatch between autonomy need and autonomy support may be particularly problematic during transitions in which children are expected to take on more responsibility and direct control over the course of their lives (Tanner, 2006; Zarett & Eccles, 2006)
- Here we focus specifically on the concept of autonomy supportive parenting using a self-determination framework (e.g., Grolnick & Ryan, 1989).

Self-Determination and Well-Being

- Self-determination theory (SDT) is a theoretical framework that emphasizes the importance of autonomous motivation in psychological development and positive coping (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2017).
- This theoretical framework has been applied to education research in numerous empirical studies (for review, see Ryan & Deci, 2017).
- The theory argues that there are basic psychological needs that must be fulfilled across the life span for autonomous motivation and well-being to be maintained or enhanced (Ryan, Deci, & Vansteenkiste, 2016).
- More specifically, psychological needs are those that are required for sustenance, growth, and health.
- Within the frame of SDT there are three essential or basic psychological needs: the need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985).
- Autonomy refers to the feeling that one's behavior is volitional and self-endorsed, not pressured or controlled (Ryan & Deci, 2017).
- When others support autonomy, they are nurturing capacities for self-regulation, and contributing to wellness.
- This study focusses on the autonomy need because a great number of studies have shown that autonomy support alone increases not only autonomy, but also competence and relatedness satisfaction (e.g., Deci, Ryan, Gagné, Leone, Usunov, & Kornazheva, 2001; Grolnick, 2003; Ryan & Grolnick, 1986; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2005).
- It is recognized by SDT that social environments may work against the development of the psychological needs.
- Environments where the psychological need satisfaction is neglected or thwarted promote psychological distress and psychopathology.
- Particularly critical in this respect is parental autonomy support which has been empirically shown to facilitate greater mental health and lower psychopathology (Ryan et al., 2016).

The Role of the Parent

- Autonomy support allows individuals to actively reflect upon and adapt values and interests as their own.
- Parental behaviors that are consistent with autonomy support include taking the child's perspective, providing relevant choices, and encouragement to take initiative and explore (Grolnick, 2003; Ryan et al., 2016; Soenens & Beyers, 2012).
- Consequently, adolescents with awareness of personal interests, values, and goals, will be better at making decisions throughout their developmental tasks, as they have something to base their own actions on (Grolnick, 2003; Van der Giessen, Branje, & Meeus, 2014).
- Overall, autonomy support encourages an adaptive style of development, characterized by age-appropriate behavior and well-being.
- During development, parents can be thought of as a resource.
- Parents who meet the adolescents' changing needs (e.g., by providing opportunities of increased autonomy) provide a better match for the adolescent and the developmental task at hand.

- This positive role of parents in the adolescents' development has, in turn, shown to be associated to a greater overall well-being (Chirkov & Ryan, 2001).
- In fact, autonomy support is positively associated with adolescent well-being across all ages and gender (La Guardia, Ryan, Couchman, & Deci, 2000; Soenens, Park, Vansteenkiste, & Mouratidis, 2012)
- It is shown in a variety of studies that an autonomy supportive environment is essential to the child's adjustment (Guay et al., 2003).
- Higher autonomy support has been shown to relate to low emotional exhaustion (e.g., Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007; Van den Berghe et al., 2013).
- Autonomy supportive parenting has been associated with less depressive symptoms in youth (Chirkov & Ryan, 2001; Ryan et al., 2016).
- Moreover, perceived parental autonomy also promotes a sense of well-being by increasing life satisfaction (Park, 2004) and self-esteem (Soenens et al., 2007).
- In fact, most positive educational outcomes and well-being are associated with autonomous motivation (see Vallerand, Fortier, & Guay, 1997).
- This includes positive educational outcomes such as greater achievement and easier adjustment to school (see Joussemet, Landry, & Koestner, 2008; Lord, Eccles, & McCarthy, 1994).
- We expect autonomy support to influence well-being (both general and school related) across educational transitions. Current research suggests parents and adolescents can mutually influence, or "coregulate," each other (Dietrich et al., 2012; Nurmi, 2004).
- Therefore, a young person's well-being may influence what parenting style is used.
- However, the mechanisms behind coregulation are not well defined (Dietrich et al., 2012).
- Therefore, it is difficult to hypothesize the extent that well-being is an antecedent to changes in parenting style during educational transitions. As such we leave this coregulation influence as a research question.

Influence of Parental Gender

- mothers and fathers play different roles
 - such theorists suggest that mothers have more influence on the adolescents' direct social environment (e.g., friendship), while
 - fathers are more influential for goal-oriented activities (e.g., career development; Grolnick, Weiss, McKenzie, & Wrightman, 1996; Tynkkynen, Nurmi, & Salmela-Aro, 2010)
 - it is possible that fathers exert more influence with autonomy support in the current study
 - social environments are also affected by transitions (Parker, Lüdtke, et al., 2012), making it likely that maternal autonomy support is also influential in the current study
- Most autonomy support research does not mention any distinction between parental genders (e.g., Brenning, Soenens, Van Petegem, & Vansteenkiste, 2015; Soenens et al., 2007)
- studies that do make a distinction report a difference between effects of maternal and paternal autonomy support on self-determination and achievement
 - none of these differences have been explored for effects on well-being (e.g., Grolnick, Ryan, & Deci, 1991; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2005)
 - Given a lack of evidence on differential effects of paternal and maternal autonomy support on well-being, we present this as a research question.

Froiland 2017

"educational attainment and later academic performance

relationship between:

- * parental autonomy support
- * student intrinsic life goals (i.e. community feeling)
- * student expectations for long-term educational attainment and later academic performance

- we are the first to examine whether parental autonomy support predicts long-term growth in achievement via community feeling and student expectations " in 227 students in an ethnically and racially diverse high school "parental autonomy support
- was indirectly and positively related to academic performance via intrinsic life goals intrinsic life goals and student expectations
- were moderately and positively related and both contributed to growth in academic performance
 - suggests that self-determination theory and expectancy-value theory provide additive insight in predicting educational achievement

The significant indirect effect of parental autonomy support on GPA via intrinsic life goals and student expectations suggests that students will benefit from parents fostering intrinsic life goals through autonomy supportive communication. "

"• Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2000b) posits that individuals have a need for competence, autonomy and relatedness

- if needs are met, intrinsic motivation and academic achievement will increase
- intrinsic life goals in general have been repeatedly linked to psychological health and happiness (e.g. Froiland, 2011; Kasser & Ryan, 1996; Kasser et al., 2004; North, Holahan, Carlson, & Pahl, 2014)
 - o but few studies have specifically examined whether the intrinsic life goal of helping others (community feeling) promotes academic achievement longitudinally

intrinsic life goals and achievement

- Parental autonomy support regularly predicts achievement (Pomerantz, Ng, Cheung, & Qu, 2014)
 - o but the relationship is weaker than the relationship between parental autonomy support and motivational variables, such as autonomous motivation (Froiland, 2014; Vasquez, Patall, Fong, Corrigan, & Pine, 2015)
- very few studies have examined the relationship between parental autonomy support and intrinsic life goals (Vasquez et al., 2015)
 - o but those that have find that parental autonomy support predicts intrinsic life goals (Kasser, Ryan, Zax, & Sameroff, 1995; Lekes, Gingras, Philippe, Koestner, & Fang, 2010)
 - o intrinsic life goals partially mediate the association between parental autonomy support and well-being (Lekes et al., 2010)
 - o extrinsic life goals (e.g. desire for popularity, fortune and looking good) partially mediate the association between parental autonomy support and unhealthy behaviours among high school students, such as smoking cigarettes and drinking alcohol (Williams, Hedberg, Cox, & Deci, 2000)" "intrinsic life goals and achievement
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Student expectations as predictors of achievement

- the expectancy-value model of achievement posits that youth's expectations for success directly affect achievement (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002)
- student expectations for long-term educational attainment are an important predictor of achievement in various academic subjects, above and beyond control variables, such as prior achievement, gender and parent education (Froiland, Peterson, & Davison, 2013)
- Vansteenkiste, Lens, Witte, and Feather (2005) have shown that expectancy-value theory (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002) and self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000a) can be used simultaneously to more effectively predict job search efforts, than either theory can alone

Other correlates of achievement

- parent education, gender and prior achievement
- girls often have higher GPAs than boys (Froiland & Davison, 2014b)
- girls have slightly stronger behavioural engagement in the classroom, but are not usually more intrinsically motivated to learn (e.g. Froiland & Worrell, 2016)
- prior achievement is a robust predictor of later achievement among youth and is a key control variable for longitudinal studies examining achievement (Froiland & Oros, 2014; Froiland et al., 2013; Jeynes, 2012)
- parent education is positively associated with achievement (e.g. Froiland, Powell, Diamond, & Son, 2013; Jeynes, 2012; Powell, Son, File, & Froiland, 2012)"

Gaumon 2016

No Autonomy Support Study

The father–child relationship and its relation to child anxiety and attachment to the mother"
49 families

- the independence between mother–child attachment and father–child activation
- the association between mother–child attachment and anxiety
- the highest levels of anxiety were found in insecure-ambivalent children
 - and insecure disorganized-controlling children of the caregiving subtype
- the activation relationship with the father was shown to have a moderating effect on the relation between attachment to the mother and child anxiety
- activation by the father may be considered either a protective or a risk factor"

Guay 2018

How mothers and fathers contribute to each other's autonomy supportive and controlling behaviors toward their child.

Participants were heterosexual parental dyads from two prospective studies (Study 1, n = 289; Study 2, n = 202).

Mothers and fathers completed questionnaires assessing their autonomy supportive and controlling behaviors toward their adolescent child.

- Reciprocal partner effects where mothers' autonomy support at Time 1 predicted fathers' autonomy support at Time 2
- Fathers' autonomy support at Time 1 predicted mothers' autonomy support at Time 2
- Reciprocal partner effects were also observed for controlling behaviors
 - These reciprocal relations were not statistically different across mothers and fathers.

Conclusions.

- Support for interparental contributions regarding autonomy supportive and controlling parenting behaviors.
- Mothers and fathers should thus be aware that their parenting behaviors can be influenced by each other, including both positive and negative parenting behaviors.

Family systems theory

- cohesion between mothers and fathers in their parenting practices helps their adolescents to negotiate various developmental challenges (Chen & Johnston, 2012)
- the degree of cohesiveness between mothers' and fathers' parenting behaviors (e.g., Beiswenger & Grolnick, 2010; Duchesne & Ratelle, 2010)
- few have examined the possibility that one parent's behaviors shape the other parent's behaviors (Pleck & Hofferth, 2008; Schofield et al., 2009)
- this study examined the influences mothers and fathers have on each other with respect to autonomy support and control toward their child (Grolnick, 2009)

Autonomy Supportive and Controlling Behaviors

- SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2009) identified autonomy support and control as categories of behaviors that respectively promote and hinder children's adjustment (Grolnick & Pomerantz, 2009)
- Autonomy support refers to behaviors that involve recognizing adolescents' perspectives, allowing them to take initiatives and hold age-appropriate responsibilities, offering them opportunities to be autonomous, and providing them with meaningful rationales for parental rules and expectations
- Control refers to behaviors such as intrusiveness, dominance, and pressure (e.g., the use of rewards, threats, and punishments) to motivate adolescents' behaviors (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010)
- This definition of parental control is thus similar to the one of psychological control proposed by Barber (2002).

- The degree of behavioral similarity among co-parents is relatively high: maternal and paternal levels of autonomy support and control are moderately positively correlated, even when children or parents are asked to report these parenting behaviors.
- Studies that examined children's perceptions of their parents' autonomy supportive (e.g., Beiswenger & Grolnick, 2010; Gillet, Vallerand, & Lafrenière, 2012; Guay, Ratelle, Larose, Vallerand, & Vitaro, 2013; Roth, 2008) and controlling (De Haan, Soenens, Deković, & Prinzie, 2013; Kins, Soenens, & Beyers, 2012; Miller, 2012; Oudekerk et al., 2014; Stevens & Hardy, 2013; Wei & Kendall, 2014; Yoo, Feng, & Day, 2013) behaviors showed that mothers and fathers are generally perceived to be a moderately similar.

Mothers' and Fathers' Mutual Influence

- **Family systems theory** (see Bronte-Tinkew, Scott, & Lilja, 2010) and the **family process model** (Belsky, 1984) stress the notion of interdependent influence between mothers and fathers
- **Behavior contagion** could accordingly be one of the processes that explains their interdependent influence (Rhule-Louie & McMahon, 2007) as proposed by social learning theory (Bandura, 1963)
 - Behavior contagion, as a socialization process, entails a causal effect from one partner's behaviors to those of the other partner (and vice versa)
 - In time of conflicts, autonomy supportive or controlling parenting behaviors may be manifested more frequently, and this higher frequency may be detected and emulated by the other parent (Bandura, 1997). More specifically, fathers and mothers may observe each other during interactions with their adolescent child and use this information to become a more effective caregiver. Because there is no absolute value of proficiency related to parenting behaviors, modeling between partners is important. Parents must, therefore, appraise their parenting capacities in relation to the attainment of a similar other, which in this context is their co-parent (Bandura, 1997). Unfortunately, social learning between parents could occur even when one spouse shows ineffective parenting such as using controlling behaviors. From parents' perspective, this strategy could be perceived as beneficial to motivate their child and modeled on across parents. Studies in the motivation field have supported contagion. For example, simply observing a target person's motivational orientation increases the observer's level of motivation (Friedman, Deci, Elliot, Moller, & Aarts, 2010).
 - Moreover, maternal autonomy support predicts increased autonomy support in sibling interactions (Van Der Kaap-Deeder et al., 2015).
- Another important question regarding interparental influences is whether maternal parenting behaviors have a stronger influence on paternal parenting behaviors than the opposite.
- Some studies found that mothers were more likely to influence fathers than vice versa.

Hughes 2018

- Infant exploration often hinges on parental autonomy support (i.e., parental behaviors that support children's goals, interests, and choices),
 - a construct that is widely applied in family studies of school-age children and adolescents but less studied in infants and toddlers
- Notable **gaps** concern the **equivalence, similarities, and contrasts between mothers' and fathers' autonomy support** and the correlates of individual differences in autonomy support
- To address these under-researched topics, we conducted parallel home-based structured play observations of 195 infants (*M*-age = 14.42 months, *SD* = .59) in dyadic interaction with mothers and fathers.
- Confirmatory factor analyses demonstrated measurement invariance across
 - parent gender,
 - enabling comparisons that revealed significantly moderately higher levels of autonomy support in mothers than in fathers
- individual differences in autonomy support were unrelated to either parental personality or child temperament
 - highlighting the potential importance of dyadic characteristics
- Consistent with this view, whereas maternal autonomy support did not differ by child gender, fathers with sons displayed less autonomy support than did fathers with daughters

Introduction: SDT and Scaffolding – Gap fathers' AS

- According to **self-determination theory**, autonomy, competence, and relatedness underpin psychological health and effective engagement with the world (Deci & Ryan, 2015).
- caregiver behaviors that support children's goals, interests, and choices are referred to as autonomy support (Whipple, Bernier, & Mageau, 2011)
- overlap with the concept of **parental scaffolding** of preschool and school-age children's problem-solving (for a recent review, see **Mermelshtine, 2017**), **autonomy support** in infancy and the preschool years each predict later executive function (e.g., Bernier, Carlson, & Whipple, 2010; Hughes & Devine, 2017b)
- autonomy support in this intervening period of toddlerhood has been little studied
- more striking, however, is the lack of attention to fathers' autonomy support.
- **To address these twin gaps**, the current study investigated (a) similarities and contrasts in the nature and/or mean level of mothers' and fathers' autonomy support in toddlerhood and (b) the correlates of individual differences in parents' autonomy support.

Autonomy Support and Scaffolding of Children's Goal-Directed Activity

- Developmental science has transformed the understanding of young children's social and cognitive competencies, leading to a shift in the focus of research on early parental influences.
- whereas parenting studies have long focused on general constructs such as **sensitivity** or **authoritative discipline**, interest in young children's executive functions (Hughes & Devine, 2017a) has led to multidimensional models and a renewed interest in specific constructs, such as **autonomy support**.
- Studies involving samples of different ages and from different countries (Bernier, Carlson, Deschênes, & Matte-Gagné, 2012; Bernier et al., 2010; Hughes & Devine, 2017b; Hughes & Ensor, 2009) have shown that both global measures of **autonomy support** and more specific **measures of parental scaffolding** predict gains in preschoolers' executive functions, even when background parental measures are controlled.
- Recent evidence that **early parental autonomy support** predicts children's later academic success (**Bernier, McMahon, & Perrier, 2017; Devine, Bignardi, & Hughes, 2016**) has also highlighted the importance of early variation in parental autonomy support.

Do Mothers and Fathers Provide Similar Kinds and Levels of Autonomy Support?

- Fathers have become increasingly involved in child care (e.g., Sullivan, Coltrane, McAnnally, & Altintas, 2009)
 - they have, with recent exceptions (Mills-Koonce et al., 2015; Nordahl, Zambrana, & Forgatch, 2016; Sethna et al., 2017), generally been overlooked in studies of individual differences in early parent–child interactions
- Whereas early theorists (e.g., Belsky, Gilstrap, & Rovine, 1984) argued that differences in parental experience and/or context were likely to yield qualitative differences between mothers' and fathers' caregiving, recent theoretical reviews have called for gender-neutral models of parenting (e.g., Fagan, Day, Lamb, & Cabrera, 2014)

Parental Autonomy Support: Individual and Dyadic Correlates

- Belsky's (1984) seminal account of the **multifaceted determinants of parenting**
- small but consistent links between personality and parenting (Prinz, Stams, Deković, Reijntjes, & Belsky, 2009) that appear similar in strength and nature for mothers and fathers (de Haan, Prinz, & Deković, 2009)
- Moreover, the few studies that included direct observations of parent–infant interactions (e.g., Clark, Kochanska, & Ready, 2000; Karreman, van Tuijl, van Aken, & Deković, 2008) focused on parental control and responsiveness or sensitivity rather than on autonomy support.
- To our knowledge, only one study involving mothers of preschoolers (Neitzel & Stright, 2004) has reported a link between parental personality and observational ratings of autonomy support. Thus, our study adds to the field by involving both mothers and fathers of infants.
- evidence has suggested a dosage effect in which children's difficult behavior exerts a stronger influence on mothers' than on fathers' parenting (e.g., Elam, Chassin, Eisenberg, & Spinrad, 2017)
- in a study of parents and toddlers, Lovas (2005) reported a steady decline in parents' emotional availability across mother–daughter, mother–son, father–daughter and father–son dyads
- a meta-analysis of 126 observational studies of parents' autonomy-support behaviors showed negligible effects of child gender (Endendijk, Groeneveld, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & Mesman, 2016)
- moderation analyses revealed significant effects of both time and age
- studies from the 1970s and 1980s reported greater autonomy support for sons than daughters

- studies from the 1990s onward reported greater autonomy support for daughters than for sons
- across all studies, parents showed more autonomy support for girls than for boys at the youngest age level (0–2 years)
- Not yet known, however, is whether mothers and fathers of infants are equally likely to provide greater autonomy support for daughters than for sons.
- In sum, the current study applied parallel home observations of mothers' and fathers' autonomy support for 14-month-old infants in structured dyadic play to (a) assess their similarity in form and mean levels and (b) examine individual differences in relation to parental and child factors (e.g., age, personality temperament, gender).

Hughes 2019

Parental influences on young children's executive functioning and verbal ability

Coding of parent–child interactions

Assessment of adult and child Executive Functioning and child verbal ability (VA).

- Supporting a **differentiated view of parental influence**,
 - negative parent–child interactions and parental scaffolding showed unique and specific associations with child EF
- The home learning environment and parental language measures showed global associations with children's EF and VA

Discussion

- negative parent–child interactions (characterized by negative affect, criticism, and control) showed a unique, specific inverse association with child EF
- parental scaffolding showed a unique, specific positive association with child EF
- informal opportunities for learning (as measured by the HLE questionnaire) and parental language input were related to both EF and VA
- these findings support a differentiated model of parenting, in that each of the measures of parental behavior was largely distinct and showed different patterns of association with child EF and VA

Discussion

- including multiple direct observational measures of parenting is labor well spent
- findings confirm a multifaceted model of parenting (Zheng et al., 2016)
- separate measures of parental behavior (i.e., positive/negative and cognitive/ affective) show distinct patterns of association with children's EF
- our findings confirm the domain specificity of parental influences
 - whereas scaffolding and negative parent–child interactions are both key predictors of child EF
 - highlighting the diversity of parental influences on child EF, they were unrelated to children's VA
 - the HLE was positively related to both child outcomes and parental MLU was positively related to child VA but negatively related to child EF

Inguglia 2014

Abstract

- Autonomy and relatedness are fundamental needs both in adolescence and in emerging adulthood
- affected by parental support
- linked to children's psychological distress
- autonomy and relatedness in late adolescents and emerging adults living in Italy, analyzing the relationships with perceived parental support and psychological distress
- 325 Caucasian adolescents and emerging adults (males = 41 %) ranging in age from 17 to 26 years and living in Sicily

Results

- both autonomy and relatedness were positively predicted by parental support to these needs
- perceived support for autonomy was positively associated with perceived support for relatedness

- autonomy and relatedness were positively related to each other for emerging adults, but they were not related for teens
- autonomy predicted negatively depression and loneliness
- relatedness predicted negatively externalizing problems (only for adolescents), stress, depression, and loneliness
- Taken together, the findings confirmed that autonomy and relatedness are fundamental needs for both teens and emerging adults related to parental support and psychological health.
- Notwithstanding, age moderated some of the investigated relationships suggesting that autonomy and relatedness have different meanings, as well as playing different roles during adolescence and emerging adulthood.

Introduction

SDT

- autonomy and relatedness are fundamental needs for all human beings (Deci and Ryan 2000, 2008; Vansteenkiste et al. 2006)
- linked to personal achievement and adjustment (Chirkov 2012; Deci and Ryan 2000; Kagitcibasi 2005; Ryff and Singer 1998)
- autonomy can be defined as the sense of volition, the desire to self-organize experience and behavior, and to have activity concordant with one's integrated sense of self (Deci 1980; Ryan and Connell 1989; Sheldon and Elliot 1999)
- relatedness can be defined as the feeling to be connected to others, to love and care, and to be loved and cared for, establishing high quality, satisfying, and positive bonds with others (Baumeister and Leary 1995; Ryan 1993)
- highly complementary motives (Guisinger and Blatt 1994; Hodgins et al. 1996; Ryan and Lynch 1989)
- a mutual integration of the two concerns is thought to be necessary for optimum psychological health (Guisinger and Blatt 1994)
- the link between autonomy and relatedness involves a dialectical process along two developmental lines in which progress in a line is essential in order to have progress in the other
- the development of an increasingly differentiated, integrated, and mature sense of self is contingent on establishing satisfying interpersonal experiences and vice versa (Blatt and Blass 1996; Emde 1994; Guisinger and Blatt 1994; Kagitcibasi 1996; Ryan et al. 1995)
- two crucial developmental stages for these processes are adolescence and emerging adulthood (Koepke and Denissen 2012; Phinney et al. 2005)

Purpose

- to investigate autonomy and relatedness during these two phases, analyzing the relationships with perceived parental support and psychological distress

Age-Related Changes in Autonomy and Relatedness

- parents and their offspring need to reciprocally regulate independence and connection in their relations as children become socially and cognitively mature (Fuligni and Pedersen 2002)
- during adolescence, generally there is an increase in autonomy and a parallel decrease in relatedness in the relationship with parents (Buhl 2008; Collins et al. 1997; Galambos et al. 2003)
- autonomy development normally accelerates due to changes in physical and cognitive competence, the growth of social bonds, and the attainment of extra rights and responsibilities
- Independence and ability to make own decisions increase, self and identity are progressively consolidated, and cognition, affect, and behavior are gradually self-regulated (Zimmer-Gembeck and Collins 2003)

The Role of Parental Autonomy and Relatedness Support

- tension between autonomy and relatedness both in adolescence and in emerging adulthood (Koepke and Denissen 2012; McElhaney and Allen 2012; Soenens et al. 2007; Youniss and Smollar 1985)
- autonomy and relatedness supportive parenting produces numerous benefits for adolescents' and emerging adults' adjustment (Grolnick 2003; Grolnick et al. 1997; Joussemet et al. 2008; Leks et al. 2010; Sher-Censor et al. 2011; Soenens and Beyers 2012; Soenens and Vansteenkiste 2010)
- support to autonomy and relatedness needs is typical of parents who have an empathic approach toward their children, allowing them to choose among opportunities and to develop self-determined behaviors (Kins et al. 2009; Ryan et al. 2006)

- the promotion of autonomy and relatedness has been already examined extensively (McElhaney and Allen 2001; Grotevant and Cooper 1998), and it has been observed that it can take many forms, including children's freedoms and responsibilities (Zimmer-Gembeck and Collins 2003), and overt encouragement of children's self-exploration and self-assertion (Grotevant and Cooper 1998)
- autonomy and relatedness tend to promote the growth of their offspring's volitional or self-governing functioning (Soenens et al. 2005)
- leads to a better adjustment and higher levels of psychosocial functioning (Deci and Ryan 2000)
- linked with a range of positive outcomes for their children including high school attachment and performance, low feelings of depression, few behavioral problems, low levels of psychological distress, and deviant behaviors (Allen et al. 1994; Eccles et al. 1997; Grolnick 2003; Herman et al. 1997; Ratelle et al. 2005)
- emerging adulthood, the autonomy-supportive tend to increase contributing to the reinforcement of both the sense of autonomy and relatedness (Koepke and Denissen 2012)
- Roth et al. (2009) observed that autonomy and relatedness support would lead emerging adults to have a sense of choice during identity development, integrative regulation of emotions, and an increased level of exploration
- autonomy and relatedness support is linked with positive emotional outcomes, and emotional and behavioral regulation internalized within one's sense of self (Ryan and Deci 2008)
- In general, the autonomy-supportive reactions of parents may help emerging adults to elaborate on their opinions, to engage in-depth in identity options (Schwartz et al. 2005), and may motivate them to make the most of their opportunities and to finally settle for obligations that best fit their personality (Koepke and Denissen 2012).

Autonomy, Relatedness, and Psychological Distress

- both autonomy and relatedness are associated with psychosocial adjustment (Chirkov 2012; Deci and Ryan 2000; Inguglia et al. 2011; Lo Cricchio et al. 2012; Kagitcibas, i 2005; Ryff and Singer 1998)
- during adolescence, researchers have found several positive outcomes linked to acting in an autonomous and self-determined way (for overviews, see Deci and Ryan 2000; Vallerand 1997)
- autonomous functioning tends to be associated with high feelings of well-being expressed in terms of self-esteem and life satisfaction (Levesque et al. 2004)
- adolescents' relatedness is usually linked to positive indices of adjustment such as high levels of prosocial behavior (Karcher and Santos 2011) and low levels of externalizing problems (Samuolis et al. 2005)
- Allen et al. (1994) suggested that a lack of autonomy and relatedness between adolescents and their parents may predict a deficiency in their behavioral regulation system; without this guidance and relation, internalizing and externalizing behaviors become much more likely.
- Throughout emerging adulthood, the parallel development of autonomy and relatedness leads to positive processes of integration and consolidation of self and relationships that are central for well-being (Arnett 2001)
- the lack of a sense of autonomy and/or relatedness is dangerous for adjustment (Chirkov and Ryan 2001; Luciano 2009)
- Aquilino (2006) found that, although young adults are more independent from their parents, the latter continue to be important in their lives

Inguglia 2018

Abstract

Adolescents' satisfaction and frustration of autonomy and relatedness, with (a) adolescents' perception of mother's and father's psychological control and autonomy support, and (b) adolescents' self-acceptance and anxiety

How needs for autonomy and relatedness are associated with parenting dimensions.

How needs for autonomy and relatedness contribute to the adjustment of adolescents living in psychologically interdependent cultures, taking into account the role of each parent as well as the separate contribution of need satisfaction and need frustration.

Participants were 556 adolescents ($M = 17.25$, $SD = 0.92$).

Findings:

- path analysis showed more significant associations of autonomy support with satisfaction/frustration of autonomy and relatedness than psychological control
- some differences between parents
- both satisfaction and frustration of autonomy and relatedness were associated with adolescents' self-acceptance and anxiety although in different ways

The Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT)

- one of the six mini-theories of Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci and Ryan 2000; Ryan and Deci 2000)
- posits that all human beings have three universally basic psychological needs (namely autonomy, competence, and relatedness)
- satisfaction is associated with high levels of psychological functioning
- Autonomy reflects the need to choose one's own life direction and psychological freedom in carrying out an activity, as well as to feel efficacious and capable of achieving desired outcomes.
- Competence involves the need to feel adequate of achieving goals and to effectively carry out activities.
- Relatedness concerns the necessity to establish close relationships and to belong to a community or to feel part of a group (Deci and Ryan 2000).
- As Vansteenkiste and Ryan state (2013, p. 264), "just as plants need water and sunshine to grow and flower, the satisfaction of the basic psychological needs is deemed essential to psychological thriving".
- Many studies have shown that the satisfaction of these psychological needs is positively associated with psychological well-being among youth (Bartholomew et al. 2011; Chen et al. 2015; Cordeiro et al. 2016).
- Previous research has also indicated that low need satisfaction is related with various maladaptive outcomes, such as burnout, internalizing distress and other negative affective states (e.g., Costa et al. 2015; Inguglia et al. 2015, 2016; Reinboth et al. 2004).

Difference between the lack of fulfillment of the needs and the experience of need frustration

- Bartholomew et al. 2011; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013
- Vansteenkiste and Ryan (2013), continuing their plant metaphor, say that low need satisfaction is like when plants do not get sunshine and water, whereas the presence of need frustration is like when salted water is thrown on plants
- In both cases, plants are destined to stop growing and die, but in the latter it will happen more quickly.
- In sum, the presence of low levels of need satisfaction have negative effects over time, while this deteriorating process is hastened by need frustration.
- Vansteenkiste and Ryan (2013) argue that while the satisfaction of basic psychological needs is a crucial condition for individuals' psychological flourishing, their frustration is expected to lead to energy depletion, maladjustment and illness.
- This study takes into account the relationships between satisfaction and frustration of autonomy and relatedness needs and two parenting dimensions, namely parental psychological control and autonomy support. Indeed, as it is outlined in the next section, the satisfaction and frustration of basic psychological needs is associated with these parenting dimensions (Ahmad et al. 2013; Costa et al. 2015; Inguglia et al. 2015; Mabbe et al. 2015).

Associations between the satisfaction and frustration of basic needs and parenting dimensions

- (Deci and Ryan 2000), the satisfaction of child's basic psychological needs is related to the experiences provided by significant social contexts
- social contexts that deprive need satisfaction or thwart the satisfaction of the needs, the possibility to reach a positive psychological functioning is undermined (Cordeiro et al. 2016; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013)
- satisfaction and frustration of basic psychological needs is associated with some parenting dimensions, such as psychological control and autonomy support (Ahmad et al. 2013; Costa et al. 2018; Inguglia et al. 2015; Mabbe et al. 2015)

- Psychological control is a parenting dimension characteristic of parents who pressure their children to comply with their own agenda through insidious and manipulative tactics, such as guilt induction, shaming, and love withdrawal (Barber and Harmon 2002; Soenens et al. 2010)
- parental autonomy support is a parenting dimension characteristic of parents who promote the volitional functioning of their children and encourage them to act upon their true personal interests and values (Fousiani et al. 2014; Soenens et al. 2007).
- Psychological control and autonomy support are linked to the satisfaction and the frustration of fundamental needs (Deci and Ryan 2000; Inguglia et al. 2016)
- controlling parenting is associated with low need satisfaction and high need frustration
- autonomy granting is related to high need satisfaction and low need frustration (Ahmad et al. 2013; Costa et al. 2015; Inguglia et al. 2016; Mabbe et al. 2015)
- some scholars have specifically focused their attention on the relationships between parenting dimensions and the satisfaction/frustration of autonomy and relatedness needs (Fousiani et al. 2016; Inguglia et al. 2016)
- Kağıtçıbaşı's theory of autonomous-relatedness self-stating that autonomy and relatedness are very relevant issues in the context of parent–child relationships, especially when dealing with psychologically controlling and autonomy promoting parenting practices (Kağıtçıbaşı 1996, 2005)
- In this framework, the family interaction pattern called **Family Model of Psychological Interdependence** (Kağıtçıbaşı 2005), characterized by a **synthesis of authoritative parenting, material independence, psychological interdependence** and **close-knit ties**, allows children to develop an autonomous-related self showing at the same time high levels of agency and closeness to significant others.
- Adolescence ... youngsters begin to be independent people who are less influenced by parents and other adults, as well as having more opportunities to determine their own behaviors (Buhl 2008; Inguglia et al. 2015)
- the desire to feel connected to parents is still noticeable and associated with positive developmental outcomes (Inguglia et al. 2015)
- the link between autonomy and relatedness involves a dialectical process along two developmental lines in which progress in a line is essential in order to have progress in the other (Blatt and Shichman 1983; Inguglia et al. 2015).
- both autonomy and relatedness, as distinct but complementary motives in the context of parent–child relationships, are associated with specific parenting dimensions
- the more parents support their children's strivings for autonomy, the more children are able to strengthen their sense of volition and to establish satisfying relationships (Ahmad et al. 2013; Costa et al. 2016; Inguglia et al. 2016)
- the more parents behave in psychologically controlling ways, the less their children are autonomous and embedded in a network of positive relationships (Inguglia et al. 2015; Koepke and Denissen 2012).
- In sum, parental autonomy support seems to be positively associated with the satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs, while parental psychological control seems to be negatively linked to the satisfaction of both needs (Ahmad et al. 2013; Costa et al. 2015; Inguglia et al. 2016).
- GAP: most of them request participants to report the psychological control or the autonomy support perceived by both parents together (Costa et al. 2015; Inguglia et al. 2016) or by only one parent, especially mother (Ahmad et al. 2013)
- they lack in analyzing the unique role of each parent by allowing youth to provide separate ratings for maternal and paternal parenting dimensions
- important gender-specific effects could be masked
- Soenens and colleagues (2010) have suggested that mothers' and fathers' use of psychological control may produce different effects on their children's adjustment
- it is likely that psychological control and autonomy support of mothers and fathers may be differently associated with autonomy and relatedness needs
- Costa et al. (2016) have investigated the associations between maternal and paternal psychological control and autonomy support, on the one hand, with need satisfaction and need frustration, on the other hand

- Costa found that mothers and fathers differ only with regard the negative association between autonomy support and need frustration
- that is significant for the mothers and not for the fathers. However, they analyzed only the associations of maternal/ paternal parenting dimensions with global scores of need satisfaction/frustration, without disentangling specific needs like autonomy and relatedness.
- Second, many of these studies are focused on the associations among parenting dimensions and need satisfaction. Thus, they do not take into account that it is necessary to disentangle the satisfaction of basic needs from the frustration of these needs (Bartholomew et al. 2011; Cordeiro et al. 2018; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013).

Associations between satisfaction and frustration of basic needs and psychological functioning

- the satisfaction and frustration of psychological basic needs are likely to function separately and to provide a different contribution to individuals' psychological functioning in adolescence (Chen et al. 2015; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013)
- the satisfaction of basic psychological needs is associated with adolescents' positive development of the Self (Church et al. 2013; Kipp and Weiss 2015; Ryan et al. 2006, 2016)
- people's abilities to develop and act from a coherent sense of Self, characterized by high levels of self-acceptance and self-esteem, are facilitated by satisfaction of the basic psychological needs, such as the sense of autonomy and the experience of being connected with significant others (Di Domenico et al. 2013).
- the frustration of basic psychological needs seems to be associated with ill-being and diminished human functioning, in terms of feelings of inadequacy, exclusion, anxiety, depression, and loneliness (Ahmad et al. 2013; Bartholomew et al. 2011; Chen et al. 2015; Cordeiro et al. 2016; Costa et al. 2015; Longo et al. 2016; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013; Verstuyf et al. 2013).
- Longo and colleagues (2016) found that need frustration was correlated more strongly with anxiety than need satisfaction
- autonomy frustration is linked to the feeling of being controlled through externally enforced coercive pressures, whereas relatedness frustration involves the feeling of relational exclusion and loneliness (Nishimura et al. 2016), and these feelings may result in anxiety states.

Legate 2018

Abstract

internalized homophobia, or self-directed antigay prejudice

developmental antecedents to internalized homophobia

whether parenting styles might affect the development of internalized homophobia and negative psychological health outcomes

484 lesbian, gay, and bisexual (LGB) adults

- Those who described their parents as being more autonomy supportive during childhood reported lower internalized homophobia, anxiety, and depression, and greater self-esteem.
- These relations were mediated by a tendency to experience shame, whereby autonomy support from mothers (but not fathers) related to lower shame, which in turn linked to lower internalized homophobia and better psychological health.
- This work underscores the importance of autonomy-supportive interventions with families, as it suggests that autonomy-supportive parents may promote resilience against the development of internalized homophobia, a potent risk factor for mental health problems and self-harm.

Mageua 2015

Abstract

Validation of the P-PASS usefulness in studying perceived autonomy-supportive and controlling parenting.

Using a multidimensional perspective, the Perceived Parental Autonomy Support Scale (P-PASS) assesses autonomy-supportive and controlling parenting (Grolnick & Pomerantz, 2009).

Two studies document the instrument's psychometric properties (Study 1, $N = 210$, mean age = 18.8 years; Study 2, $N = 315$, mean age = 18.5 years).

Exploratory factor analyses first show that the P-PASS factor structure is best described by a 2-factor solution, 1 representing perceived autonomy support and the other, controlling parenting.

Cronbach's alphas confirm the internal consistency of the P-PASS scales ($\alpha = .89$), and correlation patterns with the Psychological Control Scale (Barber, 1996) and other parenting components (i.e., acceptance and monitoring) support convergent and divergent validity.

Hierarchical regressions also show that perceived autonomy support predicts young adults' adjustment, above and beyond controlling parenting (Studies 1 and 2) and parental acceptance and monitoring (Study 2).

Mageua 2016

Abstract

Determinates of autonomy-supportive and controlling parenting

achievement goal theory; self-determination theory

- parental achievement goals (i.e., achievement goals that parents have for their children) can be
 - mastery,
 - performance-approach or
 - performance-avoidance
- types of goals predict mothers' tendency to adopt autonomy-supportive and controlling behaviors

67 mothers (aged 30–53 years) of adolescent (aged 13–16 years; 19.4 % girls)

Findings:

parental performance-approach goals predict more controlling parenting and prevent acknowledgement of feelings, one autonomy-supportive behavior

mothers who have mastery goals and who endorse performance-avoidance goals are less likely to use guilt-inducing criticisms

These findings were observed while controlling for the effect of maternal anxiety

Autonomy-supportive and controlling parenting

- have been repeatedly linked to children's social, academic and psychological adjustment (Grolnick and Pomerantz 2009; Joussemet et al. 2008a; Moreau and Mageau 2013)

Self-determination theory

- human beings have an innate and universal need for autonomy, that is, the need to feel a sense of agency and **ownership of their behaviors** (Deci and Ryan 2000)
- children feel autonomous when they are intrinsically motivated or when they have internalized or taken over societal values as their own
- they act because of self-endorsed (or self-determined) reasons, and this can occur even when behaviors are initially prompted externally (Joussemet et al. 2014; Koestner et al. 1984)

parental autonomy support

- three behaviors:
 - providing a meaningful rationale for limits and demands (e.g., teeth need brushing each day to avoid cavities),
 - giving choices within these limits (e.g., do you want to brush your teeth now or after the story?)

- acknowledging the child's feelings (e.g., it's true, teeth brushing is not always fun; Deci et al. 1994; Grolnick and Ryan 1989; Koestner et al. 1984)
- autonomy-supportive parents are empathic, descriptive (i.e., informational instead of evaluative) and they provide opportunities for active participation (e.g., in decisions making or in problem solving) instead of being intrusive, dominating and pressuring (Grolnick and Pomerantz 2009)
- autonomy support is thus different from permissiveness because it can be combined (and ideally is combined) with parental provision of structure, such as limit settings (Koestner et al. 1984) or rule enforcement (Lessard et al. 2015)
- linked to positive outcomes at different developmental stages (see Joussemet et al. 2008a; Moreau and Mageau 2013, for reviews)
 - a more secure attachment style (Whipple et al. 2011)
 - better executive functioning (Bernier et al. 2010) in toddlers
 - higher social and academic adjustments in elementary school children (Bronstein et al. 1996; Grolnick and Ryan 1989; Joussemet et al. 2005)
 - higher well-being (Downie et al. 2007; Niemiec et al. 2006; Soenens et al. 2007)
 - more life satisfaction (Sheldon et al. 2009)
 - less health-risk behaviors (Williams et al. 2000) in adolescence
- autonomy-supportive limit-setting facilitates internalization of societal values and expectations compared to controlling conditions, while preserving intrinsic motivation and creativity (Joussemet et al. 2004; Koestner et al. 1984)

Autonomy thwarting

- the opposite of autonomy support in terms of its psychological significance for the child is autonomy-thwarting or controlling parenting (Grolnick and Pomerantz 2009; Soenens et al. 2007)
- one type of controlling parenting is psychological control (Barber 1996)
- controlling parenting is characterized by pressure, intrusion, and domination (Grolnick and Pomerantz 2009)
- can be either externally (e.g., coercive threats) or internally controlling (e.g., conditional love, invalidation, shaming; Soenens and Vansteenkiste 2010)
- In the present study, controlling parenting is operationalized using both externally and internally controlling behaviors (i.e., threats, guilt inductions, and performance pressures; Mageau et al. 2015a).
- Controlling parenting has been linked to
 - children's oppositional behaviors (Bronstein 1994),
 - antisocial acts (Barber 1996; Conger et al. 1997; Herman et al. 1997; Joussemet et al. 2008b; Prinzie et al. 2010), and
 - emotional self-regulation problems (Fabes et al. 2001)
 - predicts internalized problems (Faubert et al. 1990) such as childhood anxiety (Ballash et al. 2006; Rapee 1997; Wood et al. 2003), depression (Barber 1996; McCranie and Bass 1984; Miller et al. 1990; Soenens et al. 2008a, b), and lower self-esteem (Conger et al. 1997; Garber et al. 1997; Silk et al. 2003)
- robust linkage between more autonomy-supportive (and less controlling) parenting and children's and adolescents' psychological adjustment (Joussemet et al. 2008a; Moreau and Mageau 2013), it is imperative to uncover the facilitating and impeding factors of these parenting behaviors.

Determinates of parenting styles

- obstacles of autonomy-supportive behaviors or risk factors that lead parents to be more controlling
 - parents who are perfectionists (Flett et al. 2002) or achievement oriented (Pomerantz and Eaton 2001)
 - who feel anxious when they are apart from their children (Soenens et al. 2006)
 - who hinge their self-esteem on their child's behavior (Grolnick et al. 2007)
 - who have a strong fear of failure (Elliot and Thrash 2004)
- at the contextual level
 - children who have a more difficult temperament (Pettit et al. 2001)
 - are less achievement oriented (Pomerantz and Eaton 2001)
 - are less intrinsically motivated (Courneya and McAuley 1991)
 - tend to elicit more control from their parents and other adults (Anderson et al. 1986)
 - stressful life events (Grolnick et al. 1996),

- lower socio-economic status (SES; Dodge et al. 1994),
 - unemployment (McLoyd 1989), and
 - perceived environmental threat (Gurland and Grolnick 2005)
- at the situational level
 - Zussman (1980) showed that situational stress is related to controlling behaviors: Mothers who were asked to supervise their children in a moderately hazardous situation were more controlling when they were also preoccupied with an additional task

Factors that facilitate AS

- Landry et al. (2008) found that mothers' trust that children's development proceeds in a natural and healthy way (i.e., organismic trust) is positively associated with mothers' autonomy-supportive practices
- higher well-being (Stebbing et al. 2011) and viewing subordinates' abilities as reflecting efforts and practice instead of as being a personality trait (Leroy et al. 2007) could also facilitate more autonomy-supportive behaviors

The achievement goal model

- achievement goals concern competence development and achievement (Elliot and Church 1997)
- parental achievement goals are goals that parents have regarding the development and achievement of their children's own competence
- distinguished as a function of the way competence is evaluated (i.e., mastery vs. performance; Dweck 1986; Elliot et al. 2011; Nicholls 1984)
- parents with parental **mastery goals** want their children to develop their competence and thus evaluate achievement using **temporal comparisons** (past vs. present performance)
- parents who pursue **performance goals** work toward a demonstration of their children's competence as evaluated by **social comparisons** with their peers

Link between parental achievement goals and AS

- Gonida and Cortina (2014) provided evidence that parental achievement goals may influence autonomy-support and controlling parenting
- the more parents endorsed mastery goals when helping their children with their homework, the more they reported engaging in autonomy-supportive behaviors
- the more parents had performance goals during homework the more they reported using controlling strategies

Mageau 2016

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Meuwissen 2015

Abstract

the role of fathers' parenting - fathers' autonomy support and control in dyadic play with their 3-year-old children

(*N* pairs = 110), and measured father and child EF independently with laboratory tasks

Findings:

fathers' controlling parenting was significantly inversely related to the child EF composite, above and beyond family income and child verbal ability

results are consistent with the hypothesis that fathers are important for the development of EF in their children, and suggest fathers should be included in both research and parenting interventions

although previous work has shown that mothers' parenting influences the development of child executive function (important self-control skills developed in the preschool years)

Executive Function

- Children's early experience with caregivers is proposed to be an important force in shaping brain development (Bos, Fox, Zeanah, & Nelson, 2009; Carlson, 2009; NICHD Early Child Care Research Network, 2000).
- Various aspects of **parenting** are known to be important precursors to later cognitive development.
- *Executive function* (EF) refers to higher level thinking skills, such as
 - inhibition,
 - working memory, and
 - mental flexibility,
 - that allow for goal-directed behaviors (Carlson, Zelazo, & Faja, 2013)
- research is emerging on aspects of mother-child interactions that support EF development, but little is known about the role of **father-child interactions**
- Executive function shows rapid development in the preschool years, and continues to mature through adolescence (Carlson et al., 2013)
- EF is a key component of school readiness and academic achievement.
- Children who have better EF skills tend to have higher math and literacy scores in elementary school (e.g., Blair & Razza, 2007) and
- are able to learn more from a given amount of instruction (Benson, Sabbagh, Carlson, & Zelazo 2013)
- Outcomes associated with high EF persist across the lifespan, including education level, income, social skills, and mental and physical health (Mischel et al., 2011; Moffitt et al., 2011)
- variables pertaining to the family, including socioeconomic status (SES), parent education level, language use, and parenting behaviors, have all been implicated in EF development (Carlson et al., 2013)

Scaffolding

- Lev Vygotsky's theory - proposed that interpersonal interactions can structure thinking processes, which the child can learn from and then enact intrapersonally, without the help of the adult (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976)
- scaffolding was the mechanism by which these external processes became internal
- parents are initially responsible for regulating their infant in many domains (e.g. hunger, sleep, emotions), and this external regulation needs to be gradually internalized for children to develop EF
- Parent-child interactions are an important context in which children can experiment with their emerging self-regulation skills (Giesbrecht, Müller, & Miller, 2010)
- Warm and responsive caregiving predicts a variety of cognitive and social outcomes, and parents who set up a predictable environment allow their children to form organized expectations of the world, which is believed to be an important early step in developing EF (Carlson, 2003)
- Hartup (1987) suggested that meta-cognitive processes (which encompass EF) are the aspect of cognitive development most likely to be influenced by social relationships
- **Scaffolding** refers to helping children just enough so they are able to use their own skills toward the successful completion of a task -- is a central component of autonomy support (Bernier et al., 2010)
- Autonomy supportive interactions provide children with successful problem-solving experiences and practice with skills such as making decisions that require reflection and the identification and correction of errors. This practice is expected to enhance EF skills, which rely on reflective thinking and self-regulation (Zelazo, 2004).

Parenting, EF, Autonomy Support and SDT

- various aspects of parenting in relation to EF -- we focus on autonomy support and its opposite, controlling parenting

- Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1980; 2000) proposes that autonomy is one of three universal psychological needs (the other two being relatedness and competence).
- This theory suggests that autonomy support is the most important aspect of parenting for the development of independent action (Joussemet, Landry, & Koestner, 2008)
- when adults provide a sense of autonomy rather than control a child's behavior, this facilitates self-regulation of behavior (Grolnick & Farkas, 2002; Grolnick & Ryan, 1989)
- autonomy support/control is found to be the aspect of parenting most consistently predictive of child EF (Bernier, Carlson, Deschenes, Matte-Gagne, 2012; Bernier, Carlson, & Whipple, 2010; Fay-Stammach, Hawes, & Meredith, 2014; Sethi, Mischel, Aber, Shoda, & Rodriguez, 2000)
- autonomy support refers to guidance from an adult that facilitates the child's success and sense of mastery, as opposed to the adult taking over and controlling the task, or letting the child struggle on his/her own (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Grolnick & Farkas, 2002)
- adults support children's autonomy by taking their perspective, respecting their pace, and ensuring they play an active role in completing the task
- adults can also provide children with choices, suggestions, and opportunities to use their own approaches, rather than make the decisions, give directions, and lead the task (Matte-Gagné & Bernier, 2011; Stefanou, Perencevich, DiCintio, & Turner, 2004)
- when parents ask questions that draw their child's attention to new aspects of the problem, they help create psychological distance between the child and the problem, which can facilitate self-regulation (Giesbrecht, Müller, & Miller, 2010)

GAP in study of Fathers

- Nearly all previous studies of autonomy-supportive parenting and child EF have included only mothers.
- There is a striking gap in our knowledge about the effect fathers have on children's EF and how fathering may have similar or different effects from mothering.
- fathers have become more involved with their young children's care, which is redefining the roles of both fathers and mothers as parents (Cabrera, Tamis-LeMonda, Bradley, Hofferth, & Lamb, 2000)
- this cultural shift needs to be integrated into theories of child development and incorporated into research by including fathers when studying children to fully understand the context of development (Cox & Paley, 2003; Lamb & Lewis, 2010).

Fathers

- father interactions provide children with unique, enriching experiences that do not occur in mother-child interactions (Grossman, Grossman, Kindler, & Zimmermann, 2008)
- fathers tend to be more playmates and mothers more caregivers for their children
- fathers' play tends to be more physical, and their games more vigorous, state-disrupting, idiosyncratic and unpredictable, whereas mothers' play involves more visual stimulation and predictable activities (Lamb, 2004)
- father interactions may be a particularly important context for EF development, because high arousal and excitement levels may be more cognitively stimulating for children (Grossman et al., 2008)
- research suggests fathers are likely to have an influence on child EF;
- having an emotionally invested, attached father is associated with better wellbeing, cognitive development, and social competence (Cabrera et al., 2000)
- Bronte-Tinkew and colleagues (2008) found that father involvement, including cognitively stimulating activities, physical care, paternal warmth, and caregiving activities, was associated with a lower likelihood of infant cognitive delay
- fathers' and mother's supportive parenting at 2 years old independently predicted language and cognitive outcomes over the next year (Tamis-LeMonda, Shannon, Cabrera, & Lamb, 2004)
- mothers and fathers have been found to be equally effective in their scaffolding abilities with their 2-year-olds in problem solving and literacy interactions, and scaffolding behaviors from both parents were related to success on the task (Connor, Knight & Cross, 1997)
- Easterbrooks and Goldberg (1984) found father characteristics to be most related to the cognitive outcome of child problem solving in a jigsaw puzzle task, whereas mother characteristics were most related to the social outcome of child attachment status
- supportive, non-restrictive fathering has been associated with higher IQ, math, and reading scores, independently of mothers' parenting (Coley, Lewin-Bizan & Carrano, 2011)

- Sarkadi and colleagues (2008) concluded that father engagement enhances cognitive, social, and behavioral outcomes

Meuwissen 2015

Abstract

parent autonomy support and its effect on 3-year-old children's self-regulation

N pairs=128; 50% fathers

Results showed that parents were able to change their behavior according to the instructions given, with parents who were lower in autonomy support at baseline benefiting most from the autonomy support training.

Changes in parenting affected child behavior during the dyadic puzzle. Mothers and fathers had similar parenting quality at baseline.

These results indicate that parent autonomy support is a promising target for child self-regulation interventions

- Regulatory skills, including executive function (EF), are vital for children's successful development, and promoting these skills in early childhood has become a high priority.
- There is robust correlational evidence that autonomy-supportive caregiving in the preschool years is linked to child self-regulation development (Bernier, Carlson, & Whipple, 2010; Fay- Stambach, Hawes, & Meredith, 2014; Karreman, van Tuijl, van Aken, & Dokovic, 2006). However, there is a paucity of studies that allow causal claims to be made about this association. There is also little known about the role paternal parenting plays in preschool self-regulation.
- The influence of a single parent training episode with mothers and fathers on parent behavior and child self-regulation in an experimental context
- Such evidence could serve as proof-of-concept to support future investments in prevention and intervention studies utilizing parent training.

Executive function and self-regulation

- EF refers to a set of higher-order neurocognitive skills that allows people to control their own thoughts and actions and to direct behavior toward long-term goals (Carlson, Zelazo, & Faja, 2013; Hendry, Jones, & Charman, 2016; Zelazo & Carlson, 2012)
- Self-regulation is a broader concept than EF that refers to behavior in complex real-life situations, such as planning ahead, persevering through frustration, and using multiple strategies, that relies on a foundation of executive function (Blair, 2016; Jones, Bailey, Barnes, & Partee, 2016)
- EF and self-regulation have significant overlap and these terms are used inconsistently in the literature.
- Self-regulated behavior is the product of both the child's skill (e.g., EF abilities) and will (e.g., choice and motivation to display abilities in a particular context; Neitzel & Stright, 2003; Schunk, 1995)
- Jones et al. (2016) conceptualization where EF refers to specifically measured neurocognitive skills, whereas self-regulation refers to the behaviors that are observable in a naturalistic setting which reflect the implementation of those neurocognitive skills in combination with other skills, such as emotional and social skills.

Parent influences on EF and self-regulation

- Parenting behaviors set the stage for the development of EF (Fay- Stambach et al., 2014; Hendry et al., 2016; Moriguchi, 2014)
- Parents are main players in important early social interactions, and EF is transferred from parent to child through correlated and interacting genetic and environmental processes (Chang, Shaw, Dishion, Gardner, & Wilson, 2015; Deater-Deckard, 2014)

Autonomy support

- Autonomy support refers to a dimension of parenting that has arisen from Vygotskian and self-determination theories
- Vygotsky (1978) saw the caregiver's main role in dyadic activity as providing assistance at an appropriate level, slightly ahead of the child's competence, so he or she can progress toward independence

- Wood (1980) named this process **scaffolding**, where the adult's help should vary in response to the child's ability level, and as the child masters components, the adult can transfer the responsibility for those skills to the child.
- Self-determination researchers called this type of parenting *autonomy support*, which involves encouraging children to be self-initiating and independent in problem-solving, and giving children choice and participation in decisions rather than using pressure and rewards to motivate behavior (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989)
- For the current study, autonomy support is defined as providing just enough help so the child is able to use his/her own skills toward successful completion of a task.
- Behaviors such as providing choices, constraining the problem space so children can succeed, and guiding them to correct their own mistakes are considered autonomy supportive (Wood, 1980).
- Autonomy support is beneficial for child self-regulation because it provides alternative perspectives, redirection toward appropriate goals, practice with key skills, and an external dialog that can be internalized by the child (Moriguchi, 2014), leading to increased feelings of responsibility and experiencing self-efficacy (Bindman, Pomerantz, & Roisman, 2015).

Non-autonomy supportive (controlling vs laissez faire)

- Parents can be non-autonomy supportive in two ways: by being controlling or laissez-faire.
- Control occurs when parents provide too much help, such as making decisions and performing actions the child could do, or rushing the child's thinking (Whipple, Bernier, & Mageau, 2011)
- Too much help might undermine internal motivation and give children little opportunity to regulate their own behavior (Grolnick & Farkas, 2002)
- On the other hand, laissez faire parenting occurs when parents give too much independence.
- They allow their child to struggle, give little useful input or guidance, or are uninvolved with the task (Whipple et al., 2011)

Father influences on child EF and self-regulation

- The majority of research on parenting and early childhood child self-regulation has focused on mothers.
- Fathers are now more involved with their young children's care than in the past, which is redefining the roles of both fathers and mothers as parents (Baptista et al., 2017; Cabrera, Tamis-LeMonda, Bradley, Hofferth, & Lamb, 2000)
- Fathers need to be included in research to fully understand quality of parenting as a context of development (e.g., Lamb & Lewis, 2010).

Difference between fathers and mothers

- fathers having lower involvement,
- tending to be more playmates than caregivers, and
- engaging in more physical and unpredictable play than do mothers (Fletcher, St. George, & Freeman, 2013; Grossmann, Grossmann, Kindler, & Zimmermann, 2008)
- paternal parenting is important for children's cognitive development (e.g., Bronte-Tinkew, Carrano, Horowitz, & Kinukawa, 2008; Magill-Evans, Harrison, Rempel, & Slater, 2006; Ryan, Martin, & Brooks-Gunn, 2006)

Brauer 2016

Topic

Associations between parenting in early adolescence and delinquency throughout adolescence.

Parental monitoring (behavioral control) is negatively associated with delinquency in the short term

Parental pressure (psychological control) shows immediate and long-lasting associations with delinquency

Decision-making autonomy is negatively associated with delinquency in the long term, yet may exacerbate delinquency in early adolescence by increasing exposure to delinquent peers.

Parenting

- Which parenting strategies are most effective for raising happy, well-adjusted, and nondeviant children?
- “Tiger moms” raise better children (Chua, 2011; Juang, Qin, & Park, 2013)
- “Helicopter parenting” protects or smothers children (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011; Padilla-Walker & Nelson, 2012).
- Whether, how, and to what extent parents should grant **autonomy or exert control** over their children.
- Prior conceptualizations of parenting (Barber, 1992; Deci & Ryan, 1987) to distinguish between three distinct types of control-related parenting practices: behavioral control, psychological control, and autonomy support.
- I describe how each of these practices might constrain or enable adolescent delinquency by influencing the development of self-control or exposure to delinquent peers.
- some forms of parental control (e.g., supervision) effectively inhibit delinquency
- other (e.g., coercive) forms may trigger delinquency and other undesirable outcomes
- in the developmental psychology literature, the consequences of parental control are expected to depend upon whether parents rely on behavioral or psychological forms to elicit compliance from children (Barber, 1992; Grolnick, 2003)
- Behavioral control involves setting, monitoring, and enforcing clear normative expectations for children’s behaviors (e.g., structure; demandingness; firm control).
- psychological control (PC) involves manipulative or psychologically intrusive attempts to control children’s thoughts, feelings, and behaviors
- PC resembles criminological conceptualizations of coercive parenting
- PC is intended to pressure, manipulate, or coerce youth into compliance through the threat of physical punishment, guilt induction, love withdrawal, by instilling anxiety, or by invalidating the child’s perspective (Barber & Harmon, 2002; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010)
- psychological research shows behavioral control associated with desirable child outcomes, including fewer antisocial behaviors or mental health problems and better cognitive development, and PC associated with undesirable child outcomes (e.g., Bean, Barber, & Crane, 2006; Coley, Votruba-Drzal, & Schindler, 2008; Hoeve et al., 2009; Leschied, Chiodo, Nowicki, & Rodger, 2008).
- criminological and psychological research converge on two key findings -- parents’ behavioral control practices appear to promote prosocial development and inhibit delinquency, and parents’ PC practices seem to undermine prosocial development and exacerbate delinquency

SDT

- **behavioral control practices do not have uniformly desirable effects** on children’s behaviors throughout adolescence
- **self-determination theory** (SDT; see Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000) is a theory of human motivation and development that assumes people have intrinsic needs, including the need for autonomy
- behaving in a self-determined or autonomous manner is **critical to one’s optimal functioning** (Deci & Ryan, 1987, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2006; for a summary, see Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2005)
- autonomy refers to the “**experience of integration and freedom**,” or to the “**desire to self-organize experience and behavior** and to have activity be concordant with one’s **integrated sense of self**” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 231).
- **intentional or goal-directed human behaviors** can be **classified as more or less autonomous**, or as falling somewhere on a continuum that ranges from controlled to self-determined.

- self-determined, or autonomous, behaviors are those that “are **initiated and regulated through choice as an expression of oneself**” (Deci & Ryan, 1987, p. 1024)
 - “**endorsed by the whole self** and experienced as action **for which one is responsible**” (p. 1025)
 - **controlled behaviors** – described as being “**pressured and coerced** by intrapsychic and environmental forces,”
 - strict reliance on behavioral control practices may produce a form of contingency- dependent, controlled compliance, or “controlled self-regulation,” that is unlikely to be maintained in the absence of anticipated rewards or punishments in the long term (Deci & Ryan, 1987; Grolnick, 2003; Ryan & Deci, 2006)
 - when parents pressure their children to act in particular ways, whether through internal (psychologically controlling) or external (behaviorally controlling) practices, they may see their efforts backfire (Grolnick, 2003)
 - SDT posits that parental provisions of autonomy support foster a child’s capacity for independent decision making and are crucial to the development of autonomous self-regulation
 - Autonomy-supportive parents attempt “to grasp and acknowledge the child’s perspective, use minimal controls to foster behavior, and provide choice when possible” (Ryan, Deci, Grolnick, & La Guardia, 2006, p. 815).
 - Parents recognize and support their children’s autonomy in different ways
 - communicative forms of autonomy support include explaining decisions to children as well as listening to and showing empathy for children’s perspectives
 - decision-making forms of autonomy support include providing children a say in important rules or decisions as well as encouraging children to act upon their own interests and values
 - children exposed to autonomy- supportive parenting practices exhibit greater levels of creativity, better academic performance, stronger relational attachments, and fewer internalized and externalized problems compared to children who are not exposed to such practices (Grolnick, 2003; Ryan et al., 2006)
 - SDT is only one of many perspectives to emphasize the importance of autonomy for human development (cf. Allen, Hauser, Bell, & O’Connor, 1994; Arnett, 2000; Baumrind, 1966, 1978; Blos, 1979; Bowlby, 1973; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986)
 - SDT has garnered much empirical support and is frequently used to predict and interpret associations between parenting and child developmental outcomes (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1987; Grolnick, 2003; Grolnick, Gurland, DeCoursey, & Jacob, 2002; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2005)
-
- mixed evidence concerning the relationship between autonomy support and adolescent delinquency
 - decision-making autonomy in early adolescence is associated with more delinquency in early adolescence yet less delinquency in late adolescence
 - the positive association between decision-making autonomy and delinquency in early adolescence is mediated by changes in delinquent peer pressure
 - parents granting them freedom to make decisions about where and with whom they socialize in early adolescence may experience more delinquent opportunities in unstructured peer socializing environments (Osgood & Anderson, 2004)
 - or they may be more susceptible to delinquent peer influences when their self-identities are still stabilizing (Dishion, Nelson, & Bullock, 2004; CULTIVATING CONFORMISTS OR RAISING REBELS? 463 Goldstein et al., 2005)
 - parents imposing stricter limits on autonomy at this stage of development may effectively shelter their children from risky social settings at a time when youth are particularly susceptible to group pressures to conform (Beveridge & Berg, 2007; Goldstein et al., 2005; Harris-McKoy & Cui, 2013).

Need/Gap

- there is

Other concepts/constructs:

- the emer

Chang 2016

- the effect of autonomy support on self-determined motivation
 - 126 elementary school physical education (PE) students
 - a six-week intervention period
 - Perceived teacher autonomy, perceived autonomy in PE, and self-determined motivation in PE were pre- and post-tested using validated questionnaires
 - Significant increases in perceived teacher autonomy and perceived autonomy in PE were observed in the autonomy support group, but not in the control group. Intrinsic motivation was higher in the autonomy support group than that in the control group. From an experimental perspective, these findings suggest that the autonomy support was successfully manipulated in the PE classes, which in turn increased the students' perceived autonomy and intrinsic motivation.
-
- Psychological research has shown that students that are motivated often display stronger effort, intention, and persistence in behavior (Bryan and Solmon, 2007; Pintrich, 2003)
 - In PE, creating a motivational learning environment is important to facilitate engagement and learning (Braithwaite et al., 2011; Todorovich and Curtner-Smith, 2002; 2003)
 - according to the SDT, in an educational setting in particular, a learner's level of motivation is positioned on the continuum polarized by intrinsic motivation (i.e., undertaking an activity for its own sake) and amotivation (i.e., lack of any motivation) (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Ntoumanis, 2001)
 - four levels of extrinsic motivation: integrated regulation, identified regulation, introjected regulation, and external regulation (Deci and Ryan, 1985)
 - (1) integrated regulation, a learner is motivated by reckoning the significance of a behavior. For example, a student recognizing the health benefits of PA believes regular exercising is a part of daily life and then take actions in behavior.
 - (2) identified regulation, a learner's motivation is often derived from the sense of identity in engaging in the behavior. For example, when PA is viewed as a behavior that defines the self as a person, the student's exercise intention, effort, and persistence become proactive.
 - (3) introjected regulation, motivation tends to be characterized by a sense of guilt or jeopardy (e.g., feeling guilty for not committing time to exercise as planned). Using the same example as above, a learner with introjected regulation may feel the urge not to disappoint people (including themselves) and then discipline to participate in PAs.
 - (4) external regulation, a learner's motivation relies on the extent to which he/she may obtain a reward or avoid a punishment as consequence of the behavior. Examples of external regulation in PE include receiving praise/criticism from the teacher for displaying active participation in PA both in and outside of PE classes
 - three innate psychological needs: competence (feeling competent and capable), autonomy (having choice and control), and relatedness (feeling affiliated with others in the context) (Deci and Ryan, 1985)
 - the extent to which these three needs are supported and satisfied largely dictates the level of self-determined motivation (Deci and Ryan, 1985)
 - supporting learners' needs for perceiving competence, autonomy, and relatedness in PE classes predicts autonomous motivation, which in turn predicts participation in leisure-time PA (Hagger et al., 2005; Ntoumanis, 2005; Shen et al., 2009)
 - more self-determined students with higher levels of motivation tend to exert higher effort (Cox et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2010) and experience greater intention (Lim and Wang, 2009; Taylor et al., 2010), enjoyment (Cox et al., 2013; McDavid et al., 2014), PA levels (Cox et al., 2013; Taylor et al., 2010), active game participation (Wallhead et al., 2013), and enhanced cardiorespiratory fitness (Shen et al., 2009)
 - providing strong support for autonomy stands out as the most salient factor for eliciting self-determined motivation and motivational responses (Hagger et al., 2005; Lonsdale et al., 2013; Shen et al., 2009).
-
- this study successfully manipulated the PE lessons by supporting students with more autonomy
 - increased levels of autonomy
 - enhanced students' intrinsic motivation, which is viewed as the highest level of motivation in all situations

Chen 2015

- Whether satisfaction and frustration of the psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence, (BPNT; Deci and Ryan, Psychol Inquiry 11:227–268, 2000; Ryan and Deci, Psychol Inquiry 11:319–338, 2000), contributes to participants' well-being and ill-being, regardless of their cultural background and interpersonal differences in need strength, as indexed by either need valuation (i.e., the stated importance of the need to the person) or need desire (i.e., the desire to get a need met).
- Study 1: adolescents from Belgium and China; autonomy and competence satisfaction had unique associations with well-being and individual differences in need valuation did not moderate these associations.
- Study 2: participants from Belgium, China, USA, and Peru; satisfaction of each of the three needs was found to contribute uniquely to the prediction of well-being, whereas frustration of each of the three needs contributed uniquely to the prediction of ill-being
-
- . Consistent with Study 1, the effects of need satisfaction and need frustration were found to be equivalent across the four countries and were not moderated by individual differences in the desire for need satisfaction. These findings underscore BPNT's universality claim, which states that the satisfaction of basic needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence represent essential nutrients for optimal functioning across cultures and across individual differences in need strength.

Concept of "Need"

- people say they need smart-phones; advertisements aim to convince us that we need the products they sell
- in such cases, the concept of "need" refers to desires or preferences
- in other contexts, the term refers to what is essential or necessary for well-being and healthy functioning
- a person needs vitamins and nutrients, and children need responsive caregivers
- grounded in Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT), one of the six mini-theories of Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci and Ryan 2000; Ryan and Deci 2000)
- three basic psychological needs – autonomy, relatedness, and competence
- satisfaction of these psychological needs is said to be universally essential for human thriving
- when these needs get frustrated, maladjustment and even psychopathology is said to result (Ryan et al. in press; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013)
- many psychologists, including those adopting a social-constructive perspective, have eschewed the existence of universal psychological needs
- instead arguing that psychological needs are cultural constructions that reflect variations in socio-cultural values (e.g., Buttle 1989; Rist 1980; Roy 1980)
- a relativist perspective, they assume that individuals especially, if not only, benefit from satisfaction of the needs which they value or desire (Hofer and Busch 2011; Iyengar and DeVoe 2003)
- SDT maintains that there are certain needs whose fulfillment is necessary for well-being, regardless of differences in the extent to which people or society value or desire these needs (Chirkov et al. 2003; Deci and Ryan 2000)

Gap/Need

- .Yet, few, if any, studies have directly examined whether the self-reported valuation of the need or the desire felt for the satisfaction of a need moderates the association between need satisfaction and well-being and the association between need frustration and ill-being. Even fewer, if any, have examined these associations across different cultures.

SDT

- within BPNT, a basic psychological need is considered innate and its satisfaction is said to represent a universally essential experience for well-being (Ryan and Deci 2000)
- this assumption is derived from SDT's organismic–dialectical meta-theory, which views humans as active, growth-oriented organisms equipped with an inherent integrative tendency

- satisfaction of the basic psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence is said to function as a fundamental nutrient that energizes the integration process and that contributes to health and psychological well-being
- needs can also be actively blocked or thwarted
- low need fulfillment would fail to foster the growth potential of individuals, the frustration of these needs would elicit defensiveness, ill-being, and even psychopathology (Bartholomew et al. 2011; Ryan et al. 2006; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013)
- relatedness satisfaction refers to the experience of intimacy and genuine connection with others (Ryan 1995)
- relatedness frustration involves the experience of relational exclusion and loneliness
- competence satisfaction involves feeling effective and capable to achieve desired outcomes (Deci 1975; Ryan 1995)
- competence frustration involves feelings of failure and doubts about one's efficacy
- Baumeister and Leary (1995) and McAdams (1989) have elaborated on the need to belong, and White (1959) proposed competence motivation as a primary human propensity
- autonomy refers to the experience of self-determination, full willingness, and volition when carrying out an activity
- autonomy frustration involves feeling controlled through externally enforced or self-imposed pressures (deCharms 1968; Deci and Ryan 1985)
- the link between need satisfaction and well-being has been observed
- (a) at the level of individual differences, with those who report higher psychological need satisfaction feeling better about themselves (e.g., higher self-esteem, Deci et al. 2001) and their lives in general (e.g., life satisfaction, Kasser and Ryan 1999); and
- (b) at the intrapersonal level, showing that day-to-day fluctuations in psychological need satisfaction co-vary with day-to-day fluctuation in well-being (e.g., Ryan et al. 2010)
- education (e.g., Mouratidis et al. 2011), the workplace (Van den Broeck et al. 2010), health care (Williams et al. 2011)
- need frustration to relate uniquely to ill-being (e.g., Bartholomew et al. 2011; Stebbings et al. 2012)
- (1) binge eating symptoms as an outcome (Verstuyf et al. 2013); (2) objective (i.e., physiological) marker of distress (Bartholomew et al. 2011)

Corwyn 2016

- relations between paternal autonomy support and four aspects of adolescent social competence and responsibility at age 16
- relations were observed between paternal autonomy support and three of the four aspects of social behavior examined for daughters (but not sons)
- for daughters, paternal autonomy support was moderated by family conflict for both resistance to peer pressure and responsible behavior
- temperament of daughters moderated the relation between paternal autonomy support and resistance to peer pressure

Conceptualization of fathers

- Prior to 1980, fathers' roles: disciplinarian, breadwinner, and gender-role model (primarily with sons)
- Recent conceptualizations: multiplicity of functions within the family system (Cabrera, Fitzgerald, Bradley, & Roggman, 2014; Grossmann, Kindler, & Zimmermann, 2008; Lamb & Lewis, 2010; Lamb & Tamis-LeMonda, 2004)
- Many scholars believe that fathering is fundamentally different from mothering; fathering cannot be explained by the traditional parenting models used to guide research on mothers (Day & Mackey, 1989; Popenoe, 1996)
- Recent conceptualizations of fathering: highlighted indirect effects on offspring (e.g., via marital support) and paternal behaviors that were once considered the primary domain of mothering (e.g., nurturance; Lamb, 2000; Paquette, 2004)
- theories have evolved to highlight positive forms of father involvement and their influence on positive child outcomes (Cabrera, Tamis-LeMonda, Bradley, Hofferth & Lamb, 2000; Paquette, 2004; Pleck, 2007)

Sensitivity Support

- link between **parental sensitive support** for **autonomy** and adolescent **social competence** may be stronger for fathers than for mothers (Grossman et al., 2002; Marsiglio, Amato, Day & Lamb, 2000; NICHD Early Child Care Research Network [ECCRN], 2004; Paquette, 2004)

Gap/Need

- few studies have focused on positive **paternal** behaviors and their influence on **adolescent social competence** and **responsibility**

This Study

- The focus of this study is on fathers' sensitive support for autonomy, partly because autonomy support from parents (and others) is believed to promote self-regulatory behavior and the individuation process during early adolescence, with implications for long-term social competence and social relationships (Oudekerk, Allen, Hessel, & Molloy, 2015)
- parents' sensitive autonomy support helps foster children's self-regulatory competencies that lead to adaptive behavior and achievement (Allen, Chango, Szewedo, Schad, & Marston, 2012; Bradley & Corwyn, 2007, 2013; Dishion & Patterson, 2006; Eamon, 2001; Eisenberg et al., 2005; Guay, Ratelle, & Chanal, 2008)
- the link between self-regulatory competencies and adaptive functioning is particularly strong during adolescence (Gestsdottir & Lerner, 2008)
- behavior that supports autonomy stands in contrast to psychologically controlling behavior, which can lead adolescents to discount their own judgment and be more susceptible to external influences (Grolnick, 2003; Joussemet, Landry & Koestner, 2008; Oudekerk et al., 2015)
- actions that support autonomy include encouragement to express oneself and encouragement to make one's own decisions
- behavior that is coercive, intrusive, or otherwise psychologically controlling (Barber, Bean & Erickson, 2001; Silk, Morris, Kanaya, & Steinberg, 2003)

SDT

- humans are intrinsically motivated to engage in interesting activities and to adopt the values and behaviors observed in their social environments (Ryan, Deci, Grolnick, & La Guardia, 2006)
- these motivational tendencies serve to promote the universal human needs to feel related, competent, and autonomous
- parental autonomy support helps children learn autonomously to self-regulate their behavior, values, and attitudes that promote successful development (Joussemet et al., 2008)

Attachment Theory

- Paquette (2004) borrowed tenants from *attachment theory* to argue that fathers must be sensitive to the child and build an emotional bond before autonomy support will have the desired effect on children
- research has found that paternal sensitivity and synchrony in exploratory play help children form a secure attachment to fathers, a base from which children develop capacities and proclivities to function as socially competent agents later in life (Bretherton, 2011; Palm, 2014)
- the link between parental sensitive support for autonomy and adolescent social competence may be stronger for fathers than for mothers (Leidy, Schofield, & Parke 2013)
- Paquette (2004; see also Grossman et al., 2002; Marsiglio et al., NICHD ECCRN, 2004), paternal sensitive support for autonomy may play a bigger role than maternal sensitive support for autonomy in facilitating the processes by which children become more agentic and learn to adjust to the demands of the world outside the immediate family, especially as regards social competence (Flanders, Leo, Paquette, Pihl, & Seguin, 2009; Paquette 2004) and peer relations (Parke et al., 2004)
- fathers' sensitive autonomy support predicted teacher-reported social skills (e.g., cooperation, assertion, and self-control in the school environment) during the early school years

Costa 2016

"relationship between parenting and psychological outcomes

the role of need satisfaction/frustration (measured independently) as mediators of the association between parental psychological control, autonomy support and psychological outcomes

in association with vitality and depression – developmental outcomes typically measured in SDT as outcomes for well- and ill-being" "302 late adolescents (14 - 17)

Italian

" "*parental psychological control was positively associated with feelings of need frustration and depression

*parental autonomy support was positively associated with feelings of need satisfaction and vitality

*need satisfaction promoted feelings of vitality

*need frustration led to feelings of depression

*satisfaction of needs was a full mediator of the relationship between autonomy support and vitality

*frustration of needs was a full mediator of the relationship between psychological control and depression"

"•Parental psychological control refers to the display of a conditionally approving attitude towards children and, more specifically, involves engagement in a host of intrusive parenting tactics to make children think, behave, or feel in parentally approved ways (Barber 1996).

•intrusive and manipulative strategies such as guilt induction, disappointment, shaming, isolation, personal attacks, and love withdrawal to make their child comply with their expectations and also to change the child's opinions, emotions, and thinking patterns (Barber 1996).

•(SDT; Deci and Ryan 1985; Ryan and Deci 2002) represents a broad framework for the study of human motivation and personality development.

•the degree to which human behaviours are autonomous or self-determined

•the personal and contextual factors which facilitate or undermine people's intrinsic motivation, psychological development and well-being (Ryan and Deci 2000)

•three universal psychological needs that must be satisfied for effective functioning and psychological health, namely autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Ryan and Deci 2000).

•SDT defines these needs as nutriment that are essential for people's survival, growth, and integrity (Ryan et al. 1996).

•The need for autonomy refers to the desire to self-organize one's experience and to feel one's behaviour as freely chosen (DeCharms 1968).

•The need for relatedness refers to the desire to feel connected to others, to love and to care (White 1959).

•Finally, the need for competence refers to the desire to feel effective and skillful in activities (Baumeister and Leary 1995).

•Deci and Ryan (2000) asserted that there was no instance of optimal, healthy development in which the basic needs were neglected, and that psychological health required satisfying all three needs.

•Many studies showed that satisfaction of these basic psychological needs was highly correlated with well-being (Reis et al. 2000; Sheldon et al. 1996).

•Well-being reflects a sense of vitality and inner wellness that characterizes the fully functioning organism (Ryan and Deci 2001).

•According to SDT, the indicator par excellence to assess eudaimonic well-being (meaning and self-realization; degree of functioning) is subjective vitality, defined as one's conscious experience of possessing energy and aliveness (Ryan and Deci 2001; Ryan and Frederick 1997)

•Vitality is associated with feelings of positive mood states, vigor, and activated positive affect (Ryan and Deci 2008)

•Vitality has been shown to positively relate to need fulfilment and corresponds to the experience of oneself as a potential origin of action (Ryan and Frederick 1997)

- In SDT it is assumed also that need supportive parental behaviours would facilitate satisfaction of basic psychological needs, while need thwarting parental behaviours would forestall satisfaction of needs (Deci and Ryan 2000).

- The constructs of parental need thwarting and need support refer to parents' actual or perceived behaviours, that is, what they do (or are perceived to do) to either thwart or support children's needs (Soenens and Vansteenkiste 2010)

- Soenens and Vansteenkiste (2010) suggested that parental psychological control, as a feature of a need-thwarting parenting style, could have a direct influence on all three needs and could explain why parental psychological control is related to ill-being.

- Specifically, through the use of intrusive techniques, psychologically controlling parents press children to comply with the parents' own personal standards and needs, irrespective of the children's needs and values.

- Psychological control thwarted experiences of autonomy in children and adolescents (Vansteenkiste et al. 2005).

- it was thought to disrupt the development of emotional autonomy by interfering with adolescents' ability to establish and express their own thoughts and feelings and by disturbing the psycho-emotional boundary between parents and their children (Barber and Harmon 2002)

- autonomy-supportive behaviours would represent need supportive behaviours (Soenens and Vansteenkiste 2010; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013)

- Autonomy-supportive parenting is one important dimension of a need-supportive parenting style.

- Autonomy-supportive parents support their children's volitional functioning, for instance, taking the child's frame of reference, providing meaningful choices, encouraging initiative, and providing a relevant rationale when introducing rules (Grolnick et al. 1997).

- For such parents is important to support their offspring's autonomous regulation, because various developmental and motivational researchers (Hill and Holmbeck 1986; Ryan and La Guardia 2000; Steinberg 1989) consider the emergence of a more autonomous functioning as a crucial developmental process for adolescents.

- Adolescents, in fact, should develop their own opinion and try to get their ideas across even when their parents disagree with them.

- Parental autonomy support refers to the active support of the child's capacity to be self-initiating and autonomous (Ryan et al. 2006) and is not akin to promoting permissiveness, or neglect.

- Permissiveness, in fact, would reflect the opposite of parental structure while neglect would reflect the opposite of parental involvement rather than a lack of autonomy support (Chirkov et al. 2010).

- Costa et al. (2015d) showed that parental psychological control was a better (and even unique) predictor of internalizing distress compared to autonomy-support; psychological basic needs fully mediated the association between psychological control and internalizing distress.

- Unfortunately, the measures for psychological basic needs used in these studies did not allow for differentiation between experiences of need satisfaction and need frustration; furthermore, they did not include both measures of well- and ill-being as outcomes. "

Costa 2018

- **Trait emotional intelligence (trait EI)** is defined as people's perceptions of their **emotional world** (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007; Petrides et al., 2016).
 - Trait EI integrates the longstanding **study of emotions** from a personality perspective (Petrides et al., 2016).
 - a constellation of emotional dispositions measurable through self-report (Petrides et al., 2007)
 - could promote a positive development in adolescents and predicts a number of affect-related outcomes

1.1. Antecedents of trait EI

- personality and trait EI have high phenotypic and genetic correlations, suggesting that trait EI and personality could have similar heritability estimates and mechanisms
- studies generally indicated that parents' rearing style assists as a partial mediator in the transmission of parental characteristics to their offspring (Kitamura et al., 2009; McAdams et al., 2014)

1.2. Parenting and trait EI

- the theoretical frameworks of emotional development showed that parenting practices are significantly related with adolescents' emotional domain
- Alegre and Benson (2010) showed that parental availability and harsh parental discipline were significantly correlated with adolescents' trait EI
- Argyriou, Bakoyannis, and Tantaros (2016) reported in their correlational study that trait EI was statistically significant for parental authoritativeness and authoritarianism
- Abdollahi, Talib, and Motalebi (2013) have shown a positive correlation between trait EI and supportive parenting style and a negative correlation between trait EI and neglectful parenting style perceived by late adolescents
- Recent studies reported that **autonomy-supportive parenting** and **parental psychological control** were demonstrated as crucial for adolescent emotional development (Brenning, Soenens, Van Petegem, & Vansteenkiste, 2015; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010)
- few studies have dealt with investigating the relationship of trait EI with parental psychological control and autonomy support
- Gugliandolo, Costa, Cuzzocrea, and Larcan (2015a) showed in a cross-sectional study that parental psychological control is negatively related with trait EI and that trait EI was a mediator in the relation between perceptions of parental psychological control and maladjustment
- Asghari and Besharat (2011) instead found a significant correlation between perception of paternal autonomy support and trait EI in adolescents.

1.3. Parental autonomy support and psychological control

- Parental autonomy support is a form of parenting that facilitates the establishment of a secure, stable, and positive sense of self (Brenning et al., 2015; Ryan & Deci, 2017).
 - Autonomy-supportive parenting tends to be empathetic, encouraging adolescents to express their emotions and desires.
 - Furthermore, this type of parenting offers meaningful choices to adolescents and creates a warm environment that allows discussion of rules and exploration and reflection of emotions.
- In contrast, the opposite pole of parental autonomy support is represented by **psychological control**.
 - **Psychologically controlling** parents ignore adolescents' perspectives and use manipulative behaviours such as guilt-tripping and emotional cut-off to impose their own viewpoints, thereby reducing adolescents' expression of opinions and emotions (Ryan & Deci, 2017).
- **Parental autonomy support** yields various benefits and promotes optimal psychosocial development in adolescents (Vasquez, Patall, Fong, Corrigan, & Pine, 2016).
 - positively correlated with well-being (van der Kaap-Deeder, Vansteenkiste, Soenens, & Mabbe, 2017),
 - socio-emotional development (Matte-Gagné, Harvey, Stack, & Serbin, 2015) and
 - vitality (Costa, Cuzzocrea, Gugliandolo, & Larcan, 2016).
- At the opposite, **parental psychological control** is consistently associated with

- maladjustment and ill-being (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010)
- depressive symptoms (Bleys, Soenens, Claes, Vliegen, & Luyten, 2018),
- frustration intolerance (Filippello, Harrington, Costa, Buzzai, & Sorrenti, 2018) and
- relational aggression (Baumgardner & Boyatzis, 2017).

1.4. Antecedents of parental autonomy support and psychological control

- Costa, Barberis, Gugliandolo, Cuzzocrea, & Liga, 2018; van der Kaap-Deeder et al., 2015 showed that **parents who experienced more need satisfaction reported to be more autonomy-supportive**
 - parents who experienced more **need frustration reported to be use more psychological control**.
- Van der Kaap-Deeder, Boone, and Brenning (2017) reported that participants with a higher level of **evaluative concerns perfectionism** related **negatively to providing autonomy support**, and positively to providing **psychological control**.
- Finally, Prinzie, Stams, Deković, Reijntjes, and Belsky (2009) reported that higher levels of **agreeableness and lower levels of neuroticism** were related to **more parental autonomy support and less psychological control**.
- there is a **lack of depth into the emotional aspects**.
 - parents who are able to understand adolescents' needs and feelings and to support them
 - **parental psychological control** is characterized by an use of the emotional relationships between parents and adolescent to control the adolescent (Ryan & Deci, 2017)
 - **psychological-controlling** parents tend to manipulate adolescent's thoughts and feelings accordance to their own needs
 - **parental autonomy support** is characterized by a positive and empathic attitude on behalf of parents towards their adolescent (Ryan & Deci, 2017); this empathic disposition is crucial facet in the trait EI domain (Petrides et al., 2016).

1.5. Maternal and paternal contribution

- An increasing number of researches (Brenning, Soenens, Van Petegem, & Kins, 2017; Guay, Ratelle, Duchesne, & Dubois, 2018) have begun to address issues concerning parenting through a perspective of **mutual relationships between fathers and mothers**,
- suggesting that **personal characteristics of one parent could be related** also with the parental use of **psychological control and autonomy support of the other parent**
- Murdock, Lovejoy, and Oddi (2014) showed that both **maternal and paternal positive and negative affect** were related with both paternal and maternal controlling and supportive parenting behaviours.
- Bleys et al. (2016), instead, have shown that parental self-criticism was related only with same-parent psychological control and no with psychological control of other-parent. Costa, Gugliandolo, Barberis, Cuzzocrea, and Liga (2018), showed also that **maternal need frustration and maternal need satisfaction** were related not only with maternal but also with paternal psychological control and autonomy support.
- For these reasons, to have a broader picture of parental dynamics is clear **the need to investigate the interplay of paternal and maternal trait EI with respect to psychological control and autonomy support toward their adolescent**. It can be expected, in fact, that one parent's tendency to be empathic could be emulated by the other parent in the relationship with the adolescent, using autonomy support. At the opposite, parent with low trait EI tend to have difficult to withstand pressure and could transmit this stressful condition to their partners who might respond using psychological control with the adolescent.

Depestele 2017

"whether autonomy-supportive and controlling parenting are related to the presence/absence of binge-eating/purging behavior and/or non-suicidal self-injury in adolescents with an eating disorder (ED)"

53 ED patients and parents (53 mothers; 37 fathers) "•This study is important because it highlights that correlations are not causation and could relate either way; in this case ED $\square$ parental control, rather than parental control $\square$ ED

•In sum, research suggests that parents may be more controlling and less autonomy-supportive when patients display BP behaviors and/or engage in NSSI. These associations are important to be examined as theory and research suggest that autonomy-suppressing and controlling parenting may serve to maintain or worsen ED symptoms (Ryan, Deci, & Vansteenkiste, 2016; Strauss & Ryan, 1987). Thus, adolescent patients and parents may get caught in a negative vicious circle of deteriorating symptoms and quality of interaction. " "•This study is important because it highlights that correlations are not causation and could relate either way; in this case ED $\square$ parental control, rather than parental control $\square$ ED

•Parental style can be characterized along several dimensions, one of which is defined by the extent to which parents support the autonomy development of their child (parental autonomy support) or the extent to which parents intrude upon their child's thoughts, feelings and behavior in a controlling way (parental psychological control; Barber, 1996; Grolnick & Pomerantz, 2009).

•Only one study has simultaneously examined autonomy-supportive and controlling parenting in relation to ED symptoms.

•Reilly, Stey, and Lapsley (2016) found, in a sample of undergraduate students, that psychologically controlling (but not autonomy-supportive) parenting was related to ED symptoms.

•Although there is evidence linking autonomy-supportive and psychologically controlling parenting—at least indirectly—to ED symptoms, it has not been examined specifically whether these parenting variables are related to the presence of binge-eating / purging behaviors (BP) or non-suicidal self-injury (NSSI), which are known to increase the complexity of the ED problems (Claes & Muchlenkamp, 2014). "

Duineveld 2017

Well-Being

- Well-being is important for the quality of our lives, cognitive capacity, physical health, and social productivity over the life course (Huppert, 2007)
- In the current study well-being is used as an operational definition and is identified through a combination of well-being (i.e., life satisfaction and self-esteem) and lack of psychological distress (i.e., depressive symptoms and emotional exhaustion), following Keyes' model of complete state mental health, in which it is important to explore both the presence and absence of mental illness and mental health symptoms (Keyes, 2002, 2005).
- In the current research the presence of mental health will be examined with subjective well-being measures of life satisfaction and self-esteem, and the absence of mental illness with subjective well-being measures of depression and emotional exhaustion

Determinants of Well-Being at Educational Transitions

- As argued by Ryan and Lynch (1989) even as adolescents gain independence in various domains in life, parental supports for autonomy continue to be critical to well-being.
- Stage-environment fit theory outlines how optimal development occurs when the needs of a person fit with opportunities in different stages of life (Eccles & Midgley, 1989)
- fit occurs between a young person's need in the transition (e.g., increased autonomy) and the social environment (e.g., autonomy supportive parenting)
- a mismatch between the needs and environment can have negative influences on behavior, motivation, and well-being (Eccles et al., 1993; Gutman & Eccles, 2007)
- The mismatch between autonomy need and autonomy support may be particularly problematic during transitions in which children are expected to take on more responsibility and direct control over the course of their lives (Tanner, 2006; Zarrett & Eccles, 2006)
- Here we focus specifically on the concept of autonomy supportive parenting using a self-determination framework (e.g., Grolnick & Ryan, 1989).

Self-Determination and Well-Being

- Self-determination theory (SDT) is a theoretical framework that emphasizes the importance of autonomous motivation in psychological development and positive coping (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2017).
- This theoretical framework has been applied to education research in numerous empirical studies (for review, see Ryan & Deci, 2017).
- The theory argues that there are basic psychological needs that must be fulfilled across the life span for autonomous motivation and well-being to be maintained or enhanced (Ryan, Deci, & Vansteenkiste, 2016).
- More specifically, psychological needs are those that are required for sustenance, growth, and health.
- Within the frame of SDT there are three essential or basic psychological needs: the need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985).
- Autonomy refers to the feeling that one's behavior is volitional and self-endorsed, not pressured or controlled (Ryan & Deci, 2017).
- When others support autonomy, they are nurturing capacities for self-regulation, and contributing to wellness.
- This study focusses on the autonomy need because a great number of studies have shown that autonomy support alone increases not only autonomy, but also competence and relatedness satisfaction (e.g., Deci, Ryan, Gagné, Leone, Usunov, & Kornazheva, 2001; Grolnick, 2003; Ryan & Grolnick, 1986; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2005).
- It is recognized by SDT that social environments may work against the development of the psychological needs.
- Environments where the psychological need satisfaction is neglected or thwarted promote psychological distress and psychopathology.
- Particularly critical in this respect is parental autonomy support which has been empirically shown to facilitate greater mental health and lower psychopathology (Ryan et al., 2016).

The Role of the Parent

- Autonomy support allows individuals to actively reflect upon and adapt values and interests as their own.
- Parental behaviors that are consistent with autonomy support include taking the child's perspective, providing relevant choices, and encouragement to take initiative and explore (Grolnick, 2003; Ryan et al., 2016; Soenens & Beyers, 2012).
- Consequently, adolescents with awareness of personal interests, values, and goals, will be better at making decisions throughout their developmental tasks, as they have something to base their own actions on (Grolnick, 2003; Van der Giessen, Branje, & Meeus, 2014).
- Overall, autonomy support encourages an adaptive style of development, characterized by age-appropriate behavior and well-being.
- During development, parents can be thought of as a resource.
- Parents who meet the adolescents' changing needs (e.g., by providing opportunities of increased autonomy) provide a better match for the adolescent and the developmental task at hand.

- This positive role of parents in the adolescents' development has, in turn, shown to be associated to a greater overall well-being (Chirkov & Ryan, 2001).
- In fact, autonomy support is positively associated with adolescent well-being across all ages and gender (La Guardia, Ryan, Couchman, & Deci, 2000; Soenens, Park, Vansteenkiste, & Mouratidis, 2012)
- It is shown in a variety of studies that an autonomy supportive environment is essential to the child's adjustment (Guay et al., 2003).
- Higher autonomy support has been shown to relate to low emotional exhaustion (e.g., Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007; Van den Berghe et al., 2013).
- Autonomy supportive parenting has been associated with less depressive symptoms in youth (Chirkov & Ryan, 2001; Ryan et al., 2016).
- Moreover, perceived parental autonomy also promotes a sense of well-being by increasing life satisfaction (Park, 2004) and self-esteem (Soenens et al., 2007).
- In fact, most positive educational outcomes and well-being are associated with autonomous motivation (see Vallerand, Fortier, & Guay, 1997).
- This includes positive educational outcomes such as greater achievement and easier adjustment to school (see Joussemet, Landry, & Koestner, 2008; Lord, Eccles, & McCarthy, 1994).
- We expect autonomy support to influence well-being (both general and school related) across educational transitions. Current research suggests parents and adolescents can mutually influence, or "coregulate," each other (Dietrich et al., 2012; Nurmi, 2004).
- Therefore, a young person's well-being may influence what parenting style is used.
- However, the mechanisms behind coregulation are not well defined (Dietrich et al., 2012).
- Therefore, it is difficult to hypothesize the extent that well-being is an antecedent to changes in parenting style during educational transitions. As such we leave this coregulation influence as a research question.

Influence of Parental Gender

- mothers and fathers play different roles
 - such theorists suggest that mothers have more influence on the adolescents' direct social environment (e.g., friendship), while
 - fathers are more influential for goal-oriented activities (e.g., career development; Grolnick, Weiss, McKenzie, & Wrightman, 1996; Tynkkynen, Nurmi, & Salmela-Aro, 2010)
 - it is possible that fathers exert more influence with autonomy support in the current study
 - social environments are also affected by transitions (Parker, Lüdtke, et al., 2012), making it likely that maternal autonomy support is also influential in the current study
- Most autonomy support research does not mention any distinction between parental genders (e.g., Brenning, Soenens, Van Petegem, & Vansteenkiste, 2015; Soenens et al., 2007)
- studies that do make a distinction report a difference between effects of maternal and paternal autonomy support on self-determination and achievement
 - none of these differences have been explored for effects on well-being (e.g., Grolnick, Ryan, & Deci, 1991; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2005)
 - Given a lack of evidence on differential effects of paternal and maternal autonomy support on well-being, we present this as a research question.

Froiland 2017

"educational attainment and later academic performance

relationship between:

- * parental autonomy support
- * student intrinsic life goals (i.e. community feeling)
- * student expectations for long-term educational attainment and later academic performance

- we are the first to examine whether parental autonomy support predicts long-term growth in achievement via community feeling and student expectations " in 227 students in an ethnically and racially diverse high school "parental autonomy support
- was indirectly and positively related to academic performance via intrinsic life goals intrinsic life goals and student expectations
- were moderately and positively related and both contributed to growth in academic performance
 - suggests that self-determination theory and expectancy-value theory provide additive insight in predicting educational achievement

The significant indirect effect of parental autonomy support on GPA via intrinsic life goals and student expectations suggests that students will benefit from parents fostering intrinsic life goals through autonomy supportive communication. " • Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2000b) posits that individuals have a need for competence, autonomy and relatedness

- if needs are met, intrinsic motivation and academic achievement will increase
- intrinsic life goals in general have been repeatedly linked to psychological health and happiness (e.g. Froiland, 2011; Kasser & Ryan, 1996; Kasser et al., 2004; North, Holahan, Carlson, & Pahl, 2014)
 - but few studies have specifically examined whether the intrinsic life goal of helping others (community feeling) promotes academic achievement longitudinally

intrinsic life goals and achievement

- Parental autonomy support regularly predicts achievement (Pomerantz, Ng, Cheung, & Qu, 2014)
 - but the relationship is weaker than the relationship between parental autonomy support and motivational variables, such as autonomous motivation (Froiland, 2014; Vasquez, Patall, Fong, Corrigan, & Pine, 2015)
- very few studies have examined the relationship between parental autonomy support and intrinsic life goals (Vasquez et al., 2015)
 - but those that have find that parental autonomy support predicts intrinsic life goals (Kasser, Ryan, Zax, & Sameroff, 1995; Lekes, Gingras, Philippe, Koestner, & Fang, 2010)
 - intrinsic life goals partially mediate the association between parental autonomy support and well-being (Lekes et al., 2010)
 - extrinsic life goals (e.g. desire for popularity, fortune and looking good) partially mediate the association between parental autonomy support and unhealthy behaviours among high school students, such as smoking cigarettes and drinking alcohol (Williams, Hedberg, Cox, & Deci, 2000)" "intrinsic life goals and achievement
- Parental autonomy support regularly predicts achievement (Pomerantz, Ng, Cheung, & Qu, 2014)
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Student expectations as predictors of achievement

- the expectancy-value model of achievement posits that youth's expectations for success directly affect achievement (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002)
- student expectations for long-term educational attainment are an important predictor of achievement in various academic subjects, above and beyond control variables, such as prior achievement, gender and parent education (Froiland, Peterson, & Davison, 2013)
- Vansteenkiste, Lens, Witte, and Feather (2005) have shown that expectancy-value theory (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002) and self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000a) can be used simultaneously to more effectively predict job search efforts, than either theory can alone

Other correlates of achievement

- parent education, gender and prior achievement
- girls often have higher GPAs than boys (Froiland & Davison, 2014b)
- girls have slightly stronger behavioural engagement in the classroom, but are not usually more intrinsically motivated to learn (e.g. Froiland & Worrell, 2016)
- prior achievement is a robust predictor of later achievement among youth and is a key control variable for longitudinal studies examining achievement (Froiland & Oros, 2014; Froiland et al., 2013; Jeynes, 2012)
- parent education is positively associated with achievement (e.g. Froiland, Powell, Diamond, & Son, 2013; Jeynes, 2012; Powell, Son, File, & Froiland, 2012)"

Gaumon 2016

No Autonomy Support Study

The father–child relationship and its relation to child anxiety and attachment to the mother"

49 families

- the independence between mother–child attachment and father–child activation
- the association between mother–child attachment and anxiety
- the highest levels of anxiety were found in insecure-ambivalent children
 - and insecure disorganized-controlling children of the caregiving subtype
- the activation relationship with the father was shown to have a moderating effect on the relation between attachment to the mother and child anxiety
- activation by the father may be considered either a protective or a risk factor"

Guay 2018

How mothers and fathers contribute to each other's autonomy supportive and controlling behaviors toward their child.

Participants were heterosexual parental dyads from two prospective studies (Study 1, $n = 289$; Study 2, $n = 202$).

Mothers and fathers completed questionnaires assessing their autonomy supportive and controlling behaviors toward their adolescent child.

- Reciprocal partner effects where mothers' autonomy support at Time 1 predicted fathers' autonomy support at Time 2
- Fathers' autonomy support at Time 1 predicted mothers' autonomy support at Time 2
- Reciprocal partner effects were also observed for controlling behaviors
 - These reciprocal relations were not statistically different across mothers and fathers.

Conclusions.

- Support for interparental contributions regarding autonomy supportive and controlling parenting behaviors.
- Mothers and fathers should thus be aware that their parenting behaviors can be influenced by each other, including both positive and negative parenting behaviors.

Family systems theory

- cohesion between mothers and fathers in their parenting practices helps their adolescents to negotiate various developmental challenges (Chen & Johnston, 2012)
- the degree of cohesiveness between mothers' and fathers' parenting behaviors (e.g., Beiswenger & Grolnick, 2010; Duchesne & Ratelle, 2010)
- few have examined the possibility that one parent's behaviors shape the other parent's behaviors (Pleck & Hofferth, 2008; Schofield et al., 2009)
- this study examined the influences mothers and fathers have on each other with respect to autonomy support and control toward their child (Grolnick, 2009)

Autonomy Supportive and Controlling Behaviors

- SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2009) identified autonomy support and control as categories of behaviors that respectively promote and hinder children's adjustment (Grolnick & Pomerantz, 2009)
- Autonomy support refers to behaviors that involve recognizing adolescents' perspectives, allowing them to take initiatives and hold age-appropriate responsibilities, offering them opportunities to be autonomous, and providing them with meaningful rationales for parental rules and expectations
- Control refers to behaviors such as intrusiveness, dominance, and pressure (e.g., the use of rewards, threats, and punishments) to motivate adolescents' behaviors (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010)
- This definition of parental control is thus similar to the one of psychological control proposed by Barber (2002).
- The degree of behavioral similarity among co-parents is relatively high: maternal and paternal levels of autonomy support and control are moderately positively correlated, even when children or parents are asked to report these parenting behaviors.
- Studies that examined children's perceptions of their parents' autonomy supportive (e.g., Beiswenger & Grolnick, 2010; Gillet, Vallerand, & Lafrenière, 2012; Guay, Ratelle, Larose, Vallerand, & Vitaro, 2013; Roth, 2008) and controlling (De Haan, Soenens, Deković, & Prinzie, 2013; Kins, Soenens, & Beyers, 2012; Miller, 2012; Oudekerk et al., 2014; Stevens & Hardy, 2013; Wei & Kendall, 2014; Yoo, Feng, & Day, 2013) behaviors showed that mothers and fathers are generally perceived to be a moderately similar.

Mothers' and Fathers' Mutual Influence

- **Family systems theory** (see Bronte-Tinkew, Scott, & Lilja, 2010) and the **family process model** (Belsky, 1984) stress the notion of interdependent influence between mothers and fathers
- **Behavior contagion** could accordingly be one of the processes that explains their interdependent influence (Rhule-Louie & McMahon, 2007) as proposed by social learning theory (Bandura, 1963)

- Behavior contagion, as a socialization process, entails a causal effect from one partner's behaviors to those of the other partner (and vice versa)
 - In time of conflicts, autonomy supportive or controlling parenting behaviors may be manifested more frequently, and this higher frequency may be detected and emulated by the other parent (Bandura, 1997). More specifically, fathers and mothers may observe each other during interactions with their adolescent child and use this information to become a more effective caregiver. Because there is no absolute value of proficiency related to parenting behaviors, modeling between partners is important. Parents must, therefore, appraise their parenting capacities in relation to the attainment of a similar other, which in this context is their co-parent (Bandura, 1997). Unfortunately, social learning between parents could occur even when one spouse shows ineffective parenting such as using controlling behaviors. From parents' perspective, this strategy could be perceived as beneficial to motivate their child and modeled on across parents. Studies in the motivation field have supported contagion. For example, simply observing a target person's motivational orientation increases the observer's level of motivation (Friedman, Deci, Elliot, Moller, & Aarts, 2010).
 - Moreover, maternal autonomy support predicts increased autonomy support in sibling interactions (Van Der Kaap-Deeder et al., 2015).
- Another important question regarding interparental influences is whether maternal parenting behaviors have a stronger influence on paternal parenting behaviors than the opposite.
 - Some studies found that mothers were more likely to influence fathers than vice versa.

Hughes 2018

- Infant exploration often hinges on parental autonomy support (i.e., parental behaviors that support children's goals, interests, and choices),
 - a construct that is widely applied in family studies of school-age children and adolescents but less studied in infants and toddlers
- Notable **gaps** concern the **equivalence, similarities, and contrasts between mothers' and fathers' autonomy support** and the correlates of individual differences in autonomy support
- To address these under-researched topics, we conducted parallel home-based structured play observations of 195 infants (*M*-age = 14.42 months, *SD* = .59) in dyadic interaction with mothers and fathers.
- Confirmatory factor analyses demonstrated measurement invariance across
 - parent gender,
 - enabling comparisons that revealed significantly moderately higher levels of autonomy support in mothers than in fathers
- individual differences in autonomy support were unrelated to either parental personality or child temperament
 - highlighting the potential importance of dyadic characteristics
- Consistent with this view, whereas maternal autonomy support did not differ by child gender, fathers with sons displayed less autonomy support than did fathers with daughters

Introduction: SDT and Scaffolding – Gap fathers' AS

- According to **self-determination theory**, autonomy, competence, and relatedness underpin psychological health and effective engagement with the world (Deci & Ryan, 2015).
- caregiver behaviors that support children's goals, interests, and choices are referred to as autonomy support (Whipple, Bernier, & Mageau, 2011)
- overlap with the concept of **parental scaffolding** of preschool and school-age children's problem-solving (for a recent review, see **Mermelshtine, 2017**), **autonomy support** in infancy and the preschool years each predict later executive function (e.g., Bernier, Carlson, & Whipple, 2010; Hughes & Devine, 2017b)
- autonomy support in this intervening period of toddlerhood has been little studied
- more striking, however, is the lack of attention to fathers' autonomy support.
- **To address these twin gaps**, the current study investigated (a) similarities and contrasts in the nature and/or mean level of mothers' and fathers' autonomy support in toddlerhood and (b) the correlates of individual differences in parents' autonomy support.

Autonomy Support and Scaffolding of Children's Goal-Directed Activity

- Developmental science has transformed the understanding of young children's social and cognitive competencies, leading to a shift in the focus of research on early parental influences.
- whereas parenting studies have long focused on general constructs such as **sensitivity** or **authoritative discipline**, interest in young children's executive functions (Hughes & Devine, 2017a) has led to multidimensional models and a renewed interest in specific constructs, such as **autonomy support**.
- Studies involving samples of different ages and from different countries (Bernier, Carlson, Deschênes, & Matte-Gagné, 2012; Bernier et al., 2010; Hughes & Devine, 2017b; Hughes & Ensor, 2009) have shown that both global measures of **autonomy support** and more specific **measures of parental scaffolding** predict gains in preschoolers' executive functions, even when background parental measures are controlled.
- Recent evidence that **early parental autonomy support** predicts children's later academic success (**Bernier, McMahon, & Perrier, 2017; Devine, Bignardi, & Hughes, 2016**) has also highlighted the importance of early variation in parental autonomy support.

Do Mothers and Fathers Provide Similar Kinds and Levels of Autonomy Support?

- Fathers have become increasingly involved in child care (e.g., Sullivan, Coltrane, McAnnally, & Altintas, 2009)
 - they have, with recent exceptions (Mills-Koonce et al., 2015; Nordahl, Zambrana, & Forgatch, 2016; Sethna et al., 2017), generally been overlooked in studies of individual differences in early parent– child interactions
- Whereas early theorists (e.g., Belsky, Gilstrap, & Rovine, 1984) argued that differences in parental experience and/or context were likely to yield qualitative differences between mothers' and fathers'

caregiving, recent theoretical reviews have called for gender-neutral models of parenting (e.g., Fagan, Day, Lamb, & Cabrera, 2014)

Parental Autonomy Support: Individual and Dyadic Correlates

- Belsky's (1984) seminal account of the **multifaceted determinants of parenting**
- small but consistent links between personality and parenting (Prinz, Stams, Deković, Reijntjes, & Belsky, 2009) that appear similar in strength and nature for mothers and fathers (de Haan, Prinz, & Deković, 2009)
- Moreover, the few studies that included direct observations of parent–infant interactions (e.g., Clark, Kochanska, & Ready, 2000; Karreman, van Tuijl, van Aken, & Deković, 2008) focused on parental control and responsiveness or sensitivity rather than on autonomy support.
- To our knowledge, only one study involving mothers of preschoolers (Neitzel & Stright, 2004) has reported a link between parental personality and observational ratings of autonomy support. Thus, our study adds to the field by involving both mothers and fathers of infants.
- evidence has suggested a dosage effect in which children's difficult behavior exerts a stronger influence on mothers' than on fathers' parenting (e.g., Elam, Chassin, Eisenberg, & Spinrad, 2017)
- in a study of parents and toddlers, Lovas (2005) reported a steady decline in parents' emotional availability across mother– daughter, mother– son, father– daughter and father–son dyads
- a meta-analysis of 126 observational studies of parents' autonomy-support behaviors showed negligible effects of child gender (Endendijk, Groeneveld, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & Mesman, 2016)
- moderation analyses revealed significant effects of both time and age
- studies from the 1970s and 1980s reported greater autonomy support for sons than daughters
- studies from the 1990s onward reported greater autonomy support for daughters than for sons
- across all studies, parents showed more autonomy support for girls than for boys at the youngest age level (0–2 years)
- Not yet known, however, is whether mothers and fathers of infants are equally likely to provide greater autonomy support for daughters than for sons.
- In sum, the current study applied parallel home observations of mothers' and fathers' autonomy support for 14-month-old infants in structured dyadic play to (a) assess their similarity in form and mean levels and (b) examine individual differences in relation to parental and child factors (e.g., age, personality temperament, gender).

Hughes 2019

Parental influences on young children's executive functioning and verbal ability

Coding of parent-child interactions

Assessment of adult and child Executive Functioning and child verbal ability (VA).

- Supporting **a differentiated view of parental influence**,
 - negative parent-child interactions and parental scaffolding showed unique and specific associations with child EF
- The home learning environment and parental language measures showed global associations with children's EF and VA

Discussion

- negative parent-child interactions (characterized by negative affect, criticism, and control) showed a unique, specific inverse association with child EF
- parental scaffolding showed a unique, specific positive association with child EF
- informal opportunities for learning (as measured by the HLE questionnaire) and parental language input were related to both EF and VA
- these findings support a differentiated model of parenting, in that each of the measures of parental behavior was largely distinct and showed different patterns of association with child EF and VA

Discussion

- including multiple direct observational measures of parenting is labor well spent
- findings confirm a multifaceted model of parenting (Zheng et al., 2016)
- separate measures of parental behavior (i.e., positive/negative and cognitive/ affective) show distinct patterns of association with children's EF
- our findings confirm the domain specificity of parental influences
 - whereas scaffolding and negative parent-child interactions are both key predictors of child EF
 - highlighting the diversity of parental influences on child EF, they were unrelated to children's VA
 - the HLE was positively related to both child outcomes and parental MLU was positively related to child VA but negatively related to child EF

Inguglia 2014

Abstract

- Autonomy and relatedness are fundamental needs both in adolescence and in emerging adulthood
- affected by parental support
- linked to children's psychological distress
- autonomy and relatedness in late adolescents and emerging adults living in Italy, analyzing the relationships with perceived parental support and psychological distress
- 325 Caucasian adolescents and emerging adults (males = 41 %) ranging in age from 17 to 26 years and living in Sicily

Results

- both autonomy and relatedness were positively predicted by parental support to these needs
- perceived support for autonomy was positively associated with perceived support for relatedness
- autonomy and relatedness were positively related to each other for emerging adults, but they were not related for teens
- autonomy predicted negatively depression and loneliness
- relatedness predicted negatively externalizing problems (only for adolescents), stress, depression, and loneliness
- Taken together, the findings confirmed that autonomy and relatedness are fundamental needs for both teens and emerging adults related to parental support and psychological health.
- Notwithstanding, age moderated some of the investigated relationships suggesting that autonomy and relatedness have different meanings, as well as playing different roles during adolescence and emerging adulthood.

Introduction

SDT

- autonomy and relatedness are fundamental needs for all human beings (Deci and Ryan 2000, 2008; Vansteenkiste et al. 2006)
- linked to personal achievement and adjustment (Chirkov 2012; Deci and Ryan 2000; Kagitcibasi 2005; Ryff and Singer 1998)
- autonomy can be defined as the sense of volition, the desire to self-organize experience and behavior, and to have activity concordant with one's integrated sense of self (Deci 1980; Ryan and Connell 1989; Sheldon and Elliot 1999)
- relatedness can be defined as the feeling to be connected to others, to love and care, and to be loved and cared for, establishing high quality, satisfying, and positive bonds with others (Baumeister and Leary 1995; Ryan 1993)
- highly complementary motives (Guisinger and Blatt 1994; Hodgins et al. 1996; Ryan and Lynch 1989)
- a mutual integration of the two concerns is thought to be necessary for optimum psychological health (Guisinger and Blatt 1994)
- the link between autonomy and relatedness involves a dialectical process along two developmental lines in which progress in a line is essential in order to have progress in the other
- the development of an increasingly differentiated, integrated, and mature sense of self is contingent on establishing satisfying interpersonal experiences and vice versa (Blatt and Blass 1996; Emde 1994; Guisinger and Blatt 1994; Kagitcibasi 1996; Ryan et al. 1995)
- two crucial developmental stages for these processes are adolescence and emerging adulthood (Koepke and Denissen 2012; Phinney et al. 2005)

Purpose

- to investigate autonomy and relatedness during these two phases, analyzing the relationships with perceived parental support and psychological distress

Age-Related Changes in Autonomy and Relatedness

- parents and their offspring need to reciprocally regulate independence and connection in their relations as children become socially and cognitively mature (Fuligni and Pedersen 2002)
- during adolescence, generally there is an increase in autonomy and a parallel decrease in relatedness in the relationship with parents (Buhl 2008; Collins et al. 1997; Galambos et al. 2003)

- autonomy development normally accelerates due to changes in physical and cognitive competence, the growth of social bonds, and the attainment of extra rights and responsibilities
- Independence and ability to make own decisions increase, self and identity are progressively consolidated, and cognition, affect, and behavior are gradually self-regulated (Zimmer- Gembeck and Collins 2003)

The Role of Parental Autonomy and Relatedness Support

- tension between autonomy and relatedness both in adolescence and in emerging adulthood (Koepke and Denissen 2012; McElhaney and Allen 2012; Soenens et al. 2007; Youniss and Smollar 1985)
- autonomy and relatedness supportive parenting produces numerous benefits for adolescents' and emerging adults' adjustment (Grolnick 2003; Grolnick et al. 1997; Joussemet et al. 2008; Lokes et al. 2010; Sher-Censor et al. 2011; Soenens and Beyers 2012; Soenens and Vansteenkiste 2010)
- support to autonomy and relatedness needs is typical of parents who have an empathic approach toward their children, allowing them to choose among opportunities and to develop self-determined behaviors (Kins et al. 2009; Ryan et al. 2006)
- the promotion of autonomy and relatedness has been already examined extensively (McElhaney and Allen 2001; Grotevant and Cooper 1998), and it has been observed that it can take many forms, including children's freedoms and responsibilities (Zimmer- Gembeck and Collins 2003), and overt encouragement of children's self-exploration and self-assertion (Grotevant and Cooper 1998)
- autonomy and relatedness tend to promote the growth of their offspring's volitional or self-governing functioning (Soenens et al. 2005)
- leads to a better adjustment and higher levels of psychosocial functioning (Deci and Ryan 2000)
- linked with a range of positive outcomes for their children including high school attachment and performance, low feelings of depression, few behavioral problems, low levels of psychological distress, and deviant behaviors (Allen et al. 1994; Eccles et al. 1997; Grolnick 2003; Herman et al. 1997; Ratelle et al. 2005)
- emerging adulthood, the autonomy-supportive tend to increase contributing to the reinforcement of both the sense of autonomy and relatedness (Koepke and Denissen 2012)
- Roth et al. (2009) observed that autonomy and relatedness support would lead emerging adults to have a sense of choice during identity development, integrative regulation of emotions, and an increased level of exploration
- autonomy and relatedness support is linked with positive emotional outcomes, and emotional and behavioral regulation internalized within one's sense of self (Ryan and Deci 2008)
- In general, the autonomy-supportive reactions of parents may help emerging adults to elaborate on their opinions, to engage in-depth in identity options (Schwartz et al. 2005), and may motivate them to make the most of their opportunities and to finally settle for obligations that best fit their personality (Koepke and Denissen 2012).

Autonomy, Relatedness, and Psychological Distress

- both autonomy and relatedness are associated with psychosocial adjustment (Chirkov 2012; Deci and Ryan 2000; Ingoglia et al. 2011; Lo Cricchio et al. 2012; Kagitcibas, i 2005; Ryff and Singer 1998)
- during adolescence, researchers have found several positive outcomes linked to acting in an autonomous and self-determined way (for overviews, see Deci and Ryan 2000; Vallerand 1997)
- autonomous functioning tends to be associated with high feelings of well-being expressed in terms of self-esteem and life satisfaction (Levesque et al. 2004)
- adolescents' relatedness is usually linked to positive indices of adjustment such as high levels of prosocial behavior (Karcher and Santos 2011) and low levels of externalizing problems (Samuolis et al. 2005)
- Allen et al. (1994) suggested that a lack of autonomy and relatedness between adolescents and their parents may predict a deficiency in their behavioral regulation system; without this guidance and relation, internalizing and externalizing behaviors become much more likely.
- Throughout emerging adulthood, the parallel development of autonomy and relatedness leads to positive processes of integration and consolidation of self and relationships that are central for well-being (Arnett 2001)
- the lack of a sense of autonomy and/or relatedness is dangerous for adjustment (Chirkov and Ryan 2001; Luciano 2009)

- Aquilino ([2006](#)) found that, although young adults are more independent from their parents, the latter continue to be important in their lives

Inguglia 2018

Abstract

Adolescents' satisfaction and frustration of autonomy and relatedness, with (a) adolescents' perception of mother's and father's psychological control and autonomy support, and (b) adolescents' self-acceptance and anxiety

How needs for autonomy and relatedness are associated with parenting dimensions.

How needs for autonomy and relatedness contribute to the adjustment of adolescents living in psychologically interdependent cultures, taking into account the role of each parent as well as the separate contribution of need satisfaction and need frustration.

Participants were 556 adolescents ($M = 17.25$, $SD = 0.92$).

Findings:

- path analysis showed more significant associations of autonomy support with satisfaction/frustration of autonomy and relatedness than psychological control
- some differences between parents
- both satisfaction and frustration of autonomy and relatedness were associated with adolescents' self-acceptance and anxiety although in different ways

The Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT)

- one of the six mini-theories of Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci and Ryan 2000; Ryan and Deci 2000)
- posits that all human beings have three universally basic psychological needs (namely autonomy, competence, and relatedness)
- satisfaction is associated with high levels of psychological functioning
- Autonomy reflects the need to choose one's own life direction and psychological freedom in carrying out an activity, as well as to feel efficacious and capable of achieving desired outcomes.
- Competence involves the need to feel adequate of achieving goals and to effectively carry out activities.
- Relatedness concerns the necessity to establish close relationships and to belong to a community or to feel part of a group (Deci and Ryan 2000).
- As Vansteenkiste and Ryan state (2013, p. 264), "just as plants need water and sunshine to grow and flower, the satisfaction of the basic psychological needs is deemed essential to psychological thriving".
- Many studies have shown that the satisfaction of these psychological needs is positively associated with psychological well-being among youth (Bartholomew et al. 2011; Chen et al. 2015; Cordeiro et al. 2016).
- Previous research has also indicated that low need satisfaction is related with various maladaptive outcomes, such as burnout, internalizing distress and other negative affective states (e.g., Costa et al. 2015; Inguglia et al. 2015, 2016; Reinboth et al. 2004).

Difference between the lack of fulfillment of the needs and the experience of need frustration

- Bartholomew et al. 2011; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013
- Vansteenkiste and Ryan (2013), continuing their plant metaphor, say that low need satisfaction is like when plants do not get sunshine and water, whereas the presence of need frustration is like when salted water is thrown on plants
- In both cases, plants are destined to stop growing and die, but in the latter it will happen more quickly.
- In sum, the presence of low levels of need satisfaction have negative effects over time, while this deteriorating process is hastened by need frustration.
- Vansteenkiste and Ryan (2013) argue that while the satisfaction of basic psychological needs is a crucial condition for individuals' psychological flourishing, their frustration is expected to lead to energy depletion, maladjustment and illness.
- This study takes into account the relationships between satisfaction and frustration of autonomy and relatedness needs and two parenting dimensions, namely parental psychological control and autonomy support. Indeed, as it is outlined in the next section, the satisfaction and frustration of basic psychological

needs is associated with these parenting dimensions (Ahmad et al. 2013; Costa et al. 2015; Inguglia et al. 2015; Mabbe et al. 2015).

Associations between the satisfaction and frustration of basic needs and parenting dimensions

- (Deci and Ryan 2000), the satisfaction of child's basic psychological needs is related to the experiences provided by significant social contexts
- social contexts that deprive need satisfaction or thwart the satisfaction of the needs, the possibility to reach a positive psychological functioning is undermined (Cordeiro et al. 2016; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013)
- satisfaction and frustration of basic psychological needs is associated with some parenting dimensions, such as psychological control and autonomy support (Ahmad et al. 2013; Costa et al. 2018; Inguglia et al. 2015; Mabbe et al. 2015)
- Psychological control is a parenting dimension characteristic of parents who pressure their children to comply with their own agenda through insidious and manipulative tactics, such as guilt induction, shaming, and love withdrawal (Barber and Harmon 2002; Soenens et al. 2010)
- parental autonomy support is a parenting dimension characteristic of parents who promote the volitional functioning of their children and encourage them to act upon their true personal interests and values (Fousiani et al. 2014; Soenens et al. 2007).
- Psychological control and autonomy support are linked to the satisfaction and the frustration of fundamental needs (Deci and Ryan 2000; Inguglia et al. 2016)
- controlling parenting is associated with low need satisfaction and high need frustration
- autonomy granting is related to high need satisfaction and low need frustration (Ahmad et al. 2013; Costa et al. 2015; Inguglia et al. 2016; Mabbe et al. 2015)
- some scholars have specifically focused their attention on the relationships between parenting dimensions and the satisfaction/frustration of autonomy and relatedness needs (Fousiani et al. 2016; Inguglia et al. 2016)
- Kağıtçıbaşı's theory of autonomous-relatedness self-stating that autonomy and relatedness are very relevant issues in the context of parent-child relationships, especially when dealing with psychologically controlling and autonomy promoting parenting practices (Kağıtçıbaşı 1996, 2005)
- In this framework, the family interaction pattern called **Family Model of Psychological Interdependence** (Kağıtçıbaşı 2005), characterized by a **synthesis of authoritative parenting, material independence, psychological interdependence** and **close-knit ties**, allows children to develop an autonomous-related self showing at the same time high levels of agency and closeness to significant others.
- Adolescence ... youngsters begin to be independent people who are less influenced by parents and other adults, as well as having more opportunities to determine their own behaviors (Buhl 2008; Inguglia et al. 2015)
- the desire to feel connected to parents is still noticeable and associated with positive developmental outcomes (Inguglia et al. 2015)
- the link between autonomy and relatedness involves a dialectical process along two developmental lines in which progress in a line is essential in order to have progress in the other (Blatt and Shichman 1983; Inguglia et al. 2015).
- both autonomy and relatedness, as distinct but complementary motives in the context of parent-child relationships, are associated with specific parenting dimensions
- the more parents support their children's strivings for autonomy, the more children are able to strengthen their sense of volition and to establish satisfying relationships (Ahmad et al. 2013; Costa et al. 2016; Inguglia et al. 2016)
- the more parents behave in psychologically controlling ways, the less their children are autonomous and embedded in a network of positive relationships (Inguglia et al. 2015; Koepke and Denissen 2012).
- In sum, parental autonomy support seems to be positively associated with the satisfaction of autonomy and relatedness needs, while parental psychological control seems to be negatively linked to the satisfaction of both needs (Ahmad et al. 2013; Costa et al. 2015; Inguglia et al. 2016).

- GAP: most of them request participants to report the psychological control or the autonomy support perceived by both parents together (Costa et al. 2015; Inguglia et al. 2016) or by only one parent, especially mother (Ahmad et al. 2013)
- they lack in analyzing the unique role of each parent by allowing youth to provide separate ratings for maternal and paternal parenting dimensions
- important gender-specific effects could be masked
- Soenens and colleagues (2010) have suggested that mothers' and fathers' use of psychological control may produce different effects on their children's adjustment
- it is likely that psychological control and autonomy support of mothers and fathers may be differently associated with autonomy and relatedness needs
- Costa et al. (2016) have investigated the associations between maternal and paternal psychological control and autonomy support, on the one hand, with need satisfaction and need frustration, on the other hand
- Costa found that mothers and fathers differ only with regard the negative association between autonomy support and need frustration
- that is significant for the mothers and not for the fathers. However, they analyzed only the associations of maternal/ paternal parenting dimensions with global scores of need satisfaction/frustration, without disentangling specific needs like autonomy and relatedness.
- Second, many of these studies are focused on the associations among parenting dimensions and need satisfaction. Thus, they do not take into account that it is necessary to disentangle the satisfaction of basic needs from the frustration of these needs (Bartholomew et al. 2011; Cordeiro et al. 2018; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013).

Associations between satisfaction and frustration of basic needs and psychological functioning

- the satisfaction and frustration of psychological basic needs are likely to function separately and to provide a different contribution to individuals' psychological functioning in adolescence (Chen et al. 2015; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013)
- the satisfaction of basic psychological needs is associated with adolescents' positive development of the Self (Church et al. 2013; Kipp and Weiss 2015; Ryan et al. 2006, 2016)
- people's abilities to develop and act from a coherent sense of Self, characterized by high levels of self-acceptance and self-esteem, are facilitated by satisfaction of the basic psychological needs, such as the sense of autonomy and the experience of being connected with significant others (Di Domenico et al. 2013).
- the frustration of basic psychological needs seems to be associated with ill-being and diminished human functioning, in terms of feelings of inadequacy, exclusion, anxiety, depression, and loneliness (Ahmad et al. 2013; Bartholomew et al. 2011; Chen et al. 2015; Cordeiro et al. 2016; Costa et al. 2015; Longo et al. 2016; Vansteenkiste and Ryan 2013; Verstuyf et al. 2013).
- Longo and colleagues (2016) found that need frustration was correlated more strongly with anxiety than need satisfaction
- autonomy frustration is linked to the feeling of being controlled through externally enforced coercive pressures, whereas relatedness frustration involves the feeling of relational exclusion and loneliness (Nishimura et al. 2016), and these feelings may result in anxiety states.

Legate 2018

Abstract

internalized homophobia, or self-directed antigay prejudice

developmental antecedents to internalized homophobia

whether parenting styles might affect the development of internalized homophobia and negative psychological health outcomes

484 lesbian, gay, and bisexual (LGB) adults

- Those who described their parents as being more autonomy supportive during childhood reported lower internalized homophobia, anxiety, and depression, and greater self-esteem.
- These relations were mediated by a tendency to experience shame, whereby autonomy support from mothers (but not fathers) related to lower shame, which in turn linked to lower internalized homophobia and better psychological health.
- This work underscores the importance of autonomy-supportive interventions with families, as it suggests that autonomy-supportive parents may promote resilience against the development of internalized homophobia, a potent risk factor for mental health problems and self-harm.

Mageua 2015

Abstract

Validation of the P-PASS usefulness in studying perceived autonomy-supportive and controlling parenting.

Using a multidimensional perspective, the Perceived Parental Autonomy Support Scale (P-PASS) assesses autonomy-supportive and controlling parenting (Grolnick & Pomerantz, 2009).

Two studies document the instrument's psychometric properties (Study 1, $N = 210$, mean age = 18.8 years; Study 2, $N = 315$, mean age = 18.5 years).

Exploratory factor analyses first show that the P-PASS factor structure is best described by a 2-factor solution, 1 representing perceived autonomy support and the other, controlling parenting.

Cronbach's alphas confirm the internal consistency of the P-PASS scales ($\alpha = .89$), and correlation patterns with the Psychological Control Scale (Barber, 1996) and other parenting components (i.e., acceptance and monitoring) support convergent and divergent validity.

Hierarchical regressions also show that perceived autonomy support predicts young adults' adjustment, above and beyond controlling parenting (Studies 1 and 2) and parental acceptance and monitoring (Study 2).

Mageua 2016

Abstract

Determinates of autonomy-supportive and controlling parenting

achievement goal theory; self-determination theory

- parental achievement goals (i.e., achievement goals that parents have for their children) can be
 - mastery,
 - performance-approach or
 - performance-avoidance
- types of goals predict mothers' tendency to adopt autonomy-supportive and controlling behaviors

67 mothers (aged 30–53 years) of adolescent (aged 13–16 years; 19.4 % girls)

Findings:

parental performance-approach goals predict more controlling parenting and prevent acknowledgement of feelings, one autonomy-supportive behavior

mothers who have mastery goals and who endorse performance-avoidance goals are less likely to use guilt-inducing criticisms

These findings were observed while controlling for the effect of maternal anxiety

Autonomy-supportive and controlling parenting

- have been repeatedly linked to children's social, academic and psychological adjustment (Grolnick and Pomerantz 2009; Joussemet et al. 2008a; Moreau and Mageau 2013)

Self-determination theory

- human beings have an innate and universal need for autonomy, that is, the need to feel a sense of agency and **ownership of their behaviors** (Deci and Ryan 2000)
- children feel autonomous when they are intrinsically motivated or when they have internalized or taken over societal values as their own
- they act because of self-endorsed (or self-determined) reasons, and this can occur even when behaviors are initially prompted externally (Joussemet et al. 2014; Koestner et al. 1984)

parental autonomy support

- three behaviors:
 - providing a meaningful rationale for limits and demands (e.g., teeth need brushing each day to avoid cavities),
 - giving choices within these limits (e.g., do you want to brush your teeth now or after the story?)
 - acknowledging the child's feelings (e.g., it's true, teeth brushing is not always fun; Deci et al. 1994; Grolnick and Ryan 1989; Koestner et al. 1984)
- autonomy-supportive parents are empathic, descriptive (i.e., informational instead of evaluative) and they provide opportunities for active participation (e.g., in decisions making or in problem solving) instead of being intrusive, dominating and pressuring (Grolnick and Pomerantz 2009)
- autonomy support is thus different from permissiveness because it can be combined (and ideally is combined) with parental provision of structure, such as limit settings (Koestner et al. 1984) or rule enforcement (Lessard et al. 2015)
- linked to positive outcomes at different developmental stages (see Joussemet et al. 2008a; Moreau and Mageau 2013, for reviews)
 - a more secure attachment style (Whipple et al. 2011)
 - better executive functioning (Bernier et al. 2010) in toddlers
 - higher social and academic adjustments in elementary school children (Bronstein et al. 1996; Grolnick and Ryan 1989; Joussemet et al. 2005)
 - higher well-being (Downie et al. 2007; Niemiec et al. 2006; Soenens et al. 2007)
 - more life satisfaction (Sheldon et al. 2009)
 - less health-risk behaviors (Williams et al. 2000) in adolescence

- autonomy-supportive limit-setting facilitates internalization of societal values and expectations compared to controlling conditions, while preserving intrinsic motivation and creativity (Joussemet et al. 2004; Koestner et al. 1984)

Autonomy thwarting

- the opposite of autonomy support in terms of its psychological significance for the child is autonomy-thwarting or controlling parenting (Grolnick and Pomerantz 2009; Soenens et al. 2007)
- one type of controlling parenting is psychological control (Barber 1996)
- controlling parenting is characterized by pressure, intrusion, and domination (Grolnick and Pomerantz 2009)
- can be either externally (e.g., coercive threats) or internally controlling (e.g., conditional love, invalidation, shaming; Soenens and Vansteenkiste 2010)
- In the present study, controlling parenting is operationalized using both externally and internally controlling behaviors (i.e., threats, guilt inductions, and performance pressures; Mageau et al. 2015a).
- Controlling parenting has been linked to
 - children's oppositional behaviors (Bronstein 1994),
 - antisocial acts (Barber 1996; Conger et al. 1997; Herman et al. 1997; Joussemet et al. 2008b; Prinzie et al. 2010), and
 - emotional self-regulation problems (Fabes et al. 2001)
 - predicts internalized problems (Faubert et al. 1990) such as childhood anxiety (Ballash et al. 2006; Rapee 1997; Wood et al. 2003), depression (Barber 1996; McCranie and Bass 1984; Miller et al. 1990; Soenens et al. 2008a, b), and lower self-esteem (Conger et al. 1997; Garber et al. 1997; Silk et al. 2003)
- robust linkage between more autonomy-supportive (and less controlling) parenting and children's and adolescents' psychological adjustment (Joussemet et al. 2008a; Moreau and Mageau 2013), it is imperative to uncover the facilitating and impeding factors of these parenting behaviors.

Determinates of parenting styles

- obstacles of autonomy-supportive behaviors or risk factors that lead parents to be more controlling
 - parents who are perfectionists (Flett et al. 2002) or achievement oriented (Pomerantz and Eaton 2001)
 - who feel anxious when they are apart from their children (Soenens et al. 2006)
 - who hinge their self-esteem on their child's behavior (Grolnick et al. 2007)
 - who have a strong fear of failure (Elliot and Thrash 2004)
- at the contextual level
 - children who have a more difficult temperament (Pettit et al. 2001)
 - are less achievement oriented (Pomerantz and Eaton 2001)
 - are less intrinsically motivated (Courneya and McAuley 1991)
 - tend to elicit more control from their parents and other adults (Anderson et al. 1986)
 - stressful life events (Grolnick et al. 1996),
 - lower socio-economic status (SES; Dodge et al. 1994),
 - unemployment (McLoyd 1989), and
 - perceived environmental threat (Gurland and Grolnick 2005)
- at the situational level
 - Zussman (1980) showed that situational stress is related to controlling behaviors: Mothers who were asked to supervise their children in a moderately hazardous situation were more controlling when they were also preoccupied with an additional task

Factors that facilitate AS

- Landry et al. (2008) found that mothers' trust that children's development proceeds in a natural and healthy way (i.e., organismic trust) is positively associated with mothers' autonomy-supportive practices
- higher well-being (Stebbing et al. 2011) and viewing subordinates' abilities as reflecting efforts and practice instead of as being a personality trait (Leroy et al. 2007) could also facilitate more autonomy-supportive behaviors

The achievement goal model

- achievement goals concern competence development and achievement (Elliot and Church 1997)

- parental achievement goals are goals that parents have regarding the development and achievement of their children's own competence
- distinguished as a function of the way competence is evaluated (i.e., mastery vs. performance; Dweck 1986; Elliot et al. 2011; Nicholls 1984)
- parents with parental **mastery goals** want their children to develop their competence and thus evaluate achievement using **temporal comparisons** (past vs. present performance)
- parents who pursue **performance goals** work toward a demonstration of their children's competence as evaluated by **social comparisons** with their peers

Link between parental achievement goals and AS

- Gonida and Cortina (2014) provided evidence that parental achievement goals may influence autonomy-support and controlling parenting
- the more parents endorsed mastery goals when helping their children with their homework, the more they reported engaging in autonomy-supportive behaviors
- the more parents had performance goals during homework the more they reported using controlling strategies

Meuwissen 2015

Abstract

the role of fathers' parenting - fathers' autonomy support and control in dyadic play with their 3-year-old children

(N pairs = 110), and measured father and child EF independently with laboratory tasks

Findings:

fathers' controlling parenting was significantly inversely related to the child EF composite, above and beyond family income and child verbal ability

results are consistent with the hypothesis that fathers are important for the development of EF in their children, and suggest fathers should be included in both research and parenting interventions

although previous work has shown that mothers' parenting influences the development of child executive function (important self-control skills developed in the preschool years)

Executive Function

- Children's early experience with caregivers is proposed to be an important force in shaping brain development (Bos, Fox, Zeanah, & Nelson, 2009; Carlson, 2009; NICHD Early Child Care Research Network, 2000).
- Various aspects of **parenting** are known to be important precursors to later cognitive development.
- *Executive function* (EF) refers to higher level thinking skills, such as
 - inhibition,
 - working memory, and
 - mental flexibility,
 - that allow for goal-directed behaviors (Carlson, Zelazo, & Faja, 2013)
- research is emerging on aspects of mother-child interactions that support EF development, but little is known about the role of **father-child interactions**
- Executive function shows rapid development in the preschool years, and continues to mature through adolescence (Carlson et al., 2013)
- EF is a key component of school readiness and academic achievement.
- Children who have better EF skills tend to have higher math and literacy scores in elementary school (e.g., Blair & Razza, 2007) and
- are able to learn more from a given amount of instruction (Benson, Sabbagh, Carlson, & Zelazo 2013)
- Outcomes associated with high EF persist across the lifespan, including education level, income, social skills, and mental and physical health (Mischel et al., 2011; Moffitt et al., 2011)
- variables pertaining to the family, including socioeconomic status (SES), parent education level, language use, and parenting behaviors, have all been implicated in EF development (Carlson et al., 2013)

Scaffolding

- Lev Vygotsky's theory - proposed that interpersonal interactions can structure thinking processes, which the child can learn from and then enact intrapersonally, without the help of the adult (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976)
- scaffolding was the mechanism by which these external processes became internal
- parents are initially responsible for regulating their infant in many domains (e.g. hunger, sleep, emotions), and this external regulation needs to be gradually internalized for children to develop EF
- Parent-child interactions are an important context in which children can experiment with their emerging self-regulation skills (Giesbrecht, Müller, & Miller, 2010)
- Warm and responsive caregiving predicts a variety of cognitive and social outcomes, and parents who set up a predictable environment allow their children to form organized expectations of the world, which is believed to be an important early step in developing EF (Carlson, 2003)
- Hartup (1987) suggested that meta-cognitive processes (which encompass EF) are the aspect of cognitive development most likely to be influenced by social relationships

- **Scaffolding** refers to helping children just enough so they are able to use their own skills toward the successful completion of a task -- is a central component of autonomy support (Bernier et al., 2010)
- Autonomy supportive interactions provide children with successful problem-solving experiences and practice with skills such as making decisions that require reflection and the identification and correction of errors. This practice is expected to enhance EF skills, which rely on reflective thinking and self-regulation (Zelazo, 2004).

•

Parenting, EF, Autonomy Support and SDT

- various aspects of parenting in relation to EF -- we focus on autonomy support and its opposite, controlling parenting
- Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1980; 2000) proposes that autonomy is one of three universal psychological needs (the other two being relatedness and competence).
- This theory suggests that autonomy support is the most important aspect of parenting for the development of independent action (Joussemet, Landry, & Koestner, 2008)
- when adults provide a sense of autonomy rather than control a child's behavior, this facilitates self-regulation of behavior (Grolnick & Farkas, 2002; Grolnick & Ryan, 1989)
- autonomy support/control is found to be the aspect of parenting most consistently predictive of child EF (Bernier, Carlson, Deschenes, Matte-Gagne, 2012; Bernier, Carlson, & Whipple, 2010; Fay-Stammbach, Hawes, & Meredith, 2014; Sethi, Mischel, Aber, Shoda, & Rodriguez, 2000)
- autonomy support refers to guidance from an adult that facilitates the child's success and sense of mastery, as opposed to the adult taking over and controlling the task, or letting the child struggle on his/her own (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Grolnick & Farkas, 2002)
- adults support children's autonomy by taking their perspective, respecting their pace, and ensuring they play an active role in completing the task
- adults can also provide children with choices, suggestions, and opportunities to use their own approaches, rather than make the decisions, give directions, and lead the task (Matte-Gagné & Bernier, 2011; Stefanou, Perencevich, DiCintio, & Turner, 2004)
- when parents ask questions that draw their child's attention to new aspects of the problem, they help create psychological distance between the child and the problem, which can facilitate self-regulation (Giesbrecht, Müller, & Miller, 2010)

GAP in study of Fathers

- Nearly all previous studies of autonomy-supportive parenting and child EF have included only mothers.
- There is a striking gap in our knowledge about the effect fathers have on children's EF and how fathering may have similar or different effects from mothering.
- fathers have become more involved with their young children's care, which is redefining the roles of both fathers and mothers as parents (Cabrera, Tamis-LeMonda, Bradley, Hofferth, & Lamb, 2000)
- this cultural shift needs to be integrated into theories of child development and incorporated into research by including fathers when studying children to fully understand the context of development (Cox & Paley, 2003; Lamb & Lewis, 2010).

Fathers

- father interactions provide children with unique, enriching experiences that do not occur in mother-child interactions (Grossman, Grossman, Kindler, & Zimmermann, 2008)
- fathers tend to be more playmates and mothers more caregivers for their children
- fathers' play tends to be more physical, and their games more vigorous, state-disrupting, idiosyncratic and unpredictable, whereas mothers' play involves more visual stimulation and predictable activities (Lamb, 2004)
- father interactions may be a particularly important context for EF development, because high arousal and excitement levels may be more cognitively stimulating for children (Grossman et al., 2008)
- research suggests fathers are likely to have an influence on child EF;
- having an emotionally invested, attached father is associated with better wellbeing, cognitive development, and social competence (Cabrera et al., 2000)

- Bronte-Tinkew and colleagues (2008) found that father involvement, including cognitively stimulating activities, physical care, paternal warmth, and caregiving activities, was associated with a lower likelihood of infant cognitive delay
- fathers' and mother's supportive parenting at 2 years old independently predicted language and cognitive outcomes over the next year (Tamis-LeMonda, Shannon, Cabrera, & Lamb, 2004)
- mothers and fathers have been found to be equally effective in their scaffolding abilities with their 2-year-olds in problem solving and literacy interactions, and scaffolding behaviors from both parents were related to success on the task (Connor, Knight & Cross, 1997)
- Easterbrooks and Goldberg (1984) found father characteristics to be most related to the cognitive outcome of child problem solving in a jigsaw puzzle task, whereas mother characteristics were most related to the social outcome of child attachment status
- supportive, non-restrictive fathering has been associated with higher IQ, math, and reading scores, independently of mothers' parenting (Coley, Lewin-Bizan & Carrano, 2011)
- Sarkadi and colleagues (2008) concluded that father engagement enhances cognitive, social, and behavioral outcomes

Meuwissen 2015

Abstract

parent autonomy support and its effect on 3-year-old children's self-regulation

N pairs=128; 50% fathers

Results showed that parents were able to change their behavior according to the instructions given, with parents who were lower in autonomy support at baseline benefiting most from the autonomy support training.

Changes in parenting affected child behavior during the dyadic puzzle. Mothers and fathers had similar parenting quality at baseline.

These results indicate that parent autonomy support is a promising target for child self-regulation interventions

- Regulatory skills, including executive function (EF), are vital for children's successful development, and promoting these skills in early childhood has become a high priority.
- There is robust correlational evidence that autonomy-supportive caregiving in the preschool years is linked to child self-regulation development (Bernier, Carlson, & Whipple, 2010; Fay- Stambach, Hawes, & Meredith, 2014; Karreman, van Tuijl, van Aken, & Dokovic, 2006). However, there is a paucity of studies that allow causal claims to be made about this association. There is also little known about the role paternal parenting plays in preschool self-regulation.
- The influence of a single parent training episode with mothers and fathers on parent behavior and child self-regulation in an experimental context
- Such evidence could serve as proof-of-concept to support future investments in prevention and intervention studies utilizing parent training.

Executive function and self-regulation

- EF refers to a set of higher-order neurocognitive skills that allows people to control their own thoughts and actions and to direct behavior toward long-term goals (Carlson, Zelazo, & Faja, 2013; Hendry, Jones, & Charman, 2016; Zelazo & Carlson, 2012)
- Self-regulation is a broader concept than EF that refers to behavior in complex real-life situations, such as planning ahead, persevering through frustration, and using multiple strategies, that relies on a foundation of executive function (Blair, 2016; Jones, Bailey, Barnes, & Partee, 2016)
- EF and self-regulation have significant overlap and these terms are used inconsistently in the literature.
- Self-regulated behavior is the product of both the child's skill (e.g., EF abilities) and will (e.g., choice and motivation to display abilities in a particular context; Neitzel & Stright, 2003; Schunk, 1995)
- Jones et al. (2016) conceptualization where EF refers to specifically measured neurocognitive skills, whereas self-regulation refers to the behaviors that are observable in a naturalistic setting which reflect the implementation of those neurocognitive skills in combination with other skills, such as emotional and social skills.

Parent influences on EF and self-regulation

- Parenting behaviors set the stage for the development of EF (Fay- Stambach et al., 2014; Hendry et al., 2016; Moriguchi, 2014)
- Parents are main players in important early social interactions, and EF is transferred from parent to child through correlated and interacting genetic and environmental processes (Chang, Shaw, Dishion, Gardner, & Wilson, 2015; Deater-Deckard, 2014)

Autonomy support

- Autonomy support refers to a dimension of parenting that has arisen from Vygotskian and self-determination theories
- Vygotsky (1978) saw the caregiver's main role in dyadic activity as providing assistance at an appropriate level, slightly ahead of the child's competence, so he or she can progress toward independence

- Wood (1980) named this process **scaffolding**, where the adult's help should vary in response to the child's ability level, and as the child masters components, the adult can transfer the responsibility for those skills to the child.
- Self-determination researchers called this type of parenting *autonomy support*, which involves encouraging children to be self-initiating and independent in problem-solving, and giving children choice and participation in decisions rather than using pressure and rewards to motivate behavior (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989)
- For the current study, autonomy support is defined as providing just enough help so the child is able to use his/her own skills toward successful completion of a task.
- Behaviors such as providing choices, constraining the problem space so children can succeed, and guiding them to correct their own mistakes are considered autonomy supportive (Wood, 1980).
- Autonomy support is beneficial for child self-regulation because it provides alternative perspectives, redirection toward appropriate goals, practice with key skills, and an external dialog that can be internalized by the child (Moriguchi, 2014), leading to increased feelings of responsibility and experiencing self-efficacy (Bindman, Pomerantz, & Roisman, 2015).

Non-autonomy supportive (controlling vs laissez faire)

- Parents can be non-autonomy supportive in two ways: by being controlling or laissez-faire.
- Control occurs when parents provide too much help, such as making decisions and performing actions the child could do, or rushing the child's thinking (Whipple, Bernier, & Mageau, 2011)
- Too much help might undermine internal motivation and give children little opportunity to regulate their own behavior (Grolnick & Farkas, 2002)
- On the other hand, laissez faire parenting occurs when parents give too much independence.
- They allow their child to struggle, give little useful input or guidance, or are uninvolved with the task (Whipple et al., 2011)

Father influences on child EF and self-regulation

- The majority of research on parenting and early childhood child self-regulation has focused on mothers.
- Fathers are now more involved with their young children's care than in the past, which is redefining the roles of both fathers and mothers as parents (Baptista et al., 2017; Cabrera, Tamis-LeMonda, Bradley, Hofferth, & Lamb, 2000)
- Fathers need to be included in research to fully understand quality of parenting as a context of development (e.g., Lamb & Lewis, 2010).

Difference between fathers and mothers

- fathers having lower involvement,
- tending to be more playmates than caregivers, and
- engaging in more physical and unpredictable play than do mothers (Fletcher, St. George, & Freeman, 2013; Grossmann, Grossmann, Kindler, & Zimmermann, 2008)
- paternal parenting is important for children's cognitive development (e.g., Bronte-Tinkew, Carrano, Horowitz, & Kinukawa, 2008; Magill-Evans, Harrison, Rempel, & Slater, 2006; Ryan, Martin, & Brooks-Gunn, 2006)

Moreno-Murcia 2015

Abstract

an examination of the prediction of autonomy support, psychological mediators and self-determined academic motivation on basic competences

a sample of 405 adolescent students aged between 12 and 16 was used to measure autonomy support, psychological needs, self-determined motivation and basic competences

findings:

supported the factorial structure of the scale and showed that it was valid and reliable for measuring basic competences

autonomy support from teachers, peers, fathers and mothers, psychological mediators and self-determined motivation predicted basic competences.

Niemiec 2006

Abstract

the relations among

- perceived need support from parents,
- their adolescents' autonomous self-regulation for academics, and
- the adolescents' well-being

Findings:

- perceived need support from parents independently predicted adolescents' wellbeing
 - although when mothers' and fathers' data were examined separately, the relation was stronger for mothers than for fathers
- autonomous self-regulation for planning to attend college was a significant partial mediator of the relation of adolescents' perceived need support to well-being
- perceived need support from parents does seem important for the development of adolescents' autonomous self-regulation and well-being

Socialization

- *socialization* is the process through which individuals learn and internalize the social percepts and mores that allow for effective functioning in society (Maccoby, 1984)
- processes affect individuals' phenomenological experiences and to promote the internalization of attitudes, values, and regulatory processes
- self-determination theory's (SDT) view of socialization (Deci & Ryan, 1985) emphasizes an inherent orientation towards growth and development
 - energized and sustained, in part, by the fulfillment of the psychological needs for autonomy (deCharms, 1968), competence (White, 1959), and relatedness (Harlow, 1958)
- this natural, active propensity towards engagement with, and internalization of, social values is considered an important basis of healthy development, marked by the tendencies towards differentiation of personal and social structures and their integration into a coherent, unified, healthy sense of self (Ryan & Deci, 2000b)

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

- SDT suggests that humans are intrinsically motivated to approach activities that are interesting, optimally challenging, and spontaneously satisfying (Ryan & Deci, 2000a), and that this process promotes development
- intrinsically motivated behaviours (e.g., exploration) are undertaken in the absence of external contingencies or controls, so engagement with these behaviours does not require prompts by socializers
- However, not all behaviours that are important for socialization are intrinsically motivating. Hence, initiation of socially prescribed but unenjoyable behaviours may require the use extrinsic motivators (Ryan, Deci, & Grolnick, 1995).

Extrinsic motivation and Internalization

- extrinsically motivated behaviours that are consistent with societal values and norms, once prompted by external contingencies, are often carried out compliantly
- compliance tends not to persist when the extrinsic contingencies are not present, and mere compliance has been associated with psychological discord and ill-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000)
- the critical issue is **whether socializing agents can facilitate adolescents' internalization** of the extrinsic motivation in a way that will allow for self-regulation of the behaviours
- internalization is necessary for the regulation of extrinsically motivated behaviours that are consistent with social norms to be transformed into personal values (Deci & Ryan, 1985)
- getting into college, although academic achievement is often not considered to be intrinsically motivated
 - external or internal pressures to attend
 - personally important to their own life goals
 - college is an important societal value in the extant environments of most adolescents
 - the two studies herein reported concern internalization of the value and regulation of high school students for pursuing college

- initially external regulations and their implicit values can be internalized
 - through the processes of introjection, identification, and integration
 - *introjection*: taking in a contingency or regulation without accepting it as one's own
 - the introjected regulation essentially controls the person (e.g., planning to attend college to avoid feelings of guilt)
 - *identification*: identifying with the personal value of an activity so that the person can regulate the behaviour more willingly or volitionally (e.g., planning to attend college because of its personal relevance)
 - *integration*: bringing that identification into coherence with other aspects of the self (e.g., planning to attend college because doing so resonates with other personal values and goals)
 - full integration is relatively rare among adolescents, the current studies focus on external, introjected, and identified forms of extrinsic motivation

Psychological needs and well-being

- need support is theorized to be paramount for healthy adjustment, and research has supported this view among adolescents
- teens who felt strongly related to their parents were more autonomous in their self-regulation and experienced higher well-being than their counterparts whose need for relatedness was not well satisfied by their parents (Ryan, Stiller, & Lynch, 1994)
- thus indicating that adolescents who experience autonomy and relatedness during socialization seem to be freer to pursue their interests and to be better adjusted
- when needs are not met, human distress is theorized to follow (Deci & Ryan, 2000)
- pressuring adolescents into compliance is effective in accomplishing socialization, such controlling practices tend to hinder internalization and thwart the adolescents' development of autonomy and well-being (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Vansteenkiste, Simons, Lens, Sheldon, & Deci, 2004)
- thwarting of the need for relatedness has also been found to yield negative consequences for autonomous self-regulation and well-being (e.g., Ryan et al., 1994)
- parents who support their children's needs for relatedness and autonomy will be more beneficial to development than parents who tend to thwart these needs (Ryan & Deci, 2002)
- the degree to which adolescents experience need satisfaction from socializers will influence the degree to which they have internalized important ambient values and regulations, such as attending college
- the effectiveness of internalization depends on whether adolescents experience need support when encountering social norms
- when parents support their adolescents' psychological needs, the adolescents are likely to internalize ambient values and norms more fully, to regulate themselves more autonomously, and to evidence greater psychological health

Oudekerk 2015

Abstract

A developmental cascade model of autonomy and relatedness in the progression from

- from parent
- to friend
- to romantic relationships

across ages 13, 18, and 21 was examined among 184 adolescents (53% female, 58% Caucasian, 29% African American) recruited from a public middle school in Virginia

Findings:

- parental psychological control at age 13 undermined the development of autonomy and relatedness
 - predicting relative decreases in autonomy and relatedness with friends between ages 13 and 18
 - lower levels of autonomy and relatedness with partners at age 18
- these cascade effects extended into adult friendships and romantic relationships
 - with autonomy and relatedness with romantic partners at age 18 being a strong predictor of autonomy and relatedness with both friends and partners at age 21

Benefits of positive friendships and romantic relationships

- for developmental functioning and overall well-being in adulthood
- range from greater resistance to stress,
- to reductions in deviant behaviors, and
- to better physical and mental health (House, Landis, & Umbreson, 1988; Laub, Nagin, & Sampson, 1998; Patterson & Veenstra, 2010)
- the ability to exercise autonomy and maintain relatedness within close relationships is one hallmark of normative relational development in adolescence and remains an important aspect of healthy functioning in adult relationships (Allen, Hauser, Bell, & O'Connor, 1994; Collins, 2003; Hill & Holmbeck, 1986; Taradash, Connolly, Pepler, Craig, & Costa, 2001).

Autonomy and Relatedness as a single construct

- autonomy and relatedness can also be considered as a single overall construct within healthy close relationships, a state John Bowlby referred to as “autonomous-relatedness” (Hill & Holmbeck, 1986; Moore, 1987; Murphy, Silber, Coelho, Hamburg, & Greenberg, 1963)
- autonomy and relatedness tend to be interconnected within close relationships (Allen et al., 1994; Taradash et al., 2001)
- members of a dyad must be able to confidently assert their own autonomous reasoning while simultaneously preserving the closeness of the relationship (Allen et al., 1994; McIsaac, Connolly, McKenney, Pepler, & Craig, 2008)
- adolescents who fail to develop the capacity to establish autonomy and relatedness appear at risk for using hostile or autonomy-undermining methods of resolving conflict and for experiencing depression and loneliness in adulthood close relationships (Allen, Hauser, O'Connor, & Bell, 2002; Miga, Gdula, & Allen, 2012; Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Goossens, Duriez, & Niemiec, 2008; Wei, Shaffer, Young, & Zakalik, 2005)

Cascading “spill-over” effect

- Negative or positive experiences within early relationships are theorized to “cascade” or “spill over” into future relationships across different social domains (e.g., friend, romantic; Masten & Cicchetti, 2010; Pepler, 2012)

Parental Psychological Control and Autonomy and Relatedness

- psychological control is posited to undermine volitional functioning by pressuring adolescents to think and make decisions consistent with their parents' needs and motivations rather than self-motivations (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010)
- Youth who are taught to prioritize others' motivations and needs are likely to acquire less practice in identifying, understanding, and asserting their own autonomous way of thinking. In addition, parents' use of psychologically controlling tactics has been linked to poorer quality parent-youth relationships, possibly the result of youth's resistance to the intrusive or overbearing parenting (Barber, Xia, Olsen, McNeely, & Bose, 2012; Galambos, Barker, & Almeida, 2003; Hodges, Finnegan, & Perry, 1999; Leondari &

Kiosseoglou, 2002; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010). Youth exposed to these tactics might find close relationships threatening and potentially avoid them as a result.

Pedersen 2017

Abstract

tested SDT's parental autonomy support theory by examining five measures of academic well-being and covitality among college students

- school-related stress,
- school spillover,
- academic motivation,
- grade point average, and
- satisfaction with universit

sample of undergraduates attending a public university (N = 492), this proposition was

Results:

- when parents fostered autonomy (make their own decisions; select coursework; budget money; and take the initiative to deal with academic and interpersonal issues)
 - daughters were more satisfied with university life
 - other forms of student well-being were not significantly associated
 - not significant among college men

Pesch 2015

Abstract

Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) was used to explain

parental autonomy support, decisions, and career well-being

Perceived academic competence and perceived volitional autonomy were posited to mediate the relation of mother's and father's autonomy support and career well-being in 113 university students.

Perceived academic competence mediated the relation of father's support and both indicators of career well-being.

Perceived volitional autonomy mediated the relation of mother's support and both indicators of career well-being.

A bootstrap procedure yielded significant mediation effects of mother's and father's autonomy support on career well-being. Results are discussed in terms of SDT and career well-being.

Sagkal 2018

Abstract

Fathers play a salient role in the children's development, especially in daughters.

the direct and indirect effects of father-daughter relationship on psychological outcomes of adolescent girls

310 adolescent girls aged between 14 and 18 ($M=15.88$, $SD=0.89$) of a Turkish population-based sample

Results:

- father-daughter relationship is directly related to higher levels of well-being and lower levels of illbeing
- indirect effects of basic psychological need satisfaction on the link between father-daughter relationship and psychological outcomes were significant
- father-daughter relationship significantly influences mental health of adolescent girls and this effect is mediated by basic psychological need satisfaction
- implications for counseling interventions and recommendations for future research are discussed

GAP:

- to date, the vast majority of research in this field has been primarily conducted with the participation of mothers and children
- father's role on child development, especially on daughters, was largely ignored (Flouri, 2005a; Lamb, 2010; Nielson, 2012, 2014)
- there has been growing scholarly interest in fathering research (Adamsons & Palkovitz, 2014; Marsiglio, Amato, Day, & Lamb, 2000)
- researchers are investigating how father-child relationships influence social, cognitive, emotional, behavioral, and physical outcomes of children (Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009; Flouri, 2005a)
- it is not known yet whether these associations are replicated across cultures

Father/child relationship

- there is a positive relationship between nurturant father-daughter relationship and positive child adjustment (Nielson, 2012, 2014)
- father-child relationship explains a large amount of variance in child outcomes, over and above the mother-child relationship (e.g., Flouri & Buchanan, 2003a; Flouri, 2005a; Nielson, 2014; Rohner, 1998; Videon, 2005)

Father-child relationships and children's adjustment

- fathers now tend to involve more actively in the child-rearing processes (Cabrera, Tamis-LeMonda, Bradley, Hofferth, & Lamb, 2000; Lewis & Lamb, 2003; Nielson, 2012, 2014)
- positive father-child communication is associated with greater self-esteem, better school adjustment, lower depression, and substance use (Bireda & Pillay, 2018)
- increased father involvement is associated with
 - higher levels of psychological well-being (Flouri & Buchanan, 2003a; Kuzucu & Özdemir, 2013; Videon, 2005),
 - lower levels of emotional (Flouri, 2005b; Kuzucu & Özdemir, 2013), and
 - behavioral problems (Flouri & Buchanan, 2003b; Flouri, 2005b; Kuzucu & Özdemir, 2013)
- father-infant relationship qualities predict children's attachment patterns at ages 10 and 16 (Grossman et al., 2002)
- parent-adolescent bond is associated with greater well-being, lower ill-being, and suicidal thoughts, especially in daughters (van Wel, Linssen, & Abma, 2000)
- emotionally close parent-child relationships during adolescence and early adulthood years longitudinally predicted greater self-esteem 17 and 20 years later for both sons and daughters (Roberts & Bengtson, 1996)
- the quality of father-daughter relationship is linked with a number of adult daughter outcomes, such as
 - higher academic and vocational success,
 - higher levels of secure partner attachment,
 - greater romantic relationship satisfaction,

- more self-esteem,
- making healthful sexual decisions, as well as
- lower levels of depression, anxiety, stress, and eating disorders (see Nielson, 2014, for a review)

Basic psychological need satisfaction as a potential mediating mechanism

- Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT) as a one of the mini theories of Self-Determination Theory (SDT) posits that there are three innate basic psychological needs for growth, functioning, and well-being regardless of gender and culture (Deci & Ryan, 2012)
- autonomy, relatedness, and competence
- Autonomy: the experience of volition, feeling of freedom, to be able to choose from among choices, and make one's own decisions
- Relatedness: having significant, genuine, warm, responsive, caring, intimate, and reciprocal relationships with important others
- Competence: the experience of efficacy in one's pursuits, tasks, and outcomes
- satisfaction of these three basic needs improves optimal psychological growth, integrity, and wellbeing, frustration of basic needs leads to psychological ill-being and even psychopathology (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2017; Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013)
- social context, particularly parents, play crucial role on either in supporting or thwarting these basic psychological needs (Ryan & Deci, 2017)
- (e.g., Costa, Cuzzocrea, Gugliandolo, & Larcan, 2016; Costa, Soenens, Gugliandolo, Cuzzocrea, & Larcan, 2015; van der Kaap-Deeder, Vansteenkiste, Soenens, & Mabbe, 2017) has revealed that while supportive parental behaviors are associated with need satisfaction, psychologically controlling parental behaviors are linked with need frustration in offspring
- basic psychological need satisfaction is associated with positive adjustment outcomes (e.g., Costa et al., 2016, 2015; van der Kaap-Deeder et al., 2017)

Sevil 2018

Abstract

the independent influence of autonomy support for leisure-time physical activity (LTPA) from different school community agents on motivational outcomes

how different combinations of autonomy-support were associated with students' motivational outcomes in a LTPA context and PA levels

178 secondary students ($M = 13.26 \pm 0.64$)

Findings:

- autonomy support for LTPA from the PE teacher, mother, father, and peers were the only agents that significantly and positively predicted motivational outcomes in a LTPA context and PA levels
- two- and three-way interactions significantly increased the explained variance of some motivational outcomes
- the lowest values of motivational outcomes were associated with low values of perceived autonomy support
- five profiles
 - "high autonomy support": → the most optimal outcomes
 - "low autonomy support": → the opposite pattern
 - "mixed" autonomy support profiles → did not differ in any of the outcomes
- the adoption of a whole-of-school approach seems decisive to empower adolescents to be active in and out of school

Main Point

"*AS from all three social agents significantly and positively predicted self-determined motivation
*two- and three-way interactions significantly added to the prediction
*a relatively high level of self-determined motivation was associated with the perception that at least two of the three social agents provided high levels of autonomy support
*the provision of autonomy support from coaches, mothers, and fathers relate to athletes' self-determined motivation both independently and interactively"

"*parental behavioral control, psychological control, and decision-making autonomy at 10–11 are associated with delinquency trajectories at ages 10–17
*parental monitoring (behavioral control) is negatively associated with delinquency in the short term and operates partly through changes in self-control
*parental pressure (psychological control) shows immediate and long-lasting associations with delinquency through changes in self-control and delinquent peer pressures
*decision-making autonomy is negatively associated with delinquency in the long term, yet may exacerbate delinquency in early adolescence by increasing exposure to delinquent peers"

"Results of the intervention:

*significant increases in perceived teacher autonomy and perceived autonomy in PE were observed in the autonomy support group, but not in the control group

*intrinsic motivation was higher in the autonomy support group

*these findings suggest that the autonomy support was successfully manipulated in the PE classes, which in turn increased the students' perceived autonomy and intrinsic motivation "

"Study 1: autonomy and competence satisfaction had unique associations with well-being

and individual differences in need valuation did not moderate these associations

Study 2: Results provided evidence for the measurement equivalence of an adapted scale tapping into both need satisfaction and need frustration

Satisfaction of each of the three needs was found to contribute uniquely to the prediction of well-being, whereas frustration of each of the three needs contributed uniquely to the prediction of ill-being

Consistent with Study 1, the effects of need satisfaction and need frustration were found to be equivalent across the four countries and were not moderated by individual differences in the desire for need satisfaction.

These findings underscore BPNT's universality claim
findings underscore BPNT's universality claim, which states that the satisfaction of basic needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence represent essential nutrients

for optimal functioning across cultures and across individual differences in need strength."

"*perceived father autonomy support was related to positive perception of the government and less protesting against the government

*the present paper provides evidence that children's internalized representations of their fathers are related to intentions and behaviors to change the social systems"

"controls on maternal autonomy support

*significant relations were observed between paternal autonomy support and three of the four aspects of social behavior examined for daughters (but not sons)

*for daughters, the influence of paternal autonomy support was moderated by family conflict for both resistance to peer pressure and responsible behavior

*the temperament of daughters moderated the relation between paternal autonomy support and resistance to peer pressure, as well

*findings were interpreted with respect to the dynamics of parent–child relationships and increasing individuation during adolescence"

"• An increasing number of researches (Brenning, Soenens, Van Petegem, & Kins, 2017; Guay, Ratelle, Duchesne, & Dubois, 2018) have begun to address issues concerning parenting through a perspective of mutual relationships between fathers and mothers,

- suggesting that personal characteristics of one parent could be related also with the parental use of psychological control and autonomy support of the other parent

- Murdock, Lovejoy, and Oddi (2014) showed that both maternal and paternal positive and negative affect were related with both paternal and maternal controlling and supportive parenting behaviours.

- Bleys et al. (2016), instead, have shown that parental self-criticism was related only with same-parent psychological control and no with psychological control of other-parent. Costa, Gugliandolo, Barberis, Cuzzocrea, and Liga (2018), showed also that maternal need frustration and maternal need satisfaction were related not only with maternal but also with paternal psychological control and autonomy support.

- For these reasons, to have a broader picture of parental dynamics is clear the need to investigate the interplay of paternal and maternal trait EI with respect to psychological control and autonomy support toward their adolescent. It can be expected, in fact, that one parent's tendency to be empathic could be emulated by the other parent in the relationship with the adolescent, using autonomy support. At the opposite, parent with low trait EI tend to have difficult to withstand pressure and could transmit this stressful condition to their partners who might respond using psychological control with the adolescent. "

"*parental psychological control was positively associated with feelings of need frustration and depression

*parental autonomy support was positively associated with feelings of need satisfaction and vitality

*need satisfaction promoted feelings of vitality

*need frustration led to feelings of depression

*satisfaction of needs was a full mediator of the relationship between autonomy support and vitality

*frustration of needs was a full mediator of the relationship between psychological control and depression"

"•This study is important because it highlights that correlations are not causation and could relate either way; in this case ED $\rightarrow$ parental control, rather than parental control $\rightarrow$ ED

•In sum, research suggests that parents may be more controlling and less autonomy-supportive when patients display BP behaviors and/or engage in NSSI. These associations are important to be examined as theory and research suggest that autonomy-suppressing and controlling parenting may serve to maintain or worsen ED symptoms (Ryan, Deci, & Vansteenkiste, 2016; Strauss & Ryan, 1987). Thus, adolescent patients and parents may get caught in a negative vicious circle of deteriorating symptoms and quality of interaction. "

"• the effects on depressive symptoms were replicated across all 3 transitions

- effects on self-esteem were only found for the high school and post high school transitions

- evidence of coregulation was found for depressive symptoms

- depressive symptoms before the transition were found to decrease autonomy support after the transition for both the high school and post high school transitions

- Maternal and paternal autonomy support was of equal importance

- the continual importance of parents throughout high school and into emerging adulthood"

"parental autonomy support

- was indirectly and positively related to academic performance via intrinsic life goals intrinsic life goals and student expectations

- were moderately and positively related and both contributed to growth in academic performance
 - o suggests that self-determination theory and expectancy-value theory provide additive insight in predicting educational achievement

The significant indirect effect of parental autonomy support on GPA via intrinsic life goals and student expectations suggests that students will benefit from parents fostering intrinsic life goals through autonomy supportive communication. "

"• the independence between mother–child attachment and father–child activation

- the association between mother–child attachment and anxiety

- the highest levels of anxiety were found in insecure-ambivalent children

- and insecure disorganized-controlling children of the caregiving subtype

- the activation relationship with the father was shown to have a moderating effect on the relation between attachment to the mother and child anxiety
- activation by the father may be considered either a protective or a risk factor"

"• Reciprocal partner effects where mothers' autonomy support at Time 1 predicted fathers' autonomy support at Time 2

- Fathers' autonomy support at Time 1 predicted mothers' autonomy support at Time 2
- Reciprocal partner effects were also observed for controlling behaviors
 - These reciprocal relations were not statistically different across mothers and fathers.

Conclusions.

- Support for interparental contributions regarding autonomy supportive and controlling parenting behaviors.
- Mothers and fathers should thus be aware that their parenting behaviors can be influenced by each other, including both positive and negative parenting behaviors. "

"• Supporting a differentiated view of parental influence,

- negative parent–child interactions and parental scaffolding showed unique and specific associations with child EF
- The home learning environment and parental language measures showed global associations with children's EF and VA

Discussion

- including multiple direct observational measures of parenting is labor well spent
- findings confirm a multifaceted model of parenting (Zheng et al., 2016)
- separate measures of parental behavior (i.e., positive/negative and cognitive/ affective) show distinct patterns of association with children's EF
- our findings confirm the domain specificity of parental influences
 - whereas scaffolding and negative parent–child interactions are both key predictors of child EF
 - highlighting the diversity of parental influences on child EF, they were unrelated to children's VA
 - the HLE was positively related to both child outcomes and parental MLU was positively related to child VA but negatively related to child EF"

"• Confirmatory factor analyses demonstrated measurement invariance across

- parent gender,
- enabling comparisons that revealed significantly moderately higher levels of autonomy support in mothers than in fathers
- individual differences in autonomy support were unrelated to either parental personality or child temperament
 - highlighting the potential importance of dyadic characteristics
- Consistent with this view, whereas maternal autonomy support did not differ by child gender, fathers with sons displayed less autonomy support than did fathers with daughters"

"• both autonomy and relatedness were positively predicted by parental support to these needs

- perceived support for autonomy was positively associated with perceived support for relatedness
- autonomy and relatedness were positively related to each other for emerging adults, but they were not related for teens
- autonomy predicted negatively depression and loneliness

- relatedness predicted negatively externalizing problems (only for adolescents), stress, depression, and loneliness
- Taken together, the findings confirmed that autonomy and relatedness are fundamental needs for both teens and emerging adults related to parental support and psychological health.
- Notwithstanding, age moderated some of the investigated relationships suggesting that autonomy and relatedness have different meanings, as well as playing different roles during adolescence and emerging adulthood. "

"• path analysis showed more significant associations of autonomy support with satisfaction/frustration of autonomy and relatedness than psychological control

- some differences between parents
- both satisfaction and frustration of autonomy and relatedness were associated with adolescents' self-acceptance and anxiety although in different ways"

"• Those who described their parents as being more autonomy supportive during childhood reported lower internalized homophobia, anxiety, and depression, and greater self-esteem.

- These relations were mediated by a tendency to experience shame, whereby autonomy support from mothers (but not fathers) related to lower shame, which in turn linked to lower internalized homophobia and better psychological health.
- This work underscores the importance of autonomy-supportive interventions with families, as it suggests that autonomy-supportive parents may promote resilience against the development of internalized homophobia, a potent risk factor for mental health problems and self-harm. "

"• parental performance-approach goals predict more controlling parenting and prevent acknowledgement of feelings, one autonomy-supportive behavior

- mothers who have mastery goals and who endorse performance-avoidance goals are less likely to use guilt-inducing criticisms

• These findings were observed while controlling for the effect of maternal anxiety"

"Validation of the P-PASS usefulness in studying perceived autonomy-supportive and controlling parenting.

Using a multidimensional perspective, the Perceived Parental Autonomy Support Scale (P-PASS) assesses autonomy-supportive and controlling parenting (Grolnick & Pomerantz, 2009).

Two studies document the instrument's psychometric properties (Study 1, N = 210, mean age = 18.8 years; Study 2, N = 315, mean age = 18.5 years).

Exploratory factor analyses first show that the P-PASS factor structure is best described by a 2-factor solution, 1 representing perceived autonomy support and the other, controlling parenting.

Cronbach's alphas confirm the internal consistency of the P-PASS scales (___ .89), and correlation patterns with the Psychological Control Scale (Barber, 1996) and other parenting components (i.e., acceptance and monitoring) support convergent and divergent validity.

Hierarchical regressions also show that perceived autonomy support predicts young adults' adjustment, above and beyond controlling parenting (Studies 1 and 2) and parental acceptance and monitoring (Study 2). "

"fathers' controlling parenting was significantly inversely related to the child EF composite, above and beyond family income and child verbal ability

results are consistent with the hypothesis that fathers are important for the development of EF in their children, and suggest fathers should be included in both research and parenting interventions

although previous work has shown that mothers' parenting influences the development of child executive function (important self-control skills developed in the preschool years)"

"* parents were able to change their behavior according to the instructions given

* parents who were lower in autonomy support at baseline benefiting most from the autonomy support training

* changes in parenting affected child behavior during the dyadic puzzle

* mothers and fathers had similar parenting quality at baseline"

"* supported the factorial structure of the scale and showed that it was valid and reliable for measuring basic competences

*autonomy support from teachers, peers, fathers and mothers, psychological mediators and self-determined motivation predicted basic competences. "

"• perceived need support from parents independently predicted adolescents' wellbeing

• although when mothers' and fathers' data were examined separately, the relation was stronger for mothers than for fathers

• autonomous self-regulation for planning to attend college was a significant partial mediator of the relation of adolescents' perceived need support to well-being

• perceived need support from parents does seem important for the development of adolescents' autonomous self-regulation and well-being "

"• parental psychological control at age 13 undermined the development of autonomy and relatedness

• predicting relative decreases in autonomy and relatedness with friends between ages 13 and 18

• lower levels of autonomy and relatedness with partners at age 18

• these cascade effects extended into adult friendships and romantic relationships

• with autonomy and relatedness with romantic partners at age 18 being a strong predictor of autonomy and relatedness with both friends and partners at age 21"

"when parents fostered autonomy (made children make their own decisions; select coursework; budget money; and take the initiative to deal with academic and interpersonal issues)

• daughters were more satisfied with university life

• other forms of student well-being were not significantly associated

• not significant among college men "

"Perceived academic competence mediated the relation of father's support and both indicators of career well-being.

Perceived volitional autonomy mediated the relation of mother's support and both indicators of career well-being.

A bootstrap procedure yielded significant mediation effects of mother's and father's autonomy support on career well-being. Results are discussed in terms of SDT and career well-being"

"• father-daughter relationship is directly related to higher levels of well-being and lower levels of illbeing

- indirect effects of basic psychological need satisfaction on the link between father-daughter relationship and psychological outcomes were significant
- father-daughter relationship significantly influences mental health of adolescent girls and this effect is mediated by basic psychological need satisfaction
- implications for counseling interventions and recommendations for future research are discussed"

"• autonomy support for LTPA from the PE teacher, mother, father, and peers were the only agents that significantly and positively predicted motivational outcomes in a LTPA context and PA levels

- two- and three-way interactions significantly increased the explained variance of some motivational outcomes
- the lowest values of motivational outcomes were associated with low values of perceived autonomy support
- five profiles
 - "high autonomy support": ☐ the most optimal outcomes
 - "low autonomy support": ☐ the opposite pattern
 - "mixed" autonomy support profiles ☐ did not differ in any of the outcomes
- the adoption of a whole-of-school approach seems decisive to empower adolescents to be active in and out of school"

"this theoretical background allows for

- a clearer definition of the concept of psychological control,
- a more refined understanding of the dynamics involved in psychologically controlling parenting, and
- a greater insight regarding its generalization across age and cultures. "

Soenens 2005
Abstract

Soenens 2010

Abstract

the concept of psychological control

to enrich the theoretical background of the **concept of psychological control** by relating it to concepts used in self-determination theory

this theoretical background allows for

- a clearer definition of the concept of psychological control,
- a more refined understanding of the dynamics involved in psychologically controlling parenting, and
- a greater insight regarding its generalization across age and cultures.

Introduction

- to propose a number of new insights and future research directions that concern:
 - (a) the conceptualization of psychological control,
 - (b) the dynamics (i.e., antecedents, mechanisms and consequences) involved in psychologically controlling parenting, and
 - (c) its generalization across age and culture. Before touching upon these goals, we first briefly discuss the history of developmental research on psychological control (see also [Barber & Harmon, 2002](#)).

A brief history of research on psychological control

- psychological control was originally identified by [Schaefer \(1965a\)](#) as a key dimension of the quality of parents' child-rearing styles
- Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) consisted of three factors:
 - acceptance vs. rejection,
 - firm control vs. lax control, and
 - psychological autonomy vs. psychological control
- per [Schaefer \(1965a\)](#) psychologically controlling parents were experienced by their children as being intrusive, overprotective, possessive, directive, and controlling through guilt (p. 554)
- [Schaefer \(1965a\)](#) hypothesized that the covert and intrusive methods used by psychologically controlling parents would hinder the child's development as a person who is separate from the parent and would thus forestall healthy development
- typological approaches to parenting behavior prevailed in the socialization literature in the 1970s and 1980s (e.g., [Baumrind, 1971](#); [Maccoby & Martin, 1983](#))
 - typological schemes focused on only two broad parenting dimensions
 - responsiveness and
 - demandingness
- 1990s, attention was re-focused on the construct of psychological control by leading developmental scholars such as [Steinberg \(1990\)](#) and [Barber \(1996; Barber et al., 1994\)](#)
- [Barber \(1996\)](#) defined psychological control as "socialization pressure that is nonresponsive to the child's emotional and psychological needs (but instead) stifles independent expression and autonomy" (p. 3299)
 - "parental behaviors that are intrusive and manipulative of children's thoughts, feelings, and attachments to parents" ([Barber & Harmon, 2002, p. 15](#))
 - (a) guilt-induction, which refers to the use of guiltinducing strategies to pressure children to comply with a parental request;
 - (b) contingent love or love withdrawal, where parents make their attention, interest, care, and love contingent upon the children's attainment of parental standards;
 - (c) instilling anxiety, which refers to the induction of anxiety to make children comply with parental requests; and
 - (d) invalidation of the child's perspective, which pertains to parental constraining of the child's spontaneous expression of thoughts and feelings
 - these various components of psychological control were found to be strongly positively correlated and were therefore considered as indicators of the higher-order construct of psychological control ([Barber, 1996](#)).

- **psychological control** vs. **behavioral control** (Barber, 1996; Steinberg, 1990)
- behavioral control: to regulate and structure the child's behavior (e.g., manners, study activities, and involvement with peers)
 - for instance, through the communication of rules for appropriate behavior and monitoring of the child's behavior (Dishion & McMahon, 1998; Stattin & Kerr, 2000)
- psychological control: use of manipulative techniques such as contingent love, shaming, and guilt-induction involved attempts to control the child's psychological experiences (e.g., feelings, aspirations, and identity choices) instead of the child's behavior (Barber & Harmon, 2002)
- behavioral control was uniquely negatively predictive of externalizing problems
- psychological control was uniquely positively predictive of internalizing problems
- psychological control was positively related to externalizing problems as well (e.g., Barber, 1996; Conger, Conger, & Scaramella, 1997; de Kemp, Scholte, Overbeek, & Engels, 2006; Herman, Dornbusch, Herron, & Herting, 1997; Rogers, Buchanan, & Winchell, 2003)
- research on psychological control and problem behaviors focused almost exclusively on adolescents; (e.g., Verschuere, Dossche, Marcoen, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & Mahieu, 2006).

Self-determination theory (SDT)

- in SDT, internalization is defined as “a process in which children progressively integrate societal values and proscriptions into a coherent sense of self” (Grolnick, Deci, & Ryan, 1997)
- fully endorsed those regulations and values such that they experience them as their own (Grolnick et al., 1997; Joussemet, Landry, & Koestner, 2008)
- in SDT, both intrinsically motivated and well-internalized activities are said to be autonomously regulated
- partially internalized or not internalized at all are said to be regulated by controlled motives

Autonomous and controlled regulations

- autonomy or self-determination within SDT concerns a sense of volition or willingness when engaging in a task (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Vansteenkiste, Ryan, & Deci, 2008)
- intrinsic motivation initially received most attention within SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1985), more recent developments in the theory acknowledge the possibility that, even in the absence of spontaneous enjoyment with an activity, people can function in an autonomous fashion (Ryan & Connell, 1989)
- controlled motivation refers to the enactment of behavior out of pressure and obligation
- SDT maintains that the pressure and control can originate from outside or from inside the person (Deci & Ryan, 2000)
- with external pressure, individuals' behavior is controlled by external factors such as controlling reward contingencies, deadlines, or pressuring expectations from others. This type of regulation is labeled external regulation because individuals' behavior is regulated by forces external to the individual
- Introjection: pressure can also reside within the person; to avoid feelings of guilt, shame, and self-criticism; labeled introjection because individuals are now applying pressuring forces
- one's behavior is still not fully accepted as one's own and is still emitted with a sense of resistance, inner conflict, and anxiety. Introjection thus refers to a process where individuals literally swallow or take in a request or value but do not identify with it (Assor, Vansteenkiste, & Kaplan, 2009)
- external and introjected regulation both involve a sense of pressure and coercion, they represent instances of a controlled motivation (Ryan, Deci, Grolnick, & La Guardia, 2006; Vansteenkiste, Simons, Lens, Soenens, & Matos, 2005)

Autonomy-supportive, controlling, and structuring social environments

Autonomy-supportive vs. controlling socialization

- SDT assumes that the social environment (including parents' rearing style) plays a substantial role in fostering or detracting from optimal (i.e., autonomous rather than controlled) regulation of behavior (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994; Grolnick et al., 1997)
- autonomy-supportive socializing agents are characterized by the provision of a desired amount of choice, the acknowledgment of children's perspectives (i.e., a child-centered attitude), and the provision of a meaningful rationale when choice is constrained (Deci et al., 1994)
- controlling socialization agents would undermine individuals' propensity for autonomous regulation and would instead prompt more controlled ways of regulating behavior, as they pressure individuals to think, behave, or feel in particular ways

- in SDT it is argued that controlling socialization can be either externally controlling or internally controlling (Plant & Ryan, 1985; Ryan, 1982; Vansteenkiste, Simons, et al., 2005)
- externally controlling events pressure individuals by relying on tangible external contingencies such as deadlines, surveillance, punishments, and rewards
- internal contingencies in children (Assor, Roth, & Deci, 2004; Deci & Ryan, 1995; Vansteenkiste, Simons, et al., 2005), through the use of guilt-induction, shaming or love withdrawal

Structure

- Apart from autonomy-support and control, structure has been forwarded as another important feature of socialization agents' interpersonal style within SDT (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Reeve, 2002). Structure refers to the communication of clear and consistent guidelines and expectations for children and can be contrasted with a chaotic parenting environment. Parents who score high on structure introduce clear rules, delineate the consequences of not following the rules, and follow through when rules are transgressed (Grolnick et al., 1997). Structure also involves the provision of help when children engage in a task or make a decision, the communication of informational (i.e., competence-relevant) feedback, and an attitude expressing confidence in the child's ability to perform and behave well (Reeve, 2002). As such, structure provides children with a sense of predictability and with a sense of personal efficacy to meet challenges and to competently execute instrumental actions. Importantly, structure is considered to be relatively orthogonal with the extent to which socialization figures are autonomy-supportive or controlling (Reeve, 2002). While communicating rules and supporting decision-making (i.e., providing structure), some parents seek their children's input whenever possible, and refer to a meaningful rationale when the provision of choice is not possible. In contrast, other parents impose rules and assist in an overprotective fashion, such that children feel compelled to follow the rules or to listen to their parents' advice. Whereas the former parents provide structure in an autonomy-supportive fashion, the latter provide structure in a controlling fashion. Depending on whether structure is combined with autonomy-support or control, the developmental outcomes of structure would differ, with more beneficial outcomes occurring under autonomy-supportive conditions (Reeve, 2002; Sierens, Vansteenkiste, Goossens, Soenens, & Dochy, 2009). As will be argued later, the distinction between control and structure is highly relevant to the distinction between parental psychological control and behavioral control.

Need satisfaction

Interestingly, SDT also takes a clear position regarding the underlying mechanisms that explain the impact of controlling socialization on individuals' controlled (vs. autonomous) regulation. Specifically, controlling parenting is said to promote controlled regulation, and thus to hinder an autonomous regulation, because it frustrates individuals' basic psychological needs (Grolnick, 2003; Ryan et al., 2006). For parsimony, SDT distinguishes three basic psychological needs that are considered as "nutriments or conditions that are essential to an entity's growth" (Ryan, 1995, p. 410). First, the need for autonomy implies that people have a natural desire to experience their behavior as freely chosen and volitional. Second, the need for relatedness implies that people want to care for others and to feel cared for by them. Third, the need for competence refers to the desire to feel effective and skillful in the activities one undertakes. Several studies in various domains (e.g., education, development, sport, work, and therapy) have demonstrated that basic need satisfaction promotes various positive outcomes, such as well-being, performance and persistence, and prevents negative outcomes, such as ill-being and drop-out (e.g., Sheldon, Elliot, Kim, & Kasser, 2001). We argue that the effects of psychological control can be understood and parsimoniously summarized through the concept of basic need satisfaction.

Towards an integration between research on psychological control and SDT

By relating parental psychological control to concepts from the framework of SDT, we believe that some of the existing ambiguities and controversies in the literature on psychological control can be reconsidered. Specifically, we will present a number of new insights in response to seven questions that concern three basic issues, specifically, (a) the conceptualization of psychological control and its relation to other parenting dimensions (Questions 1–3), (b) the understanding of the dynamics (i.e., antecedents, mechanisms, and consequences) involved in psychological control (Questions 4–5), and (c) the generalization and manifestation of psychological control across age and culture (Questions 6–7). We also provide a number of directions for future research related to each of these issues.

Conceptualizing parental psychological control

Developmental research has typically examined psychological control in relative isolation from other relevant parenting constructs. In this respect, at least three conceptual issues deserve further clarification. First, besides psychologically controlling parenting, there are other ways in which parents can pressure their children. The socialization literature is replete with concepts that, to varying degrees, reflect controlling parenting (e.g., harsh parenting) and an important question is how psychological control relates to these other instances of controlling parenting. Second, although psychological control has been contrasted with parental autonomy since the pioneering work of [Schaefer \(1965a\)](#), there is an ongoing debate as to whether psychological control and autonomy-support represent incompatible or independent parenting dimensions (e.g., [Silk, Morris, Kanaya, & Steinberg, 2003](#)). Third, although there is consensus about the utility of distinguishing between psychological control and behavioral control, the exact nature of this distinction is less clear (e.g., [Wang, Pomerantz, & Chen, 2007](#)). We believe that, by locating the concept of psychological control within the SDT framework, the relation between psychological control and these other parenting constructs will be further clarified.

Van Der Kaap-Deeder 2016

the unique relations between multiple sources (i.e., mothers, teachers, and siblings) of perceived daily autonomy support and psychological control and children's basic psychological needs and well-being

during 5 consecutive days, 2 children from 154 families (*M*_{age youngest child} = 8.54 years; *SD* = .89 and *M*_{age oldest child} = 10.38 years; *SD* = .87) provided daily ratings of the study variables

Findings

- each of the sources of perceived autonomy support and psychological control related uniquely to changes in daily well-being and ill-being
- mediated by experienced psychological need satisfaction and frustration, respectively
- findings testify to the dynamic role of autonomy support and psychological control in children's development. Implications for future research are discussed.

Van Holland De Graff 2018

whether fathers' and mothers' parenting behavior is differentially related to:

- parental factors (such as age and employment)
- child factors (age and gender)
- and social support

Parents reported on their use of parenting behaviors

- affection,
- responsivity,
- explaining,
- autonomy support,
- rewarding,
- and punishing

We used survey data from the Netherlands for 1197 mothers and 903 fathers of children aged 2 to 17.

Findings:

- partly confirmed that the parenting behavior of **fathers** is more dependent on parents' characteristics, children's characteristics, and social support **than that of mothers**
- fathers' parenting behaviors seem to be associated with parental and child characteristics and contextual factors in ways that are similar to how these factors are associated with mothers' parenting behaviors

Also see Elam, 2017 Marital stress and children's externalizing behavior as predictors of mothers' and fathers' parenting.

Vasquez 2016

A meta-analysis of 36 studies examining the relations between parent autonomy support (PAS) and child outcomes

PAS was related to

- greater academic achievement and
- indicators of adaptive psychosocial functioning,
- including autonomous motivation,
- psychological health,
- perceived competence,
- engagement, and
- positive attitudes toward school
- among other outcomes

The strongest relation emerged between PAS and psychological health

Results indicated that the strength of the PAS relation was stronger when PAS was reflective of both parents, rather than of just mothers or just fathers