

The Relationship between Parenting Style and Social Responsibility of Adolescents in Banda Aceh, Indonesia

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ABSTRACT

Theory and research have shown that parents have significant influence on their children's social outcome. The present study was therefore conducted to determine the relationship between parenting style and social responsibility of adolescents residing in Banda Aceh, Indonesia. A total of 331 (male =119, female 212) students from four high schools in Banda Aceh were selected using Multistage Cluster sampling. The Indonesian version of Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) and Social and Personal Responsibility Scale (SPRS) were used to measure parenting style and social responsibility, respectively. Findings showed that authoritarian and permissive parenting styles as significantly associated with improved adolescents' social responsibility. Surprisingly, the study revealed no significant correlation between authoritative parenting style and adolescents' social responsibility. The male adolescents in the study appeared to be more socially responsible than their female counterparts. Inconsistent with the other studies, the current study noted that non-authoritative parenting is positively related to adolescents' social responsibility. Additionally, there may be variation in social responsibility by gender. The implication is discussed.

Keywords: Adolescent, gender, parenting style, social responsibility, Aceh

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INTRODUCTION

Much of the recent trends in the literature have reflected growing interest in studying social skills of adolescents. However, a majority of the studies focused mainly on adolescents' interpersonal relationship with peers (e.g. Daniels & Leaper, 2006;

Ciarrochi & Heaven, 2008; Erath, Flanagan, & Bierman, 2008; Barker, 2009; Jonkmann, Trautwein, & Lüdtke, 2009). There is paucity in the literature that examines adolescents' social adjustment in a wider context, such as in a community. Thus, studying adolescents' social skills within the community is considerably important, since this is the period of time when they begin to interact with the larger social context outside family and peers.

Social responsibility is one social skill that helps adolescents to define who they are and their roles as a part of a community member (Berman, 1990). It is defined as a person's concern for others' welfare, sense of duty, avoids destructive behaviour, civic involvement, and responsible attitude towards others (Scales, Blyth, Berkas & Kielsmeier, 2000). In other words, social responsibility is related to the development of adolescents' basic social skills, while allowing them to be active and responsible in their community. Adolescents who are socially responsible are less likely to be involved in a destructive behaviour (Youniss, McLellan & Yates, 1997). Further, previous studies (see for example, Scales *et al.*, 2000; Reed, Jernstedt, Hawley, Reber & DuBois, 2005) have documented that social responsibility is positively associated with adolescents' self-efficacy and self-regulation. Adolescents who are socially responsible are also more likely to have higher achievement orientation than others who do not (Wentzel, 1991; Nakamura & Watanabe, 2001). This is because social responsibility relates to a variety of positive

outcomes, and it is important to illuminate the factors under which social responsibility develops. The overarching aim of this study, then, was to focus on how parenting style contributes to social responsibility among school-going adolescents in Aceh, Indonesia.

The Role of Social Responsibility on Adolescent Development

The major task of adolescent is to attain stable identity and to become productive adult (Santrock, 2008). Social responsibility is a vital skill for adolescents in achieving this task. It may help adolescents to define who they are, where they fit in the social world, and build confidence in their sense of agency (Berman, 1990; Youniss *et al.*, 1997). In addition, social responsibility will prevent adolescents from involving themselves in negative behaviour because it allows them to discover their potential, responsibility and commit to moral-ethical ideology (Youniss *et al.*, 1997). Social responsibility also enables adolescents to have a high achievement orientation (Nakamura & Watanabe, 2006). Some previous studies (Wentzel, 1991; Scales *et al.*, 2000; Reed *et al.*, 2005) have shown that social responsibility is positively associated with adolescent's academic achievement.

Adolescent Social Responsibility in the Context of Aceh

Aceh is one of the provinces in Indonesia, and it is located in the northern most top of Sumatera Island and has Banda Aceh as the capital city. Aceh was formerly known

as “Veranda of Mecca” to reflect it as the starting and last point of departure for Muslim going for pilgrimage (*haji*). Hence, the culture of Aceh is mostly influenced by the Islamic values. The people of Aceh have suffered for 29 years of armed conflicts and political violence. In December 2004, a massive earthquake and tsunami devastated the western coast of Aceh, including parts of the capital city of Banda Aceh, whereby about 150,000 people died and a half million relocated in a province with a population of roughly 4.4 million people (Grayman, Good & Good, 2009). The incredible lost sustained by this natural disaster finally consolidated the peace agreement in Aceh.

The effects of tsunami and conflict have made deteriorating social and economic conditions and subsequently generated increasing social problems in Aceh. Based on the data by the National Narcotics Agency of Aceh province (Badan Narkotika Propinsi Aceh), the cases of drug abuse in Aceh, especially Banda Aceh, increased about 52 percent from a year before, i.e. from 913 cases to 1,371 cases (Badan Narkotika Nasional/ National Narcotics Agency, 2009). Furthermore, the cases of HIV/AIDS in Aceh also increase from year to year. The data also showed that there were only two cases in 2005, which then rose to 19 in 2007 and 40 in 2009 (Departemen Kesehatan RI/ Ministry of Health of Indonesia, 2009). Consequently, these harmful environments make young people in Aceh to become potentially more engaged in health problems and deviance behaviour.

Engaging adolescents in a community is one way to avoid adolescents from being involved in negative behaviour (Youniss *et al.*, 1997). This community engagement will enhance adolescents’ sense of responsibility and productivity, which can be nurtured to replace destructive ways and increase awareness about negative consequences of misbehaviour. Adolescents’ ideas and participations in community activities also play significant roles in the process of enhancing community empowerment. As discussed previously, social responsibility is one social skill that is relevant to promote adolescent’s awareness about community issues. Therefore, concern for social responsibility amongst adolescents in Aceh is obviously important as their voices and community participations could be helpful in reducing the spread of social ill in Aceh, as well as the community rebuilding process of Aceh.

Parents as a Key Agent of Adolescent’s Social Responsibility Development

Empathy, altruism, guilt, and resistance to temptation are relevant constructs for social responsibility development. These constructs develop from earlier age as a result of parent–child relationship. Hence, parent–child interaction is thought to be the well springs of social responsibility. Basically, responsibility is related to internalization and self-regulation. Child’s compliance to parental demands is early manifestation of internalization [i.e., a gradual shift from other (parent) to self (child) behaviour regulation]. Internalization of values on

child is made from consistent demands through parents' use of inductive reasoning and moderate power assertion. Meanwhile, self-regulation arises mainly from parental warmth and responsiveness (Hurtup & Van Lieshout, 1995). Parents' use of consistent demands and warmth are significantly associated with the higher score on child social responsibility (Baumrind, 1971).

Parental influence on child's social responsibility development does not decline as children mature into adolescence (Gunnore, Hetherington, & Reiss, 1999; Carlo, McGinley, Heyes, Batenhorst, & Wilkonson, 2007). Yet, at this time, parents have primary role in helping adolescents to form their views of others and their responsibilities to the society. Parents and other family members are important in helping adolescents to understand the elements of the social construct, especially on how they view the world and others in it. When adolescents are respected by parents and feel that their voice is taken seriously, their perspective-taking ability is broadened and they begin to realize that they have something of worth to add not only to family discussion, but to the society as well (Wray & Flanagan, 2007).

Parenting Styles and Adolescent Social Responsibility

Early study on parenting typology was examined by Diana Baumrind. She was the first to study the relationship between parenting style and child outcomes. Baumrind (1966) classified parenting behaviour into three typologies, namely,

authoritative, authoritarian and permissive, based on two orthogonal factors known as responsiveness and demandingness. Responsiveness refers to the extent to which parents foster children's individuality and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children's requests with warmth, autonomy support, and reasoned communication. Demandingness refers to the claims parents make on children to become integrated into society by behaviour regulation, direct confrontation, as well as maturity demands (behavioural control) and supervision of children's activities or monitoring (Baumrind, 1967; 1997).

Parents who are classified as parenting in authoritative style are highly responsive and demanding, but low in intrusive. These parents provide clear and firm direction toward children, but it is moderated by warmth, flexibility and verbal take and give. In addition, they encourage communication with their children and validate the child's point of view. In contrast, authoritarian parents are highly demanding and unresponsive. Authoritarian parents tend to value unquestioning obedience, discourage verbal take and give, and use punitive to direct the children misbehaviour. Permissive parents are characterized by high responsiveness but low demandingness. These parents are emotionally involved toward their children, but they allow the children to regulate their own activities as much as possible, with no control and they rarely use punishment (Baumrind 1966; 1967).

Existing literature has documented that authoritative parenting style is significantly associated with positive developmental outcomes among children (Belsky, 1984; Baumrind, 1991). This parenting style has been linked to adolescent social responsibility as well. The interaction between parents' demand and nurturance promotes the attributes of social responsibility. In more specific, parents' use of consistent demands with verbal reasoning and explanation promotes high level of their children's moral reasoning and internalization of values, whereas parental warmth motivates them to comply and self-regulate (Durkin, 1995; Carlo *et al.*, 2007). In addition, authoritative parents have an open communication with their children, in which parents listening to the children's point of view, as well as expressing their own make their children to feel competence and have high self-confidence (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Meanwhile, higher level of self-competence, self-regulation, empathy, and internalization of values promotes higher level of a child's social responsibility (Scales *et al.*, 2000; Conrad & Hedin, 1981).

Nonetheless, authoritarian parents do not significantly predict a child's social development. Higher level of parents' assertions and value unquestioning obedience affects negatively on their children's self-confidence and self-reliance. Consequently, children have negative perception towards themselves academically and socially but they are more obedient and conformity toward others. On the other hand, permissive parents who allow their

children to regulate their own activities promote help their children to have high self-confidence, focus on their friends and social activities. However, they are also more likely to have problems in self-perception, academic competence, impulsive and misbehaviour as impacts of lack parental supervision (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Steinberg, Blatt-Eisengart, & Cauffman, 2006). Maccoby and Martin (1983) stated that permissive pattern of parenting on the whole has more negative than positive effects on their child behaviour.

Although the literature reviewed above provides support for the notion of the significant relationship between parenting style and adolescent social responsibility, the studies mainly focused on Western families. On the contrary, there is a glaring absence of literature on the relationship between parenting style and adolescent social responsibility in Asian societies, such as Aceh, where parental roles and parent-child relationships differ from those in the Western context. Therefore, the goal of the current study was to fill this gap in the literature.

Gender Differences in Social Responsibility

There is evidence indicating that females tend to exhibit greater level of social responsible behaviour as compared to their male counterpart (Entwisle, Alexander, Cadigan, & Pallas, 2000; Scales *et al.*, 2000; Nakamura & Watanabe, 2006; Maliki, Asain, & Kebbi, 2010). An understanding

of these findings may be obtained from a consideration of socialization and gender roles differences between the males and females. Females are socialized to be more interdependent, nurturing, compassionate, and helpful in care giving roles whereas males are socialized to be more independent and competitive. Therefore, because females are socialized to value the needs of others, they tend to exhibit more helping behaviour and pro-social compared to males. In contrast, a meta analysis study conducted by Eagly and Crowley (1986) revealed that men are more likely to help others compared to females. According to Lin and Hyde (2001), this inconsistency in the finding may be explained by the fact that psychosocial differences among males and females are heterogeneous and interact with situational and cultural factors.

Summary of the Hypotheses

The purpose of the study was to investigate the association between parenting style and adolescent social responsibility. It was hypothesized that: (1) adolescents who reported their parents as authoritative would score high in social responsibility, while adolescents who reported their parents as authoritarian and permissive would score low in social responsibility, and (2) there is a significant difference in the social responsibility between the female and male adolescents.

METHODS

Research Design

The current study utilized the descriptive and correlational designs. A descriptive design enables researchers to provide explanation for a phenomenon at the time of the study. In this study, personal and family characteristics of the respondents were reported. Meanwhile, the correlational design facilitates the determination of the relationship between parenting style and adolescents' social responsibility. Through this correlational design, both the direction and the strength of the association between the variables studied could be identified (Howitt & Cramer, 2008).

Sample

A total of 331 adolescents from two-parent families and four high schools in two districts (namely, Kuta Alam and Syiah Kuala) of Banda Aceh were identified using Multi-Stage Cluster sampling. The schools are Sekolah Menengah Pertama (SMP) 8, and Sekolah Menengah Atas (SMA) Lab School in Syiah Kuala, and Madrasah Tsanawiyah Negeri (MTSN) 1, and Madrasah Aliyah Negeri (MAN) 1 in Kuta Alam (SMP and MTSN are junior high school; SMA and MAN are senior high school). Each school consists of three grades (first, second and third grades), in which every grade consists of some classes. From each grade, a class was randomly selected and all the students from these selected classes were invited to participate in the study.

Instruments

This study used two instruments comprising Parental Authority Questionnaire (Buri, 1991) and Social and Personal Responsibility Scale (Conrad & Hedin, 1981), in which the scales were adopted from the Western instruments. Thus, the instruments were translated from English to Indonesian and then retranslated into English. This forward-backward translation procedure is essential in order to establish that the items in the scales are as adequately reliable for the new respondents in Aceh. Before collecting the actual data, all the scales were tested in a pilot study to examine their reliability and validity. The scales were pretested on 96 students who fit with the characteristics of the population. The questionnaire consisted of general demographics, parenting style, and social responsibility scales. Demographic information included sex, age, number of siblings, parents' age, parents' total years of education, and family income (per month).

Parenting Style

Parental Authority Questionnaire (Buri, 1991) was used to assess parenting style. The scale consists of 30 items for each parent in which authoritative, authoritarian and permissive scores were yielded for both the mother and the father. The Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) is rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree"). The scale is scored by summing the individual items to compare subscale scores. The scores on each subscale range from 10 to 50. The highest score on one of the subscales indicates the parents' parenting style. Table 1 presents the sample items of the scale and their reliability in this present study.

As shown in Table 1, the PAQ has acceptable level of internal consistency (i.e. more than 0.5, as suggested by Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). In more specific, the subscales within the Parental Authority Questionnaire

TABLE 1
Sample Items and Reliability of Parental Authority Questionnaire

| Scale | Sample Item | Reliability | | | |
|---------------------|--|--------------------|--------|----------------------|--------|
| | | Pilot Study (N=96) | | Actual Study (N=331) | |
| | | Mother | Father | Mother | Father |
| Authoritative Style | As I was growing up, one family policy was established; my parent discussed the reasoning behind the policy with the children in the family. | .53 | .66 | .66 | .71 |
| Authoritarian Style | As I was growing up, my parent would get very upset if I tried to disagree with them. | .55 | .60 | .65 | .63 |
| Permissive Style | As I was growing up, my parent seldom gave me expectations and guidelines for my behaviour. | .59 | .59 | .69 | .68 |

showed varying degrees of reliability ranging from .53 to .66 in the pilot study and from .63 to .71 in the actual study.

Social and Personal Responsibility Scale

Social and Personal Responsibility Scale is used to measure social responsibility (Conrad & Hedin, 1981). The original version of the Social and Personal Responsibility Scale (SPRS) consists of 21 items with two side of responses (i.e. on the left and the right sides; e.g. Almost always true for me/Sometimes true for me “Some teenagers are good at helping people - BUT- Other teenagers don’t see helping others as one of their strong points” Sometimes true for me/Almost true for me) per item. First, students ask to decide which side of the responses mostly describe them before giving any answer. Based on the pilot test, this format caused confusion among some students when giving their responses. Therefore, the researchers reworded and reformatted the scale into a five-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (“strongly

disagree”) to 5 (“strongly agree”). The total score was derived by summing up all item scores after reverse coding negative items. A higher total score indicate higher level of social responsibility. The sample items of the scale and its reliability are presented in Table 2 below.

Data Collection

Permission to collect data from each school was sought from the respective school principals prior to distribution of the study’s questionnaires. The questionnaires were given to the respondents during the class hour. The researcher initially read and explained the instructions on how to fill in and answer the questionnaire to the respondents. The respondents then individually answered the questionnaire consisting of personal and family characteristics and their related scales (Parental Authority Questionnaire and Social and Personal Responsibility Scale). Based on the data gathered, the scores for each scale were summed up.

TABLE 2
Sample items and reliability of social and personal responsibility scale

| Sample Items | Reliability | |
|--|--------------------|----------------------|
| | Pilot Study (N=96) | Actual Study (N=331) |
| I am like some teenagers who feel bad when they let down people who depend on them. | | |
| I am like some teenagers who think people should only help those they know like close friends and relatives. | .62 | .77 |
| I am like some teenagers who are good at helping people. | | |
| I am like some teenagers who are interested in doing something about school problems. | | |

Data Analysis

Data collected were analyzed using the SPSS. Descriptive statistics were also utilized to describe the respondents' background information (e.g. personal and family characteristics). Descriptive results were reported in percentages, measures of central tendency (mean and median), as well as measures of central of dispersion (standard deviation and range). Meanwhile, correlational analysis was used to analyze the relationship between parenting style and adolescent social responsibility. Finally, independent sample t-test was carried out to analyze gender differences for the social responsibility among male and female adolescents.

RESULTS

Description of the Respondents' Demographic Characteristics

A majority of the respondents are females (64%) from junior high school (55%). More than half of them were in their middle adolescence (Mean=14.07 and SD=1.77). As for the family size, most of the respondents (73.1 %) come from a moderate family size comprising of 3 to 5 siblings and with a mean value of 2.27 (SD =1.38) (see Table 3).

Further, as presented in Table 4, nearly half of the respondents had parents who were in the middle age group ($M_{\text{mother}}=42.66$ and $SD=5.13$; $Mean_{\text{father}}=48.35$ and $SD=5.73$). Most of the respondents' parents seemed to be well-educated. On average, both parents

had achieved at least 14 years of formal education. In terms of family income, majority (69.2%) of the respondents' families had income that ranged between USD 277 and below, followed by USD 277.01 – USD 498 per month (USD 1= Rp.9050). These data indicate that more than half of the respondents come from the low to middle income families, as the standard minimum for living cost is USD 111 per month (PT. Post Indonesia, 2008).

TABLE 3
Personal Profiles of the Respondents

| Variable | n | % |
|--------------------|-------|------|
| Sex | | |
| Male | 119 | 36 |
| Female | 212 | 64 |
| School Level | | |
| Junior High School | 182 | 55 |
| Senior High School | 149 | 45 |
| Age | | |
| 12 and below | 83 | 25.1 |
| 13-15 | 171 | 51.7 |
| 16 and above | 77 | 23.3 |
| Mean | 14.07 | |
| SD | 1.77 | |
| Min | 11 | |
| Max | 18 | |
| Number of Siblings | | |
| 2 and below | 63 | 19 |
| 3-5 | 242 | 73.1 |
| 6 and above | 26 | 7.9 |
| Mean | 2.27 | |
| SD | 1.38 | |
| Min | 1 | |
| Max | 8 | |

Note. SD = Standard Deviation

Parenting Style and Social Responsibility

The relationship between parenting style and social responsibility was explored using the Pearson's product moment correlation. The result showed that authoritarian ($r_{\text{mother}}=.19, p<0.01$ and $r_{\text{father}}=.20, p<0.01$) and permissive ($r_{\text{mother}}=.36, p<0.01$ and $r_{\text{father}}=.33, p<0.01$) parenting styles were significantly associated with adolescent's social responsibility (see Table 5). As opposed to the hypotheses, the correlation coefficients indicated that there were positive relationships between authoritarian and permissive parenting styles with adolescent's social responsibility. This also means that the authoritarian and permissive parenting styles promoted adolescents toward social responsible behaviour. However, no significant relationship was found between authoritative parenting style and adolescent's social responsibility.

TABLE 4
Family Profiles of the Respondents

| Variable | n | % |
|---------------------|-------|------|
| Parents' Age | | |
| <u>Mother</u> | | |
| 31-37 | 48 | 14.5 |
| 38-44 | 158 | 47.7 |
| 45-51 | 113 | 34.1 |
| 52-58 | 12 | 3.6 |
| Mean | 42.66 | |
| SD | 5.13 | |
| Min | 31 | |
| Max | 58 | |
| <u>Father</u> | | |
| 36-42 | 54 | 16.3 |
| 43-49 | 143 | 43.2 |
| 50-56 | 102 | 30.8 |

Table 4 (continued)

| | | |
|--|-------|------|
| 57-64 | 32 | 9.7 |
| Mean | 48.35 | |
| SD | 5.73 | |
| Min | 36 | |
| Max | 64 | |
| Parents' Education | | |
| <u>Mother</u> | | |
| No Education | 1 | 3 |
| SD (Primary School) | 16 | 4.8 |
| SMP (Junior High School) | 22 | 6.6 |
| SMA (Senior High School) | 106 | 32 |
| Diploma | 45 | 13.6 |
| S1 (Bachelor) | 116 | 35 |
| S2 (Master) | 24 | 7.3 |
| S3 (PhD) | 1 | 3 |
| <u>Father</u> | | |
| No Education | - | - |
| SD (Primary School) | 17 | 5.1 |
| SMP (Junior High School) | 23 | 6.9 |
| SMA (Senior High School) | 93 | 28.1 |
| Diploma | 23 | 6.9 |
| S1 (Bachelor) | 105 | 31.7 |
| S2 (Master) | 24 | 7.3 |
| S3 (PhD) | 21 | 6.3 |
| Parents' Total Years of Education | | |
| <u>Mother</u> | | |
| 6 and below | 17 | 5.1 |
| 7-12 | 128 | 38.7 |
| 13-18 | 164 | 49.5 |
| 19 and above | 22 | 6.6 |
| Mean | 14.09 | |
| SD | 3.48 | |
| Min | 0 | |
| Max | 24 | |
| <u>Father</u> | | |
| 6 and below | 17 | 5.1 |
| 7-12 | 117 | 35.3 |
| 13-18 | 138 | 41.7 |
| 19 and above | 59 | 17.8 |

Table 4 (continued)

| | | |
|-----------------------------|-------|------|
| <i>Mean</i> | 14.94 | |
| <i>SD</i> | 4.19 | |
| <i>Min</i> | 6 | |
| <i>Max</i> | 29 | |
| Family Income (USD)* | | |
| <USD 277 | 132 | 39.9 |
| USD 277,01- USD 498 | 97 | 29.3 |
| >USD 498 | 102 | 30.8 |

Note. SD = Standard Deviation
 *USD1=Rp.9050

TABLE 5
 Correlation between Parenting Style and Social Responsibility

| Variables | r | p |
|------------------------------|-------|-----|
| Mother Authoritative (n=311) | .01 | .95 |
| Mother Authoritarian (n=318) | .19** | .00 |
| Mother Permissive (n=320) | .37** | .00 |
| Father Authoritative (n=317) | -.04 | .48 |
| Father Authoritarian (n=316) | .20** | .00 |
| Father Permissive (n=317) | .33** | .00 |

**p<0.01

Gender Differences for Social Responsibility

The mean difference of the respondents' social responsibility was assessed via *t*-test. The mean score of the social responsibility for males (*M*= 68.15) was found to be higher than that of the females (*M*=66.86), as shown in Table 6. The finding indicated that there was a significant difference in the social responsibility among male and female adolescents [*t* (320) =2.24, *p*<.05].

TABLE 6
 T-test of Social Responsibility by Gender Status

| | Mean | t(df) | Sig. |
|------------------------------|-------|-----------|------|
| <i>Social Responsibility</i> | | 2.24(320) | .03* |
| Male | 68.15 | | |
| Female | 66.86 | | |

*p<.05

DISCUSSIONS

The main purpose of this study was to examine whether there was any significant relationship between parenting style and adolescent social responsibility. In addition, this study also sought to explore if there was any significant difference between the male and female adolescents in relation to social responsibility. In this study, authoritative parenting style was shown to be unrelated to the social responsibility of adolescents. Meanwhile, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were found to be correlated with improved adolescent social responsibility. The first hypothesis, which predicted a positive relationship between authoritative parenting style and adolescent social responsibility, was therefore rejected. This finding is incongruent with the finding obtained by several prior studies (e.g. Baumrind, 1971; Gunnoe *et al.*, 1999; Carlo *et al.*, 2007; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts & Dornbusch, 1994; Kaufmann, Gesten, Santa Lucia, Salcedo, Rendina-Gobioff, & Gadd, 2000; Spera, 2005) who found authoritative style as an optimal approach in promoting child competencies. However, this result is rather consistent with the studies

conducted in other cultures which revealed authoritarian and permissive parenting styles as conducive for adolescent's adjustment.

The significant relationship found between the authoritarian parenting style and adolescents' behaviour corresponded to the findings from prior works conducted in China and the Arab societies. These studies revealed that authoritarian parenting is positively related to adolescents' positive outcomes, such as academic achievement, mental health and self-esteem (Chao, 1994, 2001; Dwairy, Achoui, Abouserie, & Farah, 2006; Rudy & Grusec, 2006). On the contrary, authoritarian parenting was found to have negatively contributed to adolescents' well-being in the Western population (Lamborn *et al.*, 1991; Steinberg *et al.*, 2006). Meanwhile, a cross-cultural perspective on child socialization goals was considered for the inconsistency in this finding.

In the individualist culture, the people are expected to make their own wishes known and work to satisfy their own needs, thus parents in this group promote children's assertion of their will and more autonomy. Hence, in promoting social competence of the child, individualist parents would use authoritative techniques to internalize the values on their children. In contrast, individuals in the collectivist culture emphasize on self-restraint in which their goals and needs are viewed as subordinate to the goals and needs of the in-group. Therefore, parents tend to promote interdependence than autonomy. Both the cooperation and interdependence

environments motivate the children to be involved with and meet others' needs that will lead their sense of self-worth and promote social responsibility (Rudy, Grusec, & Wolfe, 1999).

Moreover, authoritarian parenting in collectivist is normative whereas authoritarian parenting in individualist culture means it is against the culture's norms because self autonomy and self-reliance are the focuses of socialization in this particular culture. Children also interpret the meaning of the authoritarian style on the basis of what is normative. When children accept parental control as normal, they do not feel rejected by their parents. Parental acceptance promote child's well-being and in turn, it is positively associated with child competencies (Rudy *et al.*, 1999; Rudy & Grusec, 2006). Therefore, authoritarian parenting in the collective culture is not considered as harmful to child's adjustment.

Meanwhile, the salutary effect of the permissive parenting style on adolescent social responsibility is supported by other studies conducted in Asian and South European countries. In particular, these studies found that adolescents who were raised by permissive parents had higher levels of self-reliance, self-esteem and coping skills (Steinberg *et al.*, 1994; Wolfrad, Hempel, & Miles, 2003; Martinez & Garcia, 2007; Garcia & Gracia, 2009). These findings are in line with the argument stated by Lamborn *et al.* (1991) and Steinberg *et al.* (2006), in which adolescents with permissive parents showed high self-reliance, focused on their friends and were active in social

activities, but they also showed higher levels of substance abuse and school problems at the same time. These simply suggest that permissive parenting may promote child's social skills and at the same time contributes to the child's misbehaviour and lack of school achievement.

Permissive parenting style is characterized with a high level of parental warmth and low parental control. Higher level of parental warmth, which is characterized with parental emotional involvement and reasoning practice, may help the child in internalizing the values (Martinez & Garcia, 2008). Responsibility is related to internalization, and thus, it may positively be associated with social responsibility.

The cultural context is another plausible reason why permissive parents may promote adolescent social responsibility. In the Aceh culture, people in the community have the responsibility to educate the children to become competent adults. In other words, child socialization process is not only held by the parents, but by the society as well. In particular, the society has the responsibility to control the children's misbehaviour in keeping moral/custom values (Badruzzaman, 2006). Therefore, parental control is replaced by the society, in which the children learn about the rules and how they should act from the society and subsequently avoid them from engaging in negative behaviour.

Further analysis found that the level of social responsibility differed between the male and female adolescents in this study.

Hence, the second hypothesis of the study was accepted. This finding reflected the existing gender differences in social setting. In more specific, the male adolescents scored highly on the social responsibility, illustrating that the male adolescents in Banda Aceh feel more responsible toward the issues in their community as compared to their female counterpart.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTION

It is important to note that this study has some limitations. First, the population of the study merely included the school-going adolescents in Banda Aceh, and this further implied that the finding of this study could only be generalized in this particular population. Moreover, the data for this study were gathered using self-administered questionnaire, in which reliability and validity of the information obtained dependent solely upon the honesty of the respondents in responding to the questionnaire. Self-bias might have influenced the accuracy of the information given by the respondents. Thus, the authors suggest that further investigation be done using a mixed method approach as doing so could probably help provide a better understanding of the causal relationship between parenting style and adolescent social responsibility.

In addition, all the measures were self-report questionnaires which were based on the perspective of the adolescents only, and thus, objective validation of these measures through other data sources was not obtained.

Future research therefore needs to involve both parents' and adolescents' perceptions in completing the parenting style measurement. Moreover, it would be interesting to compare the parents' perspective and adolescents' perceptions. Finally, this study did not explore the difference between the combinations of maternal and paternal parenting styles which are related to adolescent social responsibility. Thus, it is important for future studies to examine the combinations of both the maternal and paternal parenting styles in relation to adolescent social responsibility. Future research may also divide the parenting style into specific dimensions such as warmth and support, reasoning, physical coercion, verbal hostility, and indulgence. Using the specific dimension of the parenting style enables an examination of how specific parenting behaviour would influence the social development of adolescents.

CONCLUSION

In line with the literature, the findings from the present study have supported the idea that parents are still a significant agent of social adjustment for adolescents. The study also noted that parenting behaviour and child outcome might also be influenced by cultural values. It has shown that the authoritarian parenting in the culture of Aceh is not considered as harmful to the development of their adolescents' social responsibility. Further, the present study also suggests that a particular parenting dimension, i.e. parental warmth, has favourable effects in the realm of the social responsibility

development of the adolescents. Thus, the findings from this study would increase parents' awareness towards the importance of their involvement in enhancing their adolescents' social responsibility skills and subsequently making adaptation to improve the quality of their parenting approach. With this information, practitioners or psychologists alike may better understand that the role of parenting on a child's outcomes is contextually based and that such an understanding will encourage them to be sensitive to contextual factors (i.e. cultural values) when clinically working with parents and in assisting children.

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