

Effect of Parental Reciprocity on Locus of Control Among Undergraduate Students

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ABSTRACT

The present study is aimed at calculating the Effect of Parental Reciprocity on Locus of Control among undergraduate students by using Perception of Parental Reciprocity Scale (POPRS) (Wintre, M. G., Yaffe, M., & Crowley, J. (1995) and Levenson's Scale for Locus of Control (Levenson (1981). Reciprocity plays an important role in the development and continuation of relationships. Reciprocity makes it possible to build continuing relationships and exchanges (Alvin Gouldner, 1960). Locus of Control is regarded as an important aspect of personality in psychology. The term 'Locus of control' refers to how much control a person feels they have in their own behavior. A person can either have an internal locus of control or an external locus of control (Rotter, 1954). The main objective of this study is to investigate the effect and relationship of Parental Reciprocity on Locus of Control among undergraduate students. The research was conducted on 80 undergraduate students aged between 18-22. A statistical analysis of Pearson's Correlation was used, thereby coming to a conclusion that there is a positive relationship between High Parental Reciprocity and Internal Locus of Control whereas, Low Parental Reciprocity attributed to higher external factors. The study recommends that parents should have a reciprocal relationship with their children for better personality development.

Keywords: Parent- Child Relations; Parental Reciprocity; Locus of Control; Adolescence.

Parental Reciprocity

Reciprocity is the capacity to engage in social exchange that integrates inputs from multiple partners into a unified social event – is a cornerstone of adaptive social life (Clutton-Brock, 1991; Davis & Daly, 1997). Reciprocity, therefore, is an experience infants must partake with their parents during an early period of neuroplasticity in order to become collaborative members of their social world (Feldman, 2012).

Parent-child reciprocity, variously termed as reciprocity or mutual responsiveness, is a key element of early social relationships that underpins social-emotional growth (Feldman, 2007a; b; Kochanska, 1994).

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Reciprocation is attributed as the very nature of humans (Richard Leakey and Roger Lewin). When acting within reciprocal frameworks, individuals are more likely to deviate from purely self-interested behavior than when acting in other social contexts (Fehr and Gächter, 2000).

Reciprocity is a specific pro-social norm in which an individual responds to an action with an action of similar value or intention (Chen et al, 2009).

A parent child relationship is completely unilateral before the child reaches the age of adolescence. Parents know how the world functions and thus the children act and are shaped according to their set of thoughts and beliefs (Piaget, 1965; Youniss & Smollar, 1985). Though, the peer relations do not operate in the same manner (Youniss, 1980).

Reciprocity between parent and the child leads to social, emotional, language, and memory development. Reciprocity plays an important role in the development and continuation of relationships. It also plays a major role in persuasion or getting others to adopt certain beliefs or behaviors.

It is an important aspect of relationship-building and differs from altruism, which is defined as an unconditional act that relies on expectation of exchange of favour. Exchanges between family members or friends are examples of generalised reciprocity. Any return of favour is not expected in the process.

Parents are key resources for adolescents' successful transition to adulthood and their emotional functioning. Parents contribute to this shift by practicing reciprocal social interaction with their children. Emotional, time, and financial investments made by parents in their late-teen and young-adult children are reciprocated by the children in the form of social support provided to their older parent's years later. Emotional investment in the child corresponded to affectual solidarity, the amount of time spent in shared activities with the child corresponded to associational solidarity, and financial transfers made to the child corresponded to functional solidarity. (Bengtson and Roberts 1991; Mangel, Bengtson, and Landry 1988; Roberts and Bengtson 1990).

Theoretical models of reciprocity in parent– child relations are gaining empirical support from a growing body of research, particularly in regard to parenting practices and child behavior problem. Parenting practices such as reciprocity, involvement, communication, and punishment predicted child conduct problems (Pardini, Fite, and Burke, 2008).

The law of reciprocity is associated with positively influencing someone else, even if they are children. It can be used to bring out or shape desirable behaviour in kids. The law of reciprocity encourages active and vigilant parenting rather than a more common passive/reactive approach. It helps the parents meet their goals of raising disciplined and well-adjusted children without being authoritarian or punitive. It is a positive, stress free and light approach. Using the law of reciprocity is primarily for a better parent-child relationship. It makes you a better individual and a better parent. When a child is able to comfortably interact with their parent(s) or can just simply feel the reciprocation back from them, it makes them feel strong, supported, and independent in all aspects and are less susceptible to vulnerabilities.

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Reciprocity involves a weighing up of social costs and benefits. A child or an individual keeps note of past interactions with their parents and assess the likelihood of future interactions, which conditions their likelihood of behaving prosocially.

Children's development is heavily influenced by reciprocation. Direct instruction and adult modelling help children to learn to reciprocate. Early on, a newborn learns that communication is two-way and employs gazes, sounds, frowns, and grins to elicit reactions from adults. They adopt pointing to elicit shared attention and problem solving by the age of one. As a result, a newborn develops a sense of self as distinct from but connected to others (Winnicott, 1974). Adults create environments for infants to 'respond' in reciprocal 'proto-conversations.'

Reciprocity is a complex conscious and unconscious dance that involves the beginning, moderation, and termination of interactions between parent and child dyads. Reciprocity which is the basis for social interaction, leads to attunement, inter subjectivity, and mutual affect. Winnicott (1974) claimed that the child, instead of wanting pleasure, prefers complex relationships and reciprocity.

Feldman, Bamberger, and Kanat-Maymon (2013) discovered that early maternal and paternal reciprocity were each uniquely predictive of pre-school social competence, lower aggressiveness, and lower teenage depression, which in turn increased dialogical skills in adolescence. Father-child reciprocity, which has received little attention, leads to conflict resolution dialogical abilities, whereas mother-child reciprocity predicted adolescents' dialogical skills during positive interactions. Parent-child reciprocity more generally helped to shape children's social collaboration and complex relationships with non-kin members.

These skills, it suggests, are best learnt in the context of a well-attached reciprocal dyad in early childhood, rather than in groups, and contribute to the child's future social and emotional functioning and wellness. Attachment security at one year old, self-regulation and behaviour difficulties at two years old, symbolic competence at three years old, and moral orientation and empathy in childhood and adolescence were all predicted by mother-infant synchrony, a consequence of reciprocity. Lower adolescent depression and higher adjustment were linked to mother-infant reciprocity.

Additionally, correlations between marital conflict and children's negative peer interaction were mediated by mother-child positive emotional reciprocity and father-child attachment security (Lindsey, Caldera and Tankersley, 2009).

The study by Moed et al (2016) highlights what might be colloquially called 'the negative spiral' of reciprocated negative affect. Negative parent impact is caused by a child's negatively expressed emotion (due to circumstance, emotional dysregulation, or their own personality). Children are especially vulnerable to parental negative emotion displays and so struggle to self-regulate. Children may perceive parental negative emotional reaction in response to their own as unfair, reacting angrily and further undermining the parent/child dyad's ability to regulate emotion. This carries risk for the child's emotional wellbeing. The child will most likely focus on the negative emotion in general rather than finding a solution, leading to hypersensitivity to negative emotion and diverting pivotal energy away from cognitive tasks.

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Children react to their parents, especially when they are stressed. Infants will react to external stresses in the same way that their mothers do — this is known as infant stress reactivity, and it involves both the mother and the child's hormones. Children's cortisol synchronization with their parents' should be in the middle range. That is to say, it is neither too unsynchronized nor too synchronized for the child to become withdrawn or hypervigilant (Pratt et al, 2017).

A study that looked into the effect of controlling parenting in children reminded us of the problems it can cause. The study looked at the impact of two different sources of parental pressure on parents' situational use of control: societal pressure inducing ego-involvement and child failure. Poor parent/child dyadic performance (in this case on collaborative puzzle play), lack of reciprocity, decreased dyadic interaction, and general involvement were all linked to controlling parental styles. Dyadic reciprocity is a key sign of the quality of parent-child interactions that lead to behavioral attunement. It shows itself in behaviours like leaning in together, laughing together, and overall behavioral synchronization (Wuyts et al, 2017).

If one participant in the relationship believes they are and must be superior or in control, reciprocity will be difficult or impossible to create and sustain. A person who is highly competitive, on the other hand, may struggle to understand and learn how to develop reciprocity in an intimate relationship. Reciprocal relationships necessitate a cooperative attitude as well as an understanding of and willingness to embrace interdependence. Both partners must have and be able to continue to develop sentiments of love for one other in order to cultivate a long-term, committed relationship.

Reciprocity is built and woven into strong enough relationships, sometimes without the partners even realising it. It can become a strong, healthy element of the partnership with awareness. Reciprocity necessitates the involvement of both parties in the connection. If a relationship is significant enough to them, partners will work hard to create and preserve it. The enhancement of the reward-cost balance in relationships maintains commitment. The most beneficial partnerships are those that focus on the emotional efforts of the partner. In a positive positive, passion is essential. Feeling fulfilled is linked to reciprocated love. The behavioural investments of reciprocated love and emotional contribution are what keep a committed relationship going.

Both partners must be willing to accept responsibility for the formation of a reciprocal connection. A healthy relationship's interdependence necessitates that both partners take personal responsibility. One partner cannot take all the blame while the other partner gives all the blame. Accepting responsibility for the development of a reciprocal connection necessitates a high level of emotional maturity, which takes time, effort, and awareness to achieve. This could be the most gratifying work a person does in their lifetime. It is a maturing process.

When two individuals decide to build a healthy, interdependent, reciprocal relationship, it's a good idea for them to talk about their own values and what they think makes a healthy partnership. Some people, for example, consider affection to be a necessary requirement for a healthy relationship, while others do not.

How people understand reciprocity in the exchange of goods and labour is a fundamental building element of personal relationships. Before making a commitment, it is important to

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have discussions regarding those topics. Reciprocity in other aspects of the relationship, such as emotional, physical, or sexual closeness, should be discussed as well.

Negative reciprocity happens when an action has a negative impact on one person, and that person responds with a behaviour that has a negative impact as well. People react instinctively with one another. To keep the conversation from getting out of control, partners should talk about it and learn how to respond sensibly. Couples who have formed an emotionally healthy relationship can work things out on their own. Working with a couple's counsellor can be beneficial at times.

In spite of late adolescents' apparent independence, they still value input from their parents (Youniss & Smollar, 1985), rely on their assistance (Frank, Avery & Laman, 1988), and consult with them (Wintre, Hicks, McVey & Fox, 1988). Furthermore, parents remain components in their children's social support networks, playing a buffering role (Chiriboga, Coho, Stein & Roberts, 1979) against the numerous stresses reflected in the statistics of psychological problems and suicide rates for this age group (Wetzel, 1987). For these older adolescents and young adults, it appears that a balance is required between subjective gains in autonomy and a continued sense of relatedness with parents (Frank, Pirsch & Wright, 1990; White, Speisman & Costos, 1983).

Mutual reciprocity is used to describe relationships wherein individuals perceive each other as relative equals, respect each other's point of view, and are involved in on-going and open communication.

Youniss believes that the two types of relations serve complementary functions- parental relations assist the child to develop an awareness and acceptance of the status quo; peer relations require the child to develop a respect for principles such as fairness and mutual concern for others. Youniss (1980) and Youniss & Smollar (1985) suggest that the reciprocal structure of peer relations serves as a template for a modification in parent-child relationships during late adolescence/young adulthood. The insight into equality and mutuality acquired through peer interaction is applied to relations with parents. Consequently, the asymmetrical relationship of unilateral authority characterizing early parent-child relations becomes transformed into a more symmetrical relationship marked by mutual reciprocity and respect. The perception of the adolescents/young adults may or may not reflect actual reciprocity in the relationships. Nonetheless, given that perceptions influence behavior, it can be argued that the perceptions of reciprocity are of greater import than experienced reciprocity, if they in fact do differ.

Reciprocity is a meaningful construct that resonates in both evolutionary and mental health frameworks and is a central feature of close relationships that facilitates adaptation to the social world.

It was predicted that individuals with perceived high reciprocity in their parental relationships would demonstrate a greater internal sense of control and attribute less control to powerful others (Wintre & Crowley, 1993), (Levenson, 1974).

Locus of Control

The term 'Locus of control' refers to how much control a person feels they have in their own behavior. A person can either have an internal locus of control or an external locus of control (Rotter, 1954).

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The locus of control is a concept that is used to classify people's fundamental motivational orientations and views of their power over their circumstances. People who have an external locus of control are more likely to act in reaction to external circumstances and to believe that their life outcomes are determined by forces beyond their control. People who have an internal locus of control are more likely to act in reaction to internal states and goals, and to see their life results as the result of their actions and abilities.

"A locus of control orientation is a belief about whether the outcomes of our actions are contingent on what we do (internal control orientation) or on events outside our personal control (external control orientation)". (Zimbardo, 1985, p. 275).

Most individuals are unfamiliar with the idea of locus of control in psychological literature, even though it is well understood once explained. Rotter coined the term "Locus of Control of Reinforcement" to bridge the gap between behavioural and cognitive psychology. Individuals grow to hold beliefs about what causes their actions as a result of "reinforcements" (rewards and punishments), either positive or negative, according to Rotter. These ideas then influence the attitudes and behaviours that people adopt.

People who have a high "internal locus of control" believe they have a lot of personal influence over their actions and are hence more willing to accept responsibility for their actions. "I did well on the test because I studied incredibly hard," for example. People who have a "external locus of control" feel that their accomplishments or failures are due to forces outside their control, such as luck, fate, circumstance, injustice, bias, or unjust, prejudiced, or inexperienced teachers. Students, for example, blame the teacher for poor grades rather than prepare ahead of time.

An internal locus of control is composed of dependent events mostly related to one's permanent characteristics. Three types of locus of control had been acknowledged. Foremost, internal (individual control) locus of control reflects the trust that one has personage control in surplus of the proceedings to make possible happen. Succeeding, powerful others locus of control is the conviction that proceedings are not resolute by one's own behavior, excluding by persons who are in positions of power over the human being. Third, chance control locus of control is at what time a person does not acquaint with why actions take place (Doumas, Halloran, John & Margolin, 1999)

Internal locus of control persons who lack competence, efficacy, or opportunity might become neurotic, worried, or sad. Internals must have a realistic understanding of their zone of influence in order to achieve 'success.' Externals, on the other hand, can enjoy easy going, relaxed, and joyful lifestyles.

People with an internal locus of control are less conforming, less submissive, and more independent, according to research. People with an internal locus of control, according to Rotter, are better at resisting social pressure to conform or comply, maybe because they feel accountable for their actions. Despite these concerns, psychological research has indicated that people with a higher internal locus of control appear to be happier, for example, they are more goal-oriented and have better-paying professions. However, consideration of causality is also required. Do Locus of Control beliefs cause the situation or are they caused by environmental factors (such as privilege and disadvantage)? Locus of Control is sometimes misunderstood as a constant, inherent psychological trait, however research and theory suggest that it is mostly taught.

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Locus of Control is regarded as an important aspect of personality in psychology. Julian Rotter first proposed the concept in the 1950s (Rotter, 1966). The individual's perspective of the underlying principle causes of occurrences in his or her life is referred to as the locus of control. Or, to put it another way, do you believe that you control your own destiny or that you are governed by external factors (such as fate, god, or powerful others)? The construct was given the full name Locus of Control of Reinforcement by Rotter. Rotter was connecting behavioural and cognitive psychology when he gave it its name. Rotter believed that "reinforcements" (rewards and punishments) significantly directed behaviour, and that individuals come to hold beliefs about what causes their actions through contingencies like rewards and penalties. These ideas then influence the attitudes and behaviours that people adopt. This understanding of Locus of Control is consistent, for example, with Philip Zimbardo (a famous psychologist): A locus of control orientation is a belief about whether the outcomes of our actions are contingent on what we do (internal control orientation) or on events outside our personal control (external control orientation)." (Zimbardo, 1985, p. 275) Thus, locus of control is conceptualised as referring to a unidimensional continuum, ranging from external to internal.

In general, it appears to be psychologically beneficial to believe that one has control over the things that one can influence. In broad terms, a more internal locus of control is often regarded as desirable. Internal locus of control is also known as "self-agency," "personal control," "self-determination," and other terms. Research has found the following trends: Males tend to be more internal than females. As people get older they tend to become more internal. People higher up in organisational structures tend to be more internal (Mamlin, Harris, & Case, 2001). However, it is critical to caution individuals against falling prey to the too simplistic perspective that internal is good and external is bad (two legs are good, four legs are bad?). There are numerous nuances and complexity to consider. There is evidence that, at least to some extent, Locus of Control is a response to circumstances.

An individual's "locus" (plural "loci") can be internal (belief that one can manage one's own life) or external (belief that one's life is bound by outside forces that one can't control, or that chance or destiny rule one's life). There is a spectrum, with the majority of people falling somewhere in the middle. A person with a high internal perception of personal control is more likely to accept personal responsibility for their actions, which they see to be the result of their own effect. High externals believe that external forces or luck are more responsible for their actions.

Parental locus of control is a version of Rotter's (1966) original locus of control concept that is suited to parent-child relationships. Parents with an external locus of control attribute their children's growth to causes beyond their control, whereas parents with an internal locus of control attribute it to their own parenting efforts. Several cross-sectional studies suggest that parents of children with behaviour problems are more prone to believe in an external parental locus of control than parents of children who do not have any problems.

Parents of elementary school-aged children who sought help for parenting problems had stronger external parental locus of control views than parents who did not report difficulties in the parenting role, according to Campis and colleagues (1986). Similarly, Roberts, Joe, and Rowe-Hallbert (1992) discovered that mothers of children in treatment for oppositional child behaviour tended to have more external locus of control beliefs than non-clinic parents, and that child coercive behaviour and external parental locus of control beliefs had a significant relationship. Mothers with more total child behaviour problems on the Child

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Behavior Checklist have a more external parental locus of control orientation (Morton, 1997), and mothers of children with conduct problems have significantly lower levels of self-efficacy in dealing with child behaviours than mothers of children without conduct problems (Sanders & Woolley, 2005).

External parental locus of control, challenging child behaviour, and parenting behaviour are all linked in this cross-sectional research.

Depression has been connected to locus of control, with higher degrees of depressed symptomatology being associated with increased externality (Presson & Benassi, 1996). Low self-perceived parental efficacy, competence, and control are linked to parental depressed symptoms, suggesting that this relationship may extend to parenting (Coleman & Karraker, 1997; Cutrona & Troutman, 1986; Jackson & Huang, 2000; Lovejoy, Verda, & Hays, 1997; Teti & Gelfand, 1991).

Parental expressed emotion (EE) is a concept linked to general locus of control and is likely to influence parenting cognitions and behaviour. EE is a measure of family members' emotional attitudes toward one another, and it is assumed to reflect the family's emotional climate (Vaughn & Leff, 1976). Individuals with a high EE score have a high level of criticism, animosity, and/or emotional over-involvement toward family members. High EE is linked to mothers' perceptions of their children's symptoms or bad behaviour as being under their control (Barrowclough & Hooley, 2003; Bolton, Calam, Barrowclough, Peters, Roberts, et al., 2003). A mother who believes her child's behaviour is caused by factors within the child may feel as if she has less control over her child (i.e., external parental locus of control). High-EE people exhibit pessimistic thoughts about their abilities to regulate general problem circumstances, which supports this theory (Barrowclough & Hooley, 2003; Hooley, 1998). According to Barrowclough and Hooley (2003), high-EE attitudes can be thought of as attempts to manage situations by restoring or influencing the conduct of a family member. Such endeavours, however, are often fruitless, sustaining low perceptions of efficacy and control. As a result, high-EE women are more prone to believe in an external parental locus of control, especially when dealing with difficult child behaviour.

The tendency to regard life outcomes as a product of one's own activities and hence as being under one's control (i.e., internal locus of control), as opposed to being determined by other forces such as chance or powerful others (i.e., external locus of control) (Rotter, 1966; Keenan and McBain, 1979). People with a high internal locus of control strive to manage their surroundings, whereas those with a high external locus of control sometimes feel helpless since they believe life's outcomes are beyond their control (Keenan and McBain, 1979). Initially, locus of control was thought to be a personality feature pertaining to a person's consistent feelings of personal competence (Rotter, 1966). Later on, locus of control was described as a coping resource that helped people cope in different ways (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Newton and Keenan, 1990; Van den Brande et al., 2016). Placing blame for a result on others (i.e., external locus of control) has been linked to avoidance coping/resignation, increased stress, and bad health (Evers et al., 2000; Gianakos, 2002; Gore et al., 2016). Internal locus of control, on the other hand, has been linked to requesting help and thinking positively, as well as reduced levels of overall work stress (Gianakos, 2002; Gray-Stanley and Muramatsu, 2011; Gore et al., 2016).

Individual variations, according to the theory, might influence how people react to stress (Hobfoll, 1989), with locus of control being a particularly crucial resource in such instances

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(Newton and Keenan, 1990). More specifically, people's causal explanations of unpleasant outcomes are directly tied to their perceived control in stressful situations. According to attribution theory, the reason of an outcome can be considered to be either internal (internal orientation) or external (external orientation) to the person (Heider, 1958). An internal locus of causation is associated with viewing negative life consequences as a result of personal characteristics such as mood, abilities, and personality, whereas an external locus of causation is associated with viewing negative outcomes as a result of situational factors such as the nature of the situation, luck, or social pressure (Crisp and Turner, 2007).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Maayan Davidov, Shirly Menaged Bar-Tuvia, Nurit Polacheck-Benishti, Joan and E. Grusec (2021) Two forms of mother-child reciprocity and their links to children's cooperativeness: The study examined links between mother-child reciprocity and early elementary school children's cooperative behavior, an important marker of adjustment during this age. 106 mothers were observed in play interaction with their children, and three groups were identified: mothers who followed their child's lead, mothers who shared the lead equally with the child, and mothers who showed neither form of reciprocity. The results suggested, children's cooperation with the requests of their mother was greatest when mothers followed and shared the lead of children. Teachers rated children as more cooperative in the classroom when mothers followed their children's lead. The two forms of reciprocity, following and sharing, are distinct.

Glenda Lassi, A. E. Taylor, L. Mahedy, J. Heron, T. Eisen and R. Munafò (2019) Locus of control is associated with tobacco and alcohol consumption in young adults of the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children: The study was examined on 13775 participants selected from the ALSPAC birth cohort in UK and the associations between LoC at 16 and tobacco and alcohol consumption at 17 and 21 years using logistic regression was evaluated. A more external LoC at age 16 was associated with higher odds of being a weekly smoker at age 17 and 21 and with dependence at age 17 and 21. Individuals with external LoC at age 16 were more likely to be hazardous drinkers at age 17 but not at 21. The results showed, having a more external LoC at age 16 is associated with increased tobacco consumption at age 17 and 21 and alcohol consumption at 17 years. LoC may represent an intervention target for preventing substance use and dependence.

Yi-Te Chiang, Wei-Ta Fang, Ulas Kaplan and Eric Ng (2019) Locus of Control: The Mediation Effect between Emotional Stability and Pro-Environmental Behaviour: The study assessed 475 Taiwanese and the objective explored the predisposing factors of locus of control and revealed that emotional stability may be a predisposing factor for internal locus of control and pro- environmental behavior. The results revealed that emotional stability can promote pro- environmental behavior through the mediation effect of internal locus of control, indicating that emotional stability is a predisposing factor for locus of control-generated pro- environmental behavior. Thus, the study results indicated that people with higher emotional stability and a stronger internal locus of control are more likely to engage in pro-environmental behavior.

Shai Joseph, Rabin, Esther Bamberger, Irit Mor-Snir, Ruth Feldman and Ofer Golan (2018) Parent-Adolescent Reciprocity in a Conflictual Situation Predicts Peer Interaction in Adolescents with ASD: This study aimed to evaluate differences in the way adolescents with and without ASD interact with their parents in a conflictual situation. Parent-child reciprocity plays a significant role in shaping children's social interaction skills. Thirty

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adolescents with ASD and their parents and 30 typically developing (TD) controls were assessed during a standardized conflict interaction. Results revealed that during the conflictual interaction, compared to their TD peers, adolescents with ASD were more involved in the conversation and less withdrawn from the parent, while their parents were more sensitive and less intrusive toward them. Parent–adolescent reciprocity was poorer in the ASD (compared to the TD) and was positively associated with the adolescents' social-conversational skills with a peer.

Oguzhan Kirdök and Esranur (2018) High School Students' Career Decision-Making Difficulties According to Locus of Control: This study elaborates upon difficulties in career decisions of high school students with different locus of control. A total of 509 students aged 14-19, 282 females and 227 males from the south of Turkey were involved. The findings indicate that total points obtained from the scale of career decision-making difficulties of the participants with external locus of control and lack of information of the scale with inconsistent information sub-dimensions have a higher score average than students with internal locus of control. Individuals with external locus of control experienced more difficulty in the process of decision-making due to the lack of necessary information or inconsistent information.

Ana Kurtović, Iva Vuković and Martina Gajić (2017) The Effect of Locus of Control on University Students' Mental Health: Possible Mediation through Self-Esteem and Coping: The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of locus of control on university students' mental health and to examine possible mediational roles of self-esteem and coping. A total of 418 university students were assessed. The results showed that external locus of control, lower self-liking and self-competence, as well as less problem-focused and more emotion-focused coping predict more symptoms of depression, anxiety, and stress in university students.

Eileen M Ahlin and Maria João Lobo Antunes (2015) Locus of Control Orientation: Parents, Peers, and Place: The primary goal of this study was to examine whether various mesosystem variables (family management strategies, peer interactions, neighborhood context, and individual-level characteristics) are associated with an internal locus of control orientation among 1,076 youth ages 9-19 living in 78 Chicago neighborhoods. Furthermore, the findings suggest that, while most levels of the mesosystem influence locus of control orientation, family management strategies are more prominent determinants of an internal locus of control than peers, neighborhood context, or individual characteristics. Parental supervision over the time a youth spends at home and family socioeconomic status are consistent predictors of an internal locus of control, while harsh discipline is associated with an external locus of control.

Krystel Thomassin and Cynthia Suveg (2014) Reciprocal Positive Affect and Well-Regulated, Adjusted Children: A Unique Contribution of Fathers: This study investigated real-time exchanges of affect in both mother–child and father–child dyads within a triadic framework. Child emotion dysregulation was examined as a mechanism by which parent–child reciprocal positive and negative affect are associated with child psychopathology symptoms. Fifty-one mother–father–child triads participated in an emotion discussion task, and behavioral observations were coded for negative and positive affect. The results demonstrated the mothers exhibited greater levels of positive emotional reciprocity than fathers, father–child reciprocal positive affect was uniquely associated with child symptoms of psychopathology. Child emotion dysregulation mediated the relation between paternal

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reciprocal positive affect and child symptoms, fathers play a unique role in boys' and girls' development of symptoms of psychopathology through child emotion dysregulation.

Kerri Boutelle, Marla E. Eisenberg, Melissa L. Gregory and Dianne Neumark-Sztainer (2008) The reciprocal relationship between parent–child connectedness and adolescent emotional functioning over 5 years: The purpose of this study was to evaluate the reciprocal relationship between parent–child connectedness and depressive symptoms, self-esteem, and body satisfaction over 5 years in a diverse sample of 2516 male and female adolescents.

Results showed parent–child connectedness was associated with increased body satisfaction for females, increased self-esteem for males, and decreased depressive symptoms for both males and females.

Beate Schwarz, Gisela Trommsdorff, Isabelle Albert and Boris Mayer (2005) Adult parent-child relationships: Relationship quality, support, and reciprocity: The purpose of this study was to investigate 265 middle-aged women in Germany and their perception of the relationship quality with parents, the support they reported to give and receive from their parents, and their perception of reciprocity in intergenerational support exchange. The findings revealed positive relations between family values, relationship quality, and support to parents. Perceived reciprocity was associated with the exchange of intergenerational support, and imbalance in support had negative effects on the relationship quality. Felt burden was predicted by the extent of support and the perceived reciprocity. However, specific correlational patterns depending on the kind of support as well as differences in the importance of mother and father occurred.

K J Kim, R D Conger, F O Lorenz and G H Elder Jr (2001) Parent- adolescent reciprocity in negative effect and its relation to early adult social development: This research was aimed a) to investigate hypothesized reciprocal growth in negative emotions between parents and adolescents and (b) to examine the influence of this reciprocal process on the development of social relationships during early adulthood. The results showed that both parents' and adolescents' initial levels of negative emotion toward each other led to increase in growth of negative effects. In addition, the analyses indicated that this reciprocal negativity in the family of origin carried over into early adult social relationships. The findings demonstrate the reciprocal nature of negative affect in interactions between parents and adolescents and suggest that family experiences with this interactional style may have an adverse influence on the development of early adult social relationships.

Lisa A. McClun & Kenneth W. Merrell (1998) Relationship of perceived parenting styles, locus of control orientation, and self-concept among junior high age students: The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between locus of control orientation and self-concept in adolescents, and factors such as social behavior, scholastic achievement, drug use, depression and delinquency (e.g., Bandura, 1978; Crandall, Katkovsky & Crandall, 1965; Gordon, 1977; Harter, 1991; McCauley, Mitchell, Burke, & Moss, 1988; Merrell, Ceden, & Johnson, 1993; Nowicki & Roundtree, 1971; Parrott & Strongman, 1984; Patton, 1991) on 198 students from a Junior High School in the mountain west region of the United States. The results suggested that the adolescent subjects who perceived their parents as having an authoritative parenting style had a more internal locus of control orientation and a more positive self-concept than those subjects who perceived their parents as having either an authoritarian or permissive locus of control orientation.

METHODOLOGY

Problem Statement:

To determine the relationship between parental reciprocity and locus of control among undergraduate students.

Variables:

Independent variable: Parental reciprocity among undergraduate students.

Dependent variable: Locus of control among undergraduate students.

Research Objective:

1. To determine the level of parental reciprocity among undergraduate students.
2. To determine the type of locus of control among undergraduate students.
3. To study the relationship between parental reciprocity and locus of control among undergraduate students.

Research Hypothesis:

There is a relationship between Parental Reciprocity and Locus of Control among the undergraduate students.

Sample:

A Probability Sampling technique was used to collect a sample of 80 undergraduate students between the ages of 18-22.

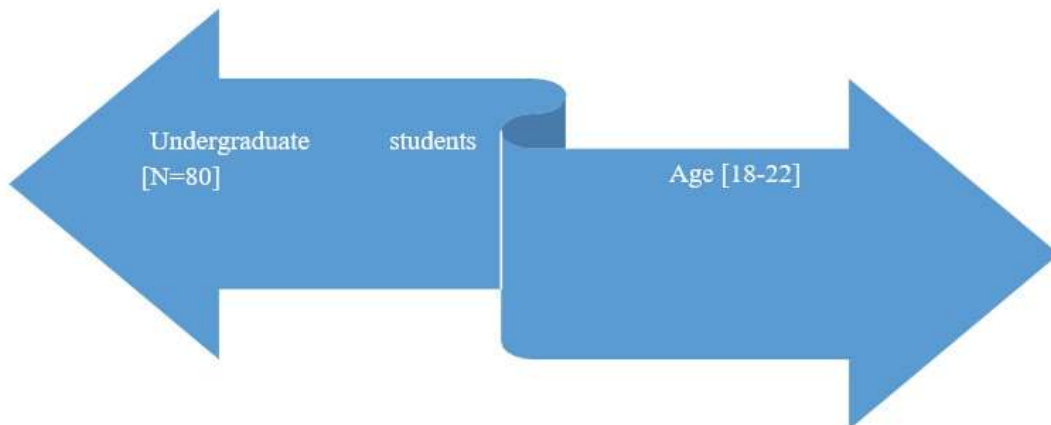


Figure 1: Shows the division of the sample.

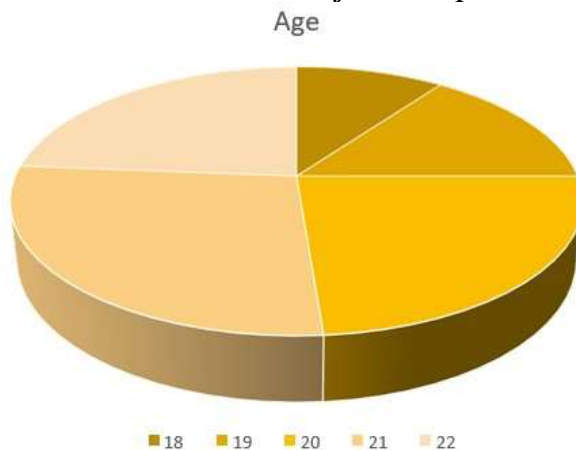


Figure 2: Shows the age division of the sample

Tools Used:

- Perception of Parental Reciprocity Scale (POPRS) by Maxine G. Wintre, Marvin Yaffe and Jeannine Crowley.
- Levenson's Scale for Locus of Control by Hannah Levenson.

The study employs the following Instrument:

Description of the tools:

a) Perception of Parental Reciprocity Scale (POPRS): M.G. Wintre, M. Yaffe, & J. Crowley (1995) developed the Perception of Parental Reciprocity Scale (POPRS) which is a 42-item inventory developed to measure offsprings' perceived level of reciprocity in their relationship with their parents. This scale measures perceived reciprocity in the parent-child relationship from the perspective of the adolescent/young adult. The perception of the adolescents/young adults may or may not reflect actual reciprocity in the relationships. Nonetheless, given that perceptions influence behaviour, it can be argued that the perceptions of reciprocity are of greater import than experienced reciprocity, if they in fact do differ.

Scoring

This is a Questionnaire with scoring on 6-point likert scale, i.e., 1-strongly disagree, 2-disagree, 3-slightly disagree, 4- slightly agree, 5- agree and 6- strongly agree. Items 1, 2, 4, 5, 8 in GPOPRS, and 2, 8, 9 in MPOPRS and FPOPRS are reverse-scored. Sum of items of all the items gives the total POPRS score. According to the authors the scale can be scored overall, or by each of the sub-scales.

Reliability and Validity

The reliability of the overall scale (n = 1291) was .93, and the mean inter-item correlation was .24. For the theorized subscales, the results were as follows:

General: .80, mean inter-item correlation .31; Mother: .89, mean inter-item correlation .32; Father: .89, mean inter-item correlation .33. The test-retest reliability of the overall scale was .70.

Criterion validity was demonstrated by the strong positive correlation between the POPRS and the interviews ($r(79) = .79, p < .001$). These interviews were scored by two trained interviewers, demonstrating an inter-rater reliability of .9633 (n = 100). POPRS is a reliable measure, from the perspectives of internal consistency, homogeneity, and stability over time. The POPRS has shown a high degree of validity, including construct and criterion validity.

b) Levenson's Scale for Locus of Control: Levenson developed the Locus of Control Scale (LOC) which is a multidimensional 24-item inventory constructed to measure the locus of control of individuals. Locus of Control evaluates which forces individuals consider as determining their lives, or aspects of their lives. There is a strong relationship between one's sense of own control and overall wellbeing. People with an internal locus of control believe that their own actions determine the rewards that they obtain, while those with an external locus of control believe that their own behaviour doesn't matter much and that rewards in life are generally outside of their control.

Scoring

This questionnaire is based on a five-point response scale (1 = strong disagreement, 2 = disagree, 3 = undecided, 4 = agree and 5 = strong agreement). The 24 items are divided into three separate eight-item scales: Internal, Chance, and Powerful Others. Sum of items 3, 8,

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11, 13, 15, 17, 20 & 22 gives the score of Powerful others. Sum of items 2, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 16, & 24 gives the score of Chance control. Sum of items 1, 4, 5, 9, 18, 19, 21, & 23 gives the score of Individual control.

Reliability and Validity

Split-half method of reliability was employed. Here the scale was divided into two parts of 12 statements each. Each part containing 4 statements each for -powerful others, C-chance control, and I-individual control. The split-half reliability of the scale with N= 380, was found to be 0.72 for P, 0.79 for C and 0.65 for I, using Spearman-Brown. Further, with odd-even method, reliability coefficient was found to be 0.69 for P, 0.72 for C, and 0.66 for I.

The test-retest reliability was also calculated for the present scale, with N= 200, retested after one week's time. The test-retest reliability coefficient was found to be 0.76, by calculating coefficient of correlation between two sets of scores of the same individuals on the same scale, after one week's time.

The present scale shows fairly high reliability coefficient. A test that yields inconsistent results (low reliability) cannot correlate well with a measure of another variable; in this case a criterion. It should be from the viewpoint of applied psychology; every test must have productive validity. This is possible only when the reliability coefficient of the test is high. Apart from the high reliability and predictive validity, the present scale was also validated against the Rotter's Locus Of Control Scale i.e. the concurrent validity was also established. A test's concurrent validity indicates the extent of its agreement with other present criteria measuring similar or same psychological operations or traits. The present scale was validated by correlating it with Rotter's Locus of Control Scale (I-E Scale). This was done by giving both the scales one after another with very little time interval in between. Scores of both the scales were then correlated with each other, and the correlation coefficient was found out to be 0.54 (with N= 220).

Procedure

After selecting the measures, the potential individuals and organizations were identified and approached. Permission from the organization was sought from the principal of the organization. During the visit, the young adults were briefed about the study and only those who consented to participate signed the Information Consent Sheet and filled in their details in the demographic sheet. Then the questionnaires were handed over to them, with written and oral instructions regarding the answering of questionnaires. The participants were asked to fill an Information Schedule which included their general demographic details consisting of their Age, Gender, Employment status, Physical and Mental Health Status. They were then asked to seek clarifications in case of any doubts. The participants were informed that there is no time limit; however, they were asked to try and complete the questionnaires as early as possible. After the participants had answered the questionnaires, the collected data was later analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics and conclusions were drawn.

RESULTS

Graphical representations were used to explain the levels of parental reciprocity and levels of the subscales in locus of control.

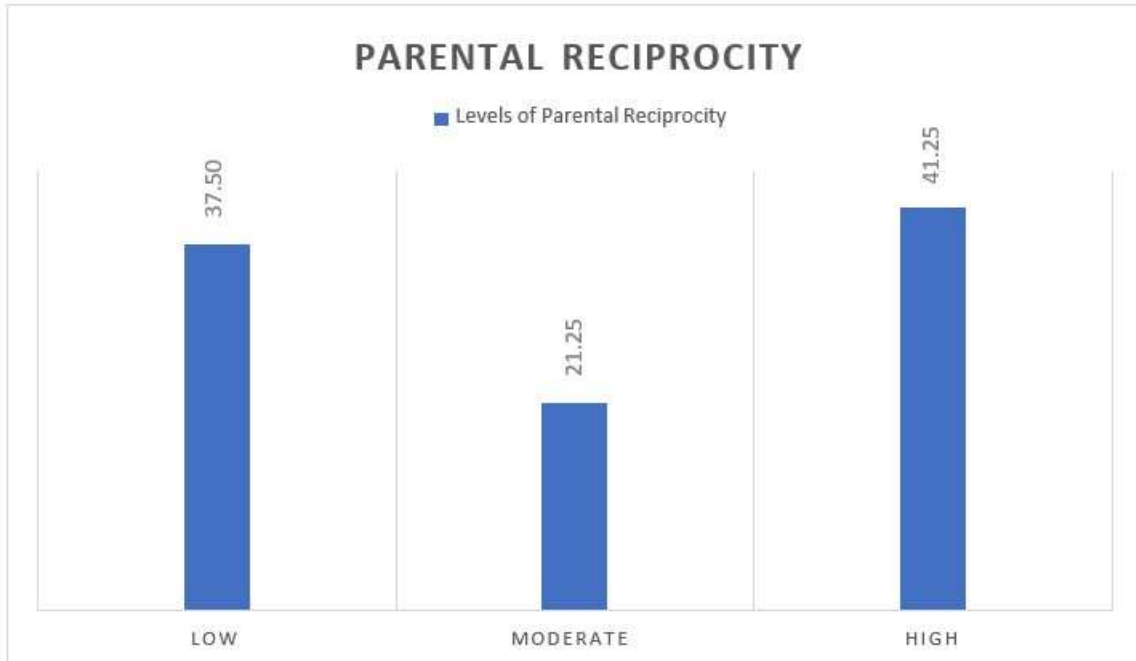


Figure 3: Shows the percentage of sample lying under low, moderate and high parental reciprocity.

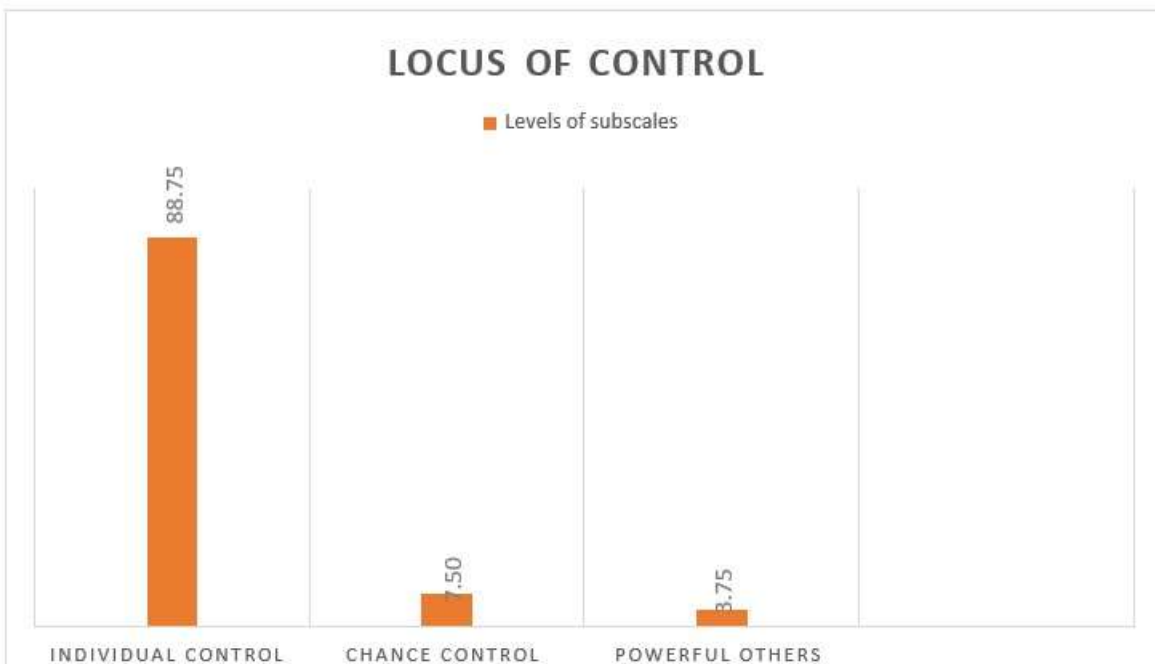


Figure 4: Shows the percentage of sample lying under Individual control, Chance control and Power others.

Figure 3 shows the division of sample on the basis of low, moderate and high parental reciprocation.

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41.25% of the total sample falls under the category of high parental reciprocity. 37.50% of the total sample falls under the low parental reciprocation category whereas, 21.25% of the total sample falls under the category of moderate parental reciprocation.

Figure 4 shows the division of sample on the basis of individual control, chance control and powerful others.

88.75% of the total sample falls under the individual control subscale of locus of control. 7.50% of the total sample falls under the chance control subscale and 3.75% of the total sample falls under the powerful others' subscale.

The obtained quantitative data of this study was analyzed using Pearson's Correlation. Pearson's Correlation was used to identify the relationship between the two variables among undergraduate students.

Table 1: Shows the correlation between Low, Moderate, High Parental Reciprocation and the three subscales of Locus of Control, i.e., Individual Control, Chance Control and Powerful Others.

	Individual Control	Chance Control	Powerful Others
Low Parental Reciprocation	0.1508	-0.2623	-0.2072
Moderate Parental Reciprocation	0.0129	X	X
High Parental Reciprocation	0.1314	-0.1694	X

DISCUSSION

The study aimed to investigate the relationship between parental reciprocity and locus of control among undergraduate using Perception of Parental Reciprocity Scale (POPRS) Levenson's Scale for Locus of Control.

Results obtained through statistical analysis indicated that a correlation score of 0.1314 is interpreted as positive correlation between high parental reciprocation and the locus of control's subscale- individual control and a correlation score of -0.1694 is interpreted as negative correlation between high parental reciprocation and the subscale - chance control, meaning higher the parental reciprocity, greater internal sense of control and lower attribution towards external factors.

A correlation score of 0.0129 has been analyzed and interpreted as positive correlation between moderate parental reciprocation and the locus of control's subscale- individual control, which means the students with moderate parental reciprocity attribute events more to internal factors.

A correlation score of 0.1508 has been analysed and interpreted as positive correlation between low parental reciprocation and locus of control's subscale- individual control, a correlation score of -0.2623 has been interpreted as negative correlation between low parental reciprocation and chance control and a correlation score of -0.2072 is interpreted as negative correlation between low parental reciprocation and powerful others' subscale, which means the students with low parental reciprocity demonstrate lower internal sense of control and attribute more towards external factors and controlling powerful individuals.

CONCLUSION

After investigating all the research objectives and analysing the results, it has been concluded that;

There is a positive correlation between Individual Control and Low, Moderate and High Parental Reciprocation, a negative correlation between Chance Control and Low and High Parental Reciprocity and also negative correlation between Powerful Others and Low Parental Reciprocation.

Thus, there is a relationship between Parental Reciprocation and Locus of control among the undergraduate students. Hence, the hypothesis has been accepted.

Limitations

The current study has potential limitations. In this study, very little and limited prior research studies were available that were found to be relevant. There is found to be a need for further development in the area of this study. The sample size of the current study is small, reducing the power of the study.

Suggestions

This research study, addressing the same research objectives can be conducted in different cultural contexts and comparison can be done.

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Conflict of Interest

The author declared no conflict of interest.

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