

TURKISH REPUBLIC OF NORTHERN CYPRUS NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE

ROLE OF PARENTING IN DEVELOPING SELF-CONCEPT, NARCISSISM AND ANGER AMONG ADULTS

PHD THESIS

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> Nicosia October, 2021

Approval

This study was accepted as a doctoral thesis in the Guidance and Psychological Counseling program by our jury. The thesis defense was made online and the jury members gave their consent verbally. The whole process has been recorded electronically.

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13/12/2021

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Declaration

I hereby declare that all information, documents, analysis and results in this thesis have been collected and presented according to the academic rules and ethical guidelines of Institute of Graduate Studies, Near East University. I also declare that as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced information and data that are not original to this study.

Maryam FARZAND

13/12/2021

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Many times task accomplishment come by a single name but there are always many contributions behind the scene. Accomplishment of a dissertation is none different, the process of conducting research and writing a report on it demands input from variety of spheres. Recognition of those inputs, are very much essential so that those worthy contributions be paid off.

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Maryam Farzand

Abstract

Role of Parenting in Developing Self-concept, Narcissism and Anger among Adults Farzand, Maryam

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The present study aimed to study effects of parenting on self-concept, narcissism and anger among adults. For this purpose, the study was conducted in three phases. Phase one consists of content analysis of the study variables. In order to establish understanding of the previous research trends. In the second phase, permission to use the scales and ethical clearance to carry out the study was done. In the third phase of the study, research objectives and hypotheses were tested. 628 male and female adults were approached and were administered the scales. Results showed good reliability and item total correlations of the instruments. Parenting mediate the relationship between self-concept and narcissism, self-concept and anger; and narcissism and anger. Age moderate the relationship between the study variables. Gender differences across the variables were also studied. Theoretical and clinical implications of this research are discussed along with limitations of these studies. This study further clarifies the role of parenting and speaks to the need for further research in establishing the mechanisms by which parenting may lead to the development of inflated self-concept, narcissistic traits and excessive and inappropriate expression of anger among adults.

Keywords: parenting, self-concept, narcissism, anger, mediation

Yetişkinlerde Benlik Kavramı, Narsisizm ve Öfke Geliştirmede Ebeveynliğin Rolü

Farzand, Maryam

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Bu araştırma, yetişkinlerde ebeveynliğin benlik kavramı, narsisizm ve öfke üzerindeki etkilerini araştırmayı amaçlamıştır. Bu amaçla çalışma üç aşamada gerçekleştirilmiştir. Birinci aşama, önceki araştırma eğilimlerinin anlaşılmasını sağlamak amacıyla çalışma değişkenlerinin içerik analizinden oluşur. İkinci aşamada, ölçeklerin kullanılması ve araştırmanın yürütülmesi için etik izin alınmıştır. Çalışmanın üçüncü aşamasında, araştırma amaçları ve hipotezler test edilmiştir. Araştırmada 628 erkek ve kadın yetişkine ulaşılarak ölçekler uygulanmıştır. Araştırmadan elde edilen sonuçlara göre, ölçme araçlarının güvenilirlik katsayısı ve madde toplam korelasyonlarını uygun bulunmuştur. Ebeveynlik, benlik kavramı ile narsisizm, benlik kavramı ile öfke; ve narsisizm ile öfke arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık eder. Çalışmada yaş değişkeninin değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiyi modere ettiği bulunmuştur. Bu araştırmada, değişkenler arasındaki cinsiyet farklılıkları da incelenmiştir. Bu araştırmanın sonuçlarının teorik ve klinik alanlardaki katkıları, araştırma bulguları dahilinide tartışılmıştır. Bu çalışma, ebeveynliğin rolünü daha da netleştirmekte birlikte, yetişkinler arasında abartılı benlik kavramının, narsist özelliklerin ve aşırı ve uygunsuz öfke ifadesinin gelişmesine yol açabilecek ebeveynliğin mekanizmalarının daha fazla araştırmaya ihtiyaç duyulduğu önerisinde bulunur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: arabuluculuk, benlik kavramı, ebeveynlik, narsisizm, öfke

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List of Abbreviations

WHO:	World Health Organization
APQ:	Alabama Parenting Questionnaire
SFSCS:	Six Factor Self-concept Scale
NPI:	Narcissistic Personality Inventory
DAR-R	Dimensions of Anger Reaction Revised
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance

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CHAPTER I Introduction

Problem Statement

Family environment and parents plays an important role in a child's development and behavior. The nature and quality of parenting greatly influence the personality development of children. Dysfunctional families having harsh and inconsistent disciplinary practices are identified as risk factors for the development of narcissistic traits (Bushment et al., 2016; Mahajan et al., 2010, Ormel et al., 2005; Cutulli et al., 2013). Even though much of the literature talks about parental impact on narcissistic behaviors, however, not all the children undergoing same parental practices develop narcissistic tendencies (Finzi-Dottan & Cohen, 2010). For this reason in the present study, perceived parenting is taken into account because people create their own realities based on their perceptions which may or may not be factual but are real for the individual. With much of the research work done taking selfesteem into account with respect to narcissism, very little literature is available linking self-concept with the narcissistic tendencies. While self-concept is the cognitive or descriptive component of one's self, self-esteem is simply the evaluation of those cognitions. In order to improve the narcissistic traits, if the self-concept, that is, the underlying cognitions are worked upon and changed, the evaluation of these cognitions (that is self-esteem) will be kept in check too. If inflated self-concept of an individual may provide the foundation leading to the development of narcissistic traits; perceived parenting interactions between the child and the parents, influence this relationship. Narcissistic tendencies also give rise to uncontrollable and unexpected anger.

In this era of technology and social media, individuals are becoming more and more focused on themselves, moving society from collectivisim to individualism. Without due attention to the emerging narcissistic traits which can endanger the existence of our societies based on empathy and altruism, immoral behavior will become on rise creating a toxic environment where only those without high human values will survive, as already can be seen in various political figures around the globe. Group narcissism if go unchecked will dvelve in to a society driven by selfishness and egotism.

Throughout much of the human history, child development has been largely neglected. Little attention was paid to the development of physical or mental growth, language development and other cognitive capabilities that takes from birth until adulthood (Hofer, 2006).

Development and Parenting

In the early 20th century, finally interest develop to transpire in the field of child development, however, the initial focus was on abnormal behavior. Gradually, researchers started to investigate other areas affecting growth and development (Cherry, 2020). The critical importance of the early years of an individual's life is now widely acknowledged. With evolving scientific research, the early years came out to be most crucial as brain develops most rapidly during this time and has more capacity for change and the foundation is laid for the whole life. Care provided in a stable environment sensitive to children's wellbeing with safety from threats, emotionally supportive interactions and opportunities for learning, called as nurturing care is at the core of children's potential to develop and grow (World Health Organization, 2018). A continuum of care through the early years is needed to protect and enhance children's developmental outcomes.

Development is the duration of physical, social and cognitive growth that starts at birth and continues through early adulthood (Blanden et al. 2007; Dance-Schissel, 2015). Child development is a sequence of changes encompassing physical, emotional, thinking process and language from birth to the beginning of adulthood. It is a process through which human beings develop and mature from infancy through early adulthood (Heck et al., 2006). Doherty and Hughes (2009) defined childhood as the period from birth until adolescence undergoing physical, cognitive and socialemotional development all at the same time (Doherty & Hughes, 2009). There are specific stages in the growth of human beings, generally accepted as being the stages of infancy, childhood, adolescence, adulthood and old age (Sieg, 2003).

Infancy begins from the moment of birth to about 2 years of age as the child begins to use words to make sentences. The literal meaning of word 'infant' is 'one who is unable to speak'. Infancy is the earliest stage of life and is considered as the most crucial formative period of development (Rochat, 2001). Childhood begins right after the first year and continues until teenage (Brown et al., 2009). Adolescence starts at the end of childhood and continues till adulthood between the years of 13-19 (Blum & Nelson-Nmari, 2004). The word adolescence came from Latin *adolescere* meaning 'to grow up'. It is called a transitional phase of physical and psychological growth that occurs during the period of puberty to legal adulthood (Lempers & Clark-Lempers, 1992). The World Health Organization (WHO) defines an adolescent as any person between ages 10 and 19 (Csikszentmihalyi, 2020). Adulthood is considered to be the period of human life in which complete physical and intellectual maturity has been reached. The starting age of adulthood is commonly thought to be of 20 or 21 years (Icenogle et al., 2009). Round the world, old age has different criteria in different countries. In developed countries with sufficient resources, 65 years is considered to be old age. While under developed countries with lack of basic needs and facilities, 50 years or up is taken as old age (World Health Organization, 2004).

Parenting and child development go hand in hand. Parenting has been commonly equated with the proverbs, 'the apple does not fall far from the tree' and that 'the branch grows as the twig grows' based on the effects parenting have on child's life. It is a common believe that children eventually exhibit what they learn from their parents over the years. If the children are well nurtured, they will exhibit healthy personalities and the qualities (Dixon, Graber, & Brooks-Gunn, 2008).

All development is interrelated. Parent's role in child development is crucial. The actual role of the parent is to provide care, support and encouragement that can enable the child to go through developmental tasks smoothly (Hoeve et al., 2007). Parenting affects cognitions of a child as well as physical, socio-cultural and spiritual development.

Parenting

Parenting is a process that begins from the birth of the child until death. It includes caring for a child, adolescent and even adult. Brook (1987) defined parenting as simply a state in which one has to look after and care for a child. Pérez et al. (2016) defined it as a process of supporting and promoting the physical, intellectual, emotional and social development of a child from childhood to adulthood. It has also been defined as the process of planning, creating, providing care, by acquiring and utilizing knowledge and skills for upbringing a child (Jane, 2012).

Parenting practices referring to specific things that parents do while raising their children might include imposing and use of different rules, schedules, expectations, punishments, rewards, etc. Basically, parenting practices can be any type of regular interactions that a parent has with their children in order to nurture and discipline them (Assadi et al., 2011).

Parenting, however, is affected by several factors. Mature parents with welldeveloped personality adopt healthy parenting practices as compared to the immature parents (Parenting Practices, n.d.). The personality of parents directly affects the development of child (Morrison, 1978). The quality of relationship between the parents is also associated with the process of parenting. It has also been observed that couples having good understanding and communication with each other become good parents. Parental expectations also play its part in the quality of parenting. The attitude and nature of children also contribute in the ways parents might opt for dealing with their children. Some parents perceive caring for a child a difficult task while others may think parenting is a joyous process that also in turn affect this process (Chan, 2004).

Parenting Styles

There are different requirements of all the developmental stages a child goes through. Starting from birth, adolescence and adulthood, he/she goes through a number of biological, emotional, cognitive and social changes. For normal developmental changes to occur, effective parenting is important for healthy transitions. By understanding and mastering effective parenting styles, healthy developmental consequences can be obtained (Kopko, 2007).

Diana Baumrind in the 1960s is known to have done much work on parent child relationships that changed the understanding of it entirely (Baumrind, 1991). Later, her work was further elaborated by several other researchers (Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Steinberg et al., 1994; Hetherington et al., 1999). Baumrind described important dimensions of parenting after observing and studying parents and children in naturalistic environments. Based on two aspects of parenting behavior, Baumrind pointed out four types of parenting styles that is, warmth and control. How well parent manage child's behavior was defined as parental control whereas parental warmth is responsiveness and acceptance parents have towards their child's behavior. These two aspects are mixed together in different ways giving rise to four different parenting styles (Baumrind, 1971 & 1991).

Later she added the dimension of conflict to it as well. Parenting typologies (Figure 1) given by Baumrind were constructed from a cross of warmth, conflict and control: authoritative (high warmth, positive/assertive control and in adolescence high expectations), authoritarian (low warmth, high conflict and coercive, punitive control attempts), permissive (high warmth coupled with low control attempts). Fourth style neglectful/uninvolved/disengaged (low warmth and low control) was added by other researchers later. These four typologies have been repeatedly associated with children's outcomes (Maccoby & Martin 1983).

Authoritative Parents. Authoritative parents are warm but firm with their decisions. They encourage their children to be independent but maintain limits and have control on the children behavior. These parents instead of imposing orders provide their children with reasoning. They also let their children to share their point of view. Children of authoritative parents are more confident, negotiating, competent, responsible and independent (Bi, et al., 2018; Kopko, 2007).

Authoritarian Parents. Authoritarian parenting show less warmth and are very controlling. They are strict want their children to follow their orders without any question. They provide no reasoning behind certain action. Child grown by authoritarian parents may become dependent and rebellious and exhibit aggression and hostility. These children also may low self-esteem as his/her opinions are never valued (Kopko, 2007).

Permissive Parents. The permissive parents show warmth and are undemanding. They are very lenient and passive in their behavior towards children. They show their love by fulfilling every wish of their children. No rules are imposed and children are allowed to do whatever they want. As a result, children develop excessive sense of freedom and do not listen to other or take orders. These children show egocentric personalities in adolescence and have difficulty in self-control. This also experience difficulties in peer relationship (Kopko, 2007).

Uninvolved Parents. The uninvolved parents are unconcerned about the actions of their children. They do not give attention or provide any guidance or encouragement. Children of these parents are thought to be raised by themselves because their parents do not invest much time and energy in providing children's

basic needs. These children are later seen to be impulsive and same behavior patterns in later (Bi et al., 2018; Kopko, 2007).

	Supportive	Unsupportive
Parenting Styles	Parent is accepting and	Parent is rejecting and
	child-centered.	parent-centered.
Demanding	Authoritative	Authoritarian
Parent expects much of	Relationship is about	Relationship is about
child.	building mutual trust and	control, differing
	respect, both perspectives	perspectives are not
	honored, communication	allowed, one way flow
	flows both ways.	of meaningful
		communication.
Undemanding	Permissive	Uninvolved/Neglectful
Parent expects little of	Relationship indulges the	Relationship is non-
child.	child, entitlement, little	existent, no
	control exercised	communication, no
		parenting.

Figure 1 Parenting Styles Given by Baumrind (1991)

Developmental psychologists profusely endorse authoritative parenting as the most favorable parenting style. Authoritative parenting is connected with healthy personality development and gives a balance between affection and support and an appropriate parental control in managing the behavior of children. Children who receive authoritative parenting are self-reliant and autonomous within parental limits and rules (Symonds, 1939).

Although an authoritative parenting style is related with positive developmental outcomes, mostly parents use a mixture of different parenting styles. For instance, a parent may become permissive to extend weekend time to be back home, but stay authoritarian to not allow their teenage child to ride in a car with friends at night. Thus, parents keep modifying their individual parenting style to fit specific situation (Wargo, 2007).

Both parents also may differ in their parenting style. For instance, one parent may be uninvolved while the other is authoritarian. It is advisable for parents to discuss beforehand the acceptable and unacceptable behaviors of their kids. If the child reaches home late, both parents should agree to enforce a consequence together without conflict or disagreement between them. When parents adopt different parenting styles and argue in front of the children, this ends up not beneficial or healthy for the child. That is why parents should be consistent enforcing rules on particular behaviors of their children. Children's behavior also sway parenting style. A cooperative and responsible child may be more likely to have parents who exercise an authoritative parenting style than an uncooperative or irresponsible one.

As mentioned earlier, fluctuating research findings on theoretical lay out was present about the ways of parenting in the first half of twentieth century. Several theories have been proposed to explain the psychological significance of parent–child relationships and children's well-being (Sears et al., 1957; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Maccoby, 1992). Some of the major theories on child development are known as grand theories. Grand theories attempt to describe every aspect of development often using a stage approach. Others are known as mini-theories which focus only on a fairly limited aspect of development such as cognition or social aspect (Bellman et al., 2013).

Freud's Psychosexual Developmental Theory

Freud (1905) proposed psychoanalytic theory based on his clinical work. He stated that childhood experiences and unconscious desires influence our behavior (Cherry, 2020). Conflicts that occur during early years of life have a lifelong impact on personality and behavior (McLead, 2019).

According to Freud's psychosexual theory, child development occurs in a series of stages focused on different pleasure areas of the body (Fisher & Greenberg, 1996). Successfully completing each stage leads to the development of a healthy adult personality (Mclead, 2019). Failing to resolve the conflicts of a particular stage result in fixation that can have an influence on adult behavior (Cherry, 2020).

Freud believed that early childhood experiences played the greatest role in shaping development. According to Freud, personality is largely shaped by the age of five (Mclead, 2019; Cherry, 2020).

Freud's ideas were further enhanced by other psychologists named collectively as Neo-Freudians. Among them Erik Erikson's ideas have become perhaps very popular.

Erikson's Psychosocial Developmental Theory

Erikson's theory describes growth and change throughout life. Social interaction and conflicts that arises during different stages of development are most focused in this theory (Marcia, 1999).

His eight-stage theory of human development described this process from infancy through death. During each stage, a developmental conflict that impacts later functioning and further growth is present. Successfully handling the conflict of each stage leads to the emergence of a lifelong psychological virtue and is aided much by good parenting (Tubenheim, 1979).

Behavioral Child Development Theories

During the twentieth century, behaviorism became a prominent force within psychology. Behaviorists focused only on observable and quantifiable behaviors. According to the behaviorists, all human behavior can be explained in terms of environmental influences. Some behaviorists such as John B. Watson and B. F. Skinner insisted that learning occurs through processes of association and reinforcement that parents need to learn to implement to better able to train their child (Commons & Miller, 1998; Spencer et al., 2007).

Piaget's Cognitive Developmental Theory

Piaget proposed that children think and perceive differently than adults (Marwaha et al., 2017). He stated that the activities and behavior the child is exposed to by both their parent and culture may form the basis of their early personality.

His theory explain the development of thought processes and mental states (Thomas, 2000). Piaget proposed a theory of cognitive development providing the sequence of children's intellectual development (Berk, 2009).

Bowlby's Attachment Theory

John Bowbly proposed one of the earliest theories of social development. Bowlby believed that early relationships with caregivers (mainly parents) play a significant role in child development and continue to affect social relationships throughout life (Barnes et al., 2018).

Bowlby's attachment theory stated that children are born with an innate need to develop attachments. Attachments help in survival of the child by receiving care and protection. Children and caregivers engage in behaviors that are developed make nearness and closeness certain. Children aspire to stay close to their caregivers to feel safe and secure (Bretherton, 1992).

The quality of care given to children specially sensitivity and responsiveness leads to a secure (optimal) or insecure (nonoptimal) attachment. An insecure attachment in children called insecure-disorganized is related to high chances of psychopathology and develops because of unhealthy caregiving environment provided (Greenberg & Speltz, 1988). Formed attachment are internalized by children and taken forward to expect similar pattern from other important relationships. A history of consistent and sensitive care with the parent is therefore expected to lead the child to develop a model of self and others as loveable and helpful (Cicchetti & Barnet, 2000; Velderman et al., 2006).

Much work was done during that era on maternal deprivation. Neither the intense attachment of infants and young children to a mother figure nor their dramatic responses to separation can be explained by the traditional theory given by Bowlby. However, Bowlby had identified three phases of separation (from the caregiver, mostly mothers) response:

i) protest (related to separation anxiety),

ii) despair (related to grief and mourning),

iii) denial or detachment (related to defense mechanisms, especially repression).

Bowlby put forward that children experience separation anxiety when a situation activates escape and attachment behavior at the same time but an attachment figure is unavailable. Although much progress has been made in examining mother child attachment, still work needs to explore attachment in the microsystem of family relationships (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Studies done by Belsky et al. (1984), Lamb (1978), and Parke and Tinsley (1987) showed fathers too as an important attachment figure for children.

Consistent support provided to children result in secure attachment style while inconsistent support and care may result in ambivalent, avoidant, or disorganized style (Holmes, 1995).

Bandura's Social Learning Theory

Bandura believed that the conditioning and reinforcement process could not sufficiently explain all of human learning as there are learned behaviors that have not been reinforced through classical conditioning or operant conditioning (James et al., 2005). Behaviors can also be learned through observation and modeling. By observing the actions of others especially parents in early years of life, children develop new skills and acquire new information. In the presence of bad models (parents), children acquire unhealthy skills and behaviors for life (Fryling et al., 2013).

Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory

Like Piaget, Vygotsky believed that children learn through experiences (Esteban-Guitart, 2018). His sociocultural theory suggested that parents, caregivers, peers and the culture at large are responsible for developing important functions in individuals.

Vygotsky's viewed learning as a social process. Learning become merged to an individual's understanding by interacting with other (Jaramillo, 1996). This theory also introduced the concept of the zone of proximal development, which is the gap between what a person can acquire with the help and what he/she can do on his own. It is with the help of more knowledgeable others (mostly parents at early years of life) that people are able to progressively learn and increase their skills and scope of understanding and better adapt to their environment (Shute & Slee, 2015).

Studies have shown time and again that conscious parenting is the key to promote secure child parent attachment relationships and adequate parental discipline leads to less behavior dysfunction in children and ultimately in adulthood (Holmes, 1995).

Culture also plays a key role in parenting. Mothers and fathers certainly grown in different environments with different values and backgrounds impact parenting differently. Positivity plays a great amount of role in one's personality as adults. It makes an individual a confident person who can make constructive decisions throughout life (Solomon & George, 1999).

Role of Perceived Parenting in Personality Development

As discussed earlier, parents play a significant role in child's personality. The interaction between children and parents has great impact on the personality of children. The relationship and interaction pattern developed early in life serves as footprints for later life with long lasting effects (Bowlby, 1969). For children, parents are the first and prime guide and counselors. Though parents are different on the basis

how they interact with and raise their children, the way a child is raised influence what sort of person he/she will become (Bowlby, 1969).

Children develop opinions about themselves by observing the responses of important people in their life. Self-concept, self-judgment and self-image is developed by parent's opinions and feedback which serve as social mirrors. Children being neglected by parents; encounter recurrent anger, may develop psychological disruption and do not have firm personality (Hong, 2012). The patterns in which parents engage with infants closely influence their development. The social skills in children are developed by parental warmth, control, lack of conflict and monitoring. The parents displaying aggressive behavior in front of children result in psychologically disturbed hostile personalities (Utting, 2007).

As Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ, Frick 1991) is going to be utilized for the present study, therefore, parenting is taken into account based on the theoretical aspects important for the development of personality and different behaviors taken into account by the questionnaire. Five dimensions were largely responsible to play role in the development of personality and how parenting has been done. These dimension included parental involvement, positive parenting, poor monitoring/supervision, inconsistent discipline, corporal punishment and other discipline practices.

Involvement. The extent to which a parent participates in child's life as well as his/her schooling is known as parental involvement (Althoff, 2010). It can also be defined as the events taking place between teachers and a parent or between a child and his parent that influence his/her educational performance and overall development (Abdullah et al., 2011).

Six types of parental involvement are distinguished by Epstein, (2001). These six types are: involvement making decision; parenting collaboration with the community; communication; tutoring at home; and, volunteering. Family, school and community are represented as coinciding important areas of influence in Epstein's model for maximum child development (Pate & Andrews, 2006). Positive Parenting. A constant relationship between parent and a child that is comprised of teaching, leading, communicating, caring and providing all needs to the child constantly and unconditionally is positive parenting (Seay et al., 2014). In 2006, Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe defined positive parenting as the process which nurture, empower the child, provide identification and guidance to the child and enable child development by setting appropriate boundaries.

The foundational belief of positive parenting is that every child is born good and selfless. The main aim of positive parenting is to train and discipline a child in such a way that it promotes self-esteem and enhance mutual respect between parent and a child. Positive parenting convey warm, loving, thoughtful but not permissive interaction between parent and child (Godfrey, 2019). It alleviates negative effects of domestic issues that is, socioeconomic disadvantages, single parenthood, family stress, etc. on behavior of children (Pettit et al., 1997).

Many researches regarded positive parenting resulting in healthy development and outcomes are not just restrictive until childhood but leads to adulthood. Hence, positive parenting equip the child with emotional resilience (Brooks, 2005; Brooks & Goldstein, 2001).

Poor Monitoring/Supervision. Awareness, supervision and watchfulness of parents for child's activities in multiple areas such as school, friends and behavior; and discussion about the child's activities, parent's concern and awareness of those activities is regarded as parental monitoring or supervision (Dishion & McMahon, 1998). Parental monitoring is a combination of parental practices incorporating concern, awareness, supervision and communication with young child. Parent neglecting these practices result in behavior problems in children because of poorly monitored (Patterson & Yoerger, 1997).

Inconsistent Discipline. The random parental punishment for the child's misbehavior or termination of discipline in response to child's misconduct for the same reason is known as inconsistent discipline. It is one of the most common parenting behavior that can lead to maladaptive reactions in children. Inconsistent discipline can be multi-dimensional and there can be many causes such marital conflict, disturbed personalities of the parents themselves or careless parents (Sturge-Apple, & Cummings,

2004). Various studies showed that adults show overt aggressive behavior when subjected to inconsistent discipline in their childhood (Grant et al., 2005).

Aggressive behavior was seen in toddler and early school aged children who were investigated to receive inconsistent discipline (Vecchio & O"Leary, 2006). Inconsistent discipline in childhood lead to various difficulties in adulthood. Children who experienced inconsistent discipline may later in adulthood develop depression or excessive alcohol use (Holmes & Robins, 1988). Many studies noted the relation between aggressive behavior and inconsistent discipline from late childhood through adulthood. Even though adulthood is the time when people are more governed by their own reviews and perception of other, still it is seen that parents' behavior seem to have prolonged effect (Lindahl, 1998).

Corporal Punishment. Corporal punishment is the physical pain being imposed as punishment. Even though it to immediately discourage or stop the child to engage in the disruptive behavior he/she may be doing, but it causes deep rooted psychological injury. It results in development of prolonged embarrassment and fear in the child. Overtime it makes the child very stubborn (Josphine, 2019). The psychological effects of corporal punishment predisposes a child to aggressive, delinquent and violent behavior later in life. It disrupts the relationship with parents, slows down the cognitive development and result in reduced academic achievements. Corporal punishment do not show any long term positive effects (Durrant & Ensom, 2012).

Other Discipline Practices. There are various strategies parents adopt to discipline their children. Commonly used strategies are: positive discipline, gentle discipline, boundary-based discipline, behavior modification and emotion coaching. Parents use these ways to discipline their children without hurting them psychologically and physiologically (Morin, 2019).

Positive Discipline. Encouragement and praise is used in this. Children are taught by modeling the same behavior instead of punishment. Problem solving skills are incorporated in children. Positive discipline is maintained by the whole family by engaging in discussion and reasoning with children. Usually authoritative parents have been seen using this strategy (Paediatric Child Health, 2004). **Gentle Discipline.** In this parents try to teach their children by explaining to them the outcomes and consequences in order to turn the children away from particular behaviors. Children are not labelled instead taught and argued with logic (Augustine & Stifter, 2015).

Boundary-Based Biscipline. In this type of discipline, parents set rules and regulations and clearly explain to the children beforehand. Children are told about the purpose of those boundaries and what consequences can happen if they may break them (Steinberg, 2004).

Behavior Modification. Reinforcement is used to modify certain behaviors. Good behaviors are rewarded and in case of wrong behavior negative consequence is to be followed. Any protest made by the child is totally ignored by the parents (Sege & Siegel, 2018).

Emotion Coaching. Part of growing up is going through different psychological and emotional changes. Children are being talked about these changed and the ways to express and deal with them in order to develop healthy emotional expression (Sege & Siegel, 2018).

Parenting is an essential and influential factor in the development of selfconcept which lays the foundation for personality development (Chang, 2014). Individuals fostered in an environment of parental acceptance, dialogue, and affection have a strong sense of self-concept (Calafat et al., 2014). In contrast, parental coercive control reduces self-concept (Boudreault-Bouchard et al., 2013).

Self-concept

Remarkable confusion exists in both theoretical and empirical literature with regard to self-concept. Authors failed to sufficiently define and operationalize the construct of self-concept. The term self-concept has been used interchangeably throughout the literature with terms such as self-esteem, self-regard, self-image, selfperception, self-representation and self-knowledge.

Several psychologists agree that the self-concept is multi-dimensional. It is the total of opinions that individual has about him or herself (Marsh, 1990). Many others claim that self-concept has 3 parts: individual self, the relational self, and the collective self (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Sedikides & Brewer, 2001; Sedikides et al., 2011).

Bailey (2003) defined self-concept as having knowledge of oneself, about his/her own behavior, capabilities and distinctive characteristics and knows who he/she is as a person.

Baumeister (1999) defined self-concept as 'the individual's belief about himself or herself, including the person's attributes and who and what the self-is'.

Lewis (1990) suggests that the development of a concept of self has two aspects: the existential self and the categorical self. The existential self is 'the most basic part of the self-scheme or self-concept; the sense of being separate and distinct from others and the awareness of the constancy of the self'. The categorical self is 'having realized that he or she exists as a separate experiencing being, the child next becomes aware that he or she is also an object in the world' (Bee, 1992).

Carl Rogers (1959) believes that the self-concept has three different parts:

- 1. The view you have of yourself (self-image)
- 2. How much value you place on yourself (self-esteem or self-worth)
- 3. What you wish you were really like (ideal-self)

When a person is young, his self-concept is not well-developed and is under the process of self-discovery but as the individual matures his self-concept become more elaborate and organized, and gain a better idea of himself and the important things for him (Bailey, 2003).

Self-concept contains certain personality traits and qualities that distinguish one person from the other. For instance, some people are extrovert and some are introverts. A person develops interpersonal self by his relationship with his friends, peers and siblings and by socializing called collective self. Self-concept at its basic level is the belief that one has about himself and also others have about the person. The well-known question "who am I?" can only be answered through knowing about oneself (Crisp & Turner, 2010).

Beginning of the Self-Concept

The knowledge of self-concept has been present since time immemorial. It has been mentioned in the Vedic philosophy as Ahamkara, a term originating almost 3,000 years ago as well as in eastern spiritual performs such as Yoga (Kak, 2016). Rogers and Maslow played a significant role in popularizing the knowledge of selfconcept in the west. Being able to identify self as a distinct object is an important first step in the advancement of it. (Strang et al., 1978). According to Rogers, we all strives to get an ideal self. Rogers further stated that psychologically healthy individuals look within themselves for clarifications and move away from roles shaped by others (Rogers et al., 1978).

The self-concept of neurotic individuals do not match with their skills. These individuals are unsure of their experiences as valid, so they distort them either to protect themselves or to gain approval from others (Aronson et al., 2007).

Based on social identity theory, self- concept is composed of two key parts: personal identity and social identity. Personal identity is comprised of those personality traits and characteristics that make each person unique. The social identity includes the groups we belong to including our community, religion, ethnic or other groups (Turner et al., 1979). One's self-evaluation is bases on the perceptions of self and how others distinguish them. The self-concept can shift rapidly between the personal and social identity (Guimond et al., 2006).

Children and youth begin incorporating social identity into their self-concept in early school years by conforming to their peers (Trautwein et al., 2009). Through age five, interaction with peers plays an important sole on children's self-concept affecting their behavior and academic success (Gest et al., 2008). Mead (1934) stated that very often we believe about ourselves what our significant others think and say about us and then we incorporate those perceptions into our self-concept (Seymour, 1973).

Cooley (1902) explained this phenomenon by incorporating the term of 'looking glass self' to state that other individuals act as a mirror in which we see ourselves. He stated that other individuals help us to define ourselves (Seymour, 1973). Schachter and Singer (1962) related the experience of emotion to self-concept bases on two factors: physiological stimulation and cognitive interpretation of that stimulation. When individuals are uncertain of their emotional state, they interpret that stimulation by watching others in the same condition. In the same way when individuals are confused of their self, they may look out to others and develop beliefs based on their ways and perceptions.

Markus (1986) believed that self-concept is a person's total collection of cognitions about the self, including self-schemas, possible selves and other less full elaborated self-images.

Human beings have always been interested in the interpretation of themselves. The concept of self has always been of major interest to philosophers, politicians, religious leaders and psychologists. Some consider that the interest in self is the fundamental human need. Fromm (1947) regarded "the self" as the "inner nature" or "essential nature" of human beings (Hattie, 1992).

Theory of Self-concept

In 1992, a psychologist Dr. Bruce proposed various domains of self-concept. These domains are social in nature: a person's ability to interact with other, one's ability to fulfill basic needs (competence), awareness of person's own emotional state, approaches towards one's own looks, overall health and appearance, performance in school and interaction and dealing with one's own family (Bracken, 1996).

Self-concept has is said to be composed of self-image, self-esteem and idealself. Self-image is the collection of personality traits, physical features and social function. When the self-image does not match with reality, people may exaggerate it not to confront the reality. Self-esteem is the worth we attribute to ourselves. Selfesteem can be influenced by not only how we perceive ourselves but also how ourselves perceive and evaluate our personality. When we are evaluated positively by others, we develop positive self-esteem; if we constantly face criticism, we develop negative self-esteem. Ideal self is how a person wish to become. There can be huge difference between how a person is and how he/she may want to be. This is referred to as congruence and incongruence by Rogers. When the self-concept is aligned with reality it is called congruence and when it does not match with the reality it is incongruence. Incongruent self may occur in childhood when parents show conditional affection to children. Children eventually end up believing they are not loved and does not deserve to be loved. Unconditional love on the other hand give rise to congruent self (Rogers, 1959).

Self-concept Maintenance Theory

Self-concept keeps improving with individual's feeling and perceptions about self. In adulthood it gets further shaped by the person's behavior and practices. The consequences of actions and behaviors keeps on enhancing self-concept throughout life (Munoz, 2012).

Researchers claimed that humans engage in deception if given the chance. The same humans may maintain self-concept of being a trustworthy individual intact

without acknowledging their deceptive nature. If humans are mindful of the standards of trustworthiness, they are less predisposed to get into deception; but if the deceptiveness is rewarded, they are more likely to engage and stay in denial in perceiving their self-concept as trustworthy. People constantly hold their moral ethics that affect their actions and personality based on maintained self-concept through denial (Mazar et al., 2007).

Self-concept and Narcissism

Congruence between the narcissists' views of their actual self and their ideal self is based on self-discrepancy theory given by Higgins (1987). In self-discrepancy theory, the expanse of difference between one's actual self and one's ideal self may lead to psychological disturbances in individuals.

Narcissists tend to report a high degree of congruence between the conceptions of their actual self and the representation of their ideal self (Emmons, 1984; Raskin & Terry, 1988). The ideal selves of narcissists may be prone to include characteristics like aggressiveness, supremacy, competitiveness, self-love, rebelliousness and distrust. Raskin and Terry (1988) believed that the narcissist's ideal self-representation is somewhat pathological and it represents defensive form of self-esteem.

Role of Parenting in Developing Self-concept. Parents play a significant role in the development of self-concept of child. Strong self-concept protects the child against life challenges. Personality of children may reflect the behavior of parents to some extent. Parents having poor developed self-concept themselves raise children with weak self-concept. Constant abuse by parents can be another reason resulting in low selfimage, adjustment problems and other anti-social behavior problems in children (Sparkonit, 2013).

The interests, expectation and evaluations helps in developing child's selfconcept in the early childhood. Positive feedback modifies the self-concept of the child (Hattie, 1992). Upon receiving positive feedback for good behavior, children consider themselves as competent (Marion, 1999). Negative feedback result in children considering themselves as less competent. After a while, children may stop communicating when constant negative feedback is the norm at home (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1995). Use of negative labels by parents or peers also result in the development of fragile self-concept (Biddulph, 1993).

Based on Stake's (1994) work, self-concept include following aspects:

Power. Having the capability to influence and control others is known as power (Keltner, Gruenfeld & Anderson, 2003). The person who do not believe in themselves and their self-worth cannot have control over others. A meta-analysis done by correlational studies demonstrated that there is positive correlation between one's self-esteem and him emerging as a leader. Because of the reciprocal influence of self-concept, self-esteem and power, they are all related. Inhibition theory of power stated that high self-concept creates ways to gain power. In turn, variation in the intensity of power impact self-concept. High power helps gain more confidence while decreased control leads to weak self-concept (Judge et al., 2002). People having power are seen to have more material and psychological resources and face less normative and social problems (Gray, 1994). Decreased power result in less resources and susceptible to social problems (Guinote, 2006).

Powerful people are seen to be also high in other attributes be it, proudness, benevolence or unprejudiced compared to less powerful people (Galinsky et al., 2003).

Powerful people are also seen to engage more in conduct disorders. For instance, high status adults in general bully others more which has given rise to the notion that ultimately power ruins (Gonzaga et al., 2001). It has also been noted that powerful are more inclined to adopt inappropriate behavior towards women (Bargh et al., 1995).

Power and control may make individuals immoral and self-centered, however, in empathetic and moral individuals it increases benevolent conduct and altruism (Chen et al., 2001; Guinote et al., 2002).

Task Accomplishment. Task accomplishment refers to the way how successfully an individual finishes his/her tasks. It is comprised of management. People with clear self-concept are seen to work more efficiently. They are considered good planners to accomplish their goal on time. They are not distracted by obstacles. They are seen to have more focused and determined. They are aware of their responsibilities and expectations from others and themselves (Pepinsky, 1958).

Giftedness. It refers to higher abilities and accomplishments in any particular field as academics, science, arts, etc. (No Child Left Behind Act, 2004). It has also been defined as an unmistakable qualification among any skill and ability. It includes ownership and utilization of undeveloped and immediately communicated characteristic capacities called aptitudes or endowments often referred to as talent. In any field, one's capacity to an extent that put him/her among the top 10% of their peers are thought to be gifted (Gagné, 1985).

It has been seen that those who have strong clearly developed self-concept knows their abilities well and have confidence over them while talented individual who may display great capacities but with poorly developed self-concept are never able to accomplish anything significant (Renzulli, 1978).

Likeability. Likeability is another aspect to be influenced self-concept. Likeability refers to the degree a person is liked by others. With well-developed selfconcept and self-worth, a person is said to have more friendly attitude and social skills such as kindness, warmth and openness which can lead to more likeability by others (Sanders, 2006).

Vulnerability. Feeling vulnerability comes from self-concept. People with low self-concept have low self-esteem and are easy to be embarrassed and doubt themselves. They do not have enough confidence to defend themselves and are extremely self-conscious and self-critical. In order for a person to feel less vulnerable, self-concept needs to be nurtured appropriately (Stake, 1994).

Morality. Morals refers to the ethical code and conduct that guides an individual's conduct and decisions. Ethical code implies a person to incorporate what is correct not just for them but for others. Highly nurtured self-concept of an individual result in this profound quality by which individuals unquestionably have solid convictions about what is good and bad. Despite individual, cultural and religious differences that can shift morals and ethics considerably, the common notion underlying the good and evil are very much same and individual across different communities are seen to be high in moral code of conduct when their underlying self-concept is intact and unflawed (Fuqua & Newman, 2006).

As was mentioned earlier, the underlying self-concept that a person hold lays the foundation on which whole individual personality stands. Excessive self-love was also studied to arise from dysfunction developed self-concept.

Narcissism

Narcissism is a "cognitive-affective preoccupation with the self" (Westen, 1990, p. 226). The concept was derived from a mythical character *Narcissus* who fell in love with his own reflection. The term was first used in psychoanalysis and the empirical research resulted in puttinga narcissism as a personality disorder (American Psychiatric Association, 2000; Kohut, 1971; Kernberg, 1975; Millon, 1997; Ronningstam, 2005; Miller & Campbell, 2008; Levy et al., 2011).

Clinical descriptions of narcissism emphasize vanity, self-absorption, arrogance, and entitlement among many others as key personality characteristics. Narcissists are overly concerned about their self-image, obsessed about others views about themselves and often dismissive of other's needs and wants (Westen, 1990; American Psychiatric Association, 2000; Roningstam, 2005; Cain et al., 2008).

Two distinct themes to explain narcissists' emotion and inter-personal behavior are generally mentioned, narcissistic grandiosity and vulnerability (Cain et al., 2008). Narcissistic grandiosity is mentioned as overconfidence, exhibitionism, self-promotion and exploitativeness while narcissistic vulnerability refers to selfcenteredness, defensiveness, insecurity and resentfulness shown by narcissistic individuals (Wink, 1991; Miller & Campbell, 2008; Pincus & Lukowitsky, 2010).

Narcissistic personality disorder is among the four personality disorders included in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual-IV, 1994; American Psychiatric Association, 1994) under the cluster B of personality disorders. Antisocial personality disorder, borderline personality disorder and histrionic personality disorder are the other three disorders of cluster B. This cluster of personality disorders is often mentioned in personality and criminal behavior studies as a group of disorder having marked deficiencies in empathy (Rathvon & Holstrom, 1996). They have been characterized as erratic, dramatic and emotional (Miller et al., 2011; Krizan & Johar, 2012; Glover et al., 2012). Kraus and Reynolds (2001, p. 327) described the differing empathy deficits in the Cluster B personalities as follows:

• Persons with narcissistic personality disorder do not view others as important enough to be given empathy.

• People with borderline personality disorder generally consider themselves too much a victim to have any empathy to spare for others.

• And those with antisocial personality disorder cannot even conceptualize empathy.

Theories of Narcissism

Freud Psychoanalytic View of Narcissism. Havelock Ellis (1898) was the first one to use the concept of narcissism to psychology. However, Freud has done much work to explain this idea in detail as a disorder (Beranger, 1991). In 1914, an article was published by named "On Narcissism: An Introduction" in which he emphasized that narcissism is connected to a person's libido which either is directed towards one's own self (inward) or towards others (outward). He thought that when a person directs all libido inwards, it causes primary narcissism and if this libido is directed outwards, it result in excessive attachment with others and nothing is left for one's own self.

According to Freud, when a person receives affection and attachment from others too, then he/she develops a sense of satisfaction that is important for healthy personality development. These individuals develop sense of love for people or other than them and continue to build attachments throughout their lives while others focus all the love towards their own self (Freud, 1957, p. 90). Freud, however, also stated the positive qualities of narcissism to independent, energetic, confident and also mentioned to them to be aggressive (Freud, 1950).

Kernberg and Kohut. Kohut in 1966 and Kernberg in 1975 emphasize that either narcissism is a defense against feelings of abandonment and developing rage to cope with it (Kernberg, 1975) or it was a response developed as a result of inadequate understanding and idealization in childhood (Kohut, 1977). According to them, narcissism is a defensive structure of personality.

They also proposed that adult narcissism is actually deep rooted in early childhood experiences. They related disturbances in early social relationships to adult narcissistic personality. They also viewed it as a defect in the development of a healthy self (Kohut, 1966; Kernberg 1975).

Child's self is developed and matured upon interacting with others especially with mothers that provide children for role models and opportunities to develop a sense of acceptance. Empathetic parents play healthy role in child's self-development on two grounds: they serve as a mirror and encourage a realistic sense of self in children and they also reveal shortcomings in themselves that help the children to idealize their parent's image as role models with the knowledge that is more realistic and attainable.

Children brought up by parents who lack empathy grow up emotionally hungry and learn to respond with anger initially towards their parent's neglect and ultimately it became their persistent pattern for others (Kohut, 1971). Emotionally hungry children then takes shelter in those aspect of their self that elicit admiration, a defense that further results in inflated sense of self over the years. This also explains that even though narcissist may display grandiose attitude on the outside but inside carry low self-worth because of their significant others neglect at an early age.

Narcissists are seen to have history of unreliable social relationships, their grandiose views of the self generates a complicated and conflicted psychological dependence on others as they need to gain admiration from others to keep boosting their grandiose ideation (Kernberg, 1975). In 1967, Kernberg described narcissism to be of three types:

- 1. Normal adult narcissism
- 2. Normal infantile narcissism, and
- 3. Pathological narcissism

1. Normal Adult Narcissism. Normal adult narcissism is considered to have the characteristics of the typical developing individuals. It is healthy and positive state and develops due to existence of healthy relations. Individual who has experienced positive relationships in early life internalize positive mental concept of the self and also for others (Kernberg, 1975).

2. Normal Infantile Narcissism. At an early stage of development, children develop excessive dependence on outside objects in the absence of healthy human attachments and admiration. Their concept of self does not develop and integrate fully and they regulate their self-esteem based on external gratifications. In order to feel good about themselves, they need others to admire them or their possessions (Kernberg, 1975).

3. *Pathological narcissism.* In pathological narcissism the superego remains infantile and thus keeps childish values and ideals. These individuals present aberrations in self-love and super ego, expression of love to themselves and others and a deviant morals. Their self- love end up in excessive self-absorbance. They

develop grandiose ideas and fantasize excessively about success in love, beauty, happiness and power. Their self-love and worth is based entirely on the praise and admiration of others (Kernberg, 1975).

Narcissism as a Social Personality Construct

Narcissism has three fundamental characteristics. The first one is the positive self-concept (John & Robins, 1994). Narcissists have positive evaluation of themselves about their beauty, intelligence, creativity and attractiveness. (Gabriel et al., 1994). They have a sense of specialness which make them believe in heightened sense of uniqueness (Emmons, 1984) and entitlement (Campbell et al., 2004).

The second characteristic is a relative lack of interest in close, warm or intimate relationships. They place less importance on collective benefits (Campbell et al., 2002).

The third characteristic of narcissism is self-regulation. Because of inflated self-beliefs, inconsistency with reality needs to be supported and maintained. Self-enhancement, both intrapsychically and interpersonally are central to narcissists (Bradlee & Emmons 1992; Emmons, 1991; Rose & Campbell, 2004). Narcissists spend time looking for opportunities to elevate their self. The intrapsychic efforts to self-enhance include fantasizing about power and status (Raskin & Novacek, 1991) and maintaining beliefs that he/she is better than others (Campbell et al., 2002).

It is a common belief that actions speak louder than words. However, words dig down beneath the surface also ado shed great deal of light. Generally, focusing on other person's actions can give us a reality check, however, with narcissistic individuals only a reality check is not enough, it is needed to watch out their tactics used to distort reality that can be harmful. Hagopian (2014) claimed that the world at present is ruled by narcissists and psychopaths which he termed as the "Master Manipulators". Narcissistic individuals depend for their manipulation scheme largely on language. Cornell (2011) claimed that the words of narcissists reveal their predatory nature.

Among many ways that a narcissists use to control and manipulate others, triangulation, has been reported quite often. Using this tactic, a narcissist may mention someone else in order to manipulate the person present. For example, a narcissist might accidentally show a picture of someone else and subtly imply that it's a lover, hinting at the present situation and to implant an idea. Narcissists use gas lighting. For example, a back door might be found unexpectedly unlocked in the morning, or our keys might disappear only to be found by our bedside. The narcissist might then hint the person is getting forgetful and since we believe him and imagine that our memory is going. The person start to doubt him/herself and become disorientate. When the person is disorientated, he/she will cling to those he can trust, and in this case, it is the narcissist. The person start relying on his decision-making abilities instead of our own. More and more control will be handed over to the narcissist to control daily life.

Narcissists use projection. They project all their faults onto others. The narcissists randomly switches between nice and nasty, creating a trauma bond (thought to be due to chemical changes in the brain) that keeps the person attached to him despite all his behaviors very much like Stockholm syndrome. The trauma bond feels like a magnetic, hypnotic yearning attracting the person back to him.

In psychopathic narcissistic politicians, the trauma-bond might be created in citizens by creating fear (e.g. threats from enemies, fear of imminent war) mixed with good times (e.g. scientific achievements) which probably partially explains why President Narcissists can become unaccountably fascinating to so many people despite growing public awareness of their complete lack of conscience. Other contributing factors might include cognitive dissonance, betrayal blindness which all mess up our perception of reality.

Narcissists isolate their victims. They smear the person behind their backs so that other people distrust them. They persuade their victims to move away from family and friends in order to cut down their support networks. In many case studies it was revealed that narcissist persuaded their partners to leave their jobs so that they can have more time together only to be left alone later, persuaded that doctors or therapists cannot be trusted and persuaded that the only source of reliable information are the narcissist him/herself. When the main source of information is the narcissist, people are much easier to be controlled.

They also drain their victim's finances. For example, they spend lavishly on presents for their partner or for their family with presents that are actually meant for them with their partner's money and they persuade their partners to invest money in businesses that constantly need more investment. By draining finances they make their victim more powerless and more dependent on them. By creating a constant financial crisis they leave their victims feeling worn out, stressed and desperate and therefore easier to manipulate.

Narcissists use the pity play. For instance, they may claim to be ill, or to have a crazy ex who makes their life miserable, they claim to be working all the hours, they claim to be misunderstood; they look sorrowful, hurt, pained and in suffering. When we feel sympathy for someone our defenses come down and again we can be manipulated.

Some of the other tactics used by them are analogies and metaphors, silent treatment, stalking, shaming. Narcissists typically present themselves as friendly, likeable, fun, open, truthful and honest in order to gain our trust whilst mixing in lies and subtle disinformation. They also create doubt and confusion until we do not know who or what to believe and undermine and discredit those they see as a threat with their subtle innuendos and suggestions (smear campaigns).

Narcissism and Anger

Freud (1932) was the first to suggest that narcissists' self-preoccupation leads them to aggress against others. Other psychoanalysts also suggested after their clinical observations that narcissistic self-absorption can fuel a vicious cycle of hostility, shame and reactive aggression (Alexander, 1938; Saul, 1947; Jacobson, 1964).

Kohut (1972) described a precarious condition where frustrations of a narcissistically perceived reality and a vulnerable sense of self result in dejection and shame that fuel anger, resentment, and vindictiveness as narcissistic rage. He also suggested narcissistic rage to be immature, dysfunctional, disproportionate and misdirected.

Other theorists stated that narcissistic individuals exhibit patterns of rage, instigated by rejection that opens childhood wounds or events that contradict their sense of specialness (Kernberg, 1975; Millon, 1997).

The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) states that narcissistic individuals react to interpersonal rebuffs with "disdain, rage or defiant counterattack" (American Psychiatric Association, 1994, p. 659).

Anger and Hostility. Narcissistic rage is defined to be pervasive, intense and ill-directed anger. Their angry responses to even minor provocations are disproportionate and unfocused. As Lewis (1992) puts it, "rage is anger out of control

anger" (p. 153). Numerous psychoanalyst linked threats to narcissistic self-views, that is, narcissistic injuries to intense anger and hostility (Freud, 1921; Alexander; 1938).

Shame and Inferiority. It is also believed that narcissistic rage is infuriated by inferiority and shame (Kohut, 1972; Broucek, 1982). Shame considered as being the most devastating emotion involves feelings of being exposed or devalued for one's deficiencies (Smith et al., 2002; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Researchers have noted the pain of shame to be so intense that it may often go consciously unacknowledged, transforming into feelings of depression or anger at sources of shame (Alexander, 1938; Lewis, 1971). Anger towards others that shamed us may be initially adaptive as it can help us to forget shame-based pain and put the blame for painful feelings on others rather than ourselves in order to make it tolerable (Kohut, 1972; Lewis, 1992).

Empirical research also suggests shame-prone individuals are more likely to experience anger and to engage in destructive behaviors as a result (Tangney et al., 1992; Tangney et al., 1996; Harper & Arias, 2004; Bennett et al., 2005).

Reactive and Displaced aggression. Narcissistic rage also lead to disproportionate and unfocused acts of aggression in response to provocation. These aggressive behaviors are expected to be reactive rather than proactive and is driven by anger, relatively spontaneous and focused on harming the other individual rather than deliberate and calculating (Crick & Dodge, 1994; Anderson & Bushman, 2002). When rage is aggravated by feelings of shame or inferiority, narcissistic individuals are thought to engage in dysfunctional aggressive acts.

Narcissists' increased anger and suspicions are generally exacerbate in the presence of minor provocations (Miller et al., 2003). Angry ruminations also may undermine self-control suggesting an additional level of unpredictability in aggression among the wounded narcissists (Denson et al., 2011).

Every individual experiences emotion of anger in a series of levels occurring one after the other, however, narcissists experience and express anger much multiplied in intensity.

Narcissistic Rage Cycle: The 7 levels of Anger

Narcissists feel grandiose and superior to others. They may demand special treatment and honor even if they have done nothing to earn it. If a narcissist feel that someone or an event in their life is threatening or may injure their self-esteem or self-

worth, their anger quickly turns into rage. Their rage seems to be caused by any threat to their ego, and the ensuing rage acts to erase that threat and maintain their selfimage and feelings of superiority. Rage is a primitive, immature child-like expression of thwarted needs and actual or perceived invalidation. For most people, anger goes through several levels of emotion, each level requiring a certain level of self-control (Jewell, 2020). However, according to psychiatrist Adam Blatner, narcissists do not go through the seven stages like other normal people do. The smallest noncompliance will send the narcissist to the last stage of rage without going through other levels. To narcissists, rage is a perfectly appropriate response when they experience any threat to their view of self (Blatner, 2009). People with narcissistic personality disorder may have an underlying feeling of insecurity and feel unable to handle anything they perceive as criticism. The seven levels of anger are:

Figure 2

The Seven Levels of Anger

Stress: Feeling angry subconsciously but not demonstrating it.

Anxiety: Anger shown through subtle clues. Agitation: Displeasure is shown without blame.

Irritation: A little more displeasure to elicit a response.

Frustration: Anger with a scowl or harsh words.

Anger: Loudness of speech and expression.

Rage: Losing temper and getting into a rage; aggression.



Anger

For a long time, relationship between anger and personality has been neglected in empirical research in spite of the considerable amount of research on personality factors and anger (Eysenck, 1987; Eysenck & Gudjonsson, 1989; Kruger et al., 1994).

Anger can be defined as a normal and often functional response to aversive states consisting of both cognitive and physiological components (Novaco, 1997). It only becomes problematic when its expression becomes a frequent, inappropriate or disproportionate reaction to events (McDougal et al., 1991; Towl & Crighton, 1996). Both anger (Baron & Hartnagel, 1997) and aggression (defined as hostile, injurious or destructive behavior) (Eysenck & Gudjonsson, 1989) have been shown to predict general offending behavior (Buss & Perry, 1992; Novaco, 1994, 1997).

Theories of Anger

Researchers struggle to understand the nature of anger and to explain why some individuals frequently experience anger while other individuals hardly ever become angry (Potegal & Novaco, 2010).

Dispositional anger has been viewed as a stable biological trait when personality structure is studied (Zentner & Bates, 2008). Psychologists utilized a social-cognitive perception to highlight that human variation in anger reflects individual differences in interconnected thought processes (Wilkowski & Robinson, 2010). More specifically, it is a componential evaluation that describes how anger arises from the cognitive evaluations of situations (Wranik & Scherer, 2010).

Kuppens, et al. 2008 argued that anger arises from both appraisal and nonappraisal processes. Researchers presents a motivational approach to anger that emphasizes on the goals of anger experiences (Carver & Harmon-Jones, 2009). Social interactionism claimed that anger is a subjective social paradigm rather than an objective being (Averill 1993). It has also been argued in the literature that to precisely define anger as an emotion; it is important to differentiate it from other emotions (Lewis, 2010).

Researchers at the Center for Evolutionary Psychology have researched anger to be a behavior regulating program that was built into the neural architecture of the human species over evolutionary time. The recalibrational theory of anger (Sell, 2011) recommended that the anger plays role in decision making (Tooby, 2008). Anger is produced by a neurocognitive program caused by natural selection to use bargaining strategies to resolve conflicts of interest in favor of the angry individual

It has been seen that stronger and powerful men and attractive women are more anger prone, feel more permitted to better treatment and are more successful in conflicts of interest. They also more strongly use of force to resolve fights. Anything that increases the social bargaining power of a person increases the anger proneness and feeling of power (Tooby, 2008).

Stronger men had a greater history of fighting than weaker men and they more strongly accept the efficiency of force to resolve conflicts whether they are interpersonal or international conflicts. Stronger men preferred greater use of military force in international conflicts also proved that the internal logic of anger program reflects the ancestral settlement characteristics of a small scale social world rather than rational assessments of inducements in large populations (Tooby, 2008).

Purpose of the Study

The general aim of the study is to further our understanding of the roles of selfconcept and narcissistic personality traits in the expression of anger and how parenting has played its role in the development of these traits, which in turn, may provide insights regarding the treatment and amelioration of aggressive and violent behavior. The aim also is to highlight and in turn reduce the reinforcement of narcissistic traits that can develop in an individual's personality due to certain parental practices.

Research studies being conducted while offering few definitive answers raised a number of interesting issues and questions to be pursued, as how narcissistic traits develops in an individual and how does it have anything to do with the parenting practices a child is exposed to while growing up. Also, the literature does not suggest clearly the role played by narcissism on unstable self-concept of an individual. The current study finding may reflect that individuals scoring higher on narcissism and low on self-concept might have a correlation that needs to be further explored and by working on the weak elf-concept of an individual, narcissistic traits might also be weakened. Previous researches also have mixed findings on if narcissistic individuals are less likely to be impulsive and aggressive to the extent of being violent. This again speaks to the potential multidimensional nature of narcissism and the possibility of subtypes of narcissism, that is, lack of negative affect as per Millon (1982) versus fragile inflated ego as per Kernberg (1976) and Kohut (1976). Further, this research could also aid in clarifying the construct of self-concept generally. Therapeutic interventions and counseling can be more focused and impactful if the reasons and associations can be highlighted clearly between narcissistic traits display, their expression of anger and unstable self-concept.

Narcissists wear masks, pretending to have qualities such as love, compassion, loyalty, honesty, guilt, empathy, a conscience, self-insight and compassion. They mirror other individuals, reflecting back to them their own personality, needs, fears and desires and thus making themselves very likeable. When we like someone our defenses come down and we can be manipulated. This research is going to highlight if parenting behaviors are reflected in adult narcissistic individuals which will explain if these individuals pretend these qualities as they were exposed to parents lacking them, hence developing them as their personality traits.

Narcissists are very subtle. They can manipulate those around them with a subtle pained look, a thoughtful pause, a quiet sigh, an understanding comment, a carefully chosen phrase, a suggestive word, etc. They hack into operating system of other people's brains, the language that they use. They use twisted logic, suggestive words, misleading statements, lies and deception to reframe the reality. They redefine words so that, for example, loyalty becomes clinginess, they get pedantically precise about what they actually meant creating confusion and throwing others off-balance and they use emotional words that mean nothing to them (for example 'I love you') to get an emotional reaction out of others that they can then manipulate. They damage the people deeply and yet are not accountable. Over the years, much work has been done on the emotional trauma the people have to go through after being victimized by the narcissists. This research is going to shed the light and increase the awareness to be vigilant about those with such traits around us and be cautious of the potential damage that can be done, emotionally, psychologically and in some instances even physically.

Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated:

- **1.** What are the research trends and gaps among parenting, narcissism and anger in previous researches?
- **2.** How parenting and its sub scales are related to self-concept, narcissism and anger among adults?
- **3.** How self-concept is related to narcissism and anger among adults?

- 4. How is narcissism and anger related among adults?
- **5.** Does parenting and its sub scales mediate the relationship between self-concept and narcissism among adults?
- 6. Does parenting and its sub scales mediate the relationship between self-concept and anger among adults?
- **7.** Does parenting and its sub scales mediate the relationship between narcissism and anger among adults?
- 8. Does age moderate the effect of parenting and self-concept among adults?
- **9.** Does age moderate the relationship between self-concept and narcissism among adults?
- 10. Does age moderate the effect of narcissism and anger among adults?
- **11.** Do male and female adults score differently on parenting, self-concept, narcissism and anger?
- **12.** Is there any difference between working adults and students parenting, self-concept, narcissism and anger?
- **13.** Is there any difference between early adults on parenting, self-concept, narcissism and anger as compared to early middle age and late middle age?

Significance of the Study

Current research will pave the way for further empirical evidence along the current lines to improve understanding of how parenting affects the development of maladaptive self-concept that lead to the development of narcissistic traits; effective parenting strategies can be further explored and emphasized to promote development of healthy self-concept before unchecked narcissism and extreme anger may dwell into a society driven by selfishness and lacking empathy.

Limitations

• Despite the limitation of cross-sectional data which may produce model fit estimates that can be overestimates, underestimates, or at best only approximate estimates of fit, the work will contribute to the growing literature on parenting, self-concept, narcissism and anger.

• Longitudinal studies in the future can give us estimates in the context of proper temporal ordering of variables.

• Also, the present research rely on retrospective accounts of perceived parenting, a common practice in the literature (Horton et al., 2006; Otway & Vignoles, 2006; Watson et al., 1992) but there is likelihood of inadvertent errors in memory recollection.

Definitions of Terms

Perceived Parenting

Parental involvement with child by parents known as parenting is measured by scores obtained by adults on Alabama Parenting Questionnaire developed by Frick (1991). High scores refer to ineffective perceived parental practices (Frick, 1991). *Narcissism*

Narcissism, a personality trait generally conceived of as excessive self-love is measured by scores obtained by adults on The Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) developed by Raskin and Hall (1979). High scores indicate the presence of more narcissistic personality traits (Raskin & Hall, 1979).

Self-concept

A self-evaluative connotation, an all-encompassing and important dimension in personality functioning is measured by scores obtained on Six Factor Self Concept Scale (*SFSCS*) developed by Stake in 1994. High scores indicate the presence of strongly developed self-concept.

Anger

Anger, a negatively toned emotion, subjectively experienced as an aroused state of antagonism toward someone or something perceived to be the source of an aversive event is measured by scores obtained on Dimensions of Anger Reactions Revised (DAR-R) developed by R.W. Novaco in 2004. High scores on the scale reflect high dispositional anger (Forbes, et al., 2004; Novaco, 1986; 1994; 2000).

CHAPTER II Literature Review

Theoretical Framework

Despite a lot of work been done in the social and personality context on narcissism, it is a complex problem that is yet to find a solution in the 21st century (MacLaren & Best, 2013; Zhang et., 2015; Wright et al., 2017). Elevated narcissism in adults often sets up a cascade of interpersonal and mental health challenges reinforcing the need to understand its concomitants. Experiences of maltreatment and different perceived parenting styles have been implicated (Schie et al., 2020). Previous theorizing by clinical psychologists suggests that adult's narcissism may be related to parenting practices (Kernberg, 1975; Kohut, 1977), however, lack of consensus surrounding the conceptualization of narcissism can be found.

Horton et al. (2006) studied parenting and healthy and unhealthy narcissism in depth and found parental warmth to be positively associated with both while psychological control of parents was positively significant only with unhealthy narcissism. The less the parents monitored, the higher the narcissism scores tended to be. These findings were also consistent with the study carried by Winner and Nicholson (2018). Study conducted by Watsson et al. (1992) on Baumrind's (1966) authoritative, permissive and authoritarian parenting styles showed that perceived parental authoritativeness associates with less narcissistic maladjustment, parental permissiveness associates with immature grandiosity and authoritarianism correlates with inadequate idealization.

Otway and Vignoles (2006) studied different psychotherapeutic theories that provide contrasting explanation of adult narcissism resulting either from parental coldness or excessive parental admiration during early years of life. They found that recollections of parental coldness and excessive parental admiration predicted both overt and covert narcissism. The effects of each when modeled together was stronger than separately. Results demonstrated that the paradoxical combination of grandiosity and fragility in adult narcissism may be explained by combination of childhood experiences. These results are also consistent with the literature backing parental overindulgence and unchecked affection leading to narcissism (Brummelman et al, 2015; Capron, 2004).

Much of the older literature related the parenting characteristics of mothers to associate with narcissism but comparatively fewer studies were done on the role of the fathers; however, that is changing gradually with studies taking father figures and their parenting impact into consideration (Nurmi & Aonula, 2005; Kakihara et al., 2010). Similarly, much research has been done on narcissism and self-esteem while less work has been done in regard to self-concept (Ryckmann, 1993; Chang et al., 2003). The present study aims to posit that parenting cannot directly affect narcissistic development without impacting and developing the pertinent inflated, and unstable self-concept first, which then incite narcissistic traits, the assertion made after sifting several of the studies done on narcissism and self-esteem (Watson et al., 2010; Schie et al, 2020; Brummelman, 2018).

Kauten and Barry (2014) stated that individuals with pathological narcissism reflect their inconvenience to their surroundings when they encounter unpleasant situations or if their expected value is not given appropriately. Behaviors like extreme anger, antisocial behaviors or aggression are some of the ways they use to communicate their inconvenience (Aydin & Akgun, 2014).

Novaco (1975) in his research asserted that outwardly expressed anger may be satisfying as it restores a sense of control, rectify the injustice done to the person or changes the behavior of others. Many theories starting from psychoanalytic to contemporary theories of social personality psychology investigated the relationship between narcissism and anger, rage and aggression starting from early life years (Freud 1932; Alexander 1938; Saul 1947; Jacobson, 1964; Krizan & Johar 2015). Multiple empirical studies have reported these relationships (Twenge & Campbell, 2003; Martinez et al. 2008; Okada, 2010; Reidy et al. 2008). Early research findings associated grandiose narcissism with aggression (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998).

Related Research

Various negative behaviors such as externalization actions (Bushment et al., 2016; Cutulli et al., 2013; Mahajan et al., 2010, Ormel et al., 2005), school gangs (Issurdat, 2011), bullying (Yen, 2010), manipulation, violence and aggressive (World

Health Organization, 2004) have become a concern of the world community. Individual behavior problems cannot be separated from the influence of parenting (Somer, 2010; Hann & Borek, 2001). The family is the foremost environment in terms of behavioral development (O'Connor & Scott, 2007; Somer, 2010). Problematic families, that is, lack of parental warmth and concern for children, harsh and inconsistent disciplinary parenting are identified as risk factors for the development of deviant social behavior problems of adolescents and adults (Hann & Borek, 2001).

Research on the effects of parental care on behavior and personality output of adults has been widely carried out in various countries and is acknowledged for its correlation. Study conducted by Singh and Udainiya (2009) showed significant effects of the type of parenting and gender on self-concept. The results of Tam and his colleagues' research showed that authoritative parenting has a positive effect on adolescent development continuing till adulthood (Tam et al., 2012). Another research (Abrheim, 2014) showed that the style and practice of parenting and self-concept are closely related in teen psychosocial development. In spite of consensus on the effects of childcare practices on identity and personality development, many questions about what affects adolescents and adults' behavior patterns in each family remain unanswered. Especially the issue of variability in the effects of parenting as a function of the child's cultural background for the self-concept development (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). This phenomenon encourages the need to explore how parenting can help adults build their self-concept in early years of their lives according to their potential.

Interest regarding parenting styles has stimulated discussion over the best methods of parenting across all cultures (Taub, 2008). Helicopter parents (those who hover over their children) and snow plow parents (those who push obstacles out of their children's way) were much debated on for how best to parent. More than four decades worth of research on parenting styles demonstrates that each style has different impact and outcomes for children (Baumrind, 1971). At a time when parents are seeking the most effective ways to be involved in the lives of their children, examining their parenting styles and promoting guiding parenting has become a prerequisite (Taub, 2008).

Parenting affect children in the areas of behavior, risk-taking, mental health, academic achievement and emotional development (Baumrind, 1971; Chen et al.,

1997; Ishak et al., 2012; Trinkner et al., 2012). Baumrind (1971) did much research on the three parenting styles as patterns of parental authority: authoritarian, authoritative and permissive parenting. These parenting styles are differentiated from one another based on their levels of demandingness and responsiveness (see figure 3) to children (Baumrind, 1991; Ishak et al., 2012; Martinez & Garcia, 2008).

Figure 3: Parenting Styles Differentiated By Level of Demandingness and Responsiveness.

S	Demandingness	
Responsiveness	High	Low
	Guiding Parenting	Permitting
	(Authoritative)	Parenting (Permissive)
	Controlling	Neglecting
	Parenting (Authoritarian)	Parenting (Rejecting)

Although past studies have indicated guiding parenting to be most effective parenting style; research has neglected to describe where the line is drawn between controlling parenting and guiding parenting and between guiding parenting and permitting parenting (Baumrind, 1991; Ishak et al., 2012; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Milevsky et al., 2007) which needs to be probed in future researches.

Controlling parenting also known as authoritarian parenting is characterized by a high level of demandingness and a low level of responsiveness (Baumrind, 1971; Ishak et al., 2012; Luyckx et al., 2011; Miller et al., 2012). Controlling parents are strict with their children and emphasize discipline over nurturing (Miller et al., 2012) but are detached and unreceptive to their children's needs (Trinkner et al., 2012). They assert high levels of control, set rules and restrictions (Baumrind, 1971; Chen et al., 1997; Greening et al., 2010; Miller et al., 2012), have high demands (Greening et al., 2010) and are rejecting of their children (Chen et al., 1997). Controlling parenting is related to less positive adjustment for children (McKinney et al., 2011). Children with controlling parents are less likely to engage in exploratory behaviors or those that challenge them as compared to children with parents of other styles (Chan & Chan, 2005; Kang & Moore, 2011). Guiding parenting, also known as authoritative parenting, is characterized by a high level of demandingness and a high level of responsiveness (Baumrind, 1991; Ishak et al., 2012; Luyckx et al., 2011; Miller et al., 2012). Guiding parenting uses a mixture of controlling but not restrictive practices with positive encouragement for autonomy and independence towards children (Baumrind, 1971). Guiding parents recognize and nurture the uniqueness of their children (Ishak et al., 2012) and are accepting of their children (Bronte-Tinkew et al., 2006; Miller et al., 2012).

Guiding parenting results in more positive outcomes than other parenting styles (Baumrind, 1971; Trinkner et al., 2012). These positive outcomes are evident in self-concept development, behavior, risk-taking, mental health and academic achievement. Guiding parenting has the most advantageous effect on children's behavior compared to other parenting styles. Guiding parenting is negatively correlated with behavioral problems in children (Kaufmann et al., 2000). They are negatively correlated with externalizing problems such as aggression, attention problems and hyperactivity (Rinaldi & Howe, 2012; Tan et al., 2012; Trinkner et al., 2012). Children with guiding parents are also described as more adventurous than children from other parenting styles (Baumrind, 1971; Chan & Chan, 2005).

Permitting parenting also known as permissive parenting is characterized by low levels of demandingness as well as low levels of responsiveness (Baumrind, 1991; Robinson, et al., 1995). Permitting parenting is non-controlling, non-demanding and warm. Permitting parents are responsive to their children but not demanding; they behave in a non-punitive and affirmative manner toward their children (McKinney et al., 2011; Miller et al., 2012).

Researchers sometimes differentiates between two types of permitting parenting: indulging parenting in which parents exhibit low levels of demandingness with high levels of responsiveness and neglecting parenting in which parents engage in low levels of demandingness and low levels of responsiveness (Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Milevsky et al., 2007; Rhee et al., 2006; Rinaldi & Howe, 2012).

Male children with permitting parents score high on behavioral tendencies including hostility, resistance and dominance. Female children with permitting parents are more resistive and less independent than female children of guiding parents (Baumrind, 1971). Also, children of permitting parents exhibit negative behavioral outcomes including internalizing, externalizing, attention problems and disorders (Rhee et al., 2006; Rinaldi & Howe, 2012). The permitting parenting style has negative effects on the behavior of children, their development of self-concept including resistance, hostility and lack of social responsibility (Rhee et al., 2006; Rinaldi & Howe, 2012).

Indulging parents on the other hand are tolerant, warm and accepting. They exercise little authority, make few demands behaviorally and allow considerable self-regulation by the children (Glasgow et al., 1997; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Indulging parents offer support to their children with the absence of strict control (Huver et al., 2010). They avoid confrontation and regard issues as belonging to their children's personal domain (Jutengren & Palmerus, 2006).

Maccoby and Martin (1983) added the neglecting parenting style as a subtype of permitting parenting sometimes referred to as rejecting parenting to the model presented by Baumrind (1971). Neglecting parenting also called as uninvolved parenting is low on both control and affiliation with low levels of demandingness as well as responsiveness (Baumrind, 1991; Glasgow et al., 1997; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Rhee et al., 2006; Speirs-Neumiester & Finch, 2006). Neglecting parents let their children do whatever they want without getting involved (Jutengren & Palmerus, 2006) nor do they guide, monitor or support their children (Adalbjarnardottir & Hafsteinsson, 2001). Indulging parents on the other hand are committed to their children. Neglecting parents are preoccupied with their own troubles and are not engaged in parental responsibilities (Glasgow et al., 1997).

Like many other areas, parenting style is also not without nature or nurture debate. Maccoby (2000) remarked through his research that many studies place too much emphasis on the effects of parenting style and children's psychological outcomes (McLaughlin & Shields, 1986). Genetic factors are also thought to be important influence in parent child relationships (Ember & Ember, 2005). The links between the quality of parent-child relationships and children's psychological adjustment are in part mediated by genetic influences. Among many other factors, the child's temperament also clearly demonstrates that a 'one style fits all' approach to parenting is not optimal (O' Connor & Scott, 2007).

Developmental psychologists argue that relationship between parenting style and specific adult behavior cannot be guaranteed by studying only one child in a family (Buchmann & Dalton, 2002; Henderson & Mapp, 2002; Patrikakou et al., 2005). For instance, if the siblings of age 8, 10- and 13 are exposed to the same parenting styles and exhibit similar outcomes then researchers may conclude that particular parenting style is related to specific behavioral outcomes (Epstein & Sheldon, 2002; McNeal, 1999; Sheldon & Epstein, 2005). On the nature (genetic) side of the debate, behavioral geneticists tend to be more interested in inherited, dispositional factors in children (Campbell & Glasgow, 2010). Researchers try to look for differences in children's outcomes despite being raised in a similar environment (Stein & Thorkildsen, 1999). Like environmentalists, it is possible that behavioral geneticists also overstate the effects of genes on developmental outcomes while underestimating the impact of the environment on behavior (Sui-Chu & Willms, 1996; VanVoorhis, 2003).

Many studies showed that parental involvement is beneficial for children belonging to all age groups (Cox, 2005; Desforges & Abouchaar, 2003; Eccles & Harold, 1993; Epstein, 2001). Studies conducted by many psychologists showed that the more the families are involved, the more student's achievement increases (Chavkin, 1993; Epstein, 2001; Henderson & Berla, 1994; Walberg, 1984).

Some of the attributes of positive parenting mentioned in the literature of positive parenting are nurturing, loving, caring, leading, guiding, empowering, consistency, sensitivity to child's needs, non-violent, emotional security, open communication, warmth, reward achievement and empathy (Rodrigo et al., 2012).

Many of the results of cross-sectional and longitudinal studies showed poor monitoring to be related to antisocial behavior (Patterson et al., 1992). Adults with behavioral problems may show strong associations with deviant peers and if parental monitoring is low, the disruptive behaviors may increase more (Smetana & Daddis, 2002). Adults are also seen to indulge in tobacco, alcohol and substance use in the presence of poor monitoring (Barnes & Farrell, 1992). Adults and adolescents with poor supervision show more depressive symptoms, reduced self-esteem and weak academic performance (Hartos & Power, 2000). Problem behaviors are seen to be reduced by improving parental monitoring (Dishion et al., 2003).

Dysfunctional families having poor attachment between parents and children, lack of boundaries, inconsistent discipline are also linked with poor supervision (Shumaker, 1997). At early years some parents may neglect to supervise children and the outcomes of that may show up later in adolescence or adulthood (Cassel & Bernstein, 2006; Lyons-Ruth, & Jacobvitz, 1999).

In a research, Lengua and Kovacs (2005) recruited third and fifth graders and their parents to report the inconsistent behavior children receive. After a year, same study sample displayed more aggressive and deviant behavior by those students who reported to receive inconsistent discipline by parents last year (Lengua & Kovacs, 2005). Another study done on children of age 9-11 displayed conduct problems because of inconsistent discipline (Barry et al., 2009; Gonzales et al., 2000; Hill et al., 2003). Other researches also showed that inconsistent discipline can result in conduct disorder, eating disorders or reduced academic performance (Brody et al., 2003; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Patterson, 1976; Ross & Gill, 2002).

Corporal punishment is believed to result in adjustment problems in the future. Eighty eight meta-analysis researches on corporal punishment predicted that it is linked with developing aggression, antisocial behavior, delinquency, psychological disturbances and distorted relationships and internalization of morality. The only positive impact was found to be immediate obedience from the child (Gershoff, 2002). Children who undergo corporal punishment shows cognitive problems and lower IQ (Berlin, 2009; Straus, 2009).

In a study done by Graziano (1996), it was reported that 85% of the European Americans that belong to middle-class feel guilt, anger and anxiety when they deal with the misbehavior of a child (Graziano, 1996). In another study, American mothers reported that they punished their child wrongly in anger because of misreading the situation correctly (Straus, 1996). Corporal punishment changes the way child process and store the situation (Rohner, 1986). When a child is being corporally punished, he/she register this information as a solution to similar social situations and show same aggression and violent behavior when they come across similar scenario in future; overtime their aggressive behavior get generalized to every situation with minor displeasure or comfort (Larzelere & Kuhn, 2005). The cognitive biasness that develops in children aggravate their aggression (Lansford et al., 2009; Weiss et al., 1992).

Anthropologists are of the view that certain cultures and religious groups support corporal punishment as means to correct the child (Gershoff et al., 1999). Corporal punishment by parents and behavioral outcomes of children is a reciprocal system in which child's misconduct results in physical punishment and that further infuriate behavioral problems, thus the cycle continues (Lansford et al., 2011; Patterson et al., 1992).

It is also believed that certain personality traits such as narcissism increase the likelihood of an individual acting aggressively and inflict violence against others (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). Self-concept also surfaced as a candidate in the etiology of aggression. The structural variable of self-concept, that is, self-esteem has generally been precluded as direct cause of aggression (Baumeister et al., 1996), self-complexity (the degree to which certain aspects of the self are differentiated from other aspects of the self) remains a potential variable in understanding individual differences in aggressive behavior (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Festinger, 1954; Shavelson et al., 1976).

Positive self-concept is linked with well-adjusted individuals with better psychological health and a high school achievement while negative self-concept is linked with school failure and anxiety (Brooks, 1984; Keltikangas-Järvinen, 1990).

Several factors such as parental education, continuous disappointment, unhappiness, etc. effects the development of one's self-concept (Bong & Clark, 1999; Shavelson & Bolus, 1982; Shavelson et al., 1976). Bracken (1992) identified six specific domains related to self-concept including: social "the skill to cooperate with others", competence "ability to see basic requirements", affect "consciousness of emotional states", physical "feelings about appearances, health, physical condition and general appearance", academic "achievement or disappointment in school", and family "how well one purposes within the family unit" to influence personality and behavior (Tan &Yates, 2007; Weiten, Dunn, & Hammer, 2014; Yahaya & Ramli, 2009).

Ziller et al. (1969) believed that self-concept evolve within social reality. Social reality they stated is a combination of social-acceptance and self-acceptance. Zimbardo (1977) too noted the social aspect of self-concept. He explained it as "one's self-worth as based on an individual's perception of how he compares to others" (p. 154). Self-concept also play an important role in assertive communication. Alberti and Emmons (1970) proposed that a positive correlation exists between assertiveness and self-concept. This relationship was also checked by Percell et al. (1974) who found that assertive individuals exhibit a higher level of self-acceptance. After assertiveness training was given to those scoring low, participants scored high on selfacceptance measures.

Throughout literature debate exists between the relationship of self-concept and anger. Some researchers showed less developed self-concept to be modest predictor of future antisocial behavior (Heaven, 1996) while other researches showing great impact of self-concept on antisocial behavior (Baumeister et al., 1996; Gluek & Gluek, 1950).

Vermeiren et al. (2004) examined the differential effect of self-concept on perceived family acceptance, academic competence, peer popularity and personal security. It was found that in a Belgian community sample, self-concept showed differential relationships to property and violent offending. In males more so than in females, high peer popularity was associated with violent offending. Vermeiren et al. (2004) explained relationship develops in youth having low esteem in most areas of their life and as a result they develop relationships with peers who serve to enhance their self-concept. This behavior tends to increase more as they reach adulthood (Linville, 1985).

Self-concept enhances because of positive emotions like enthusiasm, happiness, and amusement (Berdahl & Martorana, 2006). Self–reports of strength, self-assuredness and positive temperament also shows underlying high self-concept (Keltner et al., 2003; Watson & Clark, 1997).

While high socio-economic status corresponds with expanded positive effect, lower status result in negative feelings such as blame and melancholy. When studied these individuals also display poorly developed self-concept (Smith & Trope, 2006). On the other hand, Goodwin et al. (2000) stated that high status individuals show frequent thoughtfulness and stereotyping towards others even though their selfconcept is adequately developed while low status individuals are less stereotyped (Hecht et al., 1998; Overbeck & Park, 2001).

Rani et al. (1989) examined self-concept in offenders and non-offenders from India. Non-offenders reported more positive self-concept both personal and social. Within offender groups' arsonists, murderers and cheats reported higher private and social self-concepts than sex-offenders, burglars and individuals convicted of assault.

Patel and Kshatriya (2011) studied the personality traits and self-concept among team and individual game players. Study was conducted on 50 national level male players. Insignificant difference among individual and team players on selfconcept and personality.

Othman and Leng (2011) studied self-concept, intrinsic motivation and selfdetermination with academic achievement. The sample of the study was 200 students from Malaysia. Study results showed significant correlation between self-concept, intrinsic motivation and self-determination of the participants.

Parmar (2011) compared the self-concept among 200 obese boys and girls. Significant differences in the findings were reported between obese boys and girls on self-concept. Boys were found to have poorer moral and educational self-concept domains than girls.

Kaur et al. (2009) investigated academic achievement and home environment as correlates to self-concept among 300 participants. Self-concept and academic achievement were seen to be positively correlated to each other. Self-concept also positively related to home environment components of protectiveness, conformity, reward and nurturance. While social isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection by parents were having significant negative correlation with self-concept.

Narcissism and self-concept first studied together by Campbell (1999) as cited in Foster et al. (2003) in a meta-analysis of researches found narcissism to correlate positively with measures of high self-concept. An inflated, grandiose evaluation of self is a central feature of the narcissistic personality. It also shows poorly developed self-concept to be associated with a range of mental health issues with increased interpersonal difficulties, anger and aggression.

Emmons (1984) found narcissism to be positively correlated with self-concept, self-esteem, extraversion, dominance and independence and negatively with abasement, self-ideal discrepancy, neuroticism and social anxiety. Some aspects of narcissism are also seen to be associated with high self-concept and may not be maladaptive. Emmons (1984) concluded there may be a curvilinear relationship between the self-evaluation (concept) component of narcissism and adjustment.

Narcissism, a dimensional personality trait consists of a grandiose self-concept as well as behaviors intended to maintain this self-concept in the face of reality (Emmons, 1984; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). Distinct from Narcissistic Personality Disorder (American Psychiatric Association, 2013) trait narcissism exists in the nonpathological population. Narcissists can be divided into grandiose narcissists and vulnerable narcissists. The existence of two forms of narcissism was first conceptualized by Wink (1991). Reviewing the literature has confirmed the existence of these two types (Hendin & Cheek, 1997). Grandiose narcissism reflects traits related to grandiosity, aggression and dominance while vulnerable narcissism is hypersensitivity to the opinions of others, an intense desire for approval and defensiveness (Dickinson & Pincus, 2003). The common traits of grandiose and vulnerable narcissism are a sense of entitlement, grandiose fantasies and the need for admiration (Dickinson & Pincus, 2003, Pincus et al., 2009).

Wink (1991) suggested both grandiose and vulnerable narcissism as arrogant, argumentative and opportunistic. He marked grandiosity as a show-off, egotistical and assertive whereas vulnerability as complaining, bitter and defensive (Miller et al., 2011). Subsequent research has replicated the same results in different populations. Grandiosity has also been associated with dominance, low emotional distress and high self-esteem whereas vulnerability is linked to introversion, high emotional distress and low self-esteem. Although they both share entitlement and dismissive tendencies (Glover et al., 2012; Krizan & Johar, 2012; Rathvon & Holstrom, 1996; Wink, 1991).

Social learning theory stated that children directly learn the behavior from their parents and internalize their parents' beliefs if their parents feel superior to others and entitled to special treatment; children also develop same narcissistic tendencies. Cramer (2011) found that children raised by authoritative and permissive parents' exhibit more narcissistic tendencies such as superiority and grandiosity whereas children raised by authoritarian parents do not show these traits.

An emerging body of research suggests different facets of narcissism such as feelings of superiority and having a grandiose self-concept appear to be partially adaptive since they have been linked to positive outcomes such as high self-esteem and emotional stability and low loneliness and depression (Rhodewalt & Morf, 1995; Sedikides et al., 2004; Trzesniewski et al., 2008). In contrast, facets of entitlement and exploitativeness appear to be maladaptive as they have been associated with negative trait of anger, aggression and dysfunctional interpersonal relationships (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Campbell et al., 2002; Campbell & Campbell, 2009; Miller et al., 2009). These findings highlighted the need to distinguish different aspects of narcissism more clearly.

Substantial interest in the construct of narcissism across subfields within psychology have been present (Cain et al., 2008; Miller & Campbell, 2008) maybe because it has been linked to broad range of outcomes. Recent social psychological researches have suggested a paradoxical portrait whereby narcissism seems to generate both positive and negative consequences. Narcissism is associated with various interpersonal dysfunctions including the inability to maintain healthy interpersonal relationships, low levels of commitment, aggression in response to perceived threat to their self-esteem (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Foster & Campbell, 2005; Paulhus, 1998) and unethical or exploitative behaviors such as academic dishonesty and white-collar crimes (Brunell et al., 2011; Blickle et al., 2006; Campbell et al., 2005; Grijalva & Harms, 2014). Narcissism has also been positively linked to some aspects of psychological health such as self-concept, selfesteem and emotional stability (Sedikides et al., 2004; Trzesniewski et al., 2008). Grijalva et al. (2014) suggested narcissists tend to emerge as leaders more often than others.

Narcissism is also mentioned to be over and covert in literature. Overt narcissism represents displeasure with restrictions, impertinency, selfishness, deprivation of empathy and grandiose personality. Individuals with covert narcissism are extremely fragile against the criticisms of others, they are anxious and angry and they internalize the feelings of inferiority towards themselves (Karaaziz & Erdem, 2013).

Narcissism may also develops as a consequence of the disorder or lack of parent-child relationship in the early stages of life. Children growing up with neglected and inadequate parental experiences try to maintain their lives using some old defense mechanisms. Social interactions in later stages of life may indicate maladaptive behavioral patterns that are developed against adverse conditions in childhood. With time, their narcissistic tendencies reaches pathological level (Barry et al., 2015).

In recent years psychopathological in general and narcissism cases in particular are reported to increase (Johnson et al., 2000; Karaaziz & Erdem, 2013; Twenge & Foster, 2010). In many studies, narcissism is found to be linked with selfconfidence (Narnett & Powell, 2016), anger (Barry et al., 2007), delinquency (Barry et al., 2007), anxiety and depression (Barry & Malkin, 2010), the quality of interpersonal relations (Barry & Wallace, 2010) and self-compassion (Barry et al., 2015). Some research findings also showed decline in narcissistic traits after young adulthood (Roberts et al., 2010) and varies by gender (Barrnett & Powell, 2016).

Krizan and Johar (2015) reported that it was vulnerable narcissism that predicted aggressiveness in dispositional hostility and anger, and poorer anger control instead of grandiose narcissism. Vulnerable narcissism intensified reactive and displaced aggression in the face of minor provocation. recently, some other researchers found that grandiose narcissism is associated with both proactive and reactive aggression while vulnerable narcissism is related only to reactive aggression (Vize et al. 2019).

Kassinove (1995) in his work emphasized that for considerable years much of the empirical work in psychology was dedicated to anxiety and depression and other important constructs such as anger among many others were relatively neglected.

Spielberger et al. (1985) explained the characteristic ways in which people express their anger through the 'Anger-out' or 'Anger-In' mechanism. Spielberger (1985) came up with the concept of AHA! Syndrome comprising of anger- hostilityaggression. The core of this syndrome is anger. This syndrome he believed is underlying many of the emotional disturbances and other psychological illnesses.

Kassinove and Sukhodolsky (1997) conducted a study on American and Russian subjects to examine their anger episodes. The study results revealed that 80% of times anger was triggered by actions of other people. 87% of Americans and 60% of Russians selected yelling and arguing or making sarcastic remarks as their most frequent response when they get angry. Tendency to control anger and resolve their problem was seen in 65% of Russians and among 64% of Americans. Violent acts like hitting when angry were seen in 11% of Americans and 8% of Russians.

Research done on gender differences in the expression of anger revealed that some people especially women retreat to denying the feeling of anger altogether. The suppression of such powerful emotion may result in psychological disturbances overtime (Williams et al., 2000). It is however, yet unclear whether the overt expression of anger or its total suppression if beneficial in the long run. Nevertheless, the physiological, psychological and social effects of anger are severe and destructive (Kassinove & Sukhodolsky, 1995). Much research has stated that physical punishment from parenting affect reactions of anger in children and their expression of it in later life (Metcalf & Gaier, 1987; Peery et al., 1985). Coaxing and harassment by parents lead to anger, resentment and rebellion in children (Metcalf & Gaier, 1987). Authoritarian parenting style characterized by strict disciplining could promote anger among children taking this behavior pattern into their adulthood and old age. Further research done stated that rejected and isolated children most often are parented by mothers with attitudes of a patriarchal family structure, low self-confidence, low preference for young children, infrequent praise, no reward for good behavior and poor disciplining. These children also have fathers with too much expectations from children's' behavior, infrequent threats and negative reactions to intrusion. Parenting characterized by rejection is therefore related to the social rejection of children because of the development of deviant personalities. This rejection, in turn, also increase children's anger which is expressed more intensely in their adult years (Peery et al., 1985).

Other studies show that children's exposure to anger also may increase their aggressive behavior (Cummings, 1987; Cummings et al., 1984). This exposure often comes from the parents (Fine, 1980; Rosenberg, 1987).

Research done by Wu et al. (2018) stated self-concept to be the mediator between the relationship of anger and resilience. 6.86% significant variations in anger was seen by variation in self-concept and 52.83% of variation in resilience.

Anger is also casually interchanged in the literature with hostility. As with aggression, hostility is a manifestation of anger. Rothenberg (1971) stressed the destructive quality of hostility which results from unexpressed anger. Coleman (1976) too emphasized that hostility is a more enduring emotion. It is the consequence of continued frustration and unresolved anger. Hostility is usually expressed indirectly in the form of gossip, sarcasm or even violent revenge and is "aimed at the integrity of the individual rather than the specific threat or obstruction he produces" (Rothenberg, 1971, p. 90).

Age has also been frequently considered a mediating factor in the expression of anger with young offenders more frequently displaying aggressive behavior than older offenders (Dowden et al., 2020).

To advance further knowledge, previous literature review shed systematic light on the present study variables (Webster & Watson, 2002). Perspectives and findings from various empirical researches provided the logical ground and direction for the present study variables and their relationships.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

Research Design

To explore research questions, present research was divided into three phases. In the beginning of research, participants were explained about the nature of study and importance of their participation in it. They were assured about the use of gathered information only for research purpose as well as the confidentiality of provided information.

Phase I

Phase I comprised of content analysis of main study variables, that is parenting, anger and narcissism in order to develop understanding of these constructs as studied and researched on previously as well as to highlight the research gaps and trends among our study variables. The phase comprised of two steps.

Step 1. Content analysis done on parenting styles and its outcomes.

Step 2. Content analysis carried out narcissism and anger.

Phase II

Phase II was concerned with getting the permission from the authors to use the instruments for the present research as well as to get ethical clearance to conduct the study. This phase further comprised of two steps.

Step 1. Consent of authors of each scale was taken to be used in the present study.

Step 2. After taking authors consents, the research scales as well the research objectives were presented to the ethics committee of Near East University for ethical approval.

Phase III

This was the main study of the research. The objective was to find out the relationship among all the variables and to test the research questions.

Phase I: Content Analysis

According to Neuendorf (2001) content analysis can be described as the systematic, objective, quantitative analysis of the characteristics of a message. However, Krippendorf (2004) argues all content analysis is qualitative in nature stating, all reading of text is qualitative even when certain characteristics are later converted into numbers (p. 16). Content analysis involves the thorough examination of any piece of written or visual human communication such as those that appear in magazines, newspapers, television commercials, paintings, speeches, novels, journals and many others. Similarly, Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) define content analysis as a technique that enables researchers to study human behavior in an indirect way, through an analysis of their communications (p. 483).

The purpose of content analysis is to study the written communication of humans in an unobtrusive manner. Content analysis allows the researcher to study social behavior without influencing it. Rather than present the details of a message set, the methodology allows a researcher to generate conclusions that can be generalized to other situations (Neuendorf, 2001). Content analysis allows for a researcher to decipher what is being communicated, why it is being communicated and with what effects (Babbie, 2004). Content analysis can be recognized by the appearance of the codification process which involves placing coded data into key categories. Once data is converted into key categories, a random sample is selected and analyzed. The random sample formed the basis for the content analysis study. Ordinarily in content analysis studies, researchers represent their findings in the format of tables or charts. Various statistical analysis tools are utilized in order to illustrate specific trends and patterns.

For the present research, it was done in two steps:

- **1.** Content Analysis on Parental Styles and Outcomes.
- 2. Content analysis on Anger and Narcissism.

Step 1: Content Analysis on Parental Styles and Outcomes

The objective was to summarize the recent trends in research on parenting styles and their impact on the development and well-being of individuals. Parenting style is a broad concept that consists of many factors. More research is needed to understand the components of different styles and its impacts to a larger extend. The aim of the present study is to summarize the trends in research on parenting styles and its impact on the development and well-being of children and their later life. Thus, researches on parenting styles that have been published in academic periodicals during the period from 2013-2017 were analyzed according to their year of publication, type of analysis conducted in the research, sample of the study and the country in which the study was carried out. As parenting is of great importance when

it comes to the personality basis of an individual, results of the present study will try to better inform our understanding of parenting styles perceptions in the field and the consequences on an individual's developmental processes as well as assisting the researchers and psychologists in identifying the trends and gaps in the recent literature.

Method. Content analysis was performed on parenting style addressed in various scientific journals. The basic goal of this was to summarize the parenting styles research trends and highlight the areas which researches so far have covered regarding parenting style. The results of this research will inform us related to the perceptions of parenting style and its consequences.

Data Set. The data set comprised of abstracts of published articles on parenting styles in the scientific journals from January, 2013 to December, 2017. Using the electronic resource of SCOPUS database, there were found to be 220 articles within the specified time frame on parenting styles. Only the journal articles were included in the study while editorials, reviews, memorials, etc. were excluded for the purpose of analysis.

Abstracts were collected and manually coded. Both inductive and deductive coding approaches were used for this purpose. The main goal of using the inductive approach is to allow research findings to emerge from the most occurring, significant and dominant patterns which were inherent in raw data, without any restraints imposed by structured methodologies (Bryman & Burgess, 1994; Dey, 1993) while deductive coding was used based on theoretical framework and on previous researches done on parental styles (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).

Data Analysis

Content analysis technique was used to analyze the data gathered. It is a very useful method that can categorize similar areas of a specified concept (Krippendorf, 2004; Seedat, 1988) and it establishes patterns within the data gathered from which meaningful and important trends can be derived (Krippendorf, Wilkinson, & Birmingham, 2003). These content areas then represent the central themes of the concept at hand (Seedat, MacKenzie, & Stevens, 2004, p. 602). This method systematically allows for "compressing of many words of text into fewer content categories based on explicit rules of coding" (Silverman, 1997, p. 1). Content analysis has been used to establish topics, methods, article types and participant characteristics from the data and then conceptual content analysis was used to tally the occurrence of the themes once coding categories had been established (Silverman, Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). Once all the abstracts were coded, a database was created in which all the numerical codes were combined for analysis. Descriptive statistical analyses were performed to generate frequencies for publication type, method and participant characteristics.

Step II: Content Analysis on Anger and Narcissism

The basic purpose of the present research was to abridge the trends in literature and research carried out on anger and narcissism. Thus, research documents published between the years 1971 to 2018 were screened for relevance and included for the analysis purpose based on their year of publication, country, affiliation, authors, etc. It was done to see the already done researches related to the concepts and to highlight the missing gaps.

Method

In this research, the Scopus database is utilized. This database is one of the largest databases in the world that contains citations and abstracts in both peer-reviewed literature and web source quality (Ramesh & Nagaraju, 2000). The present research is limited to 240 articles, conference papers, reviews, book chapters, etc., that are related to the fields of psychology, social sciences, medicine, arts and humanities and so on using the keywords 'narcissism' and 'anger' in order to search for published documents during the period between 1971 to 2018. The gathered data derived from the Scopus citation database have been evaluated and illustrated in the form of figures and tables.

Additionally, the specified papers were examined based on the document type, language, publication year, documents by country, and documents by author.

Data were analyzed with content analysis and each article was reported based on its relevance to the purpose of the study. The aim of content analysis is to reveal expressions and relationships to explain the collected data. In content analysis, similar data are brought together within the frame of certain themes and concepts and interpreted in a clear and effective way (Yildirim & Simsek, 2008; Uzunboylu & Ozcinar, 2009). Results were obtained and tables for numbers and percentages were created for the data.

Phase-II: Consent of Authors and Ethical Approval

The objectives of this phase of the study were

- 1. To get the permission of the author of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ).
- **2.** To get the permission of the author of Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI).
- **3.** To get the permission of the author of Six Factor Self Concept Scale (SFSCS).
- **4.** To get the permission of the author of Dimensions of Anger Reactions Revised (DAR-R).

5. To get ethical approval for conducting the research from The Near East University's ethics committee.

Step I: Authors consent

In order to proceed with using the instruments, authors consent was necessary. For this purpose, the author Frick (1991) of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire, Raskin (1979) of Narcissistic Personality Inventory, Stake (1994) of Six Factor Self Concept Scale, and Novaco (2004) of Dimensions of Anger Reactions-Revised were contacted through email. They were asked to grant permission to use their scales in my present study. They all after asking the objectives of the study showed full support in this regard and granted the permission to proceed with using the scales in the research (Appendix A).

Step II: Ethical Approval from the Near East University's Ethics Committee

The application form along with necessary documents that is, consent form, demographics sheet, research questionnaires and the authors' permission emails as well as the purpose of the study and intended sample were submitted to the ethics committee. After incorporating the suggestions given by Ethics Committee, approval was issued to begin with the study.

In order to collect the research data, Permission was then taken from the Board of Trustees of Near East University to administer the questionnaire on its students.

Phase III: Main Study

Participants

Purposive convenient sample of 628 adults were given the questionnaires to fill individually. Participants included 54.6% (N=343) males and 45.4% (N=285) females. Much of the literature review mentioned adolescence to be up till age 20 while other studies mentioning adulthood to be starting from age 20 or 21 (Furstenberg et al., 2004; Barzeva et al., 2019). Age 20 being overlapped between the

two categories, therefore after committee approach, 21 years and older adults were approached from North Cyprus for the present study. Maximum age of adults who participated in this study was 50 years. They were divided into three groups of early adults (age 21 years to 30), early middle age (age 31 to 40) and middle age adults (age 41 to 50). About 43.6% (N=274) of the participants belonged to early adults, 34.9% (N=219) belonged to early middle age and 21.5% (N=135) belonged to middle age adults (see Table 1).

Demographic Variables	f	%
Age		
>21 to 30	274	43.6
31 to 40	219	34.9
41 to 50	135	21.5
Gender		
Male	343	54.6
Female	285	45.4
Education		
Bachelors	312	49.7
Masters	251	40
Doctorate	38	6.1
Other	27	4.3
Occupation		
Student	334	53.2
Working	294	46.8

Table 1: Demographic Details of the Sample (N=628)

Table 1 represents the distribution of total sample on the basis of information collection on study questionnaires, their age, gender, education, and occupation. This gives a comprehensive picture indicating the demographic details of study participants.

Data Collection Tools

1. Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ)

Alabama Parenting Questionnaire developed by Frick (1991) is used to study perceived parenting in this study. The scale showed in past research the internal consistency ranging from $\alpha = .63$ to .80 (Shelton et al., 1996). It consisted of 42 items with 9 items having 2 statements for each mothers and fathers. It is rated using a 5point Likert-type scale (1 = never, 5 = always). The scale consists of five subscales: positive parenting (6 items), poor monitoring (10 items), inconsistent discipline (6 items), involvement (10 items), and corporal punishment (3 items). An additional seven items assess discipline practices other than corporal punishment. These items are included to circumvent a negative bias toward the corporal punishment items (Shelton et al. 1996). The scores on each item were added up to get a composite perceived parenting score with high score indicative of more of the construct. We also created composite scores for perceived parenting of mothers and fathers by summing the scores only on the items relevant to mothers and vice versa. The APQ had demonstrated good internal consistency, that is, Cronbach alpha = 0.80.

2. Six Factor Self Concept Scale (SFSCS)

Six Factor Self Concept Scale developed by Stake in 1994 is used in the study to operationalize self-concept. It consisted of 36 items with 7-point Likert scale (1 = never or almost never true of you, 7 = almost or always true of you). The scale consisted of six subscales: power (7 items), task accomplishment (6 items), giftedness (5 items), vulnerability (6 items), likeability (6 items) and morality (6 items) with alpha coefficients ranging between .76 - .86 (Stake, 1994; Jedouri & Rajeh, 2020). All the scores given by the participants on the items were added up to create a composite self-concept score with high score suggesting more of the construct (Stake, 1994).

3.Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI)

Narcissistic Personality Inventory developed by Raskin and Hall in 1979 is most used and effectively validated measure of grandiose narcissism (Tamborski & Brown, 2011). It consisted of 40 items having one narcissistic and one nonnarcissistic option. A single composite narcissism score is created by counting up the number of narcissistic options with higher scores indicative of more of the construct. It has seven subscales: authority (8 items), self-sufficiency (6 items), superiority (5 items), exhibitionism (7 items), exploitativeness (5 İtems), vanity (3 items) and entitlement (6 items) with reliability coefficient ranging from .74 to .90. (Raskin & Terry, 1988; Rosario & White, 2005).

4. Dimensions of Anger Reactions Revised (DAR-R)

The scale was developed by R.W. Novaco in 2004. The scale is a 7 items selfreport measure of anger disposition. The items comprising the scale assess anger frequency, intensity, duration, antagonistic expression and impairment of work performance, interpersonal relationships, and personal health. The items are rated on 5-point scale with anchors of 1: not at all and 5: very much, indexing how much each statement about anger applies to the respondent. The total score ranges from 7-35 with high scores reflecting high dispositional anger (Forbes, et al., 2004). The Cronbach alpha of the scale is 0.91 (Novaco et al., 2012).

Data Collection Procedure

The participants of this study were 628 from North Cyprus who were either students or working. After taking authors' permission to use the study scales, permission was sought from the Near East University Ethics Committee Board in order to carry out the research. The data was gathered by approaching students, colleagues as well as relatives who met the criteria. Participants were briefed about the objective of the study. After informed consent, the participants first completed demographics information sheet along with the research scales of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ), Six Factor Self Concept Scale (SFSCS) and Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) to complete in one sitting. Considering the sensitivity of the topic and reluctance of the participants, verbal as well as written consent was taken from those participants who were willing to participate in the study. They were also briefed that anonymity and confidentiality will be maintained and are free to leave if they feel like. It took approximately 20-25 minutes for the participants to fill the scales.

Data Analysis

Data Analysis was carried out on the gathered research data using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 25. Process version 3.5 by Andrew F. Hayes was used for mediation analysis.

Reliability and Validity

To see parenting, self-concept, narcissism and anger among the present study sample of adults; the mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum score range was computed. To determine the reliability estimates of the scales and sub-scales alpha coefficients were computed and for the validity of scales, item-total correlations were computed.

					Score	Range	
Variables	Ν	М	SD	α	Potential	Actual	Skewness
Perceived Parenting	628	152.39	17.04	.75	51-255	97-225	.38
(APQ)							
Positive parenting	628	19.23	5.17	.70	6-30	6-30	2.28
Poor monitoring	628	30.51	6.56	.76	10-50	12-44	33
Inconsistent	628	15.06	5.05	.80	6-30	6-30	.44
discipline							
Involvement	628	58.47	9.69	.72	19-95	26-94	.16
Corporal	628	10.19	2.84	.69	3-15	3-15	41
punishment							
Other disciplines	628	18.92	5.21	.78	7-35	7-35	.29
Self-concept	628	139.85	28.59	.83	36-252	74-244	.27
(SFSCS)							
Power	628	28.21	9.15	.67	7-49	8-48	.75
Task	628	22.31	7.23	.72	6-42	8-42	.31
Accomplishment							
Giftedness	628	19.20	6.07	.72	5-35	5-35	05
Vulnerability	628	23.99	7.23	.72	6-42	6-42	.01
Likeability	628	22.09	8.63	.81	6-42	6-41	.27
Morality	628	24.05	9.99	.74	6-42	6-42	1.09
Narcissism (NPI)	628	25.44	6.52	.80	0-40	4-39	43
Authority	628	5.07	2.24	.72	0-8	0-8	43

 Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire, Narcissistic

 Personality Inventory and Six Factor Self Concept Scale and Their Subscales

					Score]	Range	
Variables	Ν	М	SD	α	Potential	Actual	Skewness
Self-sufficiency	628	3.89	2.10	.82	0-6	0-6	54
Superiority	628	3.21	1.64	.71	0-5	0-5	54
Exhibitionism	628	4.20	2.27	.79	0-7	0-7	37
Exploitativeness	628	3.08	1.71	.74	0-5	0-5	36
Vanity	628	1.83	1.15	.70	0-3	0-3	39
Entitlement	628	4.16	2.03	.83	0-6	0-6	66
Anger (DAR-R)	7	17.67	5.20	.73	7-35	9-33	.86

Table 2 indicated the mean, standard deviation, score range, alpha reliability coefficients and skewness on Alabama Parenting Questionnaire, Narcissistic Personality Inventory, Six Factor Self Concept Scale, Dimensions of Anger Reactions Revised and their subscales. Results showed that the values of skewness are within acceptable range. Results showed that Cronbach's alpha coefficient of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire is 0.75, its subscales are internally consistent measures having alpha reliability ranging from 0.69 to 0.80. Cronbach's alpha coefficient of Narcissistic Personality Inventory is 0.80. All the subscales are internally consistent. For its subscales there is a significant alpha reliability ranging from 0.70 to 0.83. There is also a satisfactory Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.83 for Six Factor Self Concept Scale having total of 36 items. Subscales also ranged from 0.67 to 0.81. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of Dimensions of Anger Reactions Revised is also satisfactory, that is, 0.73.

		6 (· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Item No.	r	Item No.	r
1a	.20**	20a	.10*
1b	.34**	20b	.16
2	.41	21	.16**
3	.13**	22	.13**
4a	.24	23	.43**
4b	.17**	24	.15***
5	.12**	25	.12**
6	.11	26a	.44
7a	.10*	26b	.25***
7b	.46	27	.12**
8	.13**	28	.15**
9a	.31**	29	.16**
9b	.23**	30	.17**
10	.16	31	.12**
11a	.21**	32	.21**
11b	.11	33	.32**
12	.13**	34	.27**
13	.24**	35	.17**
14a	.44	36	.16**
14b	.15	37	.29**
15a	.20**	38	.17
15b	.24	39	.23**
16	.41	40	.14
17	.16	41	.19
18	.40	42	.27**
19	.19		
**			

Table 3: Item Total Correlation of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (N=628)

p <.05; *p* < 0.01

Table 3 shows that item total correlation of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the scale and the total score of the scale indicating that the items are internally correlated with the total score of this scale.

Item No.	r
1a	.22**
1b	.29**
4a	.32**
4b	.21**
7a	$.10^{*}$
7b	.63**
9a	.31**
9b	.28**
11a	.33**
11b	.16**
14a	.64**
14b	.15**
15a	.21**
15b	.31**
20a	.12**
20b	.16**
23	.63**
26a	.66**
26b	.35**

Table 4: Item Total Correlation of Involvement Subscale of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (N=628)

 $p^* < 0.05; p^* < 0.01$

Table 4 shows that item total correlation of Involvement sub scale of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale indicating that the items are internally correlated with the total score of this sub scale.

r
.75**
.14**
.11**
.74**
.73**
.12**

Table 5: Item Total Correlation of Positive Parenting Subscale of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (N=628)

**p < 0.01

Table 5 shows that item total correlation of positive parenting sub scale of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

Item No.	r
6	$.10^{*}$
10	.77**
17	$.78^{**}$
19	$.12^{**}$
21	.75**
24	$.23^{**}$
28	$.78^{**}$
29	.76**
30	.24**
32	.12**

Table 6: Item Total Correlation of Poor Monitoring Sub Scale of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (N=628)

 $p^* < 0.05; p^* < 0.01$

Table 6 shows that item total correlation of poor monitoring sub scale of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

r
.89**
$.88^{**}$
.88** .86**
.19**
$.10^{*}$
$.10^{*}$ $.88^{**}$

Table 7: Item Total Correlation of Inconsistent Discipline Subscale of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (N=628)

 $p^* < 0.05; p^* < 0.01$

Table 7 shows that item total correlation of inconsistent discipline sub scale of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

Table 8: Item Total Correlation of Corporal Punishment Subscale of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (N=628)

Item No.	r
33	.15**
35	.74**
38	.71**

 $p^{**} > 0.01$

Table 8 shows that item total correlation of corporal punishment sub scale of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

r
.81**
.36**
.36** .83 ^{**}
.31**
.14**
.14** .38** .80**
.80**

Table 9: Item Total Correlation of Other Discipline Practices Subscale of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (N=628)

p < 0.01

Table 9 shows that item total correlation of other discipline practices sub scale of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

Item No.	r	Item No.	r
1	.32***	21	.32**
2	.26***	22	$.10^{*}$
3	.47**	23	.14
4	.29***	24	.32**
5	.32**	25	.31***
6	.35**	26	.18**
7	.47**	27	.23**
8	.21***	28	.14
9	.29***	29	.25**
10	.19***	30	.48**
11	.32***	31	.33**
12	.29***	32	.35**
13	.21**	33	.17***
14	.32***	34	.24**
15	.15***	35	.33**
16	.34**	36	.15**
17	.32**	37	.28***
18	.22**	38	.15***
19	.25**	39	.36
20	.49**	40	.10 [*]

Table 10: Item Total Correlation of Narcissistic Personality Inventory (N=628)

 $p^* < 0.05; p^{**} < 0.01$

Table 10 shows a significant positive correlation (p < 0.01; p < 0.05) between all the items of the scale and the total score of the scale indicating that the items are internally correlated with the total score of this scale.

Item No.	r
1	.77**
8	.19**
10	.27**
11	.27** .76** .34** .79** .14**
12	.34**
32	.79**
33	$.14^{**}$
36	.16**

Table 11: Item Total Correlation of Authority Subscale of Narcissistic Personality Inventory (N=628)

 $p^{**} > 0.01$

Table 11 shows that item total correlation of authority sub scale of Narcissistic Personality Inventory. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

Table 12: Item Total Correlation of Self-sufficiency Subscale of Narcissistic Personality Inventory (N=628)

r
.91**
.86** .23** .90**
.23**
$.90^{**}$
.10* .89 ^{**}
.89**

 $p^* < 0.05; p^* < 0.01$

Table 12 shows that item total correlation of self-sufficiency sub scale of Narcissistic Personality Inventory. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

Item No.	r
4	.84**
9	.86** .10**
26	.10**
37	$.82^{**}$
40	$.09^{*}$

Table 13: Item Total Correlation of Superiority Subscale of Narcissistic Personality Inventory (N=628)

 $p^{**} > 0.05; p^{**} > 0.01$

Table 13 shows that item total correlation of superiority sub scale of Narcissistic Personality Inventory. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

Table 14: Item Total Correlation of Exhibitionism Subscale of Narcissistic Personality Inventory (N=628)

Item No.	r
2	.36**
3	.36** .87**
7	.86** .83 ^{**}
20	.83**
28	.12**
30	.80** .10*
38	$.10^{*}$
38	.10

p < 0.05; p < 0.01

Table 14 shows that item total correlation of exhibitionism sub scale of Narcissistic Personality Inventory. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

Item No.	r
6	.80**
13	.33** .77**
16	.77**
23	.11**
35	.79**

Table 15: Item Total Correlation of Exploitativeness Subscale of Narcissistic Personality Inventory (N=628)

***p* < 0.01

Table 15 shows that item total correlation of exploitativeness sub scale of Narcissistic Personality Inventory. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

Table 16: Item Total Correlation of Vanity Subscale of Narcissistic Personality Inventory (N=628)

Item No.	r
15	.15**
19	.77**
29	.75**
*** <i>p</i> < 0.01	

Table 16 shows that item total correlation of vanity sub scale of Narcissistic Personality Inventory. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

Table 17: Item Total Correlation of Entitlement Subscale of Narcissistic Personality Inventory (N=628)

Item No.	r
5	.83**
14	.83** .82**
18	.21**
24	.85**
25	.85** .23** .29**
27	.29**

86

Table 17 shows that item total correlation of entitlement sub scale of Narcissistic Personality Inventory. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

Item No.	r	Item No.	r
1	.64**	19	.11**
2	.62**	20	.23**
3	.24**	21	.56**
4	$.17^{**}$	22	.25**
5	.24**	23	.44**
6	.56**	24	.23**
7	.35**	25	.31**
8	.29**	26	.57**
9	.62**	27	$.20^{**}$
10	.31**	28	.65**
11	.24**	29	.24**
12	.13**	30	.25**
13	.23**	31	.17**
14	.27**	32	.51**
15	.15**	33	.59**
16	.31**	34	.64**
17	.26**	35	.25**
18	.27**	36	$.12^{**}$
** < 0.01			

Table 18: Item Total Correlation of Six Factor Self Concept Scale (N=628)

***p* < 0.01

Table 18 shows item total correlation of Six Factor Self Concept Scale. There is a significant positive correlation between all the 36 items of the scale and the total score of the scale which indicates that all the items are internally correlated with the total score of this scale.

r
.85**
.37**
.83**
.85**
.15** .37** .83** .85** .19** .84**
.84**

Table 19: Item Total Correlation of Power Subscale of Six Factor Self Concept Scale (N=628)

 $p^{**} > 0.01$

Table 19 shows that item total correlation of power sub scale of Six Factor Self Concept Scale. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

Table 20: Item Total Correlation of Task Accomplishment Subscale of Six Factor Self Concept Scale (N=628)

Item No.	r
2	.78**
9	.77**
14	.22**
20	.11**
27	.14**
33	.14** .77 ^{**}
** <i>p</i> < 0.01	

Table 20 shows that item total correlation of task accomplishment sub scale of Six Factor Self Concept Scale. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

0.2**
.83**
.82**
$.80^{**}$
.82** .80** .28**
$.10^{*}$

Table 21: Item Total Correlation of Giftedness Subscale of Six Factor Self Concept Scale (N=628)

p* < 0.05; *p* < 0.01

Table 21 shows that item total correlation of giftedness sub scale of Six Factor Self Concept Scale. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

Table 22: Item Total Correlation of Vulnerability Sub Scale of Six Factor Self Concept Scale (N=628)

Item No.	r
4	.36**
10	.36** .67** .69**
16	.69**
19	.03
25	.03 .68** .36**
31	.36**
** < 0.01	

***p* < 0.01

Table 22 shows the item total correlation of vulnerability sub scale of Six Factor Self Concept Scale. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale except item 19.

Item No.	r
1	.88**
8	.20**
15	.50**
23	.57**
28	.20** .50** .57** .80** .89**
34	.89**
**n < 0.01	

Table 23: Item Total Correlation of Likeability Sub Scale of Six Factor Self Concept Scale (N=628)

**p < 0.01

Table 23 shows that item total correlation of likeability sub scale of Six Factor Self Concept Scale. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

Table 24: Item Total Correlation of Morality Subscale of Six Factor Self Concept Scale (N=628)

Item No.	ŗ
6	.92**
11	.26**
18	.26** .23** .90** .93** .72**
21	$.90^{**}$
26	.93**
32	.72**

Table 24 shows that item total correlation of morality sub scale of Six Factor Self Concept Scale. There is a significant positive correlation between all the items of the sub scale and the total score of the sub scale.

Item No.	r
1	.52**
2	.42**
3	.43**
4	.43** .46**
5	.31**
6	.41**
7	.41** .45**
** <i>p</i> < 0.01	

Table 25 Item Total Correlation of Dimensions of Anger Reactions Revised (N=628)

Table 25 shows item total correlation of Dimensions of Anger Reaction Revised where all items are consistent with one another and have significant correlation with the total score (p < 0.01).

CHAPTER IV

Findings and Discussion

Research Trends and Gaps among Parenting, Narcissism and Anger in Previous Researches

Results of Content Analysis on Parental Styles and Outcomes

The data consisted of 46 articles abstracts from 2013 (21%), 52 from 2014 (24%), 51 from 2015 (23%), 54 from 2016 (25%) and 17 abstracts (7.7%) from 2017 (n = 220). The results revealed steady increase in the number of articles published within the journals every year. However, the most articles published were in the year 2016 and the least articles in year 2017.

Research Design. Research design was coded using the categories outlined by the American Psychological Association (APA, 2009). Abstracts were considered to be quantitative if they have used quantitative means to collect data, numerical measurement, correlational, experimental or quasi experimental research designs and statistical data analyses. Therefore, an abstract indicating an introduction, method, results, and discussion showing quantitative approach, it was included in the quantitative study category. An abstract was coded as a qualitative study if it contained qualitative methods of gathering data, for example, unstructured interviews and participant observation (Swart & Bowman, 2007) and also if the methodology employed involved the understanding of subjective experiences. Abstracts were considered to be using mixed research design if they contained both qualitative and quantitative means of data collection and analysis.

The majority of published articles were quantitative in nature (44.5%; n = 98); 35.9 % were qualitative (n = 79) and 19.5% were mixed method research studies (n = 43). These results indicate that there are more quantitative researches being done and published than other types. Mixed articles, however, yielded the lowest frequency of publication.

Participants of the study. The majority of articles (89.5 %) included in the study used mixed participants of both genders (n = 197), that is, male and female. Only 6.4% (n = 14) of the studies included all females while 4.1% (n = 9) included all male samples in the study.

Participants who were older than 22 years old were coded as adults, those between the age ranges of 13 to 22 were termed as adolescents and studies that contained both age categories were regarded as mixed age group. Majority of the studies had (70.9 %) used adult sample (n = 156), 19.5% of the studies used an adolescent sample (n = 43) while 9.5% used a mixed age group (n = 21).

Topic Trends. All of the abstracts included in the study were examined carefully and their main topics and keywords were extracted and noted down. Keywords and related concepts were grouped together and condensed into broad content areas (Table 1). The topics are listed as follows:

• Academic performance (49%) included indicators of education related achievement and performance.

• Authoritative parenting (35%) referred to authoritative style of parenting adopted by parents and its consequences.

• Mental health and wellbeing (65%) represented wellness, adjustment and psychopathology, emotional understanding, perspective taking and emotional regulation.

• Physical health and development (43%) included physical injuries, accidents, burns and other medical conditions and developmental health outcomes.

• Family environment (60%) referred to the ways parents and children interact with each other inside and outside the home environment and its psychological and physical impact.

• Children's behavior (35%) has all the behavioral strategies learned from interacting with parents.

• Adolescent's sexual behavior (4%) included attitudes towards sexuality and the sexual behaviors as a result of parental modeling and communication.

• Social competence and peer relationships (39%) included pro-social skills, social competence, secure attachment and interaction in their social surroundings and positive peer relationships and other components such as warmth, conflict, and control.

• Substance use (13%) referred to parents modeling inappropriate drugusing behavior or creating a psychological environment in which children become more susceptible to substance use and drinking. • Cognitive development (14%) included all those environmental contexts in which structuring of the child's emerging cognitive abilities takes place.

• Aggression and delinquency (46%) included all the parent–child relationship quality associated with aggressive behavior, delinquency and anger, truancy and oppositional and antisocial behavior.

• Depression, anxiety and internalizing problems (57%) contained all the depressive, anxious and other internalizing problems such as somatic complaints indicative of parent and child relationship.

• Self-esteem and identity (63%) included positive self-view view and identity, locus of control, and other related concepts.

• Motivation and personality (52%) included those aspects related to aspirations and motivation and where parents acting as role models, providing and selecting opportunities for the children, and setting expectations and definitions of success for children effecting their personality characteristics.

Topic Trends	Frequency	%
1. Academic performance	108	49
2. Authoritative parenting	78	35
3. Mental health and	142	65
wellbeing		
4. Physical health and	94	43
development		
5. Family environment	132	60
6. Children's behavior	78	35
7. Adolescent's sexual	09	4
behavior		
8. Social competence and	87	39
peer relationships		
9. Substance use	29	13
10.Cognitive development	31	14
11. Aggression and	101	46
delinquency		

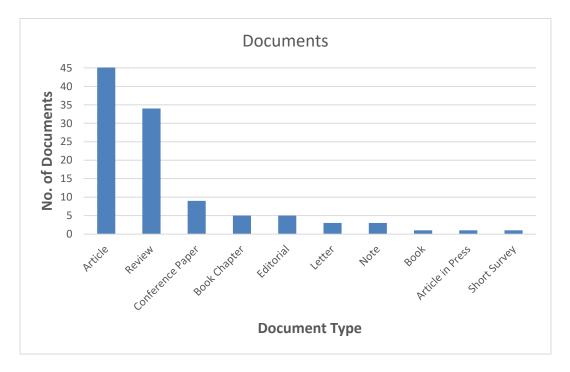
Table 26: Topic Trends of the Study

Topic Trends	Frequency	%
12. Depression, anxiety and	126	57
internalizing problems		
13. Self-esteem and identity	138	63
14. Motivation and personality	115	52

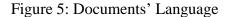
Results of Content Analysis on Anger and Narcissism

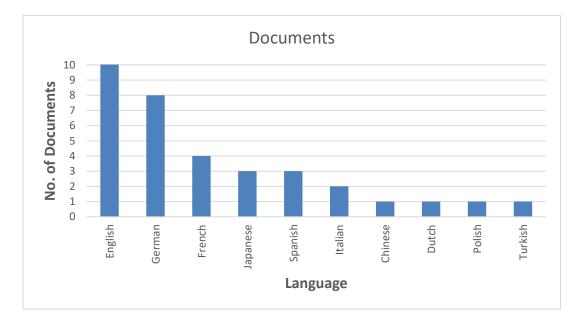
Document Types. A total of 240 documents related to anger and narcissism were included in the study (Figure 4). There were 178 (74.2%) journal articles, 34 (14.2%) review papers, 9(3.8%) conference papers, 5 (2.1%) book chapters, 5 (2.1%) editorials, 3 (1.3%) letters, 3 (1.3%) notes, 1 (0.4%) book, 1 (0.4%) articles in press and 1 (0.4%) short survey published from the year 1971 till present.

Figure 4: Document Types



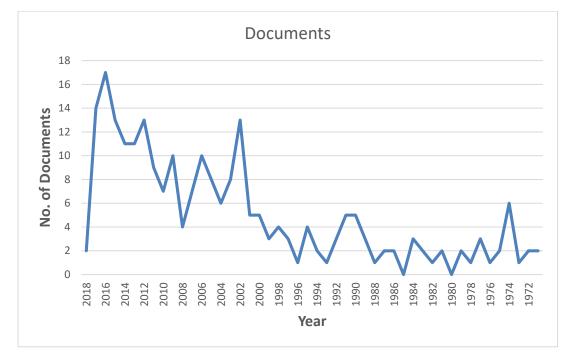
Documents' Language. English was the most frequently used language in the documents selected for the analysis purposes (n = 216, 90%). The second most commonly occurring language was German (n = 8, 3.33%). Furthermore, 4 (1.66%) were in French, 3 (1.25%) were in Japanese and Spanish each, 2 (0.83%) were in Italian and 1 (0.42%) document was published in each Chinese, Dutch, Polish and Turkish respectively (Figure 5).



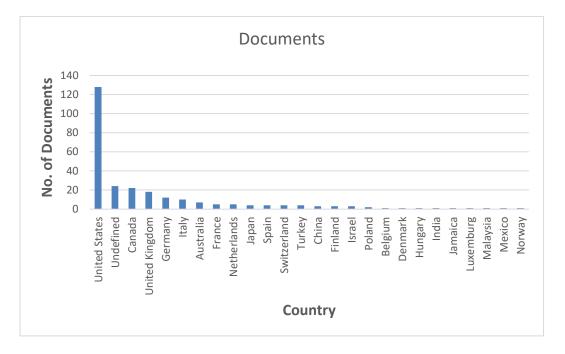


The Year of Publication. During the period of 1971 to present, the number of documents related to anger and narcissism that were published in academic journals showed continuous increase until year 2002. After this year, there was a gradual decline observed in publications till year 2011. From year 2011 till year 2015, lows and highs have been observed while maximum number of documents, that is, 17 (7.08%) have been published in year 2016.Only 1 (0.42%) document has been published in years 1973, 1976, 1978, 1982, 1988, 1993, and 1996 while in years 1980 and 1985 no published document have been found in the database (Figure 6).

Figure 6: The Year of Publication

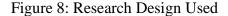


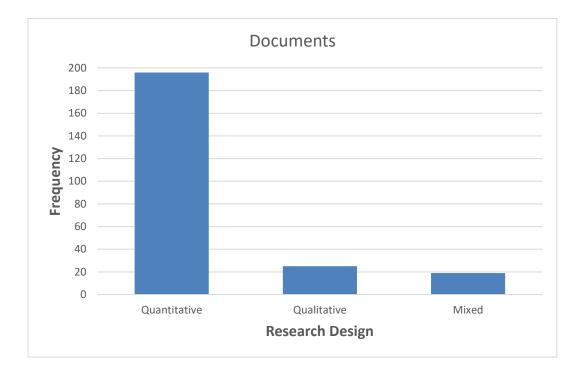
Documents by Country. Almost 79.2% of the published documents (n = 190) were from five major countries, that is, the United States of America (n = 128, 53.3%), Canada (n = 22, 9.17%), United Kingdom (n = 18, 7.5%), Germany (n = 12, 5%) and Italy (n= 10, 4.17%). 26 documents (10.8%) were produced by authors affiliated with 20 different countries (see Figure 7) while the remaining 24 (10%) documents were undefined.



Documents by Authors. The total number of authors who published their work related to parenting styles was 160. Authors who published most articles on anger and narcissism were Widiger, T.A. (n = 5, 2.08%), Campbell, W.K. (n = 4, 1.66%); Lynam, D. R. Meloy, J. R. Miller, J. D. Perry, J. C. Spector, P.E. and Wiesenthal, D. L. each published 3 (1.25%) articles respectively. While the remaining 152 (88.76%) authors contributed one or two articles to the anger and narcissism literature pool.

Research Design Used. Three types of research designs have been observed in the research studies reviewed for the analysis of this study. The most common type employed was quantitative research method with 81.7% of all the studies using this approach (n = 196). 25 (10.4%) of the published documents used qualitative research methodology while only 7.9% (n = 19) of all reviewed documents used mixed method approach (see Figure 8). It has been observed that from the year 2012 onwards, there has been a steady increase in the qualitative studies.





Relationship between Perceived Parenting, Self-concept, Narcissism and Anger

The present study aimed to study the effects of parenting on self-concept, narcissism and anger among adults. Furthermore this study also aimed to investigate these effects with respect to demographics as gender, education, age, etc.

A series of analysis were carried out using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 25) to analyze the data. For all variables, descriptive statistics and reliability coefficients were computed. Alpha coefficients were computed to determine the reliability of the scales (APQ, NPI, SFSCS and DAR-R).

Pearson's product moment coefficient of correlation was also computed to assess pattern of relationship among variables. The correlation was calculated between parenting, self-concept, narcissistic personality traits and anger.

Moreover, t-test, ANOVA, regression was applied to explain the relationship among variables and to test the formulated hypotheses.

Correlation among Perceived Parenting, Self-concept, Narcissism and Anger. We started by checking the correlations among perceived parenting, selfconcept, narcissism, anger and their subscales.

Table 27: Correlation Matrix Between Alabama Parenting Questionnaire, Narcissistic Personality Inventory, Six Factor Self Concept Scale, Dimensions of Anger Reaction-Revised and Their Sub-scales (N=628)

	APQ ¹	Inv ²	p.p ³	p.m ⁴	i.d ⁵	c.p ⁶	o.d.p ⁷	NPI ⁸	Aut ⁹	s.s ¹⁰	Sup ¹¹	Exh ¹²	Exp ¹³	Van ¹⁴	Ent ¹⁵	SFSCS ¹⁶	Pow ¹⁷	t.a ¹⁸	Gif ¹⁹	Vul ²⁰	Lik ²¹	Mor ²²	DAR ²³
APQ^1	-	.69	.55	.39	.25	.37	.42	.23	.26	.12	01	.23***	.03	.01	.11	.30	.06	.19	.09	.16	.29	.15	.22**
Involvement		-	.28	.03	04	.17***	.11	.24	.33	.07	.06	.19***	.06	.02	.08	.28**	.10***	.25***	.04	.11	.34	.11	.23**
Positive			-	.03	01	.24	.10***	.32***	.27***	.21**	01	.32***	.03	.06	.16	.33	.11	.19	.16	.07	.38	.22***	.25**
parenting Poor monitoring				-	*	.06	07	06	08	.01	.01	03	10*	-0.2	.01	04	.02	08	.03	.05	*	03	~~*
Inconsistent					12	05	*	.05	08 02	.04	01	*	10 .07	.01	.02	.03	03	08 .06	01	.07	11 .04	01	09
discipline							.10	*	**			.08				**					**	**	.10
Corporal punishment						-	.09	.09	.17	.04	03	.14	01	.02	03	.11	.02	.02	0.2	.06	.15	.11	.04
Other discipline							-	01	.04	02	13*	04	.03	01	.05	01	09*	.04	02	.05	.02	.01	.02
practices NPI ⁸								_	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**
Authority									.54	.47	.43 .06	.63	.49	.36	.48 .06	.51	.24	.40	.19	.14	.55	.25	.50
Self sufficiency									-	.20	.00	.15	.14	.10	.00	.51	.08	.40	.12	.18	.69	.27	.51
•										-		.14	.16	.11	.08	.24	.10	.14	.17 *	.10	.25	.10	.22
Superiority											-	.18	.13	.08	.11	.22	.27	.18	03	.03	.17	.09	.21
Exhibitionism												-	.17	.17	.21	.41	.16	.33	.21	.13	.44	.17	.38
Exploitativeness													-	.13	.13	.12	01	.14	.05	04	.13	.13	.13
Vanity														-	.04	.14	.04	.13	.11	.04	.06	.11	.09*
Entitlement															-	.12	.18	.09*	.04	.01	.09	.01	.16**
SFSCS ¹⁶																-	.49	.73	.40	.45	.75	.66	.53**
Power																	-	.21***	.02	.07	.19***	.11	.15**
Task accomplishment																		-	.17	.22***	.51	.46	.45
Giftedness																			-	.06	**	*	**
Vulnerability																				-	.24	.13	.16
Likeability																					.23	.08	.20
Morality																						.40	.66
DAR																							.22

Note. ¹ = Alabama Parenting Questionnaire, ² = involvement, ³ = positive parenting, ⁴ = poor monitoring, ⁵ =inconsistent discipline, ⁶ =corporal punishment, ⁷ = other discipline practices, ⁸ = Narcissistic Personality Inventory, ⁹ = authority, ¹⁰ =self-sufficiency, ¹¹ =superiority, ¹² = exhibitionism, ¹³ = exploitativeness, ¹⁴ =vanity, ¹⁵ =entitlement, ¹⁶ = Six Factor Self Concept Scale, ¹⁷ = power, ¹⁸ = task accomplishment, ¹⁹ = giftedness, ²⁰ = vulnerability, ²¹ = likeability, ²² = morality, ²³ = Dimensions of Anger Reaction -Revised. **p<.01; *p<.05

Table 27 shows inter-scale correlation of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire, Narcissistic Personality Inventory, Six Factor Self Concept Scale and Dimensions of Anger Reaction Revised and their sub scales. Perceived parenting and self-concept were found to have moderate positive correlation, r = .30, p < .01. Perceived parenting and narcissism were also found to be positively correlated, r = .23, p < .01. Importantly, involvement, r = .28, p < .01; positive parenting r = .33, p < .01 and corporal punishment subscales of APQ, r = .28, p < .01 were found to be positively correlated to self-concept. Involvement, r = .33, p < .01; positive parenting, r = .27, p < .01; poor monitoring, r = .8, p < .05; and corporal punishment r = .10, p < .05 subscales of APQ were also found to be positively correlated with narcissism. Poor monitoring subscale of APQ correlated negatively with task accomplishment, r = -.08, p < .05 and likeability subscale of SFSCS, r = -.11, p < .05. Poor monitoring was also negatively correlated to the authority, r = -.08, p < .05; and exploitativeness subscale of NPI, r = -.10, p < -.10.05. Self-concept was found to be significantly correlated with narcissism, r = .51, p < .05.01 and all of its subscales. Most of the subscales of self-concept correlated positively with the subscales of NPI with significant correlations observed among task accomplishment subscale of SFSCS and authority subscale of NPI, r = .40, p < .01; likeability subscale of SFSCS And authority subscale of NPI, r = .69, p < .01; and likeability subscale of self-concept and exhibitionism subscale of NPI, r = .44, p < .01. DAR-Revised results showed significant correlations with all other scales except for corporal punishment and other discipline practices sub scales.

Regression for Perceived Parenting, Self-concept, Narcissism and Anger. The concept of linear regression was first proposed by Sir Francis Galton in 1894. Linear regression is a statistical test applied to a data set to define and quantify the relation between the considered variables. It allows predicting the value of a dependent variable based on the value of at least one independent variable. (Kumari & Yadav, 2018). Therefore, it is also used in this study to predict the dependent variable from a number of independent variables. For that purpose the basic assumptions of independence of observations, having at least 20 cases of each independent variables, linear relationship between the dependent and independent variables, no or little multicollinearity between the independent variables were checked before preeceding with the regression analysis (Osborne & Waters, 2002).

Variables	t	В	β	F	adj. R^2
Intercept	7.13***	70.91		47.89***	.07
Parenting	6.92***	.45	.27		

Table 28 Linear Regression Analysis of Parenting on Self-Concept (N=628)

Note. The dependent variable for regression is self-concept. ***p < .001

Table 28 shows a simple linear regression was calculated to predict selfconcept based on parenting. The analysis was carried out after testing the assumptions for linear regression of independence of observations, twenty records for each independent variable (present study have a record of 628), independent variable correlates significantly with the dependent variable, only two outlier cases ware present. Shapiro-Wilk test of normality for both parenting (p < .001) and self-concept (p < .05) was significant stating that the null hypotheses, variables being normally distributed, is rejected. Standardized coefficient beta, $\beta = .27$, t(628) = 7.13, p < .001. A significant regression equation was found F(1, 626) = 47.89, p < .001 with an R^2 of .07. The value of adjusted R^2 show that 7 % statistically significant variance in selfconcept is explained by parenting.

Table 29: Linear Regression Analysis of Parenting on Narcisism (N=628)

Variables	t	В	β	F	adj. R^2
Intercept	21.70****	51.44		35.32***	.05
Parenting	5.94	.09	.23		

Note. The dependent variable for regression is narcissism. ***p < .001

Table 29 shows a simple linear regression was calculated to predict narcissism based on parenting. The analysis was carried out after testing the assumptions for linear regression of independence of observations, twenty records for each independent variable (present study have a record of 628), independent variable correlates significantly with the dependent variable with few outlier cases. Shapiro-Wilk test of normality for both parenting (p < .05) and narcissism (p < .001) was significant stating that the null hypotheses, variables being normally distributed, is rejected. Standardized coefficient beta, $\beta = .23$, t(628) = 21.70, p < .001. A significant regression equation was found F(1, 626) = 35.32, p < .001 with an R^2 of .05. The value of adjusted R^2 show that 5 % statistically significant variance in narcissism is explained by parenting.

	-	•	-	-	
Variables	t	В	β	F	adj. R^2
Intercept	3.87***	7.21		31.21***	.05
Parenting	5.59***	.07	.22		

Table 30: Linear Regression Analysis of Parenting on Anger (N=628)

Note. The dependent variable for regression is anger. ***p < .001

Table 30 shows a simple linear regression was calculated to predict anger based on parenting. The analysis was carried out after testing the assumptions for linear regression of independence of observations, twenty records for each independent variable (present study have a record of 628), independent variable correlates significantly with the dependent variable with few outlier cases. Shapiro-Wilk test of normality for both parenting (p < .05) and anger (p < .001) was significant stating that the null hypotheses, variables being normally distributed, is rejected. Standardized coefficient beta, $\beta = .22$, t(628) = 3.87, p < .001. A significant regression equation was found F(1, 626) = 31.21, p < .001 with an R^2 of .05. The value of adjusted R^2 show that 5 % statistically significant variance in anger is explained by parenting.

Table 31: Linear Regression Analysis of Parenting Given by Mothers on Self-concept (N=628)

Variables	t	В	β	F	adj. R^2
Intercept	13.99***	88.01		68.62***	.10
Mother	8.28***	1.86	.31		

Note. The dependent variable for regression is self-concept. ***p< .001

Table 31 shows a simple linear regression was calculated to predict selfconcept based on parenting given by mothers. The analysis was carried out after testing the assumptions for linear regression of independence of observations, twenty records for each independent variable (present study have a record of 628), independent variable correlates significantly with the dependent variable with few outlier cases. Shapiro-Wilk test of normality for both mothers (p < .05) and self-concept (p < .001) was significant stating that the null hypotheses, variables being normally distributed, is rejected. Standardized coefficient beta, $\beta = .31$, t(628) = 13.99, p < .001. A significant regression equation was found F(1, 626) = 68.62, p < .001 with an R^2 of .10. The value of adjusted R^2 show that 10 % statistically significant variance in self-concept is explained by parenting given by mothers.

Table 32: Linear Regression Analysis of Parenting given by Fathers on Self-concept (N=628)

Variables	t	В	β	F	adj. R^2
Intercept	15.79	101.01		37.04	.05
Father	6.09	1.41	.24		

Note. The dependent variable for regression is self-concept. ***p<.001p<.001

Table 32 shows a simple linear regression was calculated to predict selfconcept based on parenting given by fathers. The analysis was carried out after testing the assumptions for linear regression of independence of observations, twenty records for each independent variable (present study have a record of 628), independent variable correlates significantly with the dependent variable with few outlier cases. Shapiro-Wilk test of normality for both fathers (p < .05) and self-concept (p < .001) was significant stating that the null hypotheses, variables being normally distributed, is rejected. Standardized coefficient beta, $\beta = .24$, t(628) = 15.79, p < .001. A significant regression equation was found F(1, 626) = 37.04, p < .001 with an R^2 of .05. The value of adjusted R^2 show that 5 % statistically significant variance in selfconcept is explained by parenting given by fathers.

Variables	t	В	β	F	adj. R^2
Intercept	36.48	54.81		51.54	.08
Mother	7.18***	.39	.28		

Table 33: Linear Regression Analysis of Parenting given by Mothers on Narcissism (N=628)

Note. The dependent variable for regression is narcissism. p < .001

Table 33 shows a simple linear regression was calculated to predict narcissism based on parenting given by mothers. The analysis was carried out after testing the assumptions for linear regression of independence of observations, twenty records for each independent variable (present study have a record of 628), independent variable correlates significantly with the dependent variable with few outlier cases. Shapiro-Wilk test of normality for both mothers (p < .05) and narcissism (p < .001) was significant stating that the null hypotheses, variables being normally distributed, is rejected. Standardized coefficient beta, $\beta = .28$, t(628) = 36.48, p < .001. A significant regression equation was found F(1, 626) = 51.54, p < .001 with an R^2 of .08. The value of adjusted R^2 show that 8 % statistically significant variance in self-concept is explained by parenting given by mothers.

Table 34: Linear Regression Analysis of Parenting given by Fathers on Narcissism (N=628)

Variables	t	В	β	F	adj. R^2
Intercept	38.03	57.90		25.24	.04
Father	5.02****	.28	.20		

Note. The dependent variable for regression is narcissism. p < .001

Table 34 shows a simple linear regression was calculated to predict narcissism based on parenting given by fathers. The analysis was carried out after testing the assumptions for linear regression of independence of observations, twenty records for each independent variable (present study have a record of 628), independent variable correlates significantly with the dependent variable with few outlier cases. Shapiro-Wilk test of normality for both fathers (p < .05) and narcissism (p < .001) was

significant stating that the null hypotheses, variables being normally distributed, is rejected. Standardized coefficient beta, $\beta = .20$, t(628) = 38.03, p < .001. A significant regression equation was found F(1, 626) = 25.24, p < .001 with an R^2 of .04. The value of adjusted R^2 show that 4 % statistically significant variance in narcissism is explained by parenting given by fathers.

Table 35: Linear Regression Analysis of Parenting Given by Mothers on Anger (N=628)

Variables	t	В	β	F	adj. R^2
Intercept	7.75***	8.98		54.79***	.08
Mother	7.40****	.31	.28		

Note. The dependent variable for regression is anger. *** p < .001

Table 35 shows a simple linear regression was calculated to predict anger based on parenting given by mothers. The analysis was carried out after testing the assumptions for linear regression of independence of observations, twenty records for each independent variable (present study have a record of 628), independent variable correlates significantly with the dependent variable with few outlier cases. Shapiro-Wilk test of normality for both mothers (p < .05) and anger (p < .001) was significant stating that the null hypotheses, variables being normally distributed, is rejected. Standardized coefficient beta, $\beta = .28$, t(628) = 7.75, p < .001. A significant regression equation was found F(1, 626) = 54.79, p < .001 with an R^2 of .08. The value of adjusted R^2 show that 8 % statistically significant variance in self-concept is explained by parenting given by mothers.

Variables	t	В	β	F	adj. R^2
Intercept	9.68	11.53		26.24	.04
Mother	5.12****	.22	.20		

Table 36: Linear Regression Analysis of Parenting Given by Fathers on Anger (N=628)

Note. The dependent variable for regression is anger. p < .001

Table 36 shows a simple linear regression was calculated to predict anger based on parenting given by fathers. The analysis was carried out after testing the assumptions for linear regression of independence of observations, twenty records for each independent variable (present study have a record of 628), independent variable correlates significantly with the dependent variable with few outlier cases. Shapiro-Wilk test of normality for both fathers (p < .05) and anger (p < .001) was significant stating that the null hypotheses, variables being normally distributed, is rejected. Standardized coefficient beta, $\beta = .20$, t(628) = 9.68, p < .001. A significant regression equation was found F(1, 626) = 26.24, p < .001 with an R^2 of .04. The value of adjusted R^2 show that 4 % statistically significant variance in self-concept is explained by parenting given by fathers.

Table 37: Multiple Linear Regression Analysis of Parenting and Self-Concept on Narcissism (N=628)

Variables	t	В	β	F	adj. R^2
Intercept	20.03****	43.32		116.88	.27
Parenting	2.87	.04	.10		
Self-concept	13.71****	.12	.49		

Note. The dependent variable for regression is narcissism. p < .001

Table 37 shows a multiple linear regression was calculated to predict narcissism based on parenting and self-concept. The analysis was carried out after testing the assumptions for multiple linear regression of independence of observations, twenty records for each independent variable (present study have a record of 628), linear relationship between independent variables and dependent variable, absence of multicollinearity between independent variables as the correlation between them was less than .70. Shapiro-Wilk test of normality for narcissism (p < .001) was significant stating that the null hypotheses, variables being normally distributed, is rejected. A significant regression equation was found F(2, 625) = 116.88, p < .001 with an adjusted R^2 of .05. The value of R^2 show that 27 % statistically significant variance in narcissism is explained by parenting and narcissism. The sample's predicted narcissism is equal to 43.32 - .04 (parenting) + .12 (self-concept), where the responses for both were measured using the 5 and 7 point Likert scale. Increase in narcissistic traits is 4 % due to parenting and 12 % due to self-concept. Both parenting and self-concept were significant predictors of narcissism.

Table 38: Multiple Linear Regression Analysis of Parenting, Self-Concept and Narcissism on Anger (N=628)

Variables	t	В	β	F	adj. R^2
Intercept	-4.76***	-9.76		113.96	.35
Parenting	1.54	.02	.05		
Self-concept	9.46***	.07	.36		
Narcissism	8.05***	.24	.30		

Note. The dependent variable for regression is anger. p < .001

Table 38 shows a multiple linear regression was calculated to predict anger based on parenting, self-concept and narcissism. The analysis was carried out after testing the assumptions for multiple linear regression of independence of observations, twenty records for each independent variable (present study have a record of 628), linear relationship between independent variables and dependent variable, absence of multicollinearity between independent variables as the correlation between them was less than .70. A significant regression equation was found F(3,624) = 113.96, p < .001 with an adjusted R² of .35. The value of R^2 show that 35 % statistically significant variance in anger is explained by parenting, self-concept and narcissism. The sample's predicted anger is equal to 9.76 - .02 (parenting) + .07 (selfconcept) + .24 (narcissism). Increase in anger is 2 % due to parenting, 7 % because of how the self-concept of an individual is formed and 24 % due to the presence of narcissism traits. Both self-concept and narcissism were significant predictors of anger.

Mediation between Parenting, Self-concept, Narcissism, Anger and Their Subscales. It is carried out in order to check role of mediators between IV and DV. For this purpose, four steps devised by Baron and Kenny (1986) were followed. These include (a) significant association between independent variable and dependent variable, that can be mediated by a third variable (b) significant association between independent variable and mediator (c) significant association between mediator and dependent variable (d) significant decline in independent variable and dependent variable association when mediator is added to the model after controlling for independent variable. For this simple linear regression was done from independent to dependent variable, from independent to mediator variable and from mediator to dependent variable. Then mediation is conducted using regression analysis. Finally to further build in confidence on mediation related findings *Sobel* test value was also calculated as it has been advocated by McKinnon and Dwyer (1995). Hayes' process macro for SPSS is used to carry out this analysis.

Narcissism				
			Model 2	
95% CI				
Predictors	Model 1 B	В	LL	UL
(Constant)	129.38	43.97	39.56	38.38
Self-concept	.14***	.11	.09	.13
Parenting		.04	.01	.07
Age	1.83	.62	.02	1.23
Gender	19	35	-1.22	.53
R^2	.08	.28		
F	17.47	59.77 ^{****}		
ΔR^2		.22		
ΔF		187.91		

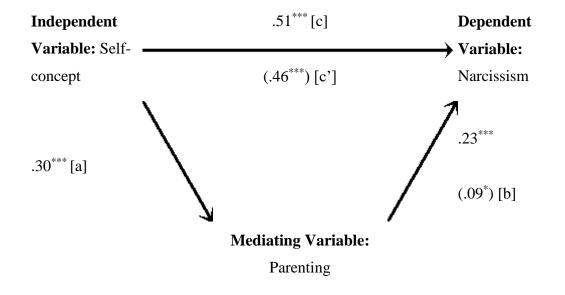
Table 39: Mediating Effect of Parenting between Self-Concept and Narcissism (N=628)

Note: B = unstandardized regression coefficient, $R^2 =$ explained variance Gender and age are controlled variables. p<0.01; p<0.001

Table 39 shows that after controlling for gender and age, self-concept has significant positive relationship with narcissism among adults explaining about 8 % variance (model1). Model 2 shows that parenting significantly mediates the direct relationship of self-concept and narcissism explaining about 28 % variance. The path (direct effect) from self-concept to parenting is positive and statistically significant (b = .14, s.e.= .02, p < .001), indicating that a person scoring higher on self-concept are more likely to develop narcissistic traits than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of parenting on narcissism is positive and significant (b = .04, s.e.= .01, p < .05) indicating that persons scoring higher on parenting are likely to exhibit more narcissistic traits than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of self-concept and narcissism was positively significant (b = .11, s.e.= .01, p < .05) indicating that persons scoring higher on parenting are likely to exhibit more narcissistic traits than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of self-concept and narcissism was positively significant (b = .11, s.e.= .01, p < .001). The indirect effect is tested using non-parametric bootstrapping. In this case the indirect effect (.01) is statistically significant: 95% CI= (.001-.01). If the null of 0 falls between the lower and upper bound of the 95% confidence interval, then it is inferred

that the population indirect effect is 0. If 0 falls outside the confidence interval, then the indirect effect is inferred to be non-zero. Sobel test further validated the indirect effect of self-concept and narcissism through parenting (z=3.47, p < .001).

Figure 9: Medgraph Shows Indirect Effect of Self-Concept and Narcissism through Parenting. The Numerical Value in Parentheses Are Beta Weights Taken From the Second Regression and the Other Values Are Zero Order Correlations



			Model 2	
				95% CI
Predictors	Model 1 B	В	LL	UL
(Constant)	129.38	2.16	-1.16	5.48
Self-concept	.14	.08	.07	.09
Parenting		.02	00	.04
Age	1.83	1.45	.99	1.92
Gender	19	88	-1.54	22
R^2	.08	.33		
F	17.47	78.08		
ΔR^2		.01		
ΔF		5.55		

Table 40: Mediating Effect of Parenting between Self-Concept and Anger (N=628)

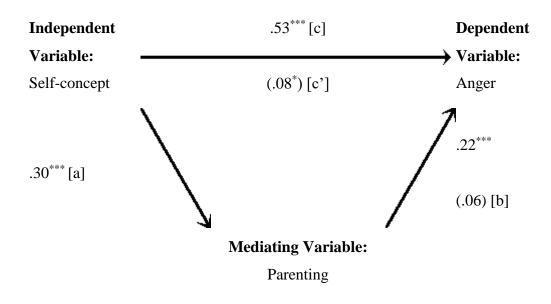
Anger

Note: B= unstandardized regression coefficient, R^2 = explained variance Gender and age are controlled variables **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

Table 40 shows that after controlling for gender and age, self-concept has significant positive relationship with anger among adults explaining about 8 % variance (model1). Model 2 shows that parenting mediates the direct relationship of self-concept and anger non-significantly explaining about 33% variance. The path (direct effect) from self-concept to parenting is positive and statistically significant (b = .14, *s.e.*= .02, p < .001), indicating that a person scoring higher on self-concept are more likely to be more angry than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of self-concept on anger was significantly positive (b = .08, *s.e.*= .01, p < .001). The direct effect of parenting on anger is positive but non-significant (b = .02, *s.e.*= .01) indicating that persons scoring higher on parenting are not likely to exhibit more anger than those scoring lower on the measure. The indirect effect is tested using non-parametric bootstrapping. In this case the indirect effect (.003) is statistically significant: 95% *CI*= (-.0001-.007). If the null of 0 falls between the lower and upper

bound of the 95% confidence interval, then it is inferred that the population indirect effect is 0. If 0 falls outside the confidence interval, then the indirect effect is inferred to be non-zero. Sobel test was carried to find the significant indirect effect of self-concept and anger through parenting (z=1.92, p < .05).

Figure 10: Medgraph Shows Indirect Effect of Self-Concept and Anger through Parenting. The Numerical Value in Parentheses Are Beta Weights Taken From the Second Regression and the Other Values Are Zero Order Correlations



			Model 2			
				95% CI		
Predictors	Model 1 B	В	LL	UL		
(Constant)	-1.79	-6.28	-9.58	-2.98		
Narcissism	1.84***	.23***	.17	.28		
Self-concept		.06	.04	.07		
Age	10.06	1.34	.89	1.78		
Gender	1.86	80	-1.43	17		
R^2	.34	.39				
F	106.41***	100.01***				
ΔR^2		.07				
ΔF		68.38				

Table 41: Mediating Effect of Self-Concept between Narcissism and Anger (N=628)

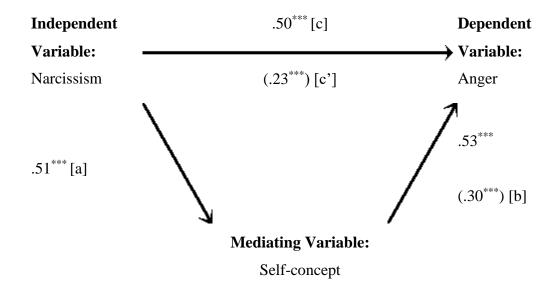
Anger

Note: B= unstandardized regression coefficient, R^2 = explained variance Gender and age are controlled variables **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

Table 41 shows that after controlling for gender and age, narcissism has significant positive relationship with anger among adults explaining about 34 % variance (model1). Model 2 shows that parenting mediates the direct relationship of narcissism and anger significantly explaining about 39% variance. The path (direct effect) from narcissism to self-concept is positive and statistically significant (*b*= 1.84, *s.e.*= .14, *p* < .001), indicating that a person scoring higher on narcissism are more likely to have more high self-concept than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of narcissism on anger is positive and significant (*b* = .23, s.e.= .03, p < .001) indicating that persons scoring higher on narcissism are not likely to exhibit more anger than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of self-concept on anger was also positive and significant (*b* = .06, *s.e.*= .01, *p* < .001). The indirect effect is tested using non-parametric bootstrapping. In this case the indirect effect (.10) is statistically significant: 95% *CI*= (.07-.14). If the null of 0 falls between the

lower and upper bound of the 95% confidence interval, then it is inferred that the population indirect effect is 0. If 0 falls outside the confidence interval, then the indirect effect is inferred to be non-zero. Sobel test was carried to find the significant indirect effect of narcissism and anger through self-concept (z=1.92, p < .05).

Figure 11: Medgraph Shows Indirect Effect of Narcissism and Anger through Self-Concept. The Numerical Value in Parentheses Are Beta Weights Taken From the Second Regression and the Other Values Are Zero Order Correlations



Mediation analysis was further carried out to highlight which of the subvariables (subscales) among parenting, self-concept, narcissism and anger act as strong mediators to explain the variance among outcome variables.

Authority				
			Model 2	
			95% (CI
Predictors	Model 1 B	В	LL	UL
(Constant)	39.63	7.08	6.26	7.91
Likeability	.29***	.14 ***	.13	.16
Involvement		.03**	.01	.05
Age	.29	.57	.38	.75
Gender	33	.32	.07	.56
R^2	.11	.53		
F	26.74	172.95		
ΔR^2		.34		
ΔF		476.44		

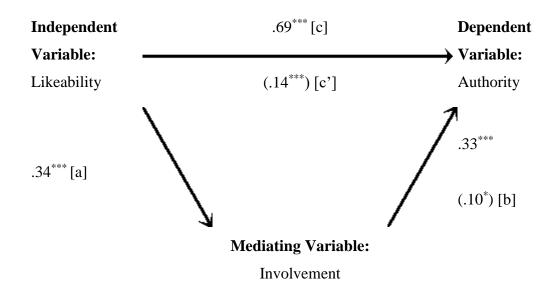
Table 42: Mediating Effect of Involvement (Parenting) between Likeability (Self-Concept) and Authority (Narcissism) (N=628)

Note: B = unstandardized regression coefficient, $R^2 =$ explained variance Gender and age are controlled variables **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001

Table 42 shows that after controlling for gender and age, likeability has significant positive relationship with authority among adults explaining about 11 % variance (model1). Model 2 shows that involvement mediates the direct relationship of likeability and authority significantly explaining about 53% variance. The path (direct effect) from likeability to involvement is positive and statistically significant (b = .29, s.e.= .04, p < .001), indicating that a person scoring higher on likeability is more likely to have more high score on involvement than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of involvement on authority is positive and significant (b = .03, s.e.= .01, p < .01) indicating that persons showing more authority are authority than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of likeability on authority is also positive and significant (b = .14, s.e.= .01, p < .001). The indirect effect is tested using non-parametric bootstrapping. In this case the indirect effect (.01) is

statistically significant: 95% CI = (.003-.01). If the null of 0 falls between the lower and upper bound of the 95% confidence interval, then it is inferred that the population indirect effect is 0. If 0 falls outside the confidence interval, then the indirect effect is inferred to be non-zero. Sobel test was carried to find the significant indirect effect of likeability and authority through involvement (z=2.77, *p* < .05).

Figure 12: Medgraph Shows Indirect Effect of Likeability and Authority through Involvement. The Numerical Value in Parentheses Are Beta Weights Taken From The Second Regression and the Other Values Are Zero Order Correlations.



Exhibitionism				
			Model 2	
				95% CI
Predictors	Model 1 B	В	1	LL
				UL
(Constant)	14.52	8.23	7.39	9.07
Likeability	.22***	.10***	.08	.13
Positive Parenting		.09***	.15	.12
Age	36	08	32	.16
Gender	.23	55	87	24
R^2	.15	.23		
F	36.95	47.43***		
ΔR^2		.12		
ΔF		94.21		

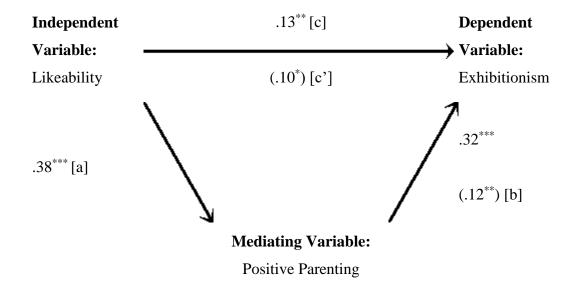
Table 43: Mediating Effect of Positive Parenting between Likeability (Self-Concept) and Exhibitionism (Narcissism) (N=628)

Note: B= unstandardized regression coefficient, R^2 = explained variance Gender and age are controlled variables **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001

Table 43 shows that after controlling for gender and age, likeability has significant positive relationship with exhibitionism among adults explaining about 15 % variance (model1). Model 2 shows that positive parenting mediates the direct relationship of likeability and exhibitionism significantly explaining about 23% variance. The path (direct effect) from likeability to positive parenting is positive and statistically significant (b = .22, s.e.= .02, p < .001), indicating that a person scoring higher on likeability is more likely to have more high score on exhibitionism than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of positive parenting on exhibitionism is positive are likely to score high on exhibitionism than those scoring high on positive are likely to score high on exhibitionism than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of likeability on exhibitionism than those scoring high on positive are likely to score high on exhibitionism than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of likeability on exhibitionism than those scoring high on positive are likely to score high on exhibitionism than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of likeability on exhibitionism is also

positive and significant (b = .10, *s.e.*= .01, p < .001). The indirect effect is tested using non-parametric bootstrapping. In this case the indirect effect (.02) is statistically significant: 95% *CI*= (.01-.03). If the null of 0 falls between the lower and upper bound of the 95% confidence interval, then it is inferred that the population indirect effect is 0. If 0 falls outside the confidence interval, then the indirect effect is inferred to be non-zero. Sobel test was carried to find the significant indirect effect of likeability and authority through involvement (z=4.16, p < .001).

Figure 13: Medgraph Shows Indirect Effect of Likeability and Exhibitionism through Positive Parenting. The Numerical Value in Parentheses Are Beta Weights Taken From the Second Regression and the Other Values Are Zero Order Correlations



Anger					
		Model 2			
				95% C	
Predictors	Model 1 B	В	LL	UL	
(Constant)	-10.24	7.81	5.82	9.80	
Authority	2.19***	.20*	.01	.40	
Likeability		.34***	.29	.39	
Age	2.70	.31	16	.78	
Gender	86	71	-1.31	11	
R^{2}	.53	.45			
F	233.67***	128.40****			
ΔR^2		.04			
ΔF		4.50*			

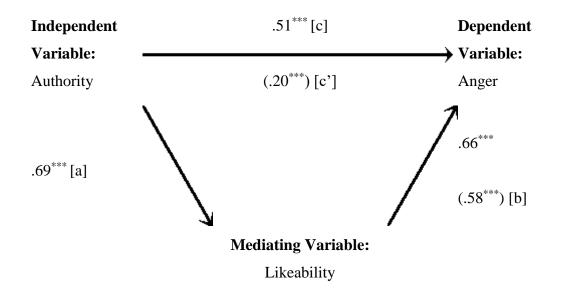
Table 44: Mediating Effect of Likeability (Self-Concept) between Authority (Narcissism) and Anger (N=628)

Note: B = unstandardized regression coefficient, $R^2 =$ explained variance Gender and age are controlled variables **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001

Table 44 shows that after controlling for gender and age, likeability has significant positive relationship with anger among adults explaining about 53 % variance (model1). Model 2 shows that likeability mediates the direct relationship of authority and anger significantly explaining about 45% variance. The path (direct effect) from authority to likeability is positive and statistically significant (b = 2.19, s.e.=.12, p < .001), indicating that a person scoring higher on authority is more likely to have more high score on likeability than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of likeability on anger is also positive and significant (b = .34, s.e.= .03, p < .001) indicating that persons scoring high on likeability are likely to score high on anger than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of authority on anger is also positive and significant (b = .20, s.e.= .09, p < .05). The indirect effect is tested using non-parametric bootstrapping. In this case the indirect effect (.75) is statistically

significant: 95% CI= (.60-.91). If the null of 0 falls between the lower and upper bound of the 95% confidence interval, then it is inferred that the population indirect effect is 0. If 0 falls outside the confidence interval, then the indirect effect is inferred to be non-zero. Sobel test was carried to find indirect effect of authority on anger through likeability (*z*=9.63, *p* = 0).

Figure 14: Medgraph Shows Indirect Effect of Authority and Anger through Likeability. The Numerical Value in Parentheses Are Beta Weights Taken From the Second Regression and the Other Values Are Zero Order Correlations



Anger				
				95% CI
Predictors	Model 1 B	В	LL	UL
(Constant)	-2.53	7.32	5.47	9.17
Exhibitionism	1.31***	.23***	.08	.38
Likeability		.35***	.30	.39
Age	5.18	.45	.00	.91
Gender	.46	53	-1.13	.07
R^2	.40	.46		
F	140.81	130.65***		
ΔR^2		.01		
ΔF		10.42***		

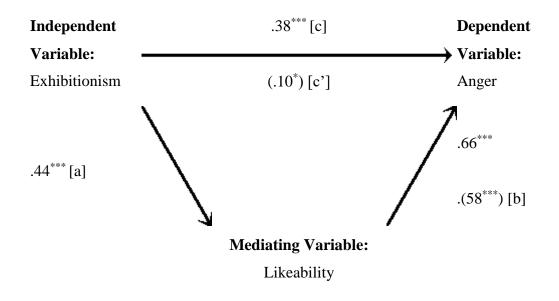
Table 45: Mediating Effect of Likeability (Self-Concept) between Exhibitionism (Narcissism) and Anger (N=628)

Note: B= unstandardized regression coefficient, R^2 = explained variance Gender and age are controlled variables ****p < 0.001

Table 45 shows that after controlling for gender and age, exhibitionism has significant positive relationship with anger among adults explaining about 40 % variance (model1). Model 2 shows that likeability mediates the direct relationship of exhibitionism and anger significantly explaining about 46% variance. The path (direct effect) from exhibitionism to likeability is positive and statistically significant (b= 1.31, *s.e.*= .12, *p* < .001), indicating that a person scoring higher on exhibitionism is likely to have more high score on likeability than those scoring lower. The direct effect of likeability on anger is also positive and significant (b= .35, *s.e.*= .02, *p* < .001) indicating that persons scoring high on likeability are likely to score high on anger than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of exhibitionism on anger is also positive and significant (b= .23, *s.e.*= .07, *p* < .05). The indirect effect is tested using non-parametric bootstrapping. In this case the indirect effect (.45) is

statistically significant: 95% CI= (.35-.57). If the null of 0 falls between the lower and upper bound of the 95% confidence interval, then it is inferred that the population indirect effect is 0. If 0 falls outside the confidence interval, then the indirect effect is inferred to be non-zero. Sobel test was carried to find indirect effect of exhibitionism and anger through likeability (*z*=9.26, *p* = 0).

Figure 15: Medgraph Shows Indirect Effect of Exhibitionism and Anger through Likeability. The Numerical Value in Parentheses Are Beta Weights Taken From the Second Regression and the Other Values Are Zero Order Correlations



Anger				
			Model 2	
				95% CI
Predictors	Model 1 B	В	LL	UL
(Constant)	5.54	3.19	.10	5.29
Authority	1.12^{***}	.73****	.56	.91
Task		.20****	.15	.25
Accomplishment				
Age	.86	1.06	.58	1.55
Gender	.42	-1.09	-1.74	45
R^2	.17	.36		
F	41.39***	81.15		
ΔR^2		.13		
ΔF		121.68		

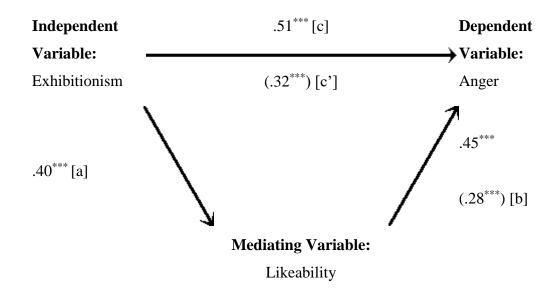
Table 46: Mediating Effect of Task Accomplishment (Self-Concept) between Authority (Narcissism) and Anger (N=628)

Note: B= unstandardized regression coefficient, R^2 = explained variance Gender and age are controlled variables ***p<0.001

Table 46 shows that after controlling for gender and age, authority has significant positive relationship with anger among adults explaining about 17 % variance (model1). Model 2 shows that task accomplishment mediates the direct relationship of authority and anger significantly explaining about 36% variance. The path (direct effect) from authority to task accomplishment is positive and statistically significant (b= 1.12, s.e.= .14, p < .001), indicating that a person scoring higher on authority is likely to have more high score on task accomplishment than those scoring lower. The direct effect of task accomplishment on anger is also positive and significant (b= .20, s.e.= .02, p < .001) indicating that persons scoring high on task accomplishment are likely to score high on anger than those scoring lower on the measure. The direct effect of authority on anger is also positive and significant (b= .73, s.e.= .09, p < .001). The indirect effect is tested using non-parametric

bootstrapping. In this case the indirect effect (.22) is statistically significant: 95% *CI*= (.14-.33). If the null of 0 falls between the lower and upper bound of the 95% confidence interval, then it is inferred that the population indirect effect is 0. If 0 falls outside the confidence interval, then the indirect effect is inferred to be non-zero. Sobel test was carried to find indirect effect of authority and anger through task accomplishment (z= 6.25, p = 0).

Figure 16: Medgraph Shows Indirect Effect of Authority and Anger through Task Accomplishment. The Numerical Value in Parentheses Are Beta Weights Taken from the Second Regression and the Other Values Are Zero Order Correlations



Moderation between Age, Perceived Parenting, Self-concept, Narcissism and Anger. Moderation is carried out in order to see the altering effect of moderator on the association between a given predictor and an outcome. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), the relationship between predictor and outcome can be influenced by moderating factor/variable. In moderation it is analyzed whether an interaction between independent variable and moderator variable is a significant predictor of an outcome variable, after controlling for the main effect of some independent variable and moderator. A moderating variable may increase or decrease the relationship between a predictor variable and dependent variable, or it may even change the direction of the relationship between the two variables from positive to negative or vice versa (Kim, Kaye & Wright, 2001).

While doing the moderation analysis the issue of multicollinearity should be kept in mind. In order to avoid this issue, both the variables, that is, independent and moderator were centered. The centering was done by subtracting the mean of the sample from variable score. Then the relevant interaction terms of the independent variables and the moderator was computed. After the computation of interaction terms, through enter method, multiple regression analysis was conducted to investigate the moderating effect of employment status on the association between affiliate stigma and social isolation. In order to see potential moderation in given sample, the analysis was conducted. The results are given in the table.

Self-concept		Model 2	1	
		WIOUEI 2	, 95%	CI
Predictors	Model 1 B	В	LL	UL
(Constant)	77.72	129.67	126.70	132.64
Parenting	.34	.52***	.35	.70
Early middle Age	13.39	12.92	8.50	17.34
Middle Age	26.05	26.82	21.55	32.09
Parenting x Early Middle Age		27*	54	01
Parenting x Middle Age		50***	84	15
R^2	.20	.21		
F	52.57***	33.73		
ΔR^2	.19	.01		
ΔF		4.57		

Table 47: Moderating Effect of Age between Parenting and Self-Concept (N=628)

p*<0.05; ***p*<0.001

Table 47 shows that in the model 1, parenting and age accounted for a significant 20 % amount of variance in self-concept, $R^2 = .20$, F(5, 622) = 52.57, p < .001. In model 2, the interactions were added to the regression model, which accounted for not a significant proportion of the variance in self-concept, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $\Delta F(2, 622) = 4.57$, p < .001.

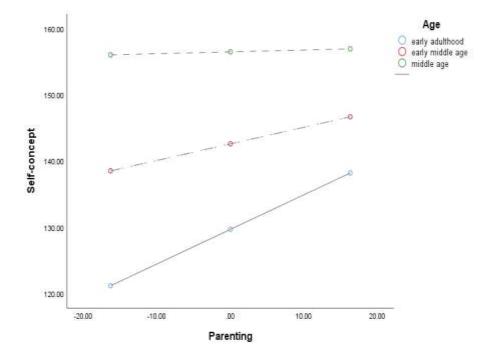


Figure 17: Modgraph Representing the Relationship between Parenting and Self-Concept Moderated by Age

In figure 17, the examination of the interaction plot showed an enhancing effect on self-concept among early adulthood as parenting and age plot increased. At early middle age, the enhancing effect was less while among middle age no effect has been recorded.

Narcissism					
	Model 2				
			95	5% CI	
Predictors	Model 1 B	В	LL	UL	
(Constant)	52.16	63.48	62.74	64.21	
Parenting	.07***	.11	.07	.15	
Early middle Age	3.78***	3.69	2.59	4.78	
Middle Age	3.54***	3.66	2.36	4.96	
Parenting x Early Middle Age		06	12	.01	
Parenting x Middle Age		09*	18	04	
R^2	.13	.14			
F	31.13****	19.83			
ΔR^2	.12	.01			
ΔF		2.63			

Table 48: Moderating Effect of Age between Parenting and Narcissism (N=628)

*p<0.05; ****p<0.001

Table 48 shows that in the model 1, parenting and age accounted for a significant 13 % amount of variance in narcissism, $R^2 = .13$, F(3, 624) = 19.83, p < .001. In model 2, the interactions were added to the regression model, which accounted for not a significant proportion of the variance in self-concept, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $\Delta F(5, 622) = 2.63$. It has been found by the results that the interaction was significant among the middle age group but not among the early middle age explaining that middle age is acting as a moderator among parenting and narcissism but not the other age levels.

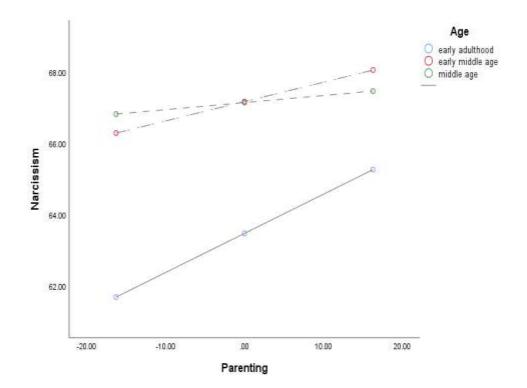


Figure 18: Modgraph Representing the Relationship between Parenting and Narcissism Moderated By Age

In figure 18, the examination of the interaction plot showed more enhancing effect on narcissism among early adulthood as parenting and age plot increased. Early middle age also showed more enhanced effect compared to middle age.

Authority				
		Model 2		
			95%	% CI
Predictors	Model 1 B	В	LL	UL
(Constant)	9.03	12.57***	12.37	12.77
Likeability	.16	.18	.16	.20
Early middle Age	1.19***	1.08	.79	1.36
Middle Age	.96	1.71***	1.22	2.20
Parenting x Early Middle Age		04	07	.01
Parenting x Middle Age		14	19	09
R ²	.54	.55		
F	238.94	155.12***		
ΔR^2	.53	.01		
ΔF		14.21***		

Table 49: Moderating Effect of Age between Likeability (Self-concept) and Authority (Narcissism) (N=628)

p<0.001

Table 49 shows that in the model 1, likeability and age accounted for a significant 54 % amount of variance in authority, $R^2 = .54$, F(3, 624) = 238.94, p < .001. In model 2, the interactions were added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in authority, $\Delta R^2 = .05$, $\Delta F(5, 622) = 14.21$. It has been found by the results that the interaction was significant among the middle age group but not among the early middle age explaining that middle age is acting as a moderator among likeability and authority than other levels.

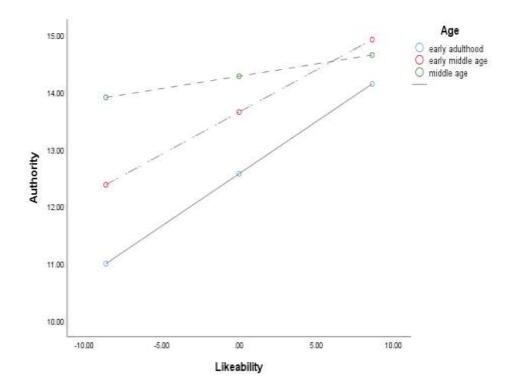


Figure 19: Modgraph Representing the Relationship between Likeability and Authority Moderated By Age

In figure 19, the examination of the interaction plot showed more enhancing effect on authority among early adulthood as likeability and age plot increased. Early middle age also showed more enhanced effect compared to middle age.

		95% CI			
Model 1 B	В	LL	UL		
4.34	16.80***	16.21	17.39		
.93	1.14	.90	1.37		
1.41***	1.26**	.41	2.11		
2.44***	3.38	2.02	4.74		
	37	75	.02		
	98	-1.67	30		
.29	.30				
83.21****	52.49 ^{***}				
.28	.01				
	4.87**				
	Model 1 B 4.34 .93 1.41 2.44 .29 83.21	Model 1 BB 4.34 16.80^{****} $.93^{****}$ 1.14^{****} 1.41^{****} 1.26^{**} 2.44^{****} 3.38^{****} 37 98^{***} $.29$ $.30$ 83.21^{****} 52.49^{****} $.28$ $.01$	$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $		

Table 50: Moderating Effect of Age between Authority (Narcissism) and Anger (N=628)

p<0.01; *p<0.001

Table 50 shows that in the model 1, authority and age accounted for a significant 29 % amount of variance in authority, $R^2 = .29$, F(3, 624) = 83.21, p < .001. In model 2, the interactions were added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of 30 % variance in anger, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $\Delta F(5, 622) = 4.87$. It has been found by the results that the interaction was significant among the middle age group but not among the early middle age explaining that middle age is acting as a moderator among authority and anger than other levels.

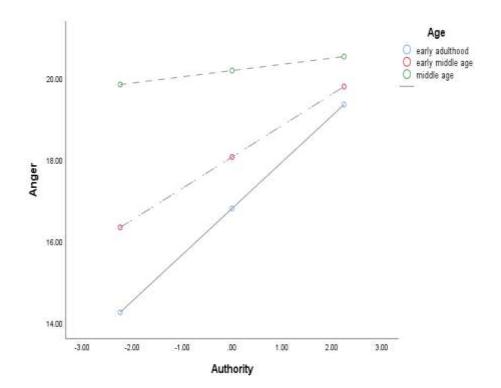


Figure 20: Modgraph Representing the Relationship between Authority and Anger Moderated by Age

In figure 20, the examination of the interaction plot showed enhancing effect on anger among early adulthood as authority and age plot increased. Early middle age also showed more enhanced effect on anger while middle age showed change.

Group Differences on Parenting, Narcissism, Self-Concept and Anger

Gender, age and occupation differences on all scales were analyzed with *t-test*. Then *cohen's d* was calculated to check the effect size. For age groups and parenting received, three groups were formed on the basis of age levels and the type of parenting received. ANOVA was applied to see the differences in these categories.

Gender Differences on Parenting, Narcissism, Self-Concept And Anger. Differences were looked for with reference to the gender of study participants. For this *t-test* was carried out to see whether male adults were different from female adults on parenting, narcissism, self-concept and anger. *Cohen's d* was calculated to check for effect size.

Table 51: 0	Gender	Differences	on	Parenting,	Narcissism,	Self-Concep	t and Anger
(N=628)							

	Male	e	Female	e					
	(n=3-	43)	(n=285	5)			95%	CI	
Variables	М	SD	М	SD	t(628)	р	LL	UL	Cohen's d
Alabama Pare	enting Q	uestior	nnaire						
Involvement	46.22	7.88	45.94	7.77	.45	.65	95	1.51	.04
Positive	18.99	1.48	19.23	4.68	64	.52	96	.49	05
Parenting									
Poor	30.62	2 6.47	30.12	6.63	.94	.35	54	1.53	.08
Monitoring									
Inconsistent	14.76	4.71	14.87	5.02	30	.77	88	.65	02
Discipline									
Corporal	10.05	2.78	10.48	2.76	-1.96	.05	87	.00	16
Punishment									
Other	18.49	5.09	18.84	5.87	86	.38	-1.13	.43	06
Discipline									
Practices									

	Male	2	Female	2					
	(n=34	43)	(n=285	5)			95%	CI	
Variables	M	SD	М	SD	t(628)	p	LL	UL	Cohen's d
Narcissistic Pe	ersonali	ty Inve	ntory						
Authority	12.91	2.18	13.27	2.30	-2.00	.05	71	01	16
Self	9.90	1.71	9.76	1.82	1.01	.31	14	.42	.08
Sufficiency									
Superiority	8.25	1.63	8.16	1.65	.73	.47	16	.35	.05
Exhibitionism	11.43	2.28	10.91	2.22	2.92	.00	.17	.88	.23
Exploitative-	8.01	1.72	8.16	1.69	-1.14	.25	42	.11	09
ness									
Vanity	4.81	1.17	4.85	1.13	42	.68	22	.14	03
Entitlement	10.13	2.08	10.20	1.97	48	.63	40	.24	03
Six Factor Sel	f Conce	ept Scal	e						
Likeability	22.02	9.02	22.13	8.10	16	.88	-1.45	1.24	01
Morality	23.52	9.23	24.12	9.06	82	.41	-2.04	.84	07
Power	28.03	9.32	28.14	7.93	17	.87	-1.47	1.24	01
Task	21.87	7.36	22.75	6.95	-1.5	.12	-2.01	.25	12
Accomplishm									
ent									
Giftedness	18.78	5.87	19.69	6.29	-1.86	.06	-1.87	.05	15
Vulnerability	24.04	7.34	23.87	6.10	.30	.77	.96	1.30	.03
Dimensions of	f Anger	Reacti	on Revis	sed					
Anger	17.82	5.30	17.24	4.86	1.44	.15	21	1.38	.11

In order to compare scores between males and females on Alabama Parenting Questionnaire, Narcissistic Personality Inventory, Six Factor Self Concept Scale and Dimensions of Anger Reaction Revised and their sub scales, an independent sample *t*-test was conducted. These results indicate to be significant for corporal punishment (t = -1.96, p<.05; d = -.16), authority (t = -2.00, p < .05; d = -.16) and exhibitionism (t = 2.92, p<.001; d = .23). The effect sizes were found to not exceed Cohen's (1988)

convention for a large effect (d = .80) for many variables. These results also found that female adults scored high on most subscales of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire except involvement (M = 45.94, SD = 7.77) and poor monitoring (M = 30.12, SD =6.63) than male adults (M = 46.22, SD = 7.88; M = 30.62, SD = 6.47) respectively. Male adults were found to score high on Narcissistic Personality Inventory except on authority, exploitativeness and vanity than females. Female adults also scored high on all subscales of Six Factor Self Concept Scale except vulnerability (M = 23.87, SD =6.10) than male adults (M = 24.04, SD = 7.34). Male adults scored high on Dimensions of Anger Reaction Revised (M = 17.82, SD = 5.30) than females (M =17.24, SD = 4.86).

Occupation Status Differences on Parenting, Narcissism, Self-Concept and Anger. Respondents were divided into two groups of occupation status: working and students to compare for mean differences. The *t-test* was applied to see mean differences on parenting, narcissism, self-concept and anger. Further *cohen's d* was also computed to see the effect size.

	Student		Worki	ng					
	(n=3.	34)	(n=294	l)				CI	
Variables	M	SD	М	SD	t(628)) p	LL	UL	Cohen's d
Alabama Pare	enting Q	uestior	inaire						
Involvement	45.53	8.18	46.73	7.36	-1.94	.05	-2.42	.02	15
Positive	19.10	4.50	19.11	4.65	05	.96	74	.70	02
Parenting									
Poor	30.26	6.77	30.54	6.27	53	.59	-1.29	.75	04
Monitoring									
Inconsistent	14.92	5.01	14.69	1.66	.60	.55	53	.99	.05
Discipline									
Corporal	10.06	2.86	10.46	2.67	-1.84	.07	84	.03	14
Punishment									
Other	18.41	5.04	18.92	4.93	-1.28	.20	-1.29	.27	10
Discipline									

Table 52: Means Differences of Occupation Status on Parenting, Narcissism, Self-Concept and Anger (N=628)

	Stude	ent	Worki	ng					
	(n=33	34)	(n=294	I)			95% C	CI	
Variables	M	SD	М	SD	t(628)) p	LL	UL	Cohen's d
Practices									
Narcissistic Pe	ersonali	ty Inve	ntory						
Authority	12.32	2.32	13.93	1.81	-9.76	.00	-1.93	-1.28	77
Self-	9.73	1.77	9.96	1.75	-1.65	.10	51	.04	13
sufficiency									
Superiority	8.25	1.63	8.17	1.65	.62	.53	18	.34	.05
Exhibitionism	10.97	2.29	11.46	2.22	-2.71	.01	84	14	22
Exploitative-	8.04	1.69	8.13	1.74	68	.49	36	.18	05
ness									
Vanity	4.76	1.19	4.90	1.11	-1.50	.13	32	.04	12
Entitlement	10.18	2.07	10.14	1.99	.25	.80	28	.36	.02
Six Factor Sel	f Conce	ept Scal	e						
Likeability	19.72	8.82	24.74	7.53	-7.69	.00	-6.30	-3.74	61
Morality	23.07	9.43	24.61	8.77	-2.12	.03	-2.97	11	17
Power	27.27	8.77	28.99	8.55	-2.49	.01	-3.09	37	19
Task	21.29	7.64	23.39	6.46	-3.73	.00	-3.20	99	29
Accomplish-									
ment									
Giftedness	18.49	6.09	19.99	5.97	-3.12	.00	-2.45	56	25
Vulnerability	23.40	7.23	24.59	7.08	-2.08	.04	-2.31	06	17
Dimensions of	f Anger	Reacti	on Revis	sed					
Anger	16.52	5.20	18.72	4.743	-5.54	.00	-2.98	-1.42	44

In order to compare scores between students and working adults on the sub scales of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire, Narcissistic Personality Inventory, Six Factor Self Concept Scale and Dimensions of Anger Reaction Revised, an independent sample *t*-test was conducted. These results indicate to be significant for involvement (t = -1.94, p < .05; d = -.15), authority t = -9.76, p < .001; d = -.77), exhibitionism t = -2.71, p < .01; d = -.22), all the subscales of Six Factor Self Concept Scale and anger t = -5.54, p < .001; d = -.44). The effect sizes were found to not

exceed Cohen's (1988) convention for a large effect (d = .80). These results also found that working adults scored high on most subscales of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire except inconsistent discipline (M = 14.69, SD = 4.66) than students (M = 14.92, SD = 5.01). Students scored a little higher on superiority (M = 8.25, SD =1.63) and entitlement (M = 10.18, SD = 2.07) than working adults (M = 8.17, SD =1.65; M = 10.14, SD = 1.99) respectively. Working adults scored higher on all sub scales of Six Factor Self Concept Scale and Anger than students.

Age Differences on Parenting, Narcissism, Self-Concept and Anger. For age differences of adults on parenting, narcissism, self-concept and anger; three groups were formed that are: early adulthood (21-30 years old), early middle age (31-40 years old) and late middle age (41-50 years old). One way ANOVA was applied to see group differences and furthermore post hoc test using Bonferroni was done for multiple comparisons to unequal group sizes.

			Α	ge			_					
	Early ac (n=274)	dulthood)	Early mi (n=219)	iddle age	Late mi (n=135)	iddle age)			Mean		95	5% CI
Variables	М	SD	М	SD	М	D	F	i,j,k	<i>Diff.</i> (<i>i</i> , <i>j</i> , <i>k</i>)	Ε	LB	UB
inv	44.42	8.04	46.79	7.37	48.36	.39	13.31***	early adulthood < late middle age	-3.94	81	-5.87	-1.99
p.p	18.63	4.18	18.61	5.07	20.86	.06	13.18***	early adulthood < late middle age	-2.22	47	-3.36	-1.09
p.m	30.01	6.89	31.07	6.25	30.05	.24	1.82	ns	ns	~	-1.69	1.61
i.d	15.01	4.77	14.47	5.09	14.96	.62	.86	ns	ns	S S	-1.17	1.28
c.p	9.98	2.85	10.26	2.82	10.76	.50	3.64*	early adulthood < late middle age	78	29	-1.48	09
o.d.p	18.42	5.14	18.91	4.83	18.68	4.95	.58	ns	ns	S	-1.52	1.00
aut	11.77	2.18	13.76	1.89	14.61	.14	123.42***	early adulthood < late middle age	-2.85*	19	-3.33	-2.37

Table 53: Analysis of Variance of Adult's Age (Early Adulthood – 21 To 30 Years Old, Early Middle Age – 31 To 40 Years Old And Late Middle Age - 41 To 50 Years Old) on All Variables (N=628)

Early adu (n=274) M 9.55	ulthood <i>SD</i> 1.79	Early mic (n=219) <i>M</i> 10.04	ddle age <i>SD</i> 1.71	Late mid (n=135) M				Mean		Q	95% CI
				М	D	_					
9.55	1.79	10.04	1 71			F	i,j,k	Diff. (i,j,k)	Ε	LB	UB
			1./1	10.09	.69	6.68**	early adulthood < late middle age	54*	18	98	10
8.21	1.64	8.47	1.59	7.80	.64	7.02***	early middle age > late middle age	.67*	8	.24	1.09
10.79	2.28	11.19	2.35	12.04	.85	14.29***	early adulthood < label{eq:action} late middle age	-1.25*	23	-1.81	69
7.95	1.67	8.36	1.67	7.88	.81	4.68**	early adulthood < early middle age	41*	15	78	04
4.71	1.19	4.99	1.09	4.80	.16	3.64*	early adulthood < early middle age	28*	10	53	03
10.07	2.07	10.35	1.93	10.03	.09	1.51	ns	ns	S	47	.56
26.92	8.83	28.73	8.43	29.37	.68	4.56*	ns	ns	8	-4.63	27
	10.79 7.95 4.71 10.07	10.792.287.951.674.711.19	10.792.2811.197.951.678.364.711.194.9910.072.0710.35	10.792.2811.192.357.951.678.361.674.711.194.991.0910.072.0710.351.93	10.792.2811.192.3512.047.951.678.361.677.884.711.194.991.094.8010.072.0710.351.9310.03	10.79 2.28 11.19 2.35 12.04 .85 7.95 1.67 8.36 1.67 7.88 .81 4.71 1.19 4.99 1.09 4.80 .16 10.07 2.07 10.35 1.93 10.03 .09	10.79 2.28 11.19 2.35 12.04 $.85$ 14.29^{***} 7.95 1.67 8.36 1.67 7.88 $.81$ 4.68^{**} 4.71 1.19 4.99 1.09 4.80 $.16$ 3.64^{*} 10.07 2.07 10.35 1.93 10.03 $.09$ 1.51	10.79 2.28 11.19 2.35 12.04 .85 14.29*** early adulthood < late middle age	Intermiddle age10.792.2811.192.3512.04.85 14.29^{***} early adulthood < -1.25* late middle age7.951.678.361.677.88.814.68^{**}early adulthood <41* early middle age4.711.194.991.094.80.163.64*early adulthood <28* early middle age10.072.0710.351.9310.03.091.51nsns	10.792.2811.192.3512.04.85 14.29^{***} early adulthood < late middle age -1.25^* 23 late middle age7.951.678.361.677.88.81 4.68^{**} early adulthood < early middle age 41^* 154.711.194.991.094.80.16 3.64^* early adulthood < early middle age 28^* 1010.072.0710.351.9310.03.091.51nsnss	Intermidule age10.792.2811.192.3512.04.85 14.29^{***} early adulthood < -1.25^* 23 -1.81 10.792.2811.677.88.81 4.68^{**} early adulthood < 41^* 15 78 7.951.678.361.677.88.81 4.68^{**} early adulthood < 41^* 15 78 4.711.194.991.094.80.16 3.64^* early adulthood < 28^* 10 53 10.072.0710.351.9310.03.091.51nsnss 47

			A	Age			_					
	Early adulthood (n=274)					Late middle age (n=135)			Mean			95% CI
Variables	М	SD	М	SD	М	D	F	i,j,k	Diff. (i,j,k)	Ε	LB	UB
t.a	20.18	7.418	23.12	6.74	25.14	.09	25.83***	early adulthood < late middle age	-4.96*	73	-6.71	-3.22
gif	18.15	6.04	19.17	6.46	21.36	.85	13.05***	early adulthood < late middle age	-3.20*	63	-4.71	-1.69
vul	23.08	6.97	24.52	7.31	24.84	.24	3.73*	ns	ns	S	-3.56	.05
lik	17.66	8.31	22.79	6.80	29.84	.41	129.49***	early adulthood < late middle age	-12.19*	76	-14.02	-10.36
mor	22.05	9.41	24.57	8.68	26.06	.74	10.21***	early adulthood < late middle age	-4.01*	95	-6.29	-1.74
ang	15.32	4.51	18.59	4.98	20.41	.49	62.04***	early adulthood < late middle age	-5.09*	49	-6.28	-3.92

Note. inv = involvement, p.p = positive parenting, p.m = poor monitoring, i.d = inconsistent discipline, c.p = corporal punishment, o.d.p = other discipline practices, aut = authority, s.s = self-sufficiency, sup = superiority, exh = exhibitionism, exp = exploitativeness, van = vanity, ent = entitlement, pow = power, t.a = task accomplishment, gif = giftedness, vul = vulnerability, lik = likeability, mor = morality, ang = anger. Between group df = 2, Within group df = 625, Total group df = 627; *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

A One Way ANOVA was conducted to compare the effects of age (early adulthood, early middle age and late middle age) on all study variables. An analysis of variance showed that the effect of age was significant on involvement, F(2,625) = 13.31, p < .001; positive parenting, F(2,625) = 13.18, p < .001 and corporal punishment, F(2,625) = 3.64, p < .05 of APQ. It was also significant on all subscales of NPI except entitlement. The effect was also significant for all sub scales of SFSCS except power. Age also showed to have significant effect on anger, F(2,625) = 62.04, p < .001. Bonferroni post hoc test revealed that participants from late middle age scored high on all APQ sub scales, SFSCS sub scales, and Anger. Early middle age scored higher on superiority (NPI) than late middle age while early middle age also scored higher on exploitativeness (NPI) than early adulthood.

Chapter V Discussion

The empirical work on parenting has identified a variety of parenting dimensions that influence childhood functioning. For the present study, self-concept, narcissism and anger were taken to have been impacted by parenting.

Individual's self-concept is affected by many factors. One of the most influencing factor are other people's evaluation towards the individual especially the significant others in his/her life (Peterson & Rollins, 1986). Family environment is the first and most important factor that influences the individual's growth (Bahrami et al., 2018). Family as the main pillar is the starting point of child's personality development (Bartle & Sabatelli, 1989; Nik et al., 2012). Family life is the first school for children to establish themselves (Ooi et al., 2015). Whilst family is the first learning ground, parents is seen as the important examples and reference point for children (Kamilah, 2005; Othman & Normalina, 2010). Parents are the role model in building character, personality, morals and faith as they are the source of aspirations during the development process (Collins et al., 2000; Salasiah, 2011). For this reason one of the many purposes of the study was to examine the effects of parenting styles on the development of self concept. Some research suggest that parenting style affects individual's difficulties starting from childhood (Baumrind, 1991; Jackson-Newsom et al., 2008; Park et al., 2010). In most parenting studies, the main supposition has been that parenting styles from both the father and mother effect an individual (Aunola & Nurmi, 2005; Kakihara et al., 2010). Lewis and Lamb (2003) stated that the interaction, attachment and attention from mothers and fathers influence personality outcomes. In the current study, parenting style has been looked separately for fathers and mothers since the questionnaire used in this study was having questions separtely for mother and fathers by participants. The reasons for having the questions asking separately for fathers and mothers is that individuals are likely to have different perceptions about their father's and mother's parenting style. Their perception is influenced by the relationship and attachment that they receive from both parents. Gender differences is another reason participants answered statesments for parents. Boys and girls are treated differently by their parents.

Therefore, boys and girls would have different views and opinions about their parents' parenting style. Thus, another important aim of this study was to discover the in perceived parenting among gender. Previous studies found that gender does affect parenting practices; for example, most Middle Eastern parents frequently exhibited authoritarian parenting style mostly with boys (Dwairy, 2008; Zarnaghash & Samani, 2010).

Previous theorizing by clinical psychologists suggests that adult's narcissism may be related to parenting practices (Kernberg, 1975; Kohut, 1977), still lack of consensus surrounding the conceptualization of narcissism can also be found. This research tried to test if parenting has any influence on narcissistic traits.

The present study was conducted in three phases. First phase consisted of content analysis of parenting, anger and narcissism to establish better understanding of these variables. In phase two, permission from the authors to use the scales in the present research was done. Ethical clearance to conduct the study was also taken by the Near East University's Ethics Board Committee. Phase three consisted of the main study. For the current study, Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (Frick, 1991), Six Factor Self Concept Scale (Stake, 1994), Narcissistic Personality Inventory (Raskin & Hall, 1979) and Dimensions of Anger Reactions Revised (Novaco, 2000) was used. The scales were used after taking permission from the authors. The appropriateness of the psychometric properties of the scales were checked to ascertain the use of them with confidence on a larger sample. The study was also aimed to find out the effects of parenting among adults and its impact on self-concept, narcissism and anger, sample of the study comprised of adults ranging from 21 to 30 years (early adults), 31 to 40 years (early middle age) and 41 to 50 years of age (middle age).

Content Analysis of Parenting, Narcissism and Anger

Results of content analysis clearly showed that the practitioners and researches were interested in the link between narcissism and anger but without going to dig in the factors that could contribute to their relationship and increase in published articles kept increasing every year. The present study looked into parenting and self-concept constructs to find out their role in the development and expression of narcissism and anger. Data collected for the analysis purpose of this study also suggested lack of awareness regarding narcissistic traits and its impact on the individual's lifelong experiences and other behaviors.

Underrepresentation of qualitative or mixed methods that promote contextually bound, critical or interpretive views, and the continued dominance of qualitative research is also found by analyzing the methodological trends over the years. In order to fill that gap the current study was designed quantitatively in order to broaden study findings, involving more subjects and enabling more generalization of results and to ensure more objectivity and accuracy (Bryman, 2001).

The notion that self-absorbed individuals are prone to aggression has been around since the time of Freud and clinical theorizing about narcissistic rage suggests that narcissistic individuals often respond with intense anger and aggression when their narcissistic world-view is questioned. In parallel, personality and social psychological research has identified links between narcissistic grandiosity and aggressive responses to direct assaults on the narcissists' status or sense of competence. Although such aggression has often been invoked as evidence for the narcissistic rage hypothesis, we have argued that this perspective has been demonstrated as both misguided and unproductive, yielding a confusing body of evidence that does not provide an appropriate test of the proposals about narcissistic rage arising from clinical theory.

In spite of the longstanding status of narcissistic personality disorder as a diagnosis in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, there is ongoing debate about the definition, the possibility of sub-types, and even about the validity of the label itself. Accurately identifying individuals who are emotionally reactive to criticism is very important. Although, clinically, this is an accepted aspect of narcissism, neither of the measures employed in the studies analyzed specifically included the experience of negative affect as part of narcissism (Emmons, 1987; DiGuiseppe at al., 1995).

Numerous researchers have explored the relationship between narcissism and anger as well as aggression with somewhat inconsistent results (McCann & Biaggio, 1989; Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Papps & Carroll, 1998). This is likely due to the multidimensionality of the three constructs and to the contribution of related third variables such as context and self-concept. This study analyzed the articles related to narcissism and anger that were published in various journals from 1971 to present. These were found by searching the SCOPUS data base. The documents were predominantly in English (90%) with the remainder being shared between German (3.33%), French (1.25%) and other languages (5.42%). For the past few years, many journals have published articles in different foreign languages (Spanish, Italian, Turkish, etc.) which have resulted in an increase in the number of articles on narcissism and anger in different languages.

In examining the results, it clearly highlights an increased level of interest among practitioners and researchers to work on the findings on narcissism and anger.

Almost 79.2 % of the published documents were from five major countries, that is, the United States of America (53.3%), Canada (9.17%), United Kingdom (7.5%), Germany (5%) and Italy (4.17%).26 documents (10.8%) were produced by authors affiliated with 20 different countries while the remaining (10%) documents were undefined. Data collected from content analysis of this study suggested lack of awareness regarding narcissism and its impact on others around and also on the individual's expression of anger and other associated behaviors.

From the study analysis it has also been observed that the methodological trends found within the articles in the selected time period indicated that quantitative methods were most common. This suggests an underrepresentation of qualitative or mixed methods that promote contextually bound, critical or interpretive views, and the continued dominance of qualitative choices.

Psychometric Properties of Scales

In order to determine the soundness of the scales used in the main study, alpha reliabilities and item total correlations were computed. As for Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ) and its sub scales, the reliabilities were high (see Table 2). Moreover each item of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire correlated significantly with the total score in the expected direction (see Table 3). For in depth study of parenting scale, analysis was done at subscale level. It is evident that for all the subscales, that is, Positive Parenting, Poor monitoring, Inconsistent Discipline, Involvement, Corporal Punishment, Other Discipline Practices, alpha reliability values were relatively high (see Table 2). When item total correlations were computed for items and subscales total (see Table 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 & 9), it indicated that each of the item contributed significantly to the respective subscale. High reliability values for the

scale itself and the subscales along with item total correlations are the sign that Alabama Parenting Questionnaire is an internally consistent, reliable and a valid measure.

In addition to this, inter-scale correlations were also computed (see Table 28) to study parenting in detail. It was evident that some dimensions of parenting contributed more significantly to the total parenting score. Inconsistent discipline correlated negatively with positive parenting, poor monitoring, corporal punishment and involvement.

For Six Factor Self Concept Scale (SFSCS), the psychometric properties were determined. Reliability estimates of the scale were seen (see Table 2). In addition, item-total correlations presented significant correlations of each item for particular scale with the respective total score on that scale indicating that these scales are internally consistent and reliable instruments (see Table 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23 & 24). Inter-scale correlations showed that the sub-scales were significantly related to each other (see Table 27).

Similarly, for Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) and Dimensions of Anger Reaction-Revised (DAR-R), psychometric properties were calculated. Reliability estimates of these scale and their sub scales were also seen (see Table 2). Item-total correlations presented some significant correlations (see Table 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17 & 25). Inter-scale correlations also showed significant relations (see Table 27).

Relating Parenting with Self-concept

Several lines of evidence suggest that parenting impact the development of self-concept of an individual. Parenting style involves the emotional climate and psychological constructs involved in the strategies used to raise children (Anderson, 2011). Authoritative parenting may contribute to the development of self-adequacy by being associated with internal locus of control orientation and stronger self-concept, while permissive and authoritarian parenting may be associated with negative patterns of social-emotional development and weaker self-concept (McClun & Merrell, 1999).

Parenting stress was related to specific parenting behaviors, which were, in turn, related to self-concept in adolescence. Parenting stress appears to exert negative effects on adolescent's self-concept indirectly through perceived parenting behavior (Putnick et al., 2008). One of the objectives of present study was to find out relationship between parenting and its effect on self-concept. It was hypothesized that parenting is positively correlated to self-concept. Correlations were calculated to find out the results between the scores of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire and Six Factor Self Concept Scale. The results indicated that there exist a significant positive correlation between parenting and self-concept. Poor monitoring, inconsistent discipline and other discipline practices is negatively correlated with self-concept meaning that the more poorly and inconsistently the individual is going to receive parenting practices, the less strongly developed self-concept he/she is going to have (see Table 27). A significant regression equation was also found F(1, 626) = 47.89, p < .001 with an R^2 of .07 explaining 7 % statistically significant variance in self-concept is explained by parenting (see Table 28). Regression was also done to predict the role of both mothers and fathers on the self-concept. Results showed that mothers contributed 10 % statistically significant variance in self-concept (see Table 31 & 32).

The compiled research to date suggests that low levels of parental monitoring and inconsistent parental practices are associated with individual's involvement in a range of antisocial and delinquent behaviors, narcissistic tendencies, and other personality disorders (Patterson, 1986; Dishion & McMahon, 1998; Crouter & Head, 2002). Inconsistent and erratic discipline by parents promotes deviant attitudes and behaviors in their children (Akers, 2000).

Relating Parenting with Narcissism

Factors associated with the development of narcissism are of significant interest to clinicians and researchers (Wright et al., 2017). Elevated narcissism in adults often sets up a cascade of interpersonal and mental health challenges reinforcing the need to understand its concomitants. Experiences of maltreatment and different parenting styles have been implicated (Schie et al., 2020). Parental warmth was associated positively and monitoring was associated negatively with both types of narcissism (Horton et al., 2006).

Another objective of present study was to find out relationship between parenting and narcissism among adults (Table 29). Based on literature, it was hypothesized that parenting and its sub scales are positively related to narcissism while poor monitoring is negatively associated with narcissism and authority, other discipline practices is also negatively related to narcissism and its subscale of superiority. Correlations were computed between the scores on Alabama Parenting Questionnaire and Narcissistic Personality Inventory. It was found that there exist a positive relationship between parenting and narcissism. Negative relationship exists between poor monitoring, narcissism and authority. Other discipline practices also is negatively related with superiority and narcissism (see Table 27). This explains that the less parents exercise discipline practices the more like narcissistic traits like superiority and authority, etc. are going to develop.

The study also aims to examine the role of parenting by mother and father figures, as some theorists have highlighted the role of the mother figure but research also indicates a role for the father figure in the development of narcissism (Huxley & Bizumic, 2017; Brummelman et al., 2015). From the regression analysis it was found that mothers contribute 8 % statistically significant variance in narcissism as compared to fathers who contribute 4 % significant variance in narcissism (see Table 33 & 34). Other studies have also found differences in maternal and paternal parenting with a stronger association for maternal parenting (Huxley & Bizumic, 2017; Watson et al., 1992).

Several factors should be considered in explaining this finding. First, the mother figure may often be the primary caregiver and because of that more direct effects are observed for maternal parenting and more indirect effects of paternal parenting (Craig, 2006). However, it may also differ per parenting style as positive parenting had a direct effect for both the mother and father figure whereas involvement and inconsistent discipline had differential effects. Second, there could be different expectations, norms and needs regarding the parenting role of the mother and father (Milkie et al., 1997; Finley et al., 2008). Whereas maternal and paternal parenting are conceptually the same, studies suggest that mothers are often more involved in all parenting domains than fathers (Fagan et al., 2014). With the exception of positive parenting, it may be the case that maternal parenting is more strongly associated with narcissism while paternal parenting is only associated with narcissism under certain circumstances.

Different studies have also confirmed that over or under indulgence of parental practices is found to be associated with narcissism (Segrin et al., 2012). Over-parenting or over-involvement in the child's life to protect the child from harm and ensure certain achievements has been related to a greater sense of entitlement and narcissism in general (Segrin et al., 2013; Winner & Nicholson, 2018). Lenient parenting has been found to relate to entitlement. The opposite behavior of greater monitoring in the form of enforcing rules may alternatively be protective against grandiosity (Watson et al., 1992).

Relating Parenting with Anger

Another objective of present study was to find out relationship between parenting and anger. It was hypothesized that parenting is positively related to anger. Correlations were computed between the scores on Alabama Parenting Questionnaire and Dimensions of Anger Reactions – Revised. Results revealed that there exists a positive significant relationship between parenting and anger (see Table 27 & 30). The poorer the parenting has been monitored, the more aggressive behavior has been observed in individuals.

The study also examined parenting by mother and father and its impact on the anger expression by adults. Regression results show that mothers contribute 8 % statistically significant variance in anger of adults while fathers contribute 4 % significant variance in anger (see Table 35 & 36).

Several theories emphasize the transactional and cyclical nature of parentchild interactions in which overinvolved, intrusive parenting behavior may occur. Using corporal punishment as a mean to discipline children may be elicited by the child's aggressive behavior in an effort by the parent to reduce the child's anger and disruptive behavior (Manassis & Bradley, 1994; Hudson & Rapee, 2004). Although parental anger and punishment may reduce the child's aggression in the short term, repeated exposure to punishment then serves to maintain the child's anger over the long term by denying the child opportunities to learn to express his/her anger productively. Consequently, the child's aggressive behavior persists, eliciting further parental punishment. Few studies have investigated this cyclical and causal relationship between and individual's anger and aggressive parenting behavior.

Previous researches also explained that mothers' harsh parenting affect an individual's emotion regulation more strongly than fathers' whereas harsh parenting emanating from fathers had a stronger effect on individual's aggression. Fathers' harsh parenting also affected sons more than daughters, whereas there was no gender differential effect with mothers' harsh parenting. Negative emotionality, hostile attitude as well as punishment by parents is a potentially common cause of family perturbations, including parenting and child adjustment problems (Chang et al., 2003).

Research findings also explain that when parents express negative emotions, such as anger and hostility, control, over-involvement; their kids may internalize this behavior, with or without realizing it. Children may experience these negative emotions as background anger. Depending on the child's age and developmental level, he or she would internalize the experience differently. When this state of experiencing anger and aggression at home is prolonged, it become a pattern to experience and express anger which goes in to adolescence and later adulthood (Wilson & Durbin, 2009).

Scholars from Michigan State University in the United States revealed that the mental health of fathers has a stronger impact on children than that of mothers. The study, which looked at 730 families across the United States found that fathers' parenting-related stress had a harmful effect on their children's emotional expression, cognition and language development (Vallotton & Harewood, 2017). While present study results highlighted mothers to be more significant contributors than fathers towards adults' anger.

Relating Self Concept with Narcissism

Campbell (1990) argued that self-concept clarity was related to different personality traits and explain variance in the development of narcissistic traits (Campbell, et al., 1996). Kernis et al. (1989) stated that people with low self-concept clarity reported more narcissistic traits than people with high clarity of self-concept.

Another objective of this research is to find the relationship between selfconcept and narcissism. It was hypothesized that self-concept is positively related to narcissism. Correlations were computed between the scores on Six Factor Self Concept Scale and Narcissistic Personality Inventory. Results revealed that there exists a positive relationship between self-concept and narcissism and all its subscales except superiority and giftedness were seen to be associated negatively (see Table 27 & 37).

Previous researches also show inflated self-concept to be associated with a range of mental health indicators. High self-concept is associated with narcissism which is in turn associated with increased interpersonal difficulties. Emmons (1984) found that NPI scores correlated positively with self-concept, extraversion,

dominance, and independence and negatively with abasement, self-ideal discrepancy, neuroticism, and social anxiety. Some degree of narcissism as measured by the NPI appears to be tapping into the benefits associated with high self-esteem and may not be maladaptive. Emmons (1984) concluded there may be a curvilinear relationship between the self-evaluation (concept) component of narcissism and adjustment.

Relating Self Concept with Anger

Self-concept is expected to have an independent influence on a person's reactions following positive or negative feedback and could in conjunction with the level of self-esteem, be an important predictor of anger and aggression. The stability of self-concept has already been found to be an important moderating variable between self-esteem, anger and hostility. Kernis et al. (1989) found that people with high but unstable self-concept reported more anger and hostility than people with high and stable self-concept, who actually revealed the lowest level of anger and hostility. Thus, in combination with narcissism, self-concept clarity could be a meaningful predictor of aggressive behavior following negative feedback.

One of the objectives of present research is to find out the relation between self-concept and anger among adults. It was hypothesized that self-concept is positively related to anger. Correlations were computed between the scores on Six Factor Self Concept Scale and Dimensions of Anger Reaction – Revised. Results revealed that there exists a significant positive relationship between self-concept and all its subscales with anger (see Table 27 & 38).

Previous empirical research published on the self-concept and anger determined both to be related (Geiger & Fischer, 2005). Byrd et al. (1993) assessed the self-concept of 40 institutionalized male juvenile offenders in the United States (Kelly, 1955; Fengstein et al., 1975) in order to determine if self-concept could be used as a predictor of aggression and offence. It was predicted that participants with more high level of self-concept would exhibit frequent aggressive outbursts. Some self-concept results also indicated a statistically insignificant trend in the opposite direction. Byrd et al. interpreted this discrepancy as an indication that aggressive individuals who acknowledge and evaluate themselves reasonably are better able to apply their personal resources toward control of their behavior. Although empirical research has found support for the connection between self-concept, anger and offense (Connors, 1997), it appears that the extent to which the individual feels positive or negative about self may also be relevant in understanding or predicting future expression of anger (Geiger & Fischer, 2005).

Relating Narcissism with Anger

It was noted from previous researches that narcissists tend to be emotionally reactive to interpersonal feedback. In two studies conducted by Bushman and Baumeister (1998), support was found for the hypothesis that the emotional reaction to interpersonal feedback tends to be one of hostility and aggression. Additionally, Stucke and Sporer (2002) found that participants high in narcissism and low in selfconcept clarity showed the most anger and aggression after failure, whereas participants low in narcissism and high in self-concept clarity reported the highest levels of depression. This suggests that the structure of self-concept interacts with narcissistic personality traits in the expression of anger and aggression.

One of the objectives of the present study was to find out the relationship between narcissism and anger. It was hypothesized that narcissism is positively related to anger. Correlations were computed between the scores on Narcissistic Personality Inventory and Dimensions of Anger Reactions Revised. Results revealed that there exists a significant positive relationship between narcissism and its subscales and anger (see Table 27 & 38).

Prior research also yielded consistent evidence that narcissism, as measured by the total score on the NPI, consistently correlates with measures of anger and aggression (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). Papps and OiCarroll (1998) provided some evidence for a relation between narcissism and anger by showing that individuals with high levels of narcissism experienced and expressed more anger in a self-report measure than less narcissistic individuals. Hart and Joubert (1996) also found small to moderate correlations between narcissism and aggression. Specifically, higher narcissism scores were associated with higher scores on scales assessing total hostility, assault, negativism, suspiciousness and verbal hostility.

In terms of examining the relationship of anger to specific aspects of narcissism, Witte et al., (2002) found that the leadership/authority and exploitativeness/entitlement sub-constructs of narcissism were significantly positively associated with anger.

A number of other studies have reported a relationship between the selfconcept and aggression in narcissistic individuals. Raskin et al. (1991a) conducted several studies with numerous self-report measures and found that narcissism is positively related to grandiosity, dominance, and hostility. Further, Raskin et al. (1991b) found that in individuals who report high levels of grandiosity, dominance, and narcissism, hostility and anger is frequently used as a way to maintain and inflate self-esteem. However, in the absence of these personality traits (grandiosity, dominance and narcissism), people who express higher aggression report lower selfesteem.

Mediational Effects of Parenting and its Subscales

Mediational effects of parenting for explaining the relationship between selfconcept and narcissism and self-concept and anger among adults were explored. It was hypothesized that parenting mediate the relationship between self-concept and narcissism and self-concept and anger. To identify the unique links between the subscales of perceived parenting, self-concept and narcissism, we regressed the total APQ subscale onto every subscale of SFSCS and NPI simultaneously and after centering all predictors and outcomes. Only involvement and positive parenting subscales of APQ predicted the relationship with narcissism significantly while other subscales did not reach significance. Thus, they are not discussed further.

Involvement subscale mediated the relationship between likeability (selfconcept) and authority (narcissism). Positive parenting also mediated the relationship between likeability and exhibitionism (narcissism). The results of the present study showed that parenting, involvement as well as positive parenting mediate the relationship between self-concept and narcissism and self-concept and anger among adults (see Table 39, 40, 42 & 43).

Parenting strategies used to raise children is an essential and influential factor in adolescents' development (Anderson, 2011). Parenting style has been linked to psychological adjustment, social development, academic achievement, and behavioral problems (Chang, 2014). Positive parenting style is related to well-developed selfconcept and school performance in adolescents (Calafat et al., 2014).

Previous research findings also stated that over-parenting may lead to narcissistic traits among young adults (Winner & Nicholson, 2018). Over-parenting, lack of warmth, leniency, overvaluation and childhood maltreatment have all been associated with higher levels of narcissism (Tyrer et al., 2015). Parenting of early experiences may contribute to the development of biased emotional processing including anger. A growing body of literature suggests that parents play an important role in emotion socialization (Gottman et al., 1997; Eisenberg et al., 1998; Morris et al., 2011), possibly by influencing information processing such as the perception and interpretation of emotional stimuli (Hadwin et al., 2006). Hadwin and colleagues present evidence suggesting that parental verbalizations and affect influence the behaviors of children. Repeated exposure to negative parenting may lead youth to develop same expressions of anger and threat also reinforced by negative feedback and behaviors from parents. With time, children internalize these behaviors and becomes their persistent pattern that may keep on repeating throughout lifetime.

Mediational Effects of Self Concept and its Sub scales

Mediational effects of self-concept and its subscales for explaining the relationship between narcissism and anger among adults were explored. It was hypothesized that self-concept mediate the relationship between narcissism and anger. The results of present study showed that self-concept significantly mediate the relationship between narcissism and anger among adults (see Table 41, 44, 45 & 46). Previous research findings also stated that individuals low in the clarity of self-concept play role in narcissistic personality traits and greatest shifts in emotions such as anger (Lynn, 2007).

Research done by Kohut's (1977) also explained that self-concept development may help explain the linkage of narcissism with anger. Mature selfconcept develops as a young child internalizes the loving relationships of caregivers mainly parents. Kohut's (1977) suggests that a continuum of self-concept regulation affect maladaptive narcissism to progressively more adaptive forms of narcissism and anger.

Moderation Effects of Age

One of the exploratory objectives of the study was to explore the moderating role of age on parenting, self-concept, narcissism and anger among adults. It was hypothesized that age moderate the effect of parenting on self-concept, narcissism and anger (see Table 47, 48, 49 & 50). Results showed that age appear as significant moderator between parenting and narcissism among the middle age group but not among the early middle age explaining that middle age is acting as a moderator

among parenting and narcissism but not the other age levels. Results also showed that age moderated the effect of likeability (self-concept) and authority (narcissism). The interaction was significant among the middle age group but not among the early middle age explaining that middle age is acting as a moderator among likeability and authority than other levels (see Table 49). Age also was found to moderate the effect of authority (narcissism) on anger. It has been found by the results that the interaction was significant among the middle age group but not among the early middle age explaining that middle age is acting as a moderator among authority and anger than other levels (see Table 50). This objective of the study was partially supported by the present study results.

Mean Differences among Parenting, Self Concept, Narcissism and Anger

Mean differences were carried out among different groups in order to see the trend of parenting, self-concept, narcissism and anger.

Gender, Parenting, Self-Concept, Narcissism and Anger

It was hypothesized that male adults will score high on self-concept, narcissism, and anger and low on parenting as compared to female adults. When gender differences were explored, results of present study displayed that female adults scored high on most subscales of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire except involvement and poor monitoring than male adults. Male adults were found to score high on Narcissistic Personality Inventory except on authority, exploitativeness and vanity than females. Female adults also scored high on all subscales of Six Factor Self Concept Scale except vulnerability than male adults. Male adults scored high on Dimensions of Anger Reaction Revised than females (see Table 51). This is inconsistent with previous research findings. The relationship between gender and these variables is complex. Previous studies have revealed evidence of gender-typed self-descriptions. Men were more likely to describe themselves as independent, achievement oriented, financially oriented, and competitive than are women (Angeleitner, 1978; Mutran, 1987). Women, on the other hand, used to describe themselves as sociable, moral, dependent, and less assertive (Siegler et al., 1979; Mutran, 1987). However, globally a shift in male and female roles have been observed and acknowledged over the years. Families have changed drastically from the stereotypical 1950's stay-at-home mother and the working fathers. Gerson (2002) found that both men and women often expressed strongly egalitarian attitudes towards

parenting.

Another explanation is that women's identities used to be more strongly tied to social network events, whereas men's identities used to be more strongly tied to their careers (Golombok & Fivush, 1994; Whitbourne & Powers, 1994) and for this reason they used to evaluate themselves and held high self-concept about themselves based on the achievements as well as being the sole caretaker of the family. Drastic shift in women's contribution outside of home and careers have made women less dependent on their male caretakers and in turn help them to self-evaluate themselves highly (Hochschild & Machung, 2003).

Occupation Status, Parenting, Self-Concept, Narcissism and Anger

Based on previous research studies where working individuals are told to be more mature, well-adjusted, face more moral dilemmas and employ more moral strategies compared to those individuals who have not faced work environment and have not yet experienced to obey another individual without self-indulgence in matters at hand at times (Rahimi-Nezhad & Beheshtifar, 2012). Another exploratory objective of the study was to find out if working individuals perceive parenting and develop self-concept, narcissism and anger expression more than those adult who are only students. It was hypothesized that working individuals will score high on parenting, self-concept, narcissism and anger than students. When occupation status differences were explored it became evident that working adults scored high on most subscales of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire except inconsistent. Students also scored higher on all sub scales of Six Factor Self Concept Scale and Anger than students (see Table 52).

Age, Parenting, Self-Concept, Narcissism and Anger

It was hypothesized that middle aged adults will score high on parenting, selfconcept, narcissism and anger than early adults. When mean differences were seen for parenting, self-concept, narcissism and anger it became clear that participants from late middle age scored high on all APQ sub scales, SFSCS sub scales, and Anger. Early middle age scored higher on superiority (NPI) than late middle age while early middle age also scored higher on exploitativeness (NPI) than early adulthood (see Table 53). Cross and Markus (1991) explored the perceptions of possible selves in depth through a cross-sectional study across the adult lifespan. The youngest group reported having the highest number of hopes and fears about their future and the oldest participants discussed the least. However, older adults were more likely than the younger participants to clear about their self-concept and potentials. Perhaps, younger adults are still exploring various possibilities for their future, while older adults have already developed a good understanding of their present and future selves (Cross & Markus, 1991).

Review of previous researches gives varied results about the impact of age on narcissism. It was seen that narcissistic young adults were more likely to end up in supervisory jobs later in their lives and for that reason their narcissistic trendies gets reinforced even more (Grijalva, 2015). Another research done by Wetzel et al. (2019) stated that very few people, only 3% of participants, actually increased in overall narcissism between the ages of 18 and 41while others remained just as narcissistic at age 41 as they had been when they were 18 years old.

Similarly, older adults were found to be angrier compared to younger adults (Beaudreau et al., 2009). Older adults were reported to show higher emotional intensity in response to positive and negative stimuli than younger adults (Gross & Levenson, 1995; Jenkins & Andrewes, 2012).

CHAPTER VI

Conclusion and Recommendations

Conclusion

In short, parent-child dyad is the building block of self-concept, on which the whole personality of an individual is based. Though, self-concept may changes throughout the lifespan of an individual but a fairly large portion of it is influenced by the early experiences with parents. The congruent self-concept develops into a fully functioning balanced individual that strives for self-actualization. Narcissism have similarly distinct associations with parenting behaviors. Narcissism is associated with over or under indulgent parenting and they together constitutes how the person is going to express his or her emotions particularly anger. Several constituents of parenting, self-concept, narcissism and anger that we have studied in this research and various others, interconnect in order to exhibit the distinctive individual that we become.

Recommendations

Despite the limitations, it is encouraging that the findings of this study are parallel to the results of studies that solicited accounts of current parenting (Horton et al., 2006; Wetzel & Robins, 2016).

According to numerous psychology organizations, narcissism is on the rise. This is specially true of younger generations. Reserchers found that college age people were three times more likely than 60 years olds to have narcissistic traits (Campbell & Twenge, 2013). Experts are also worried about the outcomes of an increase in narcissism. Narcissistics tend to bring lot of negative consequences to themselves and to people around them. Narcissists have low amount of empathy than the average person which can cause them to act exploitatively and manipulatively towards other people. It is high time that social media platform reevaluate their promotion campaigns and content and realize the role they can play in reaching out to many different audiences to promote mental health literacy and human values and empathy.

Over-parenting, inconsistent discipline, lack of warmth, leniency and childhood maltreatment have all been associated with higher levels of narcissism. However, these parenting behaviors have often been examined in isolation or in different

combinations, with mixed findings. The current study seeks to further the understanding of narcissistic traits in early adults, early middle age and late middle age and their association with a spectrum of perceived childhood experiences of both parenting styles and over or under developed self-concept. From a clinical perspective, understanding these relationships may aid in the provision of effective and timely interventions.

Remembered parental overprotection, overvaluation, leniency and to a lesser extent care played an important role in explaining the presence of traits of grandiose and vulnerable narcissism. Through overvaluation, self-views may become overly positive and not grounded in reality. Through over-involvement, these self-views may not be corrected as there are less opportunities to learn from own experiences (overprotection) or learn realistic restrictions (leniency). Under these conditions, the opportunity to learn a more adaptive self-concept is further inhibited (Tracy & Robins, 2004). Moreover, maladaptive self-concept may negatively impact interactions with others, such as becoming defensively angry (Kernis & Sun, 1994; Sellbom, et al., 2017; Stucke & Sporer, 2002; Schie et al., 2019). Present study findings suggest that self-concept is playing crucial role in the development and expression of narcissism and anger. With respect to parenting, children need safe opportunities to explore i.e. being given the freedom to explore within a set of boundaries as to foster a sense of autonomy and self-discipline. Balance in parenting practices in crucial in the development of children's personalities. Future research should further investigate the exact mechanisms by which certain combinations of parenting styles lead to the development of specific characteristics of narcissism, that is, autonomy, self-discipline, adaptive self-concepts and healthy expression of anger, preferably using longitudinal designs.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Permission Letters by Near East University Ethics Committee



21 Aralık 2018

Sayın Maryam FARZAND,

"Role of Parenting in Developing Self-Concept, Narcissism and Anger among Adults" adlı anketinizin uygulanması uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgi ve gereğini rica ederim.



YAKIN DOĞU BULVARI, LEFKOŞA - KKTC. MERSİN 10 TURKEY - TEL++90 (392) 680 20 00 - FAKS: +90 (392) 223 32 25 rektorluk@neu.edu.tr - www.neu.edu.tr



19.12.2018

Dear Maryam Farzand

Your application titled "Role Of Parenting In Developing Self-Concept, Narcissism And Anger Among Adults" with the application number YDÜ/EB/2018/198 has been evaluated by the Scientific Research Ethics Committee and granted approval. You can start your research on the condition that you will abide by the information provided in your application form.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Direnç Kanol

Rapporteur of the Scientific Research Ethics Committee

Diren Kanol

Note: If you need to provide an official letter to an institution with the signature of the Head of NEU Scientific Research Ethics Committee, please apply to the secretariat of the ethics committee by showing this document.

Permissions Regarding the Use of Scales

9/18/2018

Print Window

Subject: Re: need your help

From: pfrick@ku.edu To: maryammalick@yahoo.com Date: Tuesday, July 24, 2018, 1:39:01 AM GMT+3

Thank you for your interest in using the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire. Copies of the scale and all supporting information that is available can be obtained from my web site at the address provided below. This includes a list of approved translations and how to obtain them. It also includes a list of published studies using the scale, so that you can see the various ways it has been scored. You are welcome to use the scale in your work. I do require that the instructions, item wording, and item response format not be changed. Also, I will retain the unrestricted copyright to the scale. Finally, I ask that you send me copies of any manuscript that you publish using the scale, so that I can keep an updated reference list on the scale.

Please let me know if you have any questions about this. Otherwise, I wish you the best in your work.

Paul

Paul J. Frick, Ph.D.

Roy Crumpler Memorial Chair

Department of Psychology 208 Audubon Hall Louisiana State University Baton Rouge, LA 70803 Ph: 225-578-0865 E-Mail: pfrick@lsu.edu http://sites01.lsu.edu/faculty/pfricklab/ 9/19/2018

Print Window

Subject: Re: Need your permission

From: jayne_stake@umsl.edu To: maryammafick@yahoo.com Date: Monday, May 14, 2018, 4:30:47 AM GMT+3

To Maryam,

Thank your for identifying yourself and your project. Attached you will find the scale with scoring instructions and the article that describes the development and validation of the scale. Best wishes for your research, Jayne Stake

. .

1

1

Scoring_Key_for_Multidimensional_Self-Esteem_Scale.pdf 46.7k8 Six-Factor Scale Ed Psy Meas 2000.pdf 504.1kB 9/18/2018

Print Window

Subject: Narcissistic Personality Inventory

From: artbybobbyr@bellsouth.net To: maryammalick@yahoo.com Date: Tuesday, July 17, 2018, 6:13:56 PM GMT+3

Hello Maryam, Thanks for you interest in the Narcissistic Personality Inventory. Attached is a copy of the inventory and scoring keys. I give you permission to use the NPI in your dissertation research and wish you the best.

Gratitude, Robert Raskin, Ph.D.



Print Window

Subject: Re: your request for the DAR

From: rwnovaco@uci.edu

To: maryammalick@yahoo.com

Cc engin.baysen@neu.edu.tr; yagmur.cerkez@neu.edu.tr

Date: Thursday, August 9, 2018, 255:11 AM GMT+3

Dear Ms. Farzand,

9/18/2018

Thank you for your interest in the DAR measure, and now for the information that you have provided on your work. You may use the DAR (revised), which I have attached, along with information about the revisions from the original measure and some statistics. However, to use the instrument properly, you must do a suitable translation. I presume that you would be using the measure in Turkish. Is that the case? In whatever non-English language, after you have done the translation, please then do a back-translation and send that to me for review and prospective revision.

Regarding the DAR, my strong wish is that the full 7-item measure be used. One article that I attach is in Psychological Assessment, which is APA's major assessment journal, and it is a study with 3500 OEF/OIF combat veterans, providing strong validation of the measure. Please note in the Results the incremental validity found for the impairment items that are left out of the DAR-5, about which other articles have been published that I have co-authored. Please note the extensive set of covariates used in the Psychological Assessment study analyses and the large set of validation criteria.

Another article that I send you here was published in Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy, also an APA journal, on which APA did a press release in last May. This study is about the intensification of anger when PTSD and Depression are co-morbid.

Concerning the DAR-5, I have high regard for David Forbes and his colleagues and have appreciated the opportunity to have collaborated with them on several articles with the abbreviated 5-item measure. However, my very strong preference is for the full DAR 7-item instrument to be used. I presently have a manuscript under review at a scientific journal on the DAR-revised, and comparison analyses with the DAR-5, involving Australian and Spanish community samples. There have also been articles involving a Dutch translation of the DAR in its 7-item form, and I have attached one, first-authored by Angela Nederlof.

You will see in the attached DAR-revised 7-item measure that the ratings scale is reduced to a 5-point scaling and has a slight modification of wording on the antagonism item.

You will also see that the full DAR is sensitive to anger treatment change among combat vets in the study by Shea and colleagues, which is attached.

Please let me know if you have any questions. It is very important that you do a back-translation to English from the Turkish version and send that to me for review.

Best wishes for your work, Ray Novaco Professor

Good Morning Dr Novaco

1/2

9/18/2018	Print Window
I am g Guida North I am v (engin I am v narcis permi	prateful for your reply. I am Maryam Farzand doing my PhD from ince and Psychological Counseling Department, Near East University, Cyprus, Turkey. working with 2 supervisors for my dissertation, Dr. Engin Baysen <u>h baysen@neu.edu.tr</u>) and Dr Yağmur Çerkez (<u>yagmur.cerkez@neu.edu.tr</u>). working on Role of parenting in the development of self concept, isistic traits, and anger. For this reason I want to ask your ssion along with the manual to use Dimensions of Anger Reactions -5 to use in my research. I will be grateful if you will allow.
Rega Marya	
Profe Depa 4343 Unive Irvine Telep	nond W. Novaco, Ph.D. ssor rtment of Psychology & Social Behavior SBS Gateway Bidg rsity of California, Irvine , CA 92697-7085 hone: 949-824-7206 949-824-3002
	DAR, revised (Novaco).pdf DAR, revised stats (Novaco).pdf 14.5k8 7.5k8
1	DAR Combat Veterans (Psych Assmt, Novaco & colleagues, 2012).pdf 127.2k8
X	Anger, Combat-PTSD, Depression PTTRPP 2016.pdf Shea anger tx vets BRT 2013.pdf 80.5kB 444.8kB
1	Nederlof et al Dutch DAR Psych Reports 2009.pdf 547.7kB

Appendix C

Turnitin Similarity Report

ORIJINA	LLIK RAPORU	
%	rlik endeksi internet kaynaklari yayinlar 06 rene	Cİ ÖDEVLERİ
BIRINCI	L KAYNAKLAR	
1	core.ac.uk Internet Kaynağı	%З
2	publish.wm.edu Internet Kaynağı	%2
3	irigs.iiu.edu.pk:64447 Internet Kaynağı	%2
4	bpded.biomedcentral.com	% 1
5	www.craiganderson.org	_% 1
6	Submitted to University of Chichester	% 1
7	Submitted to Broward Community College	%1
8	www.verywellmind.com	% 1
9	Submitted to Higher Education Commission Pakistan	%1

10	journal.uad.ac.id	%1
11	repository.usfca.edu Internet Kaynağı	_% 1
12	zadoco.site Internet Kaynağı	_% 1
13	Enung Hasanah, Zamroni Zamroni, Achmad Dardiri, Setyabudi Indartono, Supardi Supardi. "Literature Review of Parenting Style to Support the Development of Adolescent Identity", Asian Social Science, 2018 Yayın	% 1
14	Tanya M. Graham, Tasneem Ismail. "Content and method trends in the Journal of Community Psychology between 2003 and 2007", Journal of Community Psychology, 2011 _{Yaym}	% 1
15	commons.ln.edu.hk	%1

Alıntıları çıkart üzerinde Bibliyografyayı Çıkart üzerinde Eşleşmeleri çıkar < %1

CV

Maryam FARZAND

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Email: maryammalick@yahoo.com

Place of Birth: Pakistan

Education:

- Near East University, North Cyprus, Turkey (Ongoing)
 Degree: PhD in Psychological Counseling and Guidance
- Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad, Pakistan (2013)

Degree: M.Phil. in Applied Psychology

University of the Punjab, Lahore, Pakistan (2010)

Degree: M.Sc. in Clinical Psychology

University of the Punjab, Lahore, Pakistan (2008)

Degree: B.Sc. in Applied Psychology, Botany and Zoology

Work Experiences

Student Counselor

Gökkuşağı College, Turkey (August, 2019 - to present)

Lecturer

English Language Teaching Department, Near East University, North Cyprus (Fall Semester 2020-2021)

Team Member NEU Ideas

Dean of Student Office, Near East University, North Cyprus (June, 2017-February, 2019)

Humanitarian Aid Worker

Josh-e-Junoon (NGO), Pakistan (August, 2015- January, 2017)

Clinical Psychologist

Nishan Rehab International, Pakistan (October, 2015 – October, 2016)

Student Counselor

Modernage Public School, Pakistan (September, 2013 – May, 2015)

School Psychologist

Grammar Public School, Pakistan (September, 2010 – May, 2011)