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THE INFLUENCE OF PARENTS ON ADOLESCENT SELF-EFFICACY AND LEISURE
BOREDOM

EMILY SWOPE
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Reviewed and approved* by the following:

Linda L. Caldwell
Distinguished Professor of Recreation, Park, and Tourism Management
Thesis Supervisor

Lesley A. Ross
Assistant Professor of Human Development and Family Studies
Honors Adviser

* Signatures are on file in the Schreyer Honors College.

ABSTRACT

The present study examined the influence of parental support and parental control on adolescent boredom and self-efficacy during leisure time activities. Participants included 2,204 adolescents from Mitchell's Plain, a township outside of Cape Town, South Africa (age range = 12-17). Hypotheses for our study were that (1) higher parental control will predict higher boredom; (2) higher parental control will predict lower self-efficacy; (3) higher parental support will predict lower boredom; and (4) higher parental support will predict higher self-efficacy. We also explored how gender may moderate these relationships and the potential mediation of self-efficacy in the relationship between parental control and boredom as well as parental support and boredom. We performed descriptive statistics, factor analysis, simple linear regressions to test our hypotheses, and ran hierarchical linear regressions to test our research questions regarding gender as a moderator. Finally, we tested for mediating relationships with path models (using hierarchical linear regressions). Results indicated that higher parental control is associated with higher boredom, especially for males. Additionally, higher parental control and parental support are associated with higher self-efficacy, especially for males. No relationship was found between parental support and boredom, and no mediating relationships existed. Overall, results suggest that parents have an important role in the boredom and self-efficacy that their adolescent children experience during leisure time. Parents should be cautioned from exerting too much control over their children's free time in order to reduce their boredom. In this sample of South African youth, it appears that if youth perceived their parents as supportive, they also reported higher levels of self-efficacy. Ironically, those who perceived higher levels of parental control also reported higher levels of self-efficacy. Potential cultural explanations for this contradictory finding are explored.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

In today's world, adolescents have diverse choices regarding the activities they participate in during their leisure time. This is an important aspect of adolescent development. While leisure time can contribute positively towards one's development by providing enriching opportunities, it can also lead to negative outcomes if boredom is experienced. Boredom deserves attention as an issue due to its association with risky behaviors, for example as a predictor of alcohol, marijuana, and cigarette use, as well as risky sexual behaviors (Miller et al., 2014; Sharp et al., 2011). Therefore, the mechanisms through which boredom may occur should be examined and understood so as to inform boredom prevention initiatives for adolescents. This study seeks to provide further clarification regarding factors that may influence adolescent boredom, specifically in relation to the influence of parenting.

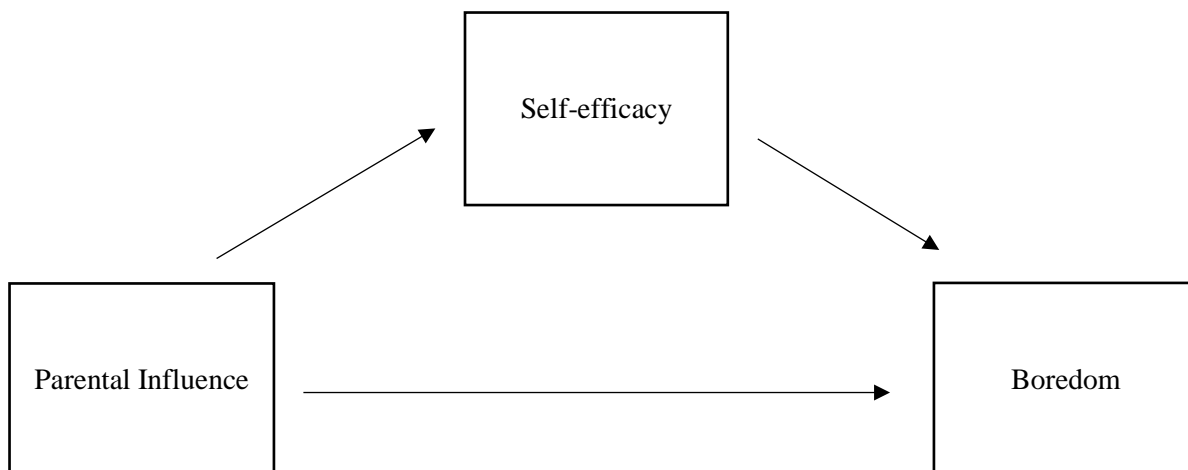
Research has suggested that the support and control a parent provides can impact how and if boredom is experienced by an adolescent child. Parental support relates positively to the number of hours an adolescent spends participating in an activity (Fawcett, Garton, & Dandy, 2009). Parental knowledge, which may be considered an aspect of parental support, has been associated with adolescents having more intrinsic motivation in their free time (Sharp, Caldwell, Graham & Ridenour, 2006). On the contrary, parental control has been associated with less adolescent interest in free time activities (Sharp et al., 2006).

While literature suggests a connection between parental influence and adolescent boredom, further research is needed to better understand this relationship. Self-efficacy, for

example, may be an important mediator. It is possible that self-efficacy decreases the risk of boredom in a leisure activity. This idea is supported by research that has shown a positive correlation between self-efficacy and leisure participation (Fawcett et al., 2009). Self-efficacy may allow adolescents to feel more positive and fulfilled with their leisure activities and thus less bored, increasing their likelihood of continuing with the activity.

Furthermore, parents may be an important factor in adolescent development of self-efficacy during leisure time activities. Supportive parents may use parenting strategies that differ from overly controlling parents that result in fostering self-efficacy in their children. For example, they may allow adolescents to participate in self-chosen activities as opposed to choosing activities for them, which may increase their self-efficacy. Overly controlling parents may instead force or pressure children to do certain activities which increases the likelihood of boredom while also potentially decreasing self-efficacy (Caldwell, Darling, Payne, & Dowdy, 1999). Therefore, it is possible that self-efficacy acts as a mediator in the relationship between parental influence and boredom. Figure 1 provides a visual representation of this relationship.

This study aims to further understand self-efficacy as a mediator in the relationship between parenting and boredom, as well as how parental support and parental control are associated separately with both self-efficacy and boredom.

Figure 1. Mediation**Purpose**

The purpose of this study is to examine if and how self-efficacy mediates the relationship between parental influences, specifically parental support and parental control, and boredom experienced by adolescents during leisure time. This research will also examine the impact of parental support and parental control on adolescent boredom and on adolescent self-efficacy during leisure time activities. The answers to these research questions will allow for a better understanding of how and why boredom is experienced by adolescents, as well as how parents may influence an adolescent's self-efficacy. These answers can be utilized to inform future intervention studies attempting to decrease adolescent boredom or improve adolescent self-efficacy.

Hypotheses (H) and Research Questions (RQ)

H1. Higher parental control will be associated with higher boredom for adolescents during leisure time.

H2. Higher parental control will be associated with lower adolescent self-efficacy.

H3. Higher parental support will be associated with lower boredom for adolescents during leisure time.

H4. Higher parental support will be associated with higher adolescent self-efficacy.

RQ1. Does gender moderate the relationship between parental control, parental support, and self-efficacy on boredom?

RQ2. Does gender moderate the relationship between parental support and parental control on self-efficacy?

RQ3. Does self-efficacy mediate the relationship between parental control and boredom?

RQ4. Does self-efficacy mediate the relationship between parental support and boredom?

Chapter 2

Literature Review

The purpose of this literature review is to present prior research that will provide evidence for a potential relationship between parents and adolescent boredom, parents and adolescent self-efficacy, and self-efficacy as a mediator between parents and boredom experienced by adolescents. It is from this literature that the aforementioned hypotheses and research questions were derived.

Self-efficacy and boredom during leisure time will be defined in the context of adolescence, and research findings supporting a link between these two variables will be presented. Following this, parental support and parental control will be defined. Associations between parental support, parental control, and adolescent self-efficacy will be explored. Finally, research will be presented that demonstrates a potential relationship between parents and boredom. Overall, this review will provide the basis for our hypotheses and a greater understanding behind the research currently being performed.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is an important topic to consider when examining developmental outcomes, including outcomes in adolescents. It is defined as the belief one has in his or her ability to succeed in a given activity or skill (Bandura, 1977). The idea that self-efficacy is an important factor in development was introduced by Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1977). Bandura (1977)

discussed how self-efficacy is a determinant of the activities people participate in and the effort people put into activities. It also may determine how people cope with situations, meaning that a person with high self-efficacy will be better able to continue their efforts when facing difficulties. Overall, the greater the self-efficacy people have, the greater their determination (Bandura, 1977).

Furthermore, self-efficacy leads to beneficial, prosocial outcomes. For example, self-efficacy is associated with psychosocial well-being particularly during adolescence, while having low levels of self-efficacy has been associated with higher levels of anxious and depressive symptoms in adolescents (Muris, 2002; Vieno, Santinello, Pastore, & Perkins, 2007). Additionally, social self-efficacy is linked to having more social competence, and furthermore academic self-efficacy is linked to academic achievement (Caprara, Vecchione, Alessandri, Gerbino, & Barbaranelli, 2011; Connolly, 1989).

These findings and others suggest that having high self-efficacy will positively influence development. However, self-efficacy exists across multiple domains and may potentially lead to antisocial behavior depending upon the domain. For example, offenders with high criminal self-efficacy may be more likely to actually continue participating in crime (Brezina & Topalli, 2012). While these results may seem contradictory to the findings previously described, it demonstrates that self-efficacy ultimately can result in the continuation of an activity—positive or negative—in which one feels confident that success is possible (Fawcett et al., 2009). Based on the work of Bandura (e.g. 1995) this is because self-efficacy affects one's motivation while also affecting how one feels and behaves (Zulkosky, 2009).

The idea that self-efficacy can affect motivation and other behaviors in adolescence is central to the context of this study, which examines how self-efficacy impacts boredom during

adolescent leisure time as well as how parents may influence the self-efficacy of their adolescent children.

Leisure and Boredom

Leisure is defined in three ways according to Csikszentmihalyi and Kleiber (1991).

Leisure has been defined as the free time someone has, and for adolescents this is particularly the free time they have outside of school and work. Another way it has been defined is through the structured activities someone participates in, for example involvement with sports and organizations. Finally, leisure has been defined as self-chosen activities done for enjoyment and fulfillment (Csikszentmihalyi & Kleiber, 1991; Sharp et al., 2006). Leisure time in this study refers to the time an adolescent spends outside of school and work doing both structured and self-chosen activities. This broad definition is inclusive of all events that occur during one's free time, including activities such as drug use.

Boredom can relate to many different domains, and this study is specifically focusing on the leisure domain. Leisure boredom has been defined by Wegner, Flisher, Chikobvu, Lombard, and King (2008) as "the perception that leisure experiences do not satisfy the need for optimal arousal". Our measure of boredom specifically investigates the feeling of having nothing fulfilling to do during free time, being uninterested in free time activities, and overall not experiencing arousal during free time activities. When considering boredom, it is important for our study to not only consider it within the leisure context but also within the adolescent context specifically, as adolescence may present unique circumstances that affect boredom.

Boredom in Adolescence

Adolescence is a time of growth and the development of autonomous behaviors, and it is a time when adolescents desire to be highly stimulated and rewarded (Sharp et al., 2011). This desire may result in more boredom being experienced during adolescence. If one's want for novel experiences is so high, then one may become bored more easily. This is an issue because boredom in adolescence is often associated with negative outcomes. For example, boredom during adolescence is a predictor of alcohol, marijuana, and cigarette use (Sharp et al., 2011). It may also lead to risky sexual behaviors (Miller et al., 2014). Therefore, understanding what contributes to adolescent boredom and focusing on prevention efforts should be a priority. By examining parental influence on boredom and the relationship between self-efficacy and boredom, we hope to provide a greater understanding of boredom during adolescence.

Boredom During Leisure Time

Leisure time can be positive for development, but when leisure boredom is experienced it can be a negative experience. Specifically, leisure boredom may be a sign that a person's needs are not being met through a given leisure activity (Spaeth, Weichold, & Silbereisen, 2015). Caldwell et al. (1999) found that leisure boredom was less likely to be found in individuals who had intrinsic motivation during extracurricular activities. Self-efficacy may relate to intrinsic motivation during leisure time and thus also decrease boredom, which will be discussed in the following section. Caldwell et al. (1999) also found that boredom may be associated with having no choice in an activity and perceiving nothing to do. Therefore, individuals may feel more bored during leisure activities if they feel forced into them, perhaps because they have no

motivation or desire to be doing the activity themselves. This represents the potential impact parents can have on boredom if they are overly controlling with the free time activities of their children.

Self-efficacy and Boredom During Leisure Time

The present study investigates influences on boredom, specifically self-efficacy and the parental influences of parental support and parental control. As noted, self-efficacy may have an impact on adolescent boredom during leisure time. This relationship may be due to the association of self-efficacy with an increase in adolescent's intrinsic motivation (Caldwell et al., 1999; Fawcett et al., 2009). Therefore, the ability to succeed and perform a skill successfully may lead a person to feel more motivated to continue with an activity. Continuing with an activity due to intrinsic motivation from self-efficacy may result in less boredom in adolescents for many reasons.

First, the adolescent is occupying his or her time instead of doing nothing. This idea is further supported by research that has found a link between self-efficacy and leisure participation (Fawcett et al., 2009). Second, due to intrinsic motivation, an adolescent actually wants to participate in the activity he or she is involved with and thus may not feel as bored during it. Furthermore, Zulkosky (2009) discussed how having higher self-efficacy may lead a person to make more goals, which therefore may lead him or her to have higher commitment to goals. Goal-setting can be translated to a leisure setting. Many extracurricular activities that adolescents engage in require goal-setting and a drive to grow and develop in the activity.

Academic self-efficacy can provide an example of goal-setting. As previously discussed, academic self-efficacy leads to academic achievement (Caprara et al., 2011). In this situation, adolescents may feel more engaged in their courses and excited to be learning because of their perceived ability of success, and they may make goals for themselves about how they can do better. This is different from a student who is withdrawing interest because he or she feels as though he or she is incapable of achieving good grades and reaching goals. These are potential explanations for how self-efficacy may ultimately impact the amount of boredom an adolescent feels.

A study by Jerome et al. (2002) provides further insight into this. They found that high exercise self-efficacy was associated with positive well-being, energy, and less fatigue than those who had lower exercise self-efficacy (Jerome et al., 2002). These findings suggest that having self-efficacy during exercise makes one more engaged and energetic during exercise. This engagement may decrease boredom experienced. These findings again showcase a potential link between self-efficacy and boredom experienced during leisure time.

Parental Influence

One goal of this study is to understand whether parents impact the self-efficacy and boredom of adolescents, and if adolescent self-efficacy mediates the relationship between parents and boredom. The role of parents is essential to consider when examining self-efficacy and boredom because many parents spend a significant amount of time with their children and attempt to guide and influence their children's decisions.

There are two ways that parental influence on adolescents will be examined in the current study: parental support and parental control. Parental support refers to behaviors and actions that allow adolescents to have independence and develop autonomy, but it also includes monitoring adolescents, which is tracking adolescent whereabouts and having knowledge of his or her activities (Sharp et al., 2006; Xie et al., 2016). Monitoring is associated with fewer delinquent behavior problems, and parental knowledge is associated with increased adolescent interest in free time activities (Pettit, Laird, Dodge, Bates, & Criss, 2001; Sharp et al., 2006). Parental support overall has been linked to positive outcomes in adolescents, such as a decrease in alcohol abuse and a decrease in generalized deviance (Barnes & Farrell, 1992).

Supportive parenting and monitoring must be distinguished from excessive control by parents. Excessive parental control, referred to in this study as parental control, is more often associated with negative outcomes in children. For example, observed controlling behavior by parents was associated with shyness and childhood anxiety disorders (Wood, McLeod, Sigman, Hwang, & Chu, 2003). Additionally, parental psychological control has been associated with decreased emotional well-being in children (Wang, Pomerantz, & Chen, 2007).

Parental Influence and Self-efficacy During Leisure Time

When examining parental influence, it is essential within the context of this study to consider how parents may impact the development of self-efficacy in adolescence and how this development occurs. As adolescents spend a great deal of time surrounded by parents, it is possible that parents play a role in supporting or hindering an adolescent's development of self-efficacy. There is some research that suggests an association exists between parents and

adolescent self-efficacy. A study by Turner & Lapan (2002) found that parental support was directly associated with career self-efficacy, or an adolescent's belief he or she could accomplish career-related tasks. While this is a career-specific domain of self-efficacy, it presents a broader idea that parents have an impact on how confident and knowledgeable adolescents feel in various aspects of their lives.

Furthermore, self-efficacy mediated the relationship between parental social support, specifically instrumental support, and boys' participation in physical activity in a study by Peterson, Lawman, Wilson, Fairchild, and Van Horn (2013). Physical activity is a form of leisure, and therefore this study provides evidence of a link between parental influence, self-efficacy, and leisure activity. Similar research is presented by Vieno et al. (2007). They found that both family and friend support were related to adolescent self-efficacy which in turn was related to psychosocial well-being. There are many potential reasons for this. Perhaps parental support results in parents allowing their children to explore many activities until they find the ones in which they experience the most self-efficacy. It is also possible that parental support results in children having parents they feel use strategies that help them to be more competent and self-efficacious during leisure time.

Parental control, rather, may hinder the development of self-efficacy in children. It is possible that when parents are overly controlling with leisure activities they do not allow for their children to participate or to find activities they feel efficacious doing (Sharp et al., 2006). Controlling parents may also limit adolescent autonomy (Xie et al., 2016). Overall, having controlling parents may make adolescents feel as though they are unable to function independently, thus decreasing their self-efficacy.

Parental Influence and Leisure Boredom

We also propose that parents may influence the leisure boredom of adolescents, and there are many potential reasons for this. Caldwell et al. (1999) suggested that parental control can lead adolescents to feel more bored during leisure time. This may be due to parents interfering too much, thus controlling how adolescents spend their free time. Adolescents may be more bored during their leisure time as a result, because they may only be doing activities their parents want them to do. Sharp et al. (2006) found that parental control led adolescents to have decreased interest in their free time activities.

The adolescents may therefore be lacking in intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy. There has been evidence found for this idea, specifically that perceived parental control leads to amotivation (i.e., a lack of motivation) in free time activities amongst adolescents (Xie et al., 2016). This amotivation may increase the likelihood for boredom. While this supports the possibility of a direct relationship between parents and boredom, it may also refer to self-efficacy as a mediator in this relationship. The amount of self-efficacy an adolescent has may determine if boredom is experienced. Whether or not this mediating relationship exists is a focus of our study.

Chapter 3

Methods

Sample

Participants involved in this study were from Mitchell's Plain, a township outside of Cape Town, South Africa, and were involved in the evaluation of HealthWise South Africa. HealthWise is a school-based intervention program that focuses on decreasing risky behaviors amongst students through a curriculum intervention that teaches life skills and particularly focuses on fostering healthy leisure. HealthWise was taught as part of the government-mandated Life Orientation curriculum that is provided to all South African students. Out of the 25 high schools in Mitchell's Plain, six were not eligible to be involved with the evaluation of HealthWise due to a high level of disorganization in the schools. Four schools were selected from the remaining 19 schools to receive the HealthWise curriculum, while five schools continued with the Life Orientation curriculum and acted as the control schools. The HealthWise and control schools were matched according to demographic characteristics, such as race, socioeconomic status, and level of school disorganization. Students involved in this study were followed longitudinally starting from grade 8 and up to grade 12. There were three cohorts involved. Data collection of Cohort 1 began in 2004, Cohort 2 began in 2005, and Cohort 3 began in 2006. Data collection was done at the beginning and end of every school year for each student in each cohort, and ended in 2008.

For the purpose of this study, students from the first wave (baseline) of Cohort 1 are

included ($n = 2, 204$). 82.6% of the present sample identified as “coloured”, or mixed race, 3.9% identified as white, and 9.1% identified as black. Furthermore, 50.8% of the students were female, and ages ranged from 12 to 17. See Table 1 for more information regarding sample demographics.

Table 1. Demographics

	<i>N(%) or M(SD)</i>
Gender	
Male	1077(48.9)
Female	1119(50.8)
Average Age	14.04(.86)
Race	
Black	201(9.1)
White	85(3.9)
Coloured	1820(82.6)
Indian	7(.3)
Other	9(.4)

Procedure

The Pennsylvania State University and University of Stellenbosch’s Institutional Review Boards approved this study. The students involved provided assent and parental consent was obtained for each student. Self-report surveys were completed by participants once at the

beginning of the school year and once at the end of the school year. These surveys were completed on personal digital assistants given to each student by trained research staff who remained present in the room while the students completed the surveys to answer questions. These surveys lasted approximately thirty minutes, occurred during school hours, and were given in the student's home language which was either Afrikaans or English.

Measures

Boredom. Boredom was measured using the boredom subscale of the Leisure Experience Battery for Adolescents (Caldwell, Smith, & Weissinger, 1992). Leisure boredom was created from the average of three items (“Free time is boring,” “Free time drags on and on,” and “I usually don't like what I'm doing in my free time, but I don't know what else to do”), $\alpha = .58$. These items were measured with a 5-point scale from 0 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). Higher scores reflect higher boredom. See Table 2 for more information.

Self-efficacy. To measure the self-efficacy in leisure activities of adolescents, a measure was created using 11 items. Examples include, “In my free time, I know how to turn a boring situation into something that is more interesting to me”, “I know how to plan my free time activities”, “I am confident I can avoid risky situations”, and “If nothing exists, I can organise leisure activities to do in my community”, $\alpha = .86$. These items were measured with a 5-point scale from 0 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). Higher scores reflect higher self-efficacy. See Table 3 for more information regarding this measure.

Parental Influence. Parental control was measured using three items (“My parents have too much control over what I do in my free time,” “There are things I would like to do in my free

time but I am not allowed to do them,” and “I think my parents interfere too much in my free time”), $\alpha = .73$. The parental support measure was created using two items (“My parents help me do things in my free time” and “My parents are interested in what I do and who my friends are in my free time”), $\alpha = .55$. Measures of parent autonomy support and control were based on the work of Grolnick, Deci, & Ryan (1997). These measures were based on interviews and focus groups with U.S. adolescents and reviewed with researchers in South Africa to determine cultural equivalence. A 5-point scale was used to measure these items (0 = strongly disagree; 4 = strongly agree). Higher scores reflect higher parental control and higher parental support. See Table 6 and Table 7 for more information.

Gender. To assess gender, participants answered the question, “Are you a boy or a girl?” (0 = boy, 1 = girl).

Data Analytic Strategy

First, we performed descriptive statistics and factor analysis. Next, we tested the hypotheses with various simple linear regressions and ran hierarchical linear regressions to test our research questions regarding gender as a moderator using IBM SPSS Statistics 24. Finally, we tested for mediating relationships with path models (using hierarchical linear regressions).

Chapter 4

Results

Introduction

The following chapter will provide the results of the analyses performed. First, descriptive statistics and the creation of the measures, including factor analyses, will be discussed. Next, the results of the hypotheses and research questions will be explored.

Measurement of Variables: Factor Analysis and Reliability Analysis

The next section will describe the results of how we measured the variables. To construct the measurement of the variables of interest of the study (boredom, self-efficacy, parental control and parental support), a combination of factor analyses and reliability analyses were used.

Boredom

The boredom measure consists of three items that yielded one factor, $\alpha = .58$. See Table 2 for more information.

Table 2. Boredom Descriptive Statistics

Item	<i>N</i>	<i>M(SD)</i>	α
Free time drags on	2175	1.73(1.31)	
Free time is boring	2173	1.32(1.26)	
I don't like free time activities but don't know what else to do	2174	1.72(1.33)	
Totals	2168	1.59(.95)	.58

Note: Boredom was measured on a 5-point scale where 0/1 represented low boredom and 3/4 represented high boredom.

Self-efficacy

The factorability of the 11 self-efficacy items was examined. Based on the results displayed in Table 4, and the results of a Cronbach's alpha reliability test, we examined self-efficacy as an overall construct by combining the three factors into one measure. These decisions ensured that self-efficacy represented a multi-dimensional construct.

The overall reliability for self-efficacy was strong (see Table 3), $\alpha = .86$, and therefore factorability was examined through principal component analysis with Varimax (orthogonal) rotation. This yielded three factors explaining a total of 59.07% of the variance for the entire set of variables. Factor 1 was labeled decision-making and planning self-efficacy and explained 41.30% of the variance. Factor 2 was labeled leisure self-efficacy and explained 10.07% of the variance. Finally, Factor 3 was labeled community self-efficacy and explained 7.70% of the variance. See Table 4 for more information regarding the factorability of self-efficacy.

Table 3. *Self-efficacy Descriptive Statistics*

Item	<i>N</i>	<i>M(SD)</i>	α
Confident can plan activities for myself without parent help	2172	2.60(1.21)	
I know how to plan my free time acts	2168	2.82(1.07)	
Get information to make best choice for free time acts	2169	2.76(1.08)	
Can find free time activities in community	2176	2.61(1.15)	
I can organize community leisure activities	2175	2.49(1.15)	
Can turn boring situation into interesting situation	2171	2.69(1.14)	
Can keep interested in free time	2172	2.80(1.05)	
Can make things fun in free time	2175	2.90(1.04)	
Confident I can make good decisions	2168	2.85(1.07)	
Confident I can avoid risky situations	2167	2.69(1.13)	
Confident I can identify risky situations	2167	2.69(1.11)	
Totals	2127	2.72(.71)	.86

Note: Self-efficacy was measured on a 5-point scale where 0/1 represented low self-efficacy and 3/4 represented high self-efficacy.

Table 4. Factor Analysis for Self-efficacy

	Factor 1: Decision-making and Planning Self-efficacy	Factor 2: Leisure Self- efficacy	Factor 3: Community Self- efficacy
Confident I can avoid risky situations	.78	.04	.13
Confident I can identify risky situations	.75	.13	.12
Confident I can make good decisions	.69	.27	.21
I know how to plan my free time acts	.55	.40	.18
Get information to make best choice for free time acts	.55	.40	.15
Confident I can plan activities for myself without parent help	.53	.30	.02
Can keep interested in free time	.21	.77	.22
Can turn boring situation into interesting situation	.22	.76	.10
Can make things fun in free time	.21	.70	.27
Can organize community leisure activities	.16	.18	.81
Can find free time activities in community	.17	.22	.79

Parental Support and Parental Control

The factorability of all five parenting items was examined through principal component analysis with Varimax (orthogonal) rotation. This analysis yielded two factors, with a total variance of 67.10%. Factor 1, parental control, explained 40.19% of the variance, while Factor 2, parental support, explained 26.91%. See Table 5 for more information. The reliability for parenting measures relating to parental support was moderate (see Table 6), $\alpha = .55$, while measures relating to parental control had stronger reliability, $\alpha = .73$ (see Table 7).

Table 5. Factor Analysis for Parental Support and Parental Control

	Factor 1: Parental Control	Factor 2: Parental Support
Parents interfere too much in free time acts	.852	-.052
Parents have too much control over free time acts	.797	.098
Not allowed to do free time acts I want to	.773	.075
Parents interested in my free time acts and friends	-.007	.833
Parents help me do free time acts	.094	.822

Table 6. Parental Support Descriptive Statistics

Item	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	α
Parents help me do free time acts	2171	2.39(1.24)	
Parents interested in my free time acts and friends	2169	2.85(1.13)	
Totals	2167	2.62(.99)	.55

Note: Parental support was measured on a 5-point scale where 0/1 represented low support and 3/4 represented high support.

Table 7. Parental Control Descriptive Statistics

Item	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	α
Parents have too much control over free time acts	2173	1.97(1.32)	
Parents interfere too much in free time acts	2170	1.92(1.33)	
Not allowed to do free time acts that I want to	2170	2.04(1.32)	
Totals	2166	1.98(1.07)	.73

Note: Parental control was measured on a 5-point scale where 0/1 represented low control and 3/4 represented high control.

Results of Testing Hypotheses and Research Questions

H1

A simple linear regression was calculated to predict boredom based on parental control. Our hypothesis that higher parental control will be associated with higher boredom for adolescents during leisure time was confirmed. A significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 2148) = 221.897, p < .001$), with an R^2 of .093. Therefore, the more parental control that exists, the more boredom that is experienced, $B = .274$.

H2

Next, our hypothesis that higher parental control will be associated with lower adolescent self-efficacy was tested using a simple linear regression. This calculated participants' self-efficacy based on their reports of parental control. A significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 2120) = 19.724, p < .001$), with an R^2 of .009. Our hypothesis was thus rejected, as more parental control was associated with more self-efficacy, $B = .063$.

H3

While these findings show results for the parental control aspect of parenting, we also investigated parental support. Our hypothesis that higher parental support will be associated with lower boredom for adolescents during leisure time was first tested using a simple linear regression. This examined participants' boredom based on their reports of parental support. An insignificant regression equation was found ($F(1, 2149) = .045, p = .831$), with an R^2 of .000. Therefore, there was no relationship between parental support and the boredom experienced by adolescents.

H4

While examining the impact of parental support, we also wanted to test how it may influence self-efficacy. We predicted that higher parental support will be associated with higher adolescent self-efficacy. Our hypothesis was confirmed, as a simple linear regression examining self-efficacy based on reports of parental support revealed a significant regression equation ($F(1, 2122) = 625.743, p < .001$), with an R^2 of .227. This demonstrates that higher parental support from parents to adolescents is associated with higher adolescent self-efficacy, $B = .342$.

RQ1

To test whether gender moderates the relationship between parental control, parental support, and self-efficacy on boredom, a hierarchical linear regression model was performed. Gender was added in the first step, followed by the addition of parental support, parental control and self-efficacy in step 2. The interaction terms were included in step 3.

Table 8 provides the results of this analysis. $R^2 = .110$ which indicated about 11% of the variance was explained by the variables in the model. Gender dropped in significance from model 1 to model 2. Parental support was not significant, but parental control and self-efficacy were significant. This indicates that parental control and self-efficacy were significant predictors of boredom. The effect of self-efficacy on boredom was negative, while the effect of parental control on boredom was positive. In step 3, there were two significant moderating effects of gender. Parental control led to increased boredom especially for males. Additionally, self-efficacy led to decreased boredom for females specifically.

Table 8. Hierarchical Regression Model with Boredom as the Dependent Variable

Model		Unstandardized B	Standardized Error	Standardized β	t	P
1	Constant	1.629	.030		54.204	.000
	Gender	-.086	.042	-.045	-2.064	.039
2	Constant	1.597	.029		55.860	.000
	Gender	-.022	.040	-.011	-.543	.587
	Parental Support	.021	.023	.021	.900	.368
	Parental Control	.283	.019	.316	15.156	.000
	Self-efficacy	-.130	.032	-.096	-4.063	.000
3	Constant	1.592	.029		55.681	.000
	Gender	-.019	.040	-.010	-.485	.627
	Parental Support	-.058	.033	-.060	-1.755	.079
	Parental Control	.343	.028	.384	12.441	.000
	Self-efficacy	-.043	.045	-.031	-.942	.346
	Gender x Parental Support	.139	.046	.099	3.030	.002
	Gender x Parental Control	-.111	.038	-.090	-2.952	.003
	Gender x Self- efficacy	-.177	.064	-.088	-2.756	.006

RQ2

To test the moderating effect of gender between parental control and parental support on self-efficacy, a second hierarchical linear regression was conducted. Gender was added in the

first step, followed by the addition of parental support and parental control in step 2. The interaction terms were included in step 3. Please see Table 9 for further information.

$R^2 = .238$ which indicated about 24% of the variance was accounted for by the variables in the model. All of the relationships in step 2 were significant. This indicates that parental control and parental support were significant predictors of self-efficacy. Parental support and parental control both led to increased self-efficacy. In step 3, there were two significant moderating effects of gender. Parental control led to increased self-efficacy especially for males. Additionally, parental support led to increased self-efficacy for males specifically.

Table 9. Hierarchical Regression Model with Self-efficacy as the Dependent Variable

Model		Unstandardized B	Standardized Error	Standardized β	T	P
1	Constant	2.673	.022		120.902	.000
	Gender	.098	.031	.069	3.191	.001
2	Constant	2.683	.019		137.831	.000
	Gender	.079	.027	.056	2.897	.004
	Parental Support	.336	.014	.470	24.500	.000
	Parental Control	.034	.013	.052	2.685	.007
3	Constant	2.682	.019		137.812	.000
	Gender	.078	.027	.055	2.905	.004
	Parental Support	.376	.019	.526	19.489	.000
	Parental Control	.061	.019	.093	3.281	.001
	Gender x Parental Support	-.090	.028	-.087	-3.254	.001
	Gender x Parental Control	-.059	.026	-.065	-2.308	.021

RQ3

Although parental control did have a significant direct effect on boredom ($B = .274, p < .001$), parental control had a significant direct effect on self-efficacy ($B = .063, p < .001$) and self-efficacy had a direct effect on boredom ($B = -.079, p = .007$), further analysis found that self-efficacy did not mediate the effect of parental control on boredom.

RQ4

There was no direct effect of parental support on boredom, and therefore it was inappropriate to test for mediation.

Chapter 5

Discussion

Our study addressed several research questions and hypotheses regarding parental support, parental control, adolescent self-efficacy, and adolescent boredom during leisure time. We predicted that higher parental control would lead to higher boredom, as well as lower self-efficacy. Furthermore, we predicted higher parental support would lead to lower boredom and higher self-efficacy. We also generated four research questions. We wanted to investigate whether gender moderates the relationship between parental control, parental support, and self-efficacy on boredom, as well as whether gender moderates the relationship between parental support and parental control on self-efficacy. Furthermore, we investigated whether self-efficacy mediates the relationship between parental control and boredom and whether self-efficacy mediates the relationship between parental support and boredom.

Overall, we found that higher parental control did lead to higher boredom but interestingly was also associated with higher self-efficacy. Both of these relationships were especially true for males. Furthermore, we found that self-efficacy led to lower boredom for females specifically. We also found that, as predicted, higher parental support was associated with higher self-efficacy, especially for males. However, there was no relationship found between parental support and boredom. Additionally, no significant mediating relationships were discovered.

Parental Control and Boredom

Our finding that higher parental control is associated with higher boredom is consistent with prior research. An excessive interference of parents in free time activities may result in children joining activities that their parents are solely interested in. This may lead adolescents to feel more bored because they are disinterested in what they are doing (Caldwell et al., 1999; Sharp et al., 2006). For example, one of the parental control measures in our study was, “There are things I would like to do in my free time but I am not allowed to do them”. If an adolescent feels that he or she is not able to pursue the activities that he or she is most passionate about due to excessive parental control, this adolescent may therefore become more bored during free time.

We also found that higher boredom due to parental control was stronger for males than females. This may indicate that females are better able to find ways to make activities that they feel forced into by parents more interesting and less boring, and may indicate that males struggle more to do this.

Parental Control and Self-efficacy

Our result that higher parental control leads to higher self-efficacy, which counteracted our hypothesis, may at first seem unexpected. Parental control has been associated with negative outcomes for adolescents in prior research (Wang et al., 2007). However, when we consider this relationship within the context of the participants of this study, cultural reasons may provide an explanation. According to Eaton & Louw (2000), South Africa is characterized by a more collectivistic culture and therefore conformity is expected to a greater extent than individualistic cultures such as the United States. A more collectivistic culture may lead people to have different

parenting styles and therefore children may have different expectations in regards to the parenting that they receive. That may alter how children are affected by the parenting.

Specifically, parental control may be more accepted as normal by children of collectivist cultures. These cultures are more likely to utilize authoritarian parenting and consider respecting elders as being obedient (Keshavarz & Baharudin, 2013; Xie et al., 2016). Therefore, authoritarian parenting may be interpreted differently by children of collectivist cultures compared to individualistic cultures. For example, Chao (2001) found that authoritarian parenting was negatively associated with relationship closeness among European American adolescents, but not among first-generation and second-generation Chinese adolescents. The Chinese culture is more collectivist, so this relates to the South African sample in our present study in that way. It could be that the adolescents in South Africa also found parental control to be a method of parents developing relationship closeness and showing they care about their children. Therefore, this may have improved adolescent self-efficacy because children felt supported by parents and ultimately developed positive outcomes.

Interestingly, males in particular had increased self-efficacy when parental control was present compared to females. This could potentially also be explained culturally within the context of South Africa. For example, gangs are prevalent in South Africa specifically with male members. One reason males seek to join gangs is to find a familial structure, and risk factors of joining gangs include having low parental supervision or having little family structure (Owen & Greeff, 2015). This provides an example of how parental control may positively impact males in particular. Males may feel that parental control creates a higher familial attachment and bond, and therefore it may decrease their likelihood of involvement in gangs and lead to beneficial outcomes in their development more so than girls, including effects on their self-efficacy.

It is also possible that parental treatment, including parental control, differs for female and male children. This could then affect how self-efficacy is developed. There has been conflicting research regarding this. A meta-analysis by Endendijk, Groeneveld, Bakermans-Kranenburg, and Mesman (2016) found that there were minimal differences in the controlling strategies that parents use for female children versus male children, but found that parents were slightly more controlling of males. In contrast, a study by Vermeersch, T'Sjoen, Kaufman, and Vincke (2008) found that females experienced more direct control from parents than males did. Overall, it seems it is possible that there may be differences in how parental control functions with child gender, but there is no clear answer to this. Furthermore, it is possible that the unique culture of South Africa plays a part in understanding this relationship. Future research should investigate this topic further in order to understand how parental control leads to differing child outcomes depending on gender.

Parental Support and Boredom

There are many potential reasons why parental support was not found to have a relationship with boredom. One possible explanation relates to the measure of parental support that was used in this study. The items included in the measure were “My parents help me do things in my free time” and “My parents are interested in what I do and who my friends are in my free time”, both of which may not be considered to relate to the reduction of boredom in adolescents. Instead, there are other measures of parental support that may have more appropriately depicted this relationship. Thus, parental support may have been found to be unrelated to boredom for this reason.

Parental Support and Self-efficacy

The finding that higher parental support leads to higher adolescent self-efficacy aligned with our prediction and prior research. For example, Vieno et al. (2007) found that both family and friend support were related to adolescent self-efficacy. This relationship may exist for many reasons. The parenting strategies that supportive parents provide may lead to the development of more self-efficacy in adolescents. One of the items measuring parental support, “My parents help me do things in my free time”, highlights this idea. Perhaps their help allows for adolescents to feel more self-efficacious in leisure time activities. Furthermore, support from parents may allow for adolescents to feel that they are able to pursue and find the activities they feel most self-efficacious in, as opposed to parents solely choosing leisure activities for their children.

Similar to the findings regarding parental control and self-efficacy, males especially had an increase in self-efficacy in the presence of parental support. As discussed previously in regards to parental control and self-efficacy, it is possible that males experience increased self-efficacy compared to females because of unique cultural situations that exist in South Africa. This context may allow for males to be more positively impacted by the presence of parental figures. If parents are highly involved in adolescent males’ lives it may lead adolescents to avoid the pressure of joining gangs, for example, and may lead to other beneficial outcomes that impact males more so than women (Owen & Greeff, 2015). It may also be that parental support differs depending on the gender of the child and that this creates varying levels of self-efficacy. However, a study by Endendijk et al. (2016) found no gender differences in terms of the autonomy-supportive strategies that parents used with their children so this may not be the case. Future research should examine why the self-efficacy of males in South Africa especially increases from having a strong parental presence, whether it be through control or support.

Self-efficacy and Boredom

Furthermore, we found that higher self-efficacy is associated with lower boredom. One potential way to explain this is through the development-as-action-in-context perspective proposed by Silbereisen, Eyferth, and Rudinger (1986). This perspective views adolescents as people who can take control over their own development. If adolescents have the skills to do this, which relates to self-efficacy, then they can change situations in which they are bored and make them more interesting (Weybright, Caldwell, Ram, Smith, & Wegner, 2015). Therefore, this theory may help us to understand the result that self-efficacy leads to less boredom.

This relationship was stronger for females specifically. With a lack of research on this topic it is difficult to know why exactly this finding occurred. However, it seems to relate to our finding that parental control led to increased boredom particularly for males. Perhaps females experience less boredom overall than males do, which would offer an explanation to both of these findings. This idea aligns with prior research which has found that men are more prone to boredom than women (Vodanovich et al., 2011).

Mediation

No mediating relationships existed. In this study, parental control positively affects boredom without the mediation of self-efficacy, and self-efficacy negatively affects boredom alone. We believed that parental control affected boredom through self-efficacy, but once we tested this it was not found. We still do not know why parental control has an influence on boredom, but this relationship does exist in this study. Future research should prioritize

clarifying this relationship and understanding what factors lead parental control to influence boredom.

Limitations and Implications

There are several limitations of our study that must be addressed. First, our parental support measure only consisted of two items, which were not the most appropriate items to use when examining the relationship between parental support and boredom. Furthermore, items were self-reported by adolescents, which means that self-report bias exists and results may be inaccurate. It may have caused data to be under- or over-reported. Data were also not obtained from students who were absent from school or dropped out of school, which may impact the accuracy of our results. Finally, the majority of our participants were mixed race (82.6%) and all from Mitchell's Plain, which affects the generalizability of the results as this is a limited sample.

This information can be useful in helping adolescents to develop self-efficacy and reduce their boredom during leisure time. Because parental support and control were identified as contributors to adolescent self-efficacy, parents can be targeted when attempting to develop self-efficacious behaviors in adolescents. It is clear that the active presence of parents in leisure activities can help adolescents to feel confident and capable in the activities that they participate in. Furthermore, the finding that parental control relates to boredom can be utilized in boredom prevention. Parents should be encouraged to allow their adolescents to choose the activities they want to participate in and to ensure that adolescents feel involved in this process. This may help to reduce the boredom adolescents feel during leisure activities because they have a role in finding the activities that are most interesting to them. Finally, it is essential to remember that

gender and culture must be considered when addressing these concerns. Overall, our research can be utilized in ensuring leisure time is a beneficial aspect of adolescent development where adolescents feel self-efficacious and interested in their activities.

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Academic Vita of Emily Swope

eswope7@gmail.com

Education

The Pennsylvania State University
B.S., Human Development and Family Studies, Minor in Psychology
Honors in Human Development and Family Studies, Schreyer Honors College

Thesis

Thesis Title: The Influence of Parents on Adolescent Self-efficacy and Leisure Boredom
Thesis Supervisor: Dr. Linda L. Caldwell

Research Experience

Fall 2015- Spring 2017
Research Assistant to Dr. Linda L. Caldwell for the HealthWise Lab

Spring 2015
Research Assistant to Brandon McDaniel for the Daily Family Life Project

Work Experience

June-August 2016
Human Resources Intern
hCentive, Reston, VA

September-December 2015
Teaching Assistant to Professor Sarah Kollat for “Infant and Childhood Development”
University Park, PA

May-August 2015
Market Delivery Intern
AstraZeneca Pharmaceuticals, Wilmington, DE

Awards

Fall 2013- Spring 2017, The Schreyer Honors College Academic Excellence Scholarship

Fall 2016, The Geraghty Family Award in Human Development and Family Studies

Fall 2013-Fall 2016, Dean’s List

International Education

University of Cape Town Semester Study Abroad Student, Spring 2016