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# *Editorial*

The last two years of the medical pandemic have tremendously shaken all people in the world; however, this scenario does not hinder individuals to continue living the life that they are used to. There may be difficulties and enormous challenges but still, people must calm down and be decisive on what is the proper, and appropriate actions to do in the timeliest manner.

Members of the academe, students, and researchers never stop to investigate social issues and the dissemination of the results of their investigations is made through publication so that it would raise the awareness of the people in the society.

The researchers are keen in their observations related to general issues of poverty. This distressful and hardships situation experience by some of the citizens of the country are given emphasize with the hope that this could be resolved by the government. To enrich further knowledge about the cultural ancestral houses in one of the cities in the Philippines the study related to this matter did not escape in the eyes of the researchers.

The existence of the medical pandemic does not only provoke individuals' capabilities of handling difficult issues, challenges and risks but it also increases the perseverance of teachers and parents in handling the demands of their students and children, respectively. The determination and dedication of the frontlines are in demand during the surge of the pandemic period, and this has been answered seriously by the front-line healthcare workers even at the expense of their physical health, and mental health risks. The death anxiety also plays in their minds; however, their devotion to their job prevailed. The challenges of the parents, teachers and frontline-health workers are only few of the issues that are investigated by the researchers.

The society composed of different group of people. A phenomenological study was conducted in relation to trans-woman students. The changing of sexual orientation would affect one's gender identity, expressions and perspective in life. This kind of action needs an extremely cautious decision since there will be no turning back when unfavorable circumstances would occur and besides educational systems and facilities in the place where they may not yet completely ready to accommodate fairly in this kind of situation. Another scenario in the present time which calls the attention of every individual is the famous self-taking of photos and exposure of people to social media. These activities create different interpretations from the public since every person have his own analysis or perception on what the selfie-taker is doing likewise with the social media

contributors; however, these actions need to be investigated deeply so that the motives that drive people to take their self-images can be given fair judgment by the viewing public.

The research activity does not end to the above-mentioned endeavors; researchers continue to dig information related to violence against women. To name one of the abuses that a man may inflict to a woman is physical abuse which in the long run will result to emotional abuse

The crime violence against women is not an exception to several crimes that male individuals may commit. This raises the contention that these offenders exercise their patriarchal authority beyond expectations and resulted to harm women in the family.

Noteworthy, not only ordinary individuals commit a crime but also police officers whom people look up to as peace makers. Research has been conducted to determine the possible reasons on the commission of administrative violations by police officers and it was found that the organizational human resource management, legal services provided to the police officers, trainings given by the PNP training division, and the subjects offered by the colleges and universities have potential implications on the erroneous act of the police officers.

Thus, the recent contributions of the researchers form part of the enduring robust literature that are worthy to support.

*Dr. Anna C. Bocar*

*Editor-in-Chief*



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# Selfie-taking Behavior and Narcissistic Tendencies of College Students

<sup>1</sup>Valerie U. Aguilo, <sup>1</sup>Adrian P. Gerente & <sup>2</sup>Portia R. Marasigan

## Abstract

The increasing popularity of selfies and social media made users vulnerable to excessive selfie-related behaviors. This maladaptive behavior can cause people to develop several mental disorders such as depression and body dysmorphic disorder. Thus, this study determined the relationship between selfie-taking behavior and narcissistic tendencies of selected college students. Selfie Behavior Scale (SBS) and Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI-13) are research instruments used to measure selfie-taking behavior and narcissistic tendencies, respectively. The descriptive-correlational research revealed that 120 college students, selected through stratified sampling technique, are more likely to engage in selfie-taking behavior which in turn, may lead to narcissistic tendencies. Respondents showed high level of selfie-taking behavior and low level of narcissistic tendencies, therefore displaying 'seldom narcissistic' features. Only the frequency of selfies taken was significantly related to selfie-taking behavior. Selfie-taking behavior was also significantly related to narcissistic tendencies. Thus, this study concludes that selfie-taking and narcissistic behaviors can be positive and negative, influenced primarily by the motives of selfie-taking, and cultural differences play an important role in mediating selfie-taking and narcissistic behaviors. This study suggests a deeper exploration on the narcissistic tendencies and providing more specific details on the nature, causes, classification, as well as possible diagnostic criteria of these narcissistic features.

**Keywords:** *Selfie-taking behavior, Narcissistic Tendencies, College Students*

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## 1. Introduction

Selfie is now a cross-cultural phenomenon in the society whether and it is very popular especially among teenagers. Selfies gave an opportunity for instant gratification in the form of beneficial feedback, shares and likes. This has only been made possible with the rise of social media and advancement of technology which led to many cultural, social, and economic changes (Joy & Venkatachalam, 2019). A lot of people risk their lives just to take a 'perfect' selfie, which can cause concern when a person was unable to control the associated negative consequences (Verma et al., 2020). Huge portions of youth were facing the adverse and negative effects of selfie-taking behavior; worst part is, they are not aware of it, which is very alarming.

The proliferation of social media in day-to-day life has raised numerous questions about how individuals present themselves in these arenas (Barry et al., 2017). This also raised the 'influencer culture', where people follow famous public figures in social media. This paved the way for desire to seek perfection through posting selfies in social media. However, the excessive posting of selfies often reflects narcissistic tendencies, where people seek own importance and a deep need for excessive attention and admiration. The continuous popularity of selfie led to the development of selfie-taking behavior characterized by taking overabundance of photos and posting them on Instagram, Facebook, Snapchat, and other social media sites (Hagen-Miller, 2018). There were recorded cases of selfie accidents or deaths worldwide totaling 259 people died taking selfies (Bureau, 2019). The tendency of taking own pictures through smart phones has turned into an observable fact of new culture of the young generation resulting in exponential rise in narcissistic features (Kaur et al., 2018). Meanwhile, the prevalence of selfie-taking behavior accounted for 28.7% (Verma et al., 2020).

Knowledge about the psychology behind selfies and its consequences are important for individuals and the community. Selfie-taking can sometimes be inconsiderate of other people, especially when getting the perfect shot becomes very obsessive. Additionally, excessive selfies can be troublesome obsession and may be related to different personality traits such as psychopathy, narcissism, and Machiavellianism (Singh & Lippmann, 2017; Griffiths, 2018). Heavy selfie-takers and social media users are likely to be extravert (Verma et al., 2020) and narcissist (Chae, 2017). Selfies might have a self-reinforcement effect whereby people frequently take selfies in order to maintain positive view or image of themselves, which then increases their narcissism levels (Halpern et al., 2016). In addition, people with high narcissism are more likely to use selfies for self-presentation and self-promotion on social media by editing and posting

selected attractive selfies. This is because they like to gather positive responses from the public, which in turn, results to their popularity growth on social networking sites (Fox et al., 2018). This desire to gather positive responses can be an indicator of evident narcissistic tendencies.

This study gives an insight into the youth's viewpoint towards selfies and narcissism and how selfie-taking behavior becomes the mainstream of the society. It determines if selfie-taking behavior leads to narcissistic tendencies. The outcomes of this research were expected to help in designing early screening and clinical intervention policies, making plans regarding awareness programs and developing new phone features to regulate phone and selfie usage for user productivity and mental well-being.

## **2. Literature Review**

### *2.1 Selfie-taking Behavior*

Selfie-taking behavior is described in terms of self-presentation theory, which explains that people take selfies in order to control their self-presentation and identification and to prove they are part of an experience or event. It is applied for the purpose of impressing others (Ma et al., 2017). Functional and special options such as image orientation through landscape, portrait and panorama and usage of integrative editing have further popularized selfie-taking behavior (Fox & Rooney, 2015). In this way, users can observe their selfies as beautiful mirrored versions of themselves (Liubinienė & Keturakis, 2014). The purchase of merchandise associated with selfie-taking behavior such as selfie-sticks has displayed marked growth in recent years (Flaherty & Choi, 2016). Selfie-sticks help photographs to appear more like regular ones taken by somebody else (Dinhopl & Gretzel, 2016). However, today there was an evident decrease in its demand due to changes in the trend. With this, selfies and selfie-related behaviors such as selfie-taking are directly related to social media, since most of them are being posted on different social media platforms, and since they are a social phenomenon that begin and advance their power at social media (Katz and Crocker, 2015).

The phenomenon or trend has its consequences, particularly negatively reshaping behavior and personality. Selfie-taking behavior is an obsessive-compulsive desire to take excessive amounts of photos of one's self and post them on social media as a way to make up for their lack of self-esteem and to fill a gap in intimacy (Vandali & Biradar, 2018). It was mostly associated with low self-esteem, narcissism, loneliness and depression (Kaur & Vig, 2016). Durvasula (2016), a psychology professor, warned that selfie-taking behavior can be abnormal. She stated that this

abnormality happens when a person is almost obsessively taking selfies multiple times a day and posting those to social media platforms. She added that it is considered alarming if more than half of photos are selfies and use filters or other editing applications to make them more attractive. With this, selfie-taking goes beyond taking a photo. It also included selfie-editing, the act of manipulating and upgrading selfies through modifying its aspects such as color and contrast, altering its backgrounds and adding effects such as interactive filters before uploading it to a social media platform (Balakrishnan & Griffiths, 2018) for the desire of great physical appearance and getting positive feedback in the form of likes and reactions (Monacis et al., 2020; Katz & Crocker, 2015). Therefore, selfie-takers tend to provide a greater appeal to other people in their social media (Re et al., 2016). This selfie-editing behavior might lead to potential mental health problems and harmful online behaviors (Monacis et al., 2020).

Selfie-taking behavior has a self-reinforcement effect that can be understood as a reciprocal process that might contribute to higher levels of narcissism that users gain through the practice of selfies. This means users feel rewarded by sharing their selfies with others, increasing their levels of narcissism as well as their social media usage for selfie-taking behaviors (Halpern et al., 2016). Dr. Pamela Rutledge (2013), director of the Media Psychology Research Center, supported the negative impact of impulsive selfie-taking behavior, stating that it can be detrimental to the mental well-being of a person, and selfie-liking is a great indicator that a person can be narcissistic, attention-seeking, self-indulgent and exhibit low self-esteem. However, not all selfies have a negative impact. For instance, some have argued that selfies are a healthy form of self-exploration. Selfie-taking behavior is a self-oriented act that allows users to establish their individuality (Ehlin, 2014) and self-importance (Murray, 2015). It also helps in conveying their ideal self-concept (Yungsoo et al., 2017), keeping authenticity and boosting self-esteem (Wang et al., 2020).

A distinction between selfie-taking and selfie-posting must be established, as these comprise the term 'selfie behaviors'. Selfie-taking is mostly a private act, while selfie-posting is public with the involvement of social media (Katz and Crocker, 2015).

## *2.2 Narcissistic Tendencies*

Narcissism was stereotypically viewed as a disorder of very high self-esteem and grandiose behavior. However, it is actually a disorder of self-esteem. People with narcissistic features often have many insecurities and established a way of self-expression to look highly confident from the outside perspective (Durvasula, 2016). It can be pathological and fit for diagnosis of narcissistic

personality disorder if both grandiose and vulnerable narcissism is concurrent, with significant impairment in daily functioning (Lancer, 2020). People with high levels of narcissism engage in frequent use of selfies. This is due to the fact that selfie-related behaviors encourage users to maximize their self-promoting and superficial behaviors (Koterba et al., 2021). Therefore, the prevalence of narcissistic individuals performing selfie-taking behavior might lead to significant rise of narcissistic tendencies among users who have some initial degree of narcissism, or possibly even inducing it in those who do not manifest it (Halpern et al., 2016).

Narcissism is also related to selfie-posting on social media, with the duration an individual spends in selfie-editing on social networking sites (Fox & Rooney, 2015). It was also revealed that individuals with high levels of narcissism tend to post more revealing selfies (DeWall et al., 2011). Other evidence suggested that narcissism is associated with more exhibitionistic or attention-seeking posts on Facebook (Carpenter, 2012). However, some people noted narcissism on a positive aspect, which contradicted the general impression on narcissism as pathological. It does not mean that having narcissistic tendencies could negatively impair an individual's way of living (Aquino & Mendoza, 2017). People need to dominate the healthy aspects of their personality instead of letting the pathological aspect dominate. This is when problems emerge (Stieg, 2019).

Having narcissistic behaviors or tendencies does not mean narcissistic personality disorder. According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM-5), a person must exhibit at least 55% of the most common clinical symptoms of narcissism to be clinically diagnosed with NPD. This confirms the existence of a 'healthy narcissism'. Majority of the people have narcissism without having the disorder. Healthy narcissism is a separate category of its own and is actually positive (Moore, 2020). In addition, motives that reflected body positivity and self-confidence might be misinterpreted as narcissistic. For an instance they might say, "I post selfies because I'm happy with my body and I want to show it off," but it means "I've worked hard to become happy with my body, and I want others to see that and feel empowered too." or "I'm finally happy with how I look, but I still need that validation from others" (Seidman, 2020). A study by Sukhdeep et al. (2018) discovered that the overall narcissistic score of the college students is at moderate level. 8.4% fall under the category of severe narcissistic features, 39% under moderate narcissistic features and 49% under mild narcissistic features. In addition, a study by Bernarte et al. (2015) found low level of narcissism among their Filipino students. However, Facebook users have manifested narcissistic tendencies. In addition, person's age and social media activity have a strong correlation to narcissism.

### *2.3 Relationship between Selfie-taking Behavior and Narcissistic Tendencies*

Various researches on selfie-related behaviors and its relation to narcissism agreed that people engage in selfie-related behaviors are highly narcissistic (Hernowo & Mashoedi, 2018; Moon et al., 2016; Sorokowski et al., 2015; Sung et al., 2016; Amurao & Castronuevo, 2016). For instance, majority of selfie-taking college students had narcissistic symptoms reflecting their selfie-posting behavior on social media had a significant relationship with their narcissistic features (Sukhdeep et al., 2018; Kaur et al., 2018). Selfie-motivating factors were also found related to narcissism (Etgar & Amichai-Hamburger, 2017). The survey of Wickel (2015) revealed that 55% of the students perceive posting selfies to various social networking platforms as means of encouraging their narcissistic behaviors. In fact, the excessive social media usage through selfie-posting was also associated with subsequent increase in narcissism by an average of 25% (Reed, 2018). In addition, Amurao and Castronuevo (2016) recorded a high average level of selfie behavior and borderline level of narcissism signifying significant relationship between selfie-liking and narcissism among students. The selfie-liking displays significant relationship with several traits observed in narcissism, such as loneliness, attention-seeking behavior and self-centered behavior (Charoensukmongkol, 2016).

Narcissism plays a role in selfie-related behaviors. For example, narcissistic individuals tend to engage in selfie-taking (Halpern et al., 2016) and selfie-posting behavior (Sung et al., 2016) to social media more than non-narcissistic ones. A study by Reyes et al. (2021) found statistically significant relationship between narcissism and selfie behavior among Filipinos belonging to Generations Y and Z, with narcissistic behaviors accounted for approximately 7.3% of selfie-related behaviors. However, some studies also suggest selfie behaviors were only associated in only one of the dimensions of narcissism: grandiose and exhibitionistic aspects of narcissism (Koterba et al., 2021). Higher levels of grandiose-exhibitionism narcissism and lower levels of self-esteem were also associated with selfie-posting (McCain et al., 2016). Narcissism, specifically the leadership/authority and grandiose exhibitionism facets, exhibit positive and significant relationship with frequency of selfie-posting (Weiser, 2015). Vulnerable narcissism was also found to be related to selfie-posting (Barry et al., 2015) and negative effects when selfie-taking (McCain et al., 2016).



### 3. Methodology

The study used descriptive-correlational method through the self-assessments of select college students of their selfie-taking and narcissistic behaviors. The study used stratified sampling to select the respondents. Stratified sampling involves the division of a population into smaller subgroups or strata each with members' shared characteristics. There were 120 student-participants evenly distributed from the different colleges of on public university in the Philippines. The students were chosen based the following criteria: must be currently enrolled during the second semester 2020-2021; must have taken selfies regularly, preferably at least 3-5 times a day using any selfie applications; and must have 2-3 active social media accounts such as Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram. These criteria were determined through a pre-survey before the actual distribution of the survey questionnaire. The majority of the respondents were 19 to 21 years old (90%), female (60%), with 8,001 – 12,000 (25%) and above 24, 001 (25%) monthly income and taking selfies for entertainment (62.5%).

The study adapted two questionnaires combined to one survey tool for data gathering. The survey tool comprised the information sheet, which consists of personal and demographic profile of the respondents, Selfitis Behavior Scale (SBS), an adapted assessment based from the original work of Balakrishnan and Griffiths (2017) which assessed the level of selfie-taking behavior of the respondent, and Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI-13), adapted statistical tool developed by Raskin and Hall (1979) and Gentile et al. (2013) which measured the normal narcissistic features of the respondents but is not a diagnostic tool for narcissistic personality disorder.

The data gathering was done online due to current travel restrictions. The questionnaire was formatted through Google Forms and sent through Facebook Messenger accompanied by chatting with the respondent the purpose of the study and that the participation is voluntary. The study ensured that ethical principles were followed. All qualified respondents voluntarily participated in the study without any presence of coercion. Informed consent was also indicated in the online form before the questionnaires were displayed. In addition, data were only used for academic and research purposes and the identities of the respondents remained anonymous.

Data were subjected to the following statistical tools: frequency and percentage distribution, mean and Pearson-r to measure the degree of relationship between the two variables used in the study, selfie-taking behavior and narcissistic tendencies.

## 4. Findings and Discussion

**Table 1**

*Level of Students' Selfie-taking Behavior*

Indicator	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
1. Taking selfies gives me a good feeling to better enjoy my environment.	3.27	0.53	high
2. Sharing my selfies creates healthy competition with my friends and colleagues.	2.64	0.80	high
3. I gain enormous attention by sharing my selfies on social media.	2.64	0.79	high
4. I am able to reduce my stress level by taking selfies.	3.00	0.74	high
5. I feel confident when I take a selfie.	3.08	0.75	high
6. I gain more acceptance among my peer group when I take selfie and share it on social media.	2.78	0.78	high
7. I am able to express myself more in my environment through selfies.	3.00	0.65	high
8. Taking different selfie poses helps increase my social status.	2.53	0.82	high
9. I feel more popular when I post my selfies on social media.	2.33	0.89	low
10. Taking more selfies improves my mood and makes me feel happy.	3.03	0.71	high
11. I become more positive about myself when I take selfies.	3.13	0.67	high
12. I become a strong member of my peer group through selfie postings.	2.48	0.84	low
13. Taking selfies provides better memories about the occasion and the experience.	3.46	0.68	high
14. I post frequent selfies to get more 'likes' and comments on social media.	2.13	0.87	low
15. By posting selfies, I expect my friends to appraise me.	2.17	0.87	low
16. Taking selfies instantly modifies my mood.	2.90	0.68	high
17. I take more selfies and look at them privately to increase my confidence.	3.06	0.74	high
18. When I don't take selfies, I feel detached from my peer group.	2.03	0.97	low
19. I take selfies as trophies for future memories.	3.09	0.71	high
20. I use photo editing tools to enhance my selfie to look better than others.	2.74	0.84	high
<b>Overall Mean</b>	<b>2.78</b>	<b>0.77</b>	<b>high</b>

*Legend: 3.5 – 4.0 = very high, 2.5 – 3.49 = high, 1.5 – 2.49 = low, 1.0 – 1.49 = very low*

Table 1 shows the level of selfie-taking behavior of the respondents. Indicator 18 has the lowest mean of 2.03 and the standard deviation of 0.97, interpreted at a low level. It means that the respondents disagreed that they felt detached from their peer group when they did not post selfies. Hence, they did not depend or please their peers when posting selfies because the age level of the respondents reached the level of maturity. They asserted self-confidence and initiative without relying on their groups. Meanwhile, indicator 13 has the highest mean of 3.46 and the standard deviation of 0.68, interpreted at a high level. It means that the respondents agreed that

taking selfies provided better memories about their occasion and experience. Thus, respondents take selfies for documenting their important life experiences and events.

Overall, selfie-taking behavior of the respondents has a weighted mean of 2.78 and a standard deviation of 0.77, interpreted at a high level. This pointed out that the respondents are fond of taking and posting selfies. This results in a high selfie-taking behavior of the respondents. People, particularly Filipinos are known to be fond of taking selfies. TIME Magazine once dubbed Makati City as the “selfie capital of the world.” They added that Makati produced more selfies per capita than any other city in the world. The fondness of selfie-taking was attributed to the desire to validate themselves and self-expression of this portrayal to others (Malasig, 2018).

**Table 2**

*Narcissistic Tendencies of the Students*

Indicator	Mean	Standard Deviation	Verbal Interpretation
1. I find it easy to manipulate people.	1.91	0.76	seldom
2. When people compliment me I get embarrassed.	2.54	0.90	often
3. I don't mind following orders.	2.68	0.86	often
4. I usually get the respect I deserve.	2.25	0.70	seldom
5. I like to show off my body.	1.92	0.77	seldom
6. I have a strong will to power.	2.48	0.77	seldom
7. I expect a great deal from other people.	2.31	0.67	seldom
8. My body is nothing special.	2.79	0.90	often
9. People always seem to recognize my authority.	2.33	0.68	seldom
10. I will take my satisfactions as they come.	2.48	0.70	seldom
11. I will usually show off if I get the chance.	2.35	0.78	seldom
12. Leadership is a quality that takes a long time to develop.	2.02	0.79	seldom
13. I like to look at myself in the mirror.	2.93	0.89	often
<b>Overall Mean</b>	<b>2.38</b>	<b>0.78</b>	<b>seldom</b>

*Legend: 3.5 – 4.0 = frequent, 2.5 – 3.49 = often, 1.5 – 2.49 = seldom, 1.0 – 1.49 = not/never*

Table 2 shows the narcissistic tendencies of the respondents. Indicator 1 has the lowest mean of 1.91 and the standard deviation of 0.76, interpreted as seldom narcissistic. It means that the respondents disagreed that they found it easy to manipulate people. Awareness of people about the signs and vulnerability for possible manipulation from other people can also be an implication. Specifically, this conveyed that respondents disagreed with manipulating other people through selfie-taking behavior by editing or changing their appearances in selfies before sharing it through social media. Meanwhile, indicator 13 has the highest mean of 2.93 and the standard deviation of 0.89, interpreted as often narcissistic. It means that the respondents agreed that they like to look at themselves in the mirror. Therefore, their liking in selfie-taking behavior caused them to constantly

check themselves in the mirror to get their perfect selfie. This can be due to pressure to take selfies as pretty and perfect as what they see in social media.

Overall, the narcissistic tendencies of the respondents garnered a weighted mean of 2.38 and a standard deviation of 0.78, interpreted as seldom narcissistic. This suggests that the respondents displayed occasional and low level of narcissistic tendencies, particularly when performing selfie-taking behaviors. The results were similar to the study of Sukhdeep et al. (2018) that majority of the students have mild narcissistic features and Bernarte et al. (2015) that Filipinos displayed low level of narcissistic behaviors, also classified in a seldom level of narcissistic tendencies.

**Table 3**

*Test of Correlation between Profile and Selfie-taking Behavior*

<b>Profile</b>	<b>r-value</b>	<b>p-value</b>	<b>Interpretation</b>
age	0.009	0.058	not significant
sex	-0.124	0.070	not significant
college	-0.008	0.058	not significant
family monthly income	-0.110	0.069	not significant
frequency of selfies taken	0.286	0.003**	highly significant
frequency of selfies uploaded	0.165	0.072	not significant
reasons for selfie-taking	-0.048	0.062	not significant

*Legend: \* = significant at  $p < 0.05$ , \*\* = highly significant at  $p < 0.01$ ,  $p > 0.05$  = not significant*

Table 3 presents the test of correlation between the profile of the respondents and their selfie-taking behavior. It shows that all factors have little to no correlation. This means that the age, sex, college, family monthly income, frequency of selfies taken, frequency of selfies uploaded and reasons for selfie-taking have little to no influence on the selfie-taking behavior of the respondents. However, it also showed that only the frequency of selfies taken is significant, which means that the sample result reflects something that is true of the population.

As to frequency of selfies taken, since  $p = 0.003$  which is less than  $p = 0.05$  and  $p = 0.01$  hence, there is a highly significant relationship between frequency of selfies taken of the respondents and their selfie-taking behavior. Since it is a positive correlation with r-value of 0.286, therefore this signified that as the frequency of selfies taken by the respondents increases, the level of selfie-taking behavior also increases. Hence, respondents of this study who have taken 9 and above selfies a day are more likely to have a higher level of selfie taking behavior than those who have taken 3-5 and 6-8 selfies a day.

Selfie-related behaviors, specifically selfie-taking behavior were positively related to frequency of selfies taken and posted in social media. This means that taking an abnormally high number of selfies is a great contributor of maladaptive selfie-related behaviors such as selfie-taking, selfie-editing and selfie-posting (Gilliland et al., 2018; Baiocco et al., 2017). Additionally, the results mean that majority of the respondents took numerous selfies and they perceived that frequency of selfies taken was an important criterion determining if a person has a selfie-taking behavior. Both notions were strengthened by Nagalingam et al. (2019), which concluded that the average number of selfies taken by the respondents was 25 per day, which was considered higher than the normal.

Motives behind selfie-taking behavior is also an important factor as to why there is a significant relationship between frequency of selfie taken and selfie-taking behavior. There are many reasons a person was engaged into selfie-taking behavior. Those motives catalyzed the person's urge or instinct to take numerous amounts of selfies a day, an essential criterion on a higher level of selfie-taking behavior. This was supported by Chaudhari et al. (2019) that motivations are 'more proximal cause of behavior', particularly selfie-taking behavior. They also added that these motives act as a mediator between selfie-related behaviors such as selfie-posting behavior and personality traits.

**Table 4**

*Test of Correlation between Profile and Narcissistic Tendencies*

<b>Profile</b>	<b>r-value</b>	<b>p-value</b>	<b>Interpretation</b>
age	-0.035	0.059	not significant
sex	-0.186	0.082	not significant
college	-0.041	0.062	not significant
family monthly income	-0.004	0.052	not significant
frequency of selfies taken	0.167	0.077	not significant
frequency of selfies uploaded	0.128	0.068	not significant
reasons for selfie-taking	-0.143	0.071	not significant

*Legend: \* = significant at  $p < 0.05$ , \*\* = highly significant at  $p < 0.01$ ,  $p > 0.05$  = not significant*

Table 4 presents the test of correlation between the profile of the respondents and their narcissistic tendencies. It shows all factors have little to no correlation. This means that the age, sex, college, family monthly income, frequency of selfies taken, frequency of selfies uploaded and reasons for selfie-taking have little to no influence on the narcissistic tendencies of the respondents. When tested for its significance, it showed that none of the factors are significant to narcissistic

tendencies, which means that the sample result did not reflect something that is true of the population. It is because the demographic profiles of the respondents given did not have any significant effect or influence on the narcissistic tendencies of the respondents.

The results contrast numerous researches (Chopik & Grimm, 2019; Grijalva et al., 2015; Piff, 2014; Martin et al., 2016; Halpern et al. 2016; Sukhdeep et al., 2018; Wickel, 2015; Weiser, 2015; McCain et al., 2016; Koterba, 2021; Chaudhari et al., 2019) on the narcissistic tendencies. Results also indicated that the respondents have a stereotypical and negative view on narcissistic tendencies, and linked it to narcissistic personality disorder. Respondents might interpret manipulating people in a negative context such as lying or trickery, or the act of showing off as a sign of vanity. This affected the results displayed. This was supported by Sharma (2018), which asserted the importance of establishing a refreshing view on these narcissistic behaviors. The ongoing stereotype towards narcissistic people must be broken in order to build a new definition on these behaviors, with the help of the perspective of these people. The author also added that culture influenced peoples' divisive perceptions on narcissism. Back et al. (2013) also stated that narcissistic tendencies comprised a wide spectrum of characteristics much more than grandiosity, vanity and exploitative nature.

**Table 5**

*Test of Correlation between Selfie-taking Behavior and Narcissistic Tendencies*

<i>r-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<b>Interpretation</b>
0.422	0.004**	highly significant

*Legend: \* = significant at  $p < 0.05$ , \*\* = highly significant at  $p < 0.01$ ,  $p > 0.05$ , not significant*

Table 5 presents the test of correlation between selfie-taking behavior and narcissistic tendencies of the respondents. Results showed that selfie-taking behavior, with a p-value of 0.004 is less than the level of significance of  $p = 0.05$  and  $p = 0.01$ . This indicated that selfie-taking behavior has a highly significant relationship with narcissistic tendencies. This means that the narcissistic tendencies of the respondents was influenced by their level of selfie-taking behavior.

Since  $r = 0.422$ , this indicated that although the frequency of taking and uploading selfies showed no significance in relation to narcissistic tendencies. Still, the results displayed that as the level of the respondents' selfie-taking behavior increases, they display more narcissistic behaviors. The results affirm the findings on statistically significant relationship between selfie-related behaviors and narcissistic traits among Filipinos (Reyes et al., 2021) and college students who

performed excessive selfie-taking, selfie-editing and selfie-posting behaviors on social media have more narcissism symptoms (Veena et al., 2015; Gill, 2015; Bergman et al., 2011). Results also suggest that the influence of selfie-taking behavior and narcissistic tendencies were both positive and negative. Moreover, there is a positive effect of selfie-taking behavior on the narcissistic tendencies of the respondents based on the context of the study. They engaged in selfie-taking behavior mainly for the purpose of capturing significant life events in one's life. However, factors such as duration of selfie-taking, attention or self-consciousness and other people's feedback can turn those positive effects into negative. Eventually, those prolonged negative effects can lead into mental disorders such as narcissism.

A relevant study by Zhang et al. (2018) supported this implication citing motivations behind selfie-taking moderate the negative impact of selfie-taking behavior specifically on students. Particularly, recreational selfie-taking behavior was related to self-indulgence and selfie-editing behavior was related to impression management. In addition, the narcissistic tendencies displayed by the respondents were positive or beneficial, instead of negative or harmful as to a person's well-being. Due to evident high levels of selfie-taking behavior and its positive effects, narcissistic behaviors were also positive. Specifically, behaviors presented by the respondents were feelings of self-confidence and empowerment instead of vanity, which is an indicator of healthy narcissistic traits. The results also support Back et al. (2013) on the Narcissistic Admiration and Rivalry Concept (NARC) highlighting narcissistic admiration, grandiosity which represented the positive and self-enhancing aspect of narcissism. Furthermore, cultural differences must be taken into consideration regarding the positive and negative impacts of selfie-taking, as well as its relation with narcissistic tendencies (Zhang et al., 2018). This is evident through harboring the Filipino trait of *pakikisama*, as it exposed in their personal and public lives, as well as their connection with their neighbors (Saito, 2010).

## 5. Conclusion

The study found that the college students displayed a high level of selfie-taking behavior and low level of narcissistic tendencies which is categorized under 'seldom narcissistic'. Further tests of relationship showed frequency of selfies taken has strong positive relationship to their selfie-taking behaviors while selfie-taking behavior has a strong positive relationship to the narcissistic tendencies of the respondents. Thus, this study concludes that the number of selfies taken by a person has a significant impact on the varying levels of selfie-taking behavior, the selfie-

taking and narcissistic behaviors can be positive and negative, influenced primarily by the motives of selfie-taking, and cultural differences play an important role in mediating selfie-taking and narcissistic behaviors.

This study suggests a deeper exploration on the narcissistic tendencies and providing more specific details on the nature, causes, classification, as well as possible diagnostic criteria of these narcissistic features. Immediate clinical intervention policies will be possible assessing if these narcissistic tendencies were beneficial or maladaptive to the person's mental well-being. Thus, further studies can be conducted on the same nature.

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# Demographic and Socio-Cultural Profiles as Correlate to Administrative Offense of the Philippine National Police Members

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## Abstract

This study determined the correlation between the demographic and socio-cultural profile and the commission of administrative offense of the members of Philippine National Police in Cavite, Laguna, Batangas, Rizal, and Quezon (CALABARZON), Philippines, using the quantitative descriptive research design. The purposive convenient random sampling was utilized in gathering the data from the 238 police personnel who have administrative cases filed before the Regional Internal Affairs Service within Calendar Year 2016 to 2017 and assigned in the Regional Headquarters of CALABARZON Police Provincial Office (PPO). The respondents agreed on some indicators but disagreed on the majority of the indicators on the personal-cultural and organizational-cultural factors affecting the commission of administrative offenses. However, the difference and association between the demographic profile and the administration offense committed shows statistical significance on the educational attainment and monthly income while between socio-cultural profile and administrative offense committed shows statistical significance on religion and housing data. The factors affecting the commission of administrative offenses and the administrative offense committed shows statistical significance on organizational cultural factors. The results of the study have potential implication on the organizational human resource management, legal services provided to the police officers, trainings given by the PNP training division and subjects offered by the colleges and universities.

**Keywords:** *Administrative Offense, Demographic Profiles, Organizational-Cultural, Factors, Personal-Cultural Factors, Philippine National Police, Socio-Cultural Profiles*

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## 1. Introduction

The Philippine National Police is the country's primary law enforcement agency, with a national in scope and a civilian in character. Activated on January 29, 1991 under Section 23, Chapter III, of Republic Act 6975, it was created by combining the then Philippine Constabulary (PC) and the Integrated National Police (INP). While it aspires to become a highly competent, active, and motivated organization, the PNP was ranked as the most corrupt institution in the Philippines in 2013 according to a survey by the Global Corruption Barometer of the anti-corruption watchdog Transparency International (Romero, 2013). In addition, Morella (2017) cited extrajudicial killings and enforced disappearances by police and military forces were the Philippines' most significant human rights issue as released by the US State Department annual human rights report in 2015. As of August 2017, data show that police have reported killing 2,250 drug suspects, and another 3,710 people killed in unexplained circumstances as part of President Rodrigo Duterte's controversial drug war. Aside from the provisions of Administrative Code, the PNP adheres to the provision of NAPOLCOM Memorandum Circular 2016-002. Under this law, a police officer can be charge of neglect of duty or nonfeasance, irregularities in the performance of duty or misfeasance, misconduct or malfeasance, dishonesty conduct unbecoming of a police officer, incompetency, oppression and/or disloyalty to the government. These administrative offenses are further classified into light, less grave and grave or serious offense. Penalty of these violations meted reprimand, forfeiture of salary, suspension, demotion or dismissal from the service.

The police as the first mover of criminal justice system are responsible for enforcing the laws, maintaining public order, and also entrusted to embody order and justice in the society. Sometimes there are collateral damages in carrying out their mission such as suspect killed in police operations, damage properties, violation of human rights and abuse of authority. As such, to regulate the performance of police officers, there are disciplinary authorities entrusted with powers to investigate misconduct, irregularities in the performance of duties and other violation of administrative laws. According to Cabal (2017), the Internal Affairs Service (IAS) has 839 pending cases as of August 2016, the National Police Commission (NAPOLCOM) has 1,255 pending cases against nearly 4,000 police officers from 2010 to 2016 and Office of the Ombudsman has 515 cases filed against PNP officers as of 2016. Accordingly, most of the cases filed at the NAPOLCOM involve officers ranked Police Officer 1, Police Officer 2 and Police Officer 3. Majority of offenses are for grave misconduct, serious neglect of duty and dishonesty.



Several studies found that police misconduct is correlated to individual factors such as age, race, gender, and education (Greene et al., 2004; Kane & White, 2009; Lersch & Kunzman, 2001; Donner, 2013). In addition, several other studies identified police culture as correlate to police attitude and misconduct. For instance, Anthony (2018) identified that police culture shapes attitudes and opinions about communities and people in a police jurisdiction, leading to barriers for officers' acceptance of training initiatives to implement new methods of dealing with the public. Similarly, Wilson (1968) as cited by Workman-Stark (2017) found police behavior influenced by the police culture and the working-class backgrounds of police recruits whereas Skolnick (1966) as cited by Workman-Stark (2017) argued that police culture arises from the common tensions that are associated with the job of being a police officer. Crank (1998) explains police culture as the bi-product of modern police work, with common themes relating to the danger of the street environment, the authority to use violence, officer discretion, isolation from the public, shift-work, bureaucracy, conflict between front-line officers and managers, and vague and conflicting mandates.

While several authors identified culture as potential attribute of police misconduct, cultural factors eventually evolved to two facets: personal-cultural and organizational-cultural factors. Personal-cultural factors include attributes personality and attitude of police officer which Rokeach et al. (1971) as cited in Pressbooks (n.d.) found police personality distinct from others does exist and predetermined attributes are identified with the new occupation. The distinct police personality is attributed to predispositions of personality that are present before the recruits' induction into the police subculture, which allow the individuals to comfortably choose and fit into the subculture (Conti, 2010; Rokeach et al., 1971). While the police subculture is distinct, at times it does attempt to catch up to the norms of the mainstream culture and can shift from negative attributes to positive attributes (Skolnick, 2008). On the other hand, Wilson (1968) explains that attitudes and behaviors of officers on the role of police are shaped by organizational characteristics and goals. Research examining the effects of organizational influence on individual officers' behavior found organizational complexity and large bureaucratic structures negatively affect the probability of making an arrest. For example, Maguire (1994) found influence of organizational context and structure on arrest rates in child abuse cases. While several studies account variations in police behavior within the organizational theory framework, few empirical studies analyzed the validity of the rational, constrained rational and loosely coupled models (Eitle, 2005; Mastrofski et al., 1987). The majority of them concluded that the degree to which an organization can direct

the behaviors of line officers depends on the size and structure of the organization (Terpstra & Schaap, 2013).

As fundamentally similar to the current study, the study of Donner (2013) linked self-control and police misconduct through behavioral measure that filled the gap between the self-control theory and police misconduct. The present study combined the demographic and socio-cultural factors to assess the administrative offenses of police officers filed at IAS. The demographic data include differences on age, sex, civil status, education, rank, length of service, length of residency and monthly income while socio-cultural data include place of birth, length of years in place of birth, religion, ethnic group, spoken dialect, occupation of parents, housing data and family size. Since socio-cultural and demographic differences have limited literature and studies in Philippine settings, this research explores the difference and relationship among members of Philippine National Police assigned in Region 4A with administrative case regardless of its status. Specifically, this study assesses the following:

1. Categories of administrative offense committed by police officers.
2. Personal-cultural factors as attributes of administrative offenses.
3. Organizational-cultural factors as attributes of administrative offenses.
4. Difference and association between demographic profile and administrative offenses.
5. Difference and association between socio-cultural profile and administrative offenses.

From the variables of the study, the research paradigm is depicted in figure 1.

**Figure 1**  
*Research Paradigm*

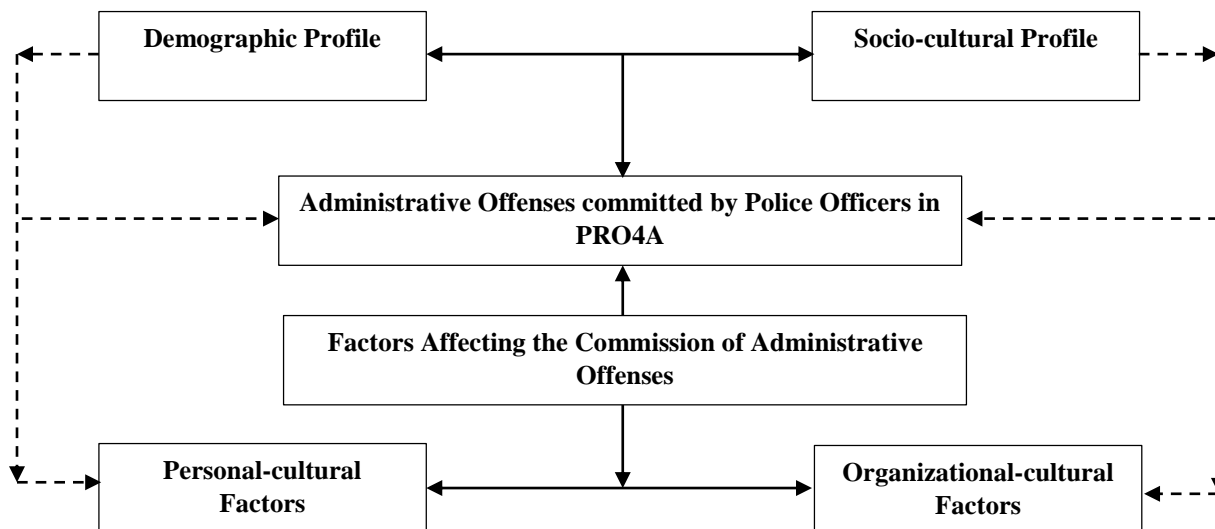


Figure 1 shows the interconnectedness of the study variables. The demographic profile of the respondents includes age, sex, civil status, highest educational attainment, rank, length of service, length of residency in Region 4A, and monthly family income while the socio-cultural profile of the respondents includes place of birth, length of years in place of birth, religion, ethnic group, spoken dialect, occupation of parents, housing data, and family size. These profiles are considered factors in the type of administrative offense committed by police personnel assigned in Region 4A. Further, these may also explain how these factors affects in the commission of administrative offense. The second rectangle represents the administrative cases committed or filed against police officers which categorized as motu proprio investigations and non-motu proprio investigations. This type of administrative cases may have relationship on the profile of the respondents and the factors that affects the commission of administrative offense. Lastly, are the identified factors affecting the commission of administrative offenses in terms of personal-cultural factors and organizational-cultural factors. These identified factors are associated to demographic and socio-cultural profile as they committed administrative offense.

The study has positive implications on human resource management, especially recruitment and work assignment of police officers to avoid commission of administrative offenses, enhance work performance, and satisfy the demands of changing community. The personal and organizational cultural factors may link personal and organization data to develop a program or action plan that can the best practice of the region.

## **2. Theoretical Framework**

Police refers to the body of armed men which as an institution is capable of exercising its duties by armed physical forces in the preservation of peace and order, detection and investigation of crimes, and enforcement of laws. It is the policy of the State to promote peace and order, ensure public safety and further strengthen local government capability aimed towards the effective delivery of basic services for the citizenry through the establishment of a highly and competent police force that is national in scope and civilian in character (Section 4, Article 2 of the 1987 Constitution).

The Home Rule Theory explains that policemen are considered as servants of the community who defend for the effectiveness of their function upon the express wishes of the people (Agas & Guevarra, 2005). This theory posits that members of Philippine National Police

are agents of the state and shall serve and protect the community. They are the protector of human rights and shall serve the public with deep sense of responsibility and self-sacrifice.

Another theory is the Social Disorganization, developed by Clifford Shaw and Henry D. McKay of Chicago School of criminology, which states a person's physical and social environments are primarily responsible for the behavioral choices that a person makes. At the core of social disorganization theory is that location matters when it comes to predicting illegal activity. It was noted that neighborhoods with the highest crime rates have at least three common problems: physical dilapidation, poverty, and higher level of ethnic and culture mixing. It was claimed that delinquency was not caused at the individual level but is a normal response by normal individuals to abnormal conditions. Further, this theory also suggest that a person's residential location is more significant than the person's characteristics when predicting criminal activity and the juveniles living in the area acquire criminality by the culture's approval within the disadvantaged urban neighborhoods. Therefore, location matters when it comes to criminality according to social disorganization theory (Bond, 2015). Applying this theory in connection with the offenses committed by the members of police force, socio-cultural factors affect behavior of every police officer, thus, it is inherent to a person regardless of his occupation. Being police officer carries power and some of them abuse such power in the commission of an offense. Ethnic and culture mixing in the PNP organization is evident because members of the police force came from different regions and every region has their own sets of culture. Even after the training, it will remain at it is since these cultural orientations are the foundations of their well-being. Applying the theory, it assumes that cultural orientations and demographic profile affect the behavior of the police and the nature of offense they may be committed.

The Control Balance Theory, originally developed by Charles R. Tittle (1995), predicated on the idea of control, which is (1) the degree to which others and a person's surroundings can limit an individual's behavioral options and (2) the extent to which an individual can escape from these controls and exercise such controls over others. The ratio of controls exercised to controls experienced constitutes the control ratio, which is the central cause of deviance in the theory. The key assertion of control balance theory is that control ratio imbalances will be associated with deviance because they will lead to an imbalance between motivation toward deviance and constraints on deviance behavior. Control imbalances can be of two types: (1) control deficits, which occur when the control that individuals can exercise is exceeded by the amount of control to which they are subject, and (2) control surpluses, which indicate that the controls that individuals

can exercise surpass the controls they experience. Importantly, in this initial statement of the theory, control deficits are hypothesized to impact only “repressive” types of deviance (similar to street crime), whereas control surpluses should affect only “autonomous” deviance (analogous to white-collar crime and elite deviance). As control ratios approach a balanced point, in which controls exercised and controls experienced are equal, deviance becomes less likely, because deviant motivation and constraints on deviance will be balanced. Direct tests of control balance theory, however, showed that both control deficits and control surpluses tended to be associated with deviance, regardless of whether it was repressive or autonomous. Tests that examined contingent or causal chain relationships between control ratios and other theoretical variables also tended to be supportive and, again, generally without regard to the type of deviance in question (Curry, 2012). This theory frames the study wherein different controls in the organization includes laws and regulations, and the extent how individual internalized such controls without abusing their powers and privileges as police officer.

### **3. Methodology**

#### *a. Research Design*

This study used quantitative research method, specifically descriptive research design by employing survey questionnaire as the primary data gathering instrument. A survey questionnaire was used to determine the demographic and socio-cultural profile of the police-respondents, types of administrative case filed before the Regional Internal Affairs Service 4A and their perception on the cultural factors affecting its commission.

#### *b. Respondents and Sampling Technique*

The statistics of administrative case for the Calendar Year 2016-2017 was considered in the selection of respondents who have administrative case filed in the Regional Internal Affairs Service 4A (RIAS 4A) whether it is motu proprio or non-motu proprio. If the respondents have multiple administrative cases, the study considered only the most recent filed. The population of the study totaled 581 police officers with administrative cases filed. Using the Slovin’s Formula with 5% margin of error, the computed sample size for Regional Headquarters was 14, Cavite was 103, Batangas was 47, Laguna was 67, Rizal was 160 and Quezon was 29. The instrument was distributed to the targeted total sample and able to obtain 71.4% retrieval rate in Regional

Headquarters, 53.4% retrieval rate in Cavite, 85.1% retrieval rate in Batangas, 47.8% retrieval rate in Laguna, 54.4% retrieval rate in Rizal and 48.4% retrieval rate in Quezon comprising a total of 238 or 60.07% retrieval rate. This is similar to the study conducted by Donner (2013) – 30%, Gould (2000) – 32% and Hodgins et al. (2001) – 57%, that there is a moderate-to-low retrieval rate in longitudinal police research.

The study used the purposive convenient technique in the selection of the respondent. This non-probability sampling technique allows selecting relevant samples with respect to their cooperation and willingness.

The majority of the respondents were 26 to 30 years old (44.54%), male (97.48%), married (90.76%), police officer 1 to police officer 3 (79.41%), college graduate (91.60%), 5 to 10 years in service (48.32%) with monthly income of P50,000 and below (89.50%). The socio-cultural profile shows that majority of them are from Luzon (87.82%), Roman Catholic (73.52%), Tagalog ethnicity (71.43%), speaks tagalog (69.75%), with parents privately employed (51.68%), owns house and lot (80.25%) with four and below family members (56.72%). The complete list of demographic and socio-cultural profile of the respondents are shown in Appendix A.

### *c. Research Instrument*

The study used researcher-made survey questionnaire composed of four (4) parts: Part 1 is the demographic profile in terms of age, sex, civil status, highest educational attainment, rank, length of service, length of residency in Region 4A, and monthly family income; Part 2 is the socio-cultural profile in terms of place of birth, length of years in place of birth, religion, ethnic group, spoken dialect, occupation of parents, housing data, and family size; Part 3 is the different administrative offenses committed with regards to motu proprio investigation and non-motu proprio investigations; and part 4 is the perception of the respondents on personal-cultural and organizational-cultural factors affecting commission of an offense. The instrument was formulated based on the provisions of NAPOLCOM Memorandum Circular 2016-002 with insights from the study conducted by Donner (2013).

The research instrument was validated by Police Chief Inspector, the Chief of Investigation, Intelligence and Prosecution Division of Regional Internal Affairs Service 4A. After the validation and corrections have been made, the questionnaire was tested for reliability to validate the questionnaire appropriateness in measuring the parameters in the study. Nunally and

Bernstein (1994) suggest that an alpha greater than or equal to 0.70 would suffice to conclude that the tool is reliable and valid. As a result, since the test scale alpha is greater than 0.73, the tool used in this study is reliable and valid.

*d. Data Gathering Process*

The study was conducted at Police Regional Office 4A (CALABARZON), the third most number of police officers and the third most number of administrative offenses investigated by Regional Internal Affairs Service. The survey questionnaire was distributed in places where identified personnel with administrative case were assigned. The researcher explained the contents of the survey before handing out to the respondents. The study also used emails and couriers like LBC and JRS Express to send the survey questionnaires. The survey questionnaires were retrieved days after. There are low retrieval rates of questionnaires in some provinces but the researchers personally visited the stations to retrieve the questionnaire but the efforts were not able to meet more than the half of what have been distributed.

*e. Statistical Tools*

The basic statistical tools were used to interpret and analyze the data gathered. Likewise, the binary logistic regression was used to determine the difference and association between the demographic profile, socio-cultural profile and factors affecting the commission of administrative offenses to the administrative offense committed.

*f. Ethical Considerations*

The study used an informed consent form from Ethics and Review Committee and cover letter addressed to individual respondents. The permission of the head of unit/station was secured as well as the consent of the concerned personnel prior to the administration of questionnaire. The rights of the personnel were highly respected specially the presumption of innocence and the right to remain silent about their case. The study ensured that the police officer-respondent's rights, privacy and confidential information about the person are not divulged or included in this research. In addition, the participation in the survey was completely voluntary.

## 4. Results and Discussion

**Table 1**

*Categories of Administrative Offense Committed by Police Officers*

Administrative Case	Frequency (N=238)	Percentage
<i>Non-Motu Proprio Investigation (NMPI)</i>	94	39.50
<i>Motu-Proprio Investigation (MPI)</i>	144	60.50

Table 1 displays the types of administrative offenses filed against police personnel at the Regional Internal Affairs Service 4A. The results show motu-proprio investigations with the highest frequency count of 144 or 60.50% while non-motu-proprio investigation has 94 or 39.50%. Motu-proprio includes cases exclusively investigated by Internal Affairs Service such as incidents where police personnel discharge a firearm; incidents where death, serious physical injury, or any violation of human rights occurred in the conduct of police operation; incidents where evidence was compromised, tampered with, obliterated, or lost while in the custody of police personnel; incidents where a suspect in the custody of the police was seriously injured; and incidents where the established rules of engagements have been violated (NAPOLCOM Memorandum Circular 2016-002). On the other hand, non-motu proprio includes investigation of cases arising from a private complainant. The war against illegal drugs is one of the key factors in increasing motu-proprio cases investigated by Internal Affairs Service.

According to Morella (2017), extrajudicial killings and enforced disappearances by police and military forces were the Philippines' most significant human rights issue. As of August 2017, data show that police have reported killing 2,250 drug suspects, and another 3,710 people killed in unexplained circumstances.

Table 2 shows the perception of the respondents on the factors affecting the commission of administrative offenses in terms of personal cultural factors.

The only indicator agreed was “*police officers believe that they are powerful than civilian*” with the highest weighted mean of 2.60. This is one of the reasons why police faced administrative charges for treating themselves as superior than civilian. This is also a clear manifestation of violating the Philippine Constitution which states “...*sovereignty resides in the people and all*



*government authority emanates from them*”. Police officers must recognize civilian supremacy and it should be understood that there can be no enforcement apart from the law. Respect for rule of law and civilian supremacy (PNP Guide Book on Human Rights-based Policing, n. d.) is best exemplified when the police practices accountability for all its actions or, as the case may be, inaction on matters related to the protection of people’s legal rights. This is also a manifestation of abuse of authority, and they must be held accountable.

**Table 2***Perception on Personal Cultural factors affecting the commission of administrative offenses*

Indicators	Weighted Mean	V.I.	Rank
1. Police officers believe that they are powerful than civilian.	2.60	A	1
2. Dominance over the subordinates and civilian.	1.95	DA	2
3. Cultural differences and conflicts exist between the police and community.	1.92	DA	3
4. Past experience on brutality and violence acquired during training.	1.87	DA	4
5. There is language barrier between the police officers and the community where he/she is assigned.	1.82	DA	5
6. Lack of understanding and existence of conflict between the police and the community.	1.79	DA	6
7. Lack of community support and trust to police officers.	1.67	DA	7
8. Lack of respect to human right and the rule of law.	1.49	SD	8
9. Inherent misbehavior from superior and relatives.	1.43	SD	9
10. Personal satisfaction and gratification.	1.42	SD	10
11. Use of social media and idolism from movies.	1.34	SD	11
12. Lack of self-control and regulations over material things.	1.27	SD	12
13. Unsatisfied amount of income.	1.26	SD	13
<b>Composite Weighted Mean</b>	<b>1.68</b>	<b>DA</b>	<b>--</b>

*Legend: SA – Strongly Agree (3.51-4.0); A – Agree (2.51-3.5); DA – Disagree (1.51-2.5); SD – Strongly Disagree (1.0-1.5)*

Meanwhile, indicators “*dominance over the subordinates and civilian*” and “*cultural differences and conflicts exist between the police and community*” gained weighted mean of 1.95 and 1.92, respectively which the respondents disagreed. Dominance over subordinates and civilian is not a factor that affects commission of administrative offense because the police organization promotes camaraderie among its members and collaboration to the community in law enforcement. Quiambao (n. d.) cited that camaraderie is manifested by the PNP members’ commitment and concern to one another and a binding spirit that enhances teamwork and cooperation in the Police

Organization, extending to people they serve. In addition, cultural conflict is not also a factor that affects commission of administrative offense among police officers. The police culture inherited by the organization in the defunct Philippine Constabulary specially during martial law was gradually diminished by the new sets of recruits who are baccalaureate degree and training anchored on service, honor, justice and respect to human rights. This is supported by Ketchell (2018), which statistics from the Crime Survey for England and Wales indicate an increasing number of people believe that their local police force is doing a good or excellent job. Yet, over the past 40 years, police researchers worldwide have regularly condemned police cultures for being defined by prejudice, discrimination and exclusion.

The least among the indicators is the “*unsatisfied amount of income*” that reaped a weighted mean of 1.26, described as “strongly agree”. This implies that salary of police officer has no significant association with the commission of administrative offense. It was supported by Becker and Stigler (1974) as cited by Dharmapala et al. (2018) that the higher compensation can deter malfeasance among law enforcers. Starting January 2017, the salary of Police Officers doubled from current base pay (Cayetano, 2016).

The composite weighted mean is 1.68, interpreted as “disagree”. The respondents generally disagree that personal cultural factors do not affect the commission of administrative offense. This further indicates that personal life of police personnel was kept in private and does not affect the commission of administrative offense. According to Guevara (2014), police officer will behave in a manner that does not bring discredit to their agencies or themselves. A police officer’s character and conduct while off duty must always be exemplary, thus maintaining a position of respect in the community in which he lives and serve. The officer’s personal behavior must be beyond approach. This is further sustained by Anthony (2018), decisions made by street-level police officers during encounters with the public have an immediate and long-lasting effect. Police culture shapes attitudes and opinions about communities and people in a police jurisdiction, leading to barriers for officers’ acceptance of training initiatives to implement new methods of dealing with the public.

Table 3 shows the perception of the respondents on the factors affecting the commission of administrative offenses in terms of organizational cultural factors.

**Table 3***Perception on Organizational Cultural Factors affecting the Commission of Administrative Offenses*

Indicators	Weighted Mean	V.I.	Rank
1. Just following orders from superior and other ranking officers in the organization.	3.08	A	1
2. Organizational beliefs and tradition of the police service.	2.87	A	2
3. Organizational dysfunction and poor leadership performance.	2.64	A	3
4. Limited resources of the organization.	2.57	A	4
5. Organization's demands for accomplishments.	2.53	A	5
6. Lack of support from the organization to the welfare of individual police officer.	2.47	DA	6
7. Lack of guidance and supervision of personnel.	2.16	DA	7
8. Acceptance and recognition from the group within the organization.	1.81	DA	8
9. Presence of temptations in the workplace.	1.71	DA	9
10. Dissatisfaction to the organization's goal and objectives.	1.67	DA	10
11. Crab mentality among members of the organization.	1.46	SD	11
12. Ignorance of the laws and regulation of the organization.	1.34	SD	12
13. Peer pressure and influence.	1.19	SD	13
<b>Composite Weighted Mean</b>	<b>2.12</b>	<b>DA</b>	<b>--</b>

*Legend: SA – Strongly Agree (3.51-4.0); A – Agree (2.51-3.5); DA – Disagree (1.51-2.5); SD – Strongly Disagree (1.0-1.5)*

The indicators “*just following orders from superior and other ranking officers in the organization*” and “*organizational beliefs and tradition of the police service*” garnered the highest weighted mean of 3.08 and 2.87, respectively, both described as “agree”. This result may mean that police officers face administrative case because of the demand of organization for accomplishments specially in anti-illegal drug operations, anti-illegal gambling and arrest of wanted person. Duterte campaigned for president with a pledge to clean up the drug menace for good. Within days of winning the election he launched a scorched earth approach targeting anyone suspected of being involved in consuming or selling narcotics. The national police estimates that more than 6,000 people were assassinated by law enforcement, paramilitaries and vigilantes since July 2016. The police say that at least 2,000 people were shot and killed by officers in “self-defense” during anti-drug operations. Around 33 people are killed for every one person injured, making this the deadliest drug war ever (Muggah, 2017). With this situation, police leaders must carry out the mandate of the president and as a result, many police officers were facing administrative and criminal charges for violation of operational procedure and/or criminal laws.

In addition, police customs and tradition cultivated through training and observe by senior police officers and passed from generation. This is supported by Armacost (2004) where cops do not arrive at the police department door as fully-formed brutalizers; they are created, in some part, by features of the organizational culture that makes it possible or probable that they will act on their violent propensities.

The indicators disagreed were “*lack of support from the organization to the welfare of individual police officer*” and “*lack of guidance and supervision of personnel*” that obtained weighted means of 2.47 and 2.16, respectively. Meanwhile, the lowest among the indicators were “*peer pressure and influence*” which obtained weighted mean of 1.19 interpreted as “strongly disagree”. This may suggest that the police bureau maintains camaraderie and compliant to regulation but in some extent, they violate laws for the accomplishment of the mission. This was supported by the study of Torreblanca and Stewart (2019), that a 10% increase in prior peer misconduct increases an officer’s later misconduct by 8%, thus, understanding the antecedents of misconduct will help to develop interventions that reduce misconduct. Social aspect must be considered because people making decisions inside organizations are constrained by authority rules and regulations, but are also con-strained by social norms, cultural expectations and considerable peer-group pressures.

The composite weighted mean was 2.12, interpreted as “disagree”. This generally mean that the respondents disagreed on the organizational cultural factors as one of the factors affecting the commission of administrative offense. The study of Armacost (2004) suggests that organizational factors are often neglected part of the solution. Many of the remedies currently invoked to control police brutality are inadequate precisely because they ignore or undervalue institutional and organizational factors.

Table 4 shows that difference and association between the demographic profile and the administrative offense committed. Among the demographic profile tested for difference and association, only educational attainment and monthly family income were significant at 0.05. The results clearly contrast with majority of the previous studies showing relationship between the demographic profile of the police officers and misconduct. For instance, it contradicts Ioim et al. (2013) that young police officers are more vulnerable to violate administrative laws and Wood et al. (2019) that the incidence of police misconduct is associated with age.

**Table 4***Difference and Association between the Demographic Profile and the Administrative Offense Committed*

Demographic Profile	Categories of Administrative Offense Committed	
	Odds Ratio	Probability
<b>Age</b>		
36 years old and above	0.803	0.752
<b>Sex</b>		
Female	0.555	0.591
<b>Civil Status</b>		
Married	1.199	0.767
<b>Educational Attainment</b>		
Master's Degree or with units	0.070	0.034**
<b>Rank</b>		
Police Inspector to Police Superintendent	1.107	0.882
<b>Length of Service</b>		
Above 15 years	1.890	0.497
<b>Length of Residence</b>		
Above 15 years	0.925	0.869
<b>Monthly Family Income</b>		
Php50,000 above	0.138	0.046**

\*\**Significant – p-value < 0.05*\**Significant – p-value < 0.1*

The results also contrast with Pagon et al. (2004) that male police officers are more vulnerable to commit misconduct, Karaffa et al. (2014) that police officers experience difficulties in their family relationships have stronger tendencies for misconduct, and Porter and Warrander (n. d.) that slightly more cases involving high rank officers than there were constables. It contradicts Chappell and Piquero (2004), McElvain and Kposowa (2008) and Wood et al. (2019) that tenure is associated with misconduct, with younger and less experienced officers receiving more complaints than older and more experienced officers.

For the educational attainment with a master's degree or with units, the odds of committing an administrative offense of a non-motu proprio investigation are 0.070 times as large as the odds for a college graduate with a probability 0.034. This indicates that the higher the educational qualifications, the less the chances of police misconduct. The results validate the findings of Kappeler et al. (2001), Lersch and Kunzman (n. d.) and Basham (2019) that police officers with a college education receive fewer citizen complaints than officers without a college education. Similarly, Sanderson (1977) found that officers with 4-year college degrees received fewer complaints than officers with 2-year or no college degrees and Manis et al. (2008) found

statistically significant differences between officers who had achieved two-year degrees and those who obtained four-year degrees regarding the types of complaints filed against them.

For the monthly family income with P50,000 and above, the odds of committing an administrative offense of a non-motu proprio investigation are 0.138 times as large as the odds for a monthly income with P50,000 below with a probability 0.046. This simply mean that police officers who earned higher are less to commit misconduct. Obviously, police officers with higher salaries and privileges are commissioned officers. This compliments the study of Ercikti et al. (2011) that police officers who have high salaries by virtue of their rank, police managers enjoy some privileges along with their increased responsibility and Tengpongsthorn (2017) that compensation was crucial to the effectiveness of officers' work performance. In other words, inappropriate compensation could have a negative impact on the effectiveness of their work performances.

Table 5 shows that difference and association between the socio-cultural profile and to the administrative offense committed. The results show religion and housing data with significant association with the administrative offense committed.

**Table 5**  
*Difference and Association between the Socio-Cultural Profile and the Administrative Offense Committed*

Socio-Cultural Profile	Categories of Administrative Offense Committed	
	Odds Ratio	Probability
<b>Place of Birth</b>		
Non-Luzon	0.5942774	0.399
<b>Length of Years in Place of Birth</b>		
About 15 years	1.446068	0.614
<b>Religion</b>		
Non-Catholic	2.497335	0.022**
<b>Ethnic Group</b>		
Non-Tagalog	7.579299	0.177
<b>Spoken Dialect</b>		
Non-Tagalog	0.2210448	0.307
<b>Occupation of Parents</b>		
Government Employee	0.7906326	0.495
<b>Housing Data</b>		
Occupying Government Housing and Rent a House	0.6567175	0.070*
<b>Family Size</b>		
More than 4 Members	2.26567175	0.229

\*\*Significant –  $p$ -value < 0.05

\*Significant –  $p$ -value < 0.1

For a non-Catholic religion, the odds of committing an administrative offense of a non-motu proprio investigation are 2.497 times as large as the odds for a catholic religion with a probability 0.022. The Philippines is a catholic country comprising 86% of the total population (Miller, n.d.). The results suggest that some police officers fail to practice their faith and committed misconduct. According to Kelly (2016), those who start with no spiritual foundation and spend some time investigating faith are usually drawn out of the malaise of their daily life. Officers who have a moderate understanding and practice of faith normally just need to be reminded of what is really important in the grand scheme of life and are able to renew their focus on the spiritual leg of their table. For those who are strong in faith, reiterating together what is true in divinity usually helps strengthen their life's spiritual journey even further. This is in contrast with Adamczyk et al. (2017) that religion tends to have a deterring influence on crime-related attitudes and behaviors.

On the housing data with occupying government housing and rent a house, the odds of committing administrative offense of a non-motu proprio investigation are 2.265 times as large the odds for owning a house and lot with a probability 0.070. This is merely an indication that police officers who own house and lot are more behave that that of renting or occupying government housing, thus, building high self-control. Owning a house constitute permanency, protection of their reputation and build strong social bonds among neighbors. This is consistent with the result of the study of Donner (2013) that low self-control is the underlying cause of individual-level crime and analogous behavior and that individuals who have low levels of self-control are more likely to pursue the immediate pleasure of deviant behavior when presented with an opportunity to do so.

Table 6 shows the difference and association between the factors affecting the commission of administrative offenses and to the administrative offense committed.

**Table 6**

*Difference and Association between the Factors Affecting the Commission of Administrative Offense and to the Administrative Offense Committed*

Factors Affecting the Commission of Administrative Cases	Categories of Administrative Offense Committed	
	Odds Ratio	Probability
Personal Cultural Factors	1.417189	0.424
Organizational Cultural Factors	0.103014	0.0000**

\*\*Significant –  $p$ -value < 0.05

\*Significant –  $p$ -value < 0.1

The difference and association between the factors affecting the commission of administrative offenses and the administrative offense committed shows statistical significance on the organizational cultural factors.

On the agreeable response under personal cultural factors on factors affecting the commission of administrative case, the odds of committing administrative offense of a non-motu proprio investigation are 0.1031 times as large the odds for a response disagree under organizational cultural factors and with a probability 0.000. This simply proves that police officers commit misconduct because of the organizational cultural factors indicated in the number of motu proprio investigations conducted by Regional Internal Affairs Service 4A. These cases were all job-related and in accordance with the mission of the PNP to curve down crimes and proliferation of illegal drugs. In this regard, Morella (2017) is presumably correct on the assumptions that the increased data on reported killings is linked to the performance of the duty. Similarly, the results confirm that findings of Donner (2013) that organizational culture has an important influence on officer behavior.

## **5. Conclusion and Recommendation**

This study combined the demographic and socio-cultural factors to assess the administrative offenses of police officers filed at IAS. The demographic data include differences on age, sex, civil status, education, rank, length of service, length of residency and monthly income while socio-cultural data include place of birth, length of years in place of birth, religion, ethnic group, spoken dialect, occupation of parents, housing data and family size. Specifically, this categorized administrative offense committed by police officers, assessed the personal-cultural factors as attributes of administrative offenses, evaluated the organizational-cultural factors as attributes of administrative offenses, tested the difference and association between demographic profile and administrative offenses and tested the difference and association between socio-cultural profile and administrative offenses.

Findings of the study revealed that motu proprio investigations are the majority of administrative cases filed at Regionan Internal Affairs Service 4A against police officers. The respondents agreed on some indicators but disagreed on the majority of the indicators on the personal-cultural and organizational-cultural factors affecting the commission of administrative



offenses. The difference and association between the demographic profile and the administration offense committed shows statistical significance on the educational attainment and monthly income while the socio-cultural profile and the administrative offense committed shows statistical significance on religion and housing data. The factors affecting the commission of administrative offenses and the administrative offense committed shows statistical significance on the organizational cultural factors.

The findings suggest a need for a longer duration of immersion program for police trainees to adjust their cultural orientations as police officer. Similarly, the organization needs to provide legal assistance for police officers facing *motu proprio* cases except cases involving breach of internal discipline. If not possible to hire lawyers, the PNP organization should inspire potential police officers to enroll and take law courses and become part of legal team who will handle cases of police officers. This is to reduce dilemma of police officers who are enforcing laws and committed administrative offense as a consequence of the use of force. A follow up research should consider social factors, psychological factors, and legal factors that may affect commission of administrative offense among police officers. Qualitative research relative to live experiences of police officers who are penalized with administrative sanctions is also encouraged. In terms of human resource management, the results suggest to prioritize recruitment of police officers residing in the region for at least 10 years so that conflict in terms of culture, orientation and beliefs can be addressed. Young blood police recruit must have competency and specialized training before they are assigned in different sections in the lower units so that they can perform their functions better. As such, the responsibility cascades to the colleges and universities as well as the PNP training division on the skills development, communication and report writing, and legal and technical aspect of laws in relation to public safety. There is a need to incorporate and inculcate social and cultural diversities in the subjects offered in the colleges and universities as well as in Public Safety Basic Courses and Leadership Courses taken by police officers.

## Appendix

### Appendix A

#### *Demographic Profile of the Respondents*

<b>Respondents Profile</b>	<b>Frequency (N=238)</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Rank</b>
<b>Age Group</b>			
25 years and below	38	15.97	3
26-30 years old	106	44.54	1
31-35 years old	51	21.43	2
36-40 years old	26	10.92	4
41-45 years old	14	5.88	5
46 years old and above	3	1.26	6
<b>Sex</b>			
Male	232	97.48	1
Female	6	2.52	2
<b>Civil Status</b>			
Single	20	8.40	2
Married	216	90.76	1
Separated	2	0.84	3
<b>Rank</b>			
Police Officer 1 to Police Officer 3	189	79.41	1
Senior Police Officer 1 to Senior Police Officer 4	27	11.34	2
Police Inspector to Police Superintendent	22	9.24	3
<b>Educational Attainment</b>			
College Graduate	218	91.60	1
Master's Degree or with units	20	8.40	2
<b>Years in Service</b>			
5 years and below	60	25.21	2
5-10 years	115	48.32	1
11-15 years	39	16.39	3
16-20 years	15	6.30	4
21 years and above	9	3.78	5
<b>Years in Region 4A</b>			
5 years and below	16	6.72	5
5-10 years	24	10.08	2
11-15 years	21	8.82	3
16-20 years	20	8.40	4
21 years and above	157	65.97	1
<b>Monthly Income</b>			
Php50,000 and below	213	89.50	1
Php50,001 to Php100,000	14	5.88	2
Php100,001 to Php150,000	11	4.62	3

**Appendix B***Socio-Cultural Profile of the Respondents*

<b>Socio-Cultural Profile</b>	<b>Frequency (N=238)</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Rank</b>
<b>Region</b>			
Luzon	209	87.82	1
Visayas	21	8.82	2
Mindanao	8	3.36	3
<b>Length of Years in Place of Birth</b>			
5 years and below	1	0.42	5
5-10 years	4	1.68	4
11-15 years	11	4.62	3
16-20 years	14	5.88	2
21 years and above	208	87.39	1
<b>Religion</b>			
Roman Catholic	175	73.52	1
Protestant Christianity	26	10.92	3
Islam	3	1.26	4.5
Iglesia ni Cristo	31	13.03	2
Others	3	1.26	4.5
<b>Ethnic Group</b>			
Tagalog	170	71.43	1
Ilocano	36	15.13	2
Bisayan	9	3.78	3
Igorot	7	2.94	4
Maranao	3	1.26	7.5
Waray	4	1.68	5.5
Tausug	3	1.26	7.5
Ilongo	1	0.42	9.5
Kampampangan	1	0.42	9.5
Bicolano	4	1.68	5.5
<b>Dialect</b>			
Tagalog	166	69.75	1
Bicol	5	2.10	4.5
Cebuano	4	1.68	6
Hiligaynon	1	0.42	9
Ilocano	43	18.07	2
Kapampangan	1	0.42	9
Pangasinensi	2	0.84	7
Waray	5	2.10	4.5
Chabacano	1	0.42	9
Bisaya	10	4.20	3
<b>Occupation of Parents</b>			
Privately Employed	123	51.68	1
Government Employee	86	36.13	2
Self-Employed	29	12.18	3
<b>Housing Data</b>			
Own House and Lot	191	80.25	1
Rent a House	39	16.39	2
Occupying Government Housing	8	3.36	3
<b>Family Size</b>			
4 members and below	135	56.72	1
5 to 8 members	101	42.44	2
9 members and above	2	0.84	3

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# Influence of Parenting Style to Neuroticism Among College Freshmen Amidst Pandemic

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## Abstract

The COVID-19 pandemic has brought a lot of changes, including the shift of academic setup from face-to-face to remote learning where home became the place of their study and students spend most of their time with their parents and guardians. Thus, parents play a big role in students' emotional status during the remote learning. This study determined the relationship between the three different parenting styles, and the level of the neuroticism of select college students during the pandemic. The study used descriptive-correlational design with 70 freshmen students as participants selected through stratified sampling technique. The research instrument used Perceived Parenting Style Scale, to measure the parenting style, and Eysenck's Personality Inventory, to measure the level of neuroticism. The findings of the study showed that students mostly have experienced an authoritative parenting style. Henceforth, the majority of them have a high level of neuroticism. Moreover, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles influence the level of neuroticism of the respondents; both have positive correlation with the level of neuroticism. This study concludes that parenting style can influence the level of neuroticism of the students. This implies that children of parents with high demands but gets low response and parents with low demands but gets high response are likely to develop unstable emotions.

**Keywords:** *Parenting Styles, Authoritative Style, Authoritarian Style, Permissive Style, Neuroticism*

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## 1. Introduction

As the world tries to recover from the mayhem caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, the Philippines imposed closure of school premises and the suspension of face-to-face or in-person classes to further reduce the number of infections. In order to flatten the curve of infection, several measures were implemented (Guo et al., 2020). In the academic setting, one of the major changes was the remote learning. With this pedagogy, students from all levels were required to spend most of their time at home together with their families. However, However, there are several suicide cases identified due to depression. The National Center for Mental Health (2020) also reported an increase in the suicide related calls received by the mental care hotline. In terms of learning, parents play an important role in the students' learning academic journey during the pandemic. However, parents also raise concerns regarding their children dealing with depression from being homeschooled (Thurman 2020).

It is indeed clear and true that parents play a big role in guiding the students in the new normal. Parenting style as well as the attitudes and behaviors toward children and emotional climate in which the parent's behaviors were expressed (Darling & Steinberg, 1993) is one of the major factors that affects students emotionally and mentally. Baumrind (1991) asserts that parenting has a great impact on child's development. Existing research has shown that variation of parenting styles is related to a child's temperament and emotional intelligence (Farrell 2015). Negative temperament refers to children having a naturally negative mood that appears to be gloomier, sad or negative than being happy (Raymanowicz, 2018). For instance, Alizadeh et al. (2011) assessed parenting styles such as authoritarian, permissive, and authoritarian and children's behavioral problems (internalizing and externalizing symptoms) and found that an authoritarian parenting style with high responsiveness and high demanding behavior was directly related to fewer children's internalizing and externalizing symptoms. As studies of the relationship between parenting style and negative temperament arise, the sense of having negative emotions related to neuroticism can also be anchored to negative temperament. Neuroticism describes the low emotional stability or negative emotionality. It is one of the Big 5 personality traits referring to the ability and tendency of a person to experience negative emotions such as anger, anxiety or depression (Fiske et al., 2003).

This scenario on parenting heightened during the new normal where students spend more time at home with their parents. Online classes put the mental health of students at risks and incidences of suicide has been recorded. As such, the value of parenting style during the pandemic

is relevant in defining emotional instability of the students while in the remote learning pedagogy. Schaffer et al. (2009) argue that emotion, behavior, and cognitive development are some of the aspects that can be affected by parenting styles. Thus, this study aims to correlate parenting styles with the level of neuroticism among students who experience different learning modalities. The main purpose of this research is to determine the influence of experienced parenting style to the level of neuroticism of the freshmen students from a state university in the Philippines. The results of the study provide insights on the importance of the parenting style and its effect on the behavior of children.

## **2. Literature review**

### ***2.1. The New Normal***

As a response to COVID-19, the Philippines was put under community quarantine that has led students and teachers to study and work from home that caused different risks, problems and challenges especially in the higher education institutions (Bao, 2020). However, the new normal in education brought several challenges to the students. The study of Besser et al. (2021) found that sample of 1, 217 college students had pervasive negative reactions to the online learning. Many students had to cope with the sense of isolation and loneliness, stress and anxiety. Other studies documented the heightened anxiety and distress among people going through the pandemic (Casagrande et al., 2020; Flett & Hewitt, 2020; Horesh & Brown, 2020).

The pandemic also brought psychological impacts to the Filipinos. In a study by Tee et al. (2020) involving 1, 879 respondents, 16.3 % rated psychological impact of the outbreak as moderate-severe, 16.9% as moderate-severe depressive symptoms, 28.8% moderate-severe anxiety level and 13.4% moderate-severe stress level. The results showed that during the early phase of the pandemic in the Philippines, one fourth of the respondents reported moderate-severe anxiety and one sixth reported moderate-severe depression and psychological impact. Similarly, the study conducted by Son et al. (2020) found that out of 195 students, 138 (71%) were found to have increased stress and anxiety due to COVID-19 outbreak in the United States. The study identified multiple stressors such as fear and worry about their own health and of their loved ones, difficulty in concentrating, disruptions to sleeping patterns, decreased social interactions due to physical distancing and increased concerns on academic performance.

## 2.2. Parenting Style

Diana Baumrind (1960) introduced the types of parenting styles and their classifications through the basic dimensions that compose parenting styles namely: responsiveness and demandingness (Baumrind, 1995; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Both of them are used to define each parenting style. Accordingly, there is a close relationship between the type of parenting style and the children's behavior. Thus, different parenting styles can lead to different child development and child outcomes.

- a. *Authoritative parenting.* Authoritative parents have high expectations of their children. They expect their children to follow them unconditionally. These parents are obedient and status-oriented, and expect their orders to be obeyed without explanation (Sooriya, 2017).
- b. *Authoritarian parenting.* Authoritarian parents have high expectations together with their support and guidance. This parenting style is considered as the most effective and helpful to a child. Thus, research suggests that parents should consider their parenting techniques with their personal goals and unique behavior of each child (Smetana, 2017).
- c. *Permissive parenting.* These parents are also known as indulgent parents. They relatively make few demands on their children. As a result of their low expectation for self-control and maturity, discipline is rare. The study of Bunag (2020) found that the highest-ranking parenting style in two participating barangays in the Philippines is the permissive parenting style by which it is high in communication but low in standards. According to the researchers, permissive parents tend to act as advisors and not decision makers. They ignore the children's behavior and do not set limits on the child's actions.

The focus on parenting styles shows the need to teach parents to build warmth and close relationships with their children. Research in neuroscience and developmental sciences emphasizes giving importance to responsive interaction and relationships that contribute to a child's physical and emotional well-being, social competence, cognitive development (National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, 2007) and spiritual and moral development (Fowler & Dell, 2006). In the Philippines, two different terms intertwined: parenting practices and parenting styles. As defined by Darling and Steinberg (1993), parenting practices are the behaviors that parents engage in to achieve particular socialization goals for their children. On the other hand,

parenting styles embody parent's attitudes toward their children (Bernardo & Ujano-Batangan, 2007). The combination of parenting practices and parenting style could lead to a clearer understanding of parent's influence on their children's development.

According to Ochoa and Torre (2014), authoritative parenting style is the most common in the Philippines. The Filipino children have different interpretations of parental control and styles (Bernardo & Ujano-Batangan, 2007). According to Alampay (n.d), Filipino parents exercise authority, obedience of the children and meeting familial obligations. However, longitudinal studies in Cebu City in the Philippines showed that parents consistently had permissive style over time with mothers more consistent than fathers (Hock, 2013). It also highlighted the gender roles of male and female, mother and fathers in Philippine society. Authoritative parenting style was also shown to be a predictor of better educational attainment, self-esteem, and protection of son's getting into drugs. Thus, the said style scored the highest for adolescents who spend time with family. The younger respondents explained the warmth authoritative relationship they had with their parents (Gilongos & Guarin 2013).

### ***2.3. Neuroticism***

According to Weed (2017), the concept of neuroticism can be traced back to ancient Greek. Moreover, the Hippocratic Model of four basic temperaments such as: choleric, sanguine, phlegmatic, and melancholic could also be linked to the development of the concept of neuroticism. Neuroticism is frequently recognized as a first general factor in contemporary psychometric investigations of personality and psychopathology. It is the tendency to experience negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, or depression. It is sometimes called emotional instability, or is reversed and referred to as emotional stability (Fiske et al., 2009).

The study conducted by Klein et al. (2019) has shown an inverse relationship between trait neuroticism and trait mindfulness – neurotic people are frequently preoccupied with worries about the past and future, making it harder for them to be present. However, previous research has shown that being distracted was not shown in a lower IQ or worse work performance. Accordingly, neurotic people have noisier, more chaotic mental control systems. According to Liu et al. (2011), depression increased quickly in people with high neuroticism than those with low neuroticism. In short, the higher an individual's neuroticism degree, the more depressed feelings they experience, the greater their risk of depression, and the greater their chance of recurrence of depression following treatment. In addition, previous research revealed that neuroticism was shown to be

adversely associated with need for cognition. Moreover, anxiety has been found to be strongly linked to neuroticism; women have also been found to have greater levels of neuroticism and anxiety than men; and long-term academic performance has been linked to the need for cognition (Johansson & Olund, 2017; Reyes et al., 2008).

#### ***2.4. Parenting Style and Neuroticism***

Some of the parenting practices that integrate responsiveness show correlations with positive developmental outcomes, while other parental demanding practices show correlations with negative or undesirable developmental outcomes. Positive responsiveness includes parental practice such as: monitoring and supervision, behavioral control, autonomy granting, appropriate maturity demands and expectations, and inductive discipline (De Clercq et al., 2008; Sanders, 2008). The study of Reza (2020) showed that demonstration of ineffective parenting style contributes to negative emotional and social growth of children. Authoritarian parents do not communicate warmly to their children that adversely affect the children's development and relationship skills as they interact with their peers. Parental practices have also been found related to reduced alcohol consumption (Mogro-Wilson, 2008), higher academic functioning (Wang et al., 2007), less exposure to situations of sexual risk (Baptiste et al., 2007), higher life satisfaction (Suldo & Huebner, 2004), higher prosocial behavior (Krevans & Gibbs, 1996), and higher confidence (Collins & Barber, 2005). On the other hand, negative demandingness includes parenting practices such as psychological control, inconsistent and punitive discipline, and harsh disciplining (Barnett et al., 2008; Barry et al., 2007; Lim et al., 2008; Shelton & Harold, 2008), which have been found to correlate with internalizing.

Existing studies showed that there is a significant association between parenting style and adjustment among emerging adults. The study of Parra et al. (2019) revealed that most beneficial styles during the emerging adulthood stage are the authoritative and permissive since authoritarian style was being more closely related to psychological distress. The study also showed that in both Portugal and Spain, high levels of well-being are most closely to authoritative and permissive styles, while neglectful and authoritarian score lowest in the levels of well-being. It is likely that the negative effect of control, which when combined with low levels of warmth is linked to psychological distress, is due to the age of the young adults in the sample. The behavioral control exercised by parents tends to diminish as adolescence progresses.

In terms of the academic performance, Sanchez (2017) concluded a strong association between the parenting style, academic performance and behavior of students. The study further revealed that respondents who experienced a permissive style of parenting thought that being open to someone is too personal, they are not close to their parents and siblings and they cannot easily cope up with school life. Similarly, the study of Obaid, (2021) showed that authoritative parenting style has a positive correlation to child behavior. On the other hand, authoritarian and permissive styles have negative correlation towards child behavior. Results also showed that parents who use authoritative style to their children demonstrate a lower level of problematic behavior, greater academic competence, and higher level of psychosocial development. In contrast, parents who use authoritarian style was significantly associated with child abuse and thus, lead to increased stress and affect the family negatively.

### ***2.5. Theoretical Framework***

The study was anchored on Diana Baumrind's Theory of Parenting style or Maccoby and Martin parenting styles. The theory is an initial work of Diana Baumrind, a Developmental Psychologist (1960s) which was refined by Maccoby and Martin (1980s). According to the theory, there is a close relationship between the parenting style and the children's behavior. Henceforth, different parenting styles can result in different child development and outcomes.

Initially, Baumrind's intensive observation, interviews and analyses resulted in the identification of the three types of parenting style namely: authoritative parenting, authoritarian parenting and permissive parenting. Hence, Maccoby and Martin expanded the three types of parenting style using the two-dimensional framework (1983). They expanded the permissive parenting style into permissive (also known as indulgent), and neglectful parenting style (also known as uninvolved parenting style). Each parenting style was defined based on demandingness and responsiveness; the two dimensions of parenting behavior and styles. Demandingness refers to how the parents control their children's behavior or demand their maturity. On the other hand, responsiveness refers to the degree of how the parent accepts and is sensitive to their children's emotional and developmental needs.

Authoritative Parenting is high in demandingness and high responsiveness. They have high expectations for achievement and maturity, but they are also warm and responsive. Authoritarian Parenting is high in demandingness but low responsiveness. They have high levels of parental control and low levels of responsiveness. Permissive Parenting (Indulgent) means having low

demandingness and high responsiveness. They set very few rules and boundaries and they are reluctant to enforce rules. Lastly is the Neglectful Parenting (Uninvolved) that means having low demandingness and also low responsiveness. They do not set firm boundaries or high standards.

Diana Baumrind's Theory of Parenting style or Maccoby and Martin parenting styles provide an overview of how parenting style affects children's behavior. It discusses the relationship of parenting style to the children's behavior. Thus, different parenting styles also can result in different child development and outcomes.

### **3. Methodology**

The study used descriptive correlational research methodology to determine the relationship between perceived parenting style and the level of neuroticism of select seventy (70) college freshmen students from 7 different colleges of a state university in the Philippines. Through quota sampling technique, each college has 10 equal respondents each. The respondents have an age range of 18 to 21 years' old who are either living with their parents or other guardian.

The study used an information sheet to determine the profile of the respondents which includes age, sex, course/college and whether the respondents are living with their parents or other guardian. In determining the level of neuroticism, Eysenck's Personality Inventory was used. This contains 57 "YES or NO" items that measure two pervasive, independent dimensions of personality, Extraversion-Introversion and Neuroticism-Stability. On the other hand, Perceived Parenting Style Scale (PPSS) was utilized to identify the parenting style. This is a 30-item measure of the perception of respondents about their parent's behavior adapted from Divya and Manikandan (2013). It measures perceived parenting style of the respondents with regard to three dimensions namely: authoritarian, authoritative and permissive. The respondents rated the statements with 5-point Likert scale. The instrument also contains the informed consent sent through Google form. It includes: the purpose of the study, procedures when participating in the study, benefits, confidentiality, consent, the researcher's contact information, and the voluntary participation of the respondents. The data gathering was conducted from January to August, 2021.

The results were analyzed using mean, standard deviation and Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient to come up with the decision on whether to accept or reject the hypothesis.

## 4. Findings and Discussion

**Table 1**

*Parenting Style as to Authoritative*

Indicators	M	SD	VI
1. Capable of making me to understand about “Right” and “Wrong”.	4.46	.76	Very High
2. Congratulate me when I pass the exams.	3.91	1.25	High
3. My suggestions and ideas are considered.	3.83	.95	High
4. I have freedom to discuss about anything.	3.76	1.22	High
5. During the crisis situation they inquire about it.	3.33	1.06	Moderate
6. I get love and care from parents.	4.43	.96	Very High
7. Being pursued for taking my own decisions.	3.30	1.11	Moderate
8. My opinions are considered in all important decisions related to home.	3.71	1.08	High
9. Provide guidance in studies and suggest ways for character formation.	3.79	1.19	High
10. At free time they spent time with me.	3.76	1.20	High
<b>OVERALL MEAN</b>	<b>3.83</b>	<b>1.08</b>	<b>High</b>

*Legend: 4.20-5.00-Very High; 3.40-4.19-High; 2.60-3.39-Moderate; 1.80-2.59-Low; 1.00-1.79-Very Low*

Table 1 shows the mean scores of the authoritative parenting style indicators. Indicator 7 has the lowest mean score of 3.30 and with a standard deviation of 1.11. This indicates a moderate level, which implies that the respondents are sometimes being pursued for taking their own decision. It means that the parents of the respondents sometimes allow them to follow the decision they want to take. Indicator 1 has the highest mean score of 4.46 which is a very high level, and a standard deviation of 0.76. This implies that the parents of the respondents are always capable of making the respondents understand about “right” and “wrong”. It means that the parents are able to teach the respondents of what is right and what is wrong. The overall weighted mean score is 3.83 and a standard deviation of 1.08. This shows that respondents perceived authoritative parenting style at a high level. They often have the freedom to make their own decision, and their opinions and ideas are being considered. It means that the respondents are being supported and guided by their parents.

According to Cherry (2020), democratic parenting is a term used to describe an authoritative parenting approach. It entails a child-centered strategy in which parents have high expectations for their children and back them up with encouragement and support. These parents pay attention to their children and give love and warmth, as well as limits and fair discipline.



Instead of using punishment and threats, this style of parenting use strategies such as positive reinforcement.

**Table 2**

*Parenting Style as to Authoritarian*

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>VI</b>
1. View everything with a critical mind.	3.69	1.04	High
2. I am compared with other friends / classmates.	2.34	1.31	Low
3. Insult and beat me in front of others.	1.41	0.77	Very Low
4. I often feel that I am being rejected for affection.	2.04	1.16	Low
5. Blame me even for minor things/issues.	2.29	1.09	Low
6. Behave to me in a strict manner.	3.73	1.08	High
7. Being scolded for not coming up to their expectations.	2.09	1.11	Low
8. Blame me for not doing things properly.	2.66	1.17	Moderate
9. Being scolded without knowing the reasons for late from the College.	1.91	1.03	Low
10. There is control over each of my activities.	2.60	1.12	Moderate
<b>OVERALL MEAN</b>	<b>2.48</b>	<b>1.09</b>	<b>Low</b>

*Legend: 4.20-5.00-Very High; 3.40-4.19-High; 2.60-3.39-Moderate; 1.80-2.59-Low; 1.00-1.79-Very Low*

Table 2 shows the mean scores of the authoritarian parenting style indicators. Indicator 3 has the lowest mean score of 1.41 and with a standard deviation of 0.77. This indicates a very low level, which implies that the respondents have never experienced insults and never been beaten in front of others. It means that the respondents do not experience abuse from their parents in front of others. Indicator 6 has the highest mean score of 3.73 which is a high level, and a standard deviation of 1.08. This implies that the parents of the respondents often behave in a strict manner. It means that the parents of these respondents have unbending rules that the respondent must follow. The overall weighted mean score is 2.48 and a standard deviation of 1.09. This shows that respondents perceive their experience on authoritarian parenting style at a low level. They rarely experience being blamed for not doing things properly and parents are sometimes in control over each of the respondents' activities. It means that the respondents rarely receive directives from their parents.

According to Weaver et al. (2014), authoritarian practices and roles changed in the last 50 years with significant reduction in parental directive control. Parents' responsibilities evolved from

stereotypical portrayals of fathers as decision-makers and mothers as caregivers to both parents sharing choices and earning children's respect.

**Table 3**

*Parenting Style as to Permissive*

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>VI</b>
1. Never find time for me to help during difficult situations.	2.73	1.21	Moderate
2. Never help me in doing day-to-day activities on time.	2.87	1.13	Moderate
3. No directions are given while doing things.	2.24	1.00	Low
4. No inquiries are made for the decisions taken by me.	2.53	1.00	Low
5. Never provide an atmosphere for my studies.	2.16	1.16	Low
6. Never do anything to satisfy my needs.	2.13	1.20	Low
7. Fail to inquire about the disturbances and suggest remedial measures.	2.31	0.91	Low
8. No effort is made to know about the progress of my studies.	2.47	1.15	Low
9. No inquiries are made about my likes and interests.	2.50	1.19	Low
10. They will not inquire about my abilities and goals.	2.43	1.16	Low
<b>OVERALL</b>	<b>2.44</b>	<b>1.11</b>	<b>Low</b>

*Legend: 4.20-5.00-Very High; 3.40-4.19-High; 2.60-3.39-Moderate; 1.80-2.59-Low; 1.00-1.79-Very Low*

Table 3 shows the mean scores of the permissive parenting style indicators. Indicator 6 has the lowest mean score of 2.13 and with a standard deviation of 1.20. This indicates a low level, which implies that the parents of the respondents rarely don't meet or satisfy the respondent's needs. It means that the parents of the respondents often provide their needs. Indicator 2 has the highest mean score of 2.87 which is a moderate level, and a standard deviation of 1.13. This implies that the parents of the respondents sometimes help their children do the day-to-day activities on time. It means that these respondents sometimes receive help from their parents. The overall weighted mean score is 2.44 and a standard deviation of 1.11. This shows that respondents perceive permissive parenting style at a low level. This implies that the respondents rarely perceive the parenting style they experience as permissive. Thus, the parents of the respondents rarely don't inquire about the things about their child. The parents of the respondents rarely don't make efforts to provide the needs of the respondents.

According to Cherry (2020), permissive parenting is a parenting style that combines low expectations with great responsiveness. Permissive parents are usually very caring, but they don't

give many boundaries or restrictions. These parents don't expect their children to be mature, and they frequently appear to be more of a friend than a parent.

**Table 4**

*Summary Result of Parenting Styles*

Parenting style	Frequency	Percentage
Authoritative	55	78.57
Permissive	9	12.86
Authoritarian	6	8.57
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Table 4 shows that authoritative parenting style has the highest frequency of 55 comprising 78.57% of the respondents. Moreover, permissive parenting style has a frequency of 9 and a percentage of 12.86. While there are only 6 respondents (8.57%) who experienced authoritarian parenting. This indicates that majority of the respondents perceived to have authoritative parents. Authoritative parenting style is widely used and considered as the most effective parenting style among the 3, since the parents in this parenting style are affectionate, supportive, and the children's autonomy and independence were encouraged.

According to Lee (2021), the authoritative parenting style has been found to provide the best results in children, including improved emotional health, social skills, resiliency, and strong bonds with their parents. A child's growth is extremely essential and has a significant influence on their whole existence as they progress into adult functioning individuals. Similarly, Balswick and Balswick (2014) find authoritative parenting as more efficient. Authoritarian and permissive parenting style have been perceived the least. Presumably, the very strict rules and rare discipline practices are moderately manifested by the Filipino parents.

Table 5 shows the level of respondents' neuroticism. The highest frequency is 35, comprising 50% of the respondents with a high level of neuroticism. High levels of neuroticism have a range score of 13 to 18, which implies a high tendency for the respondents to experience negative emotions such as anger, anxiety, or depression. The 21 out of 70 (30%) respondents are in the very high level, which implies that the respondents have a very high tendency to experience negative emotions such as anger, anxiety, or depression with a range of neuroticism score of 19 to

24. Moreover, there are 11 respondents, equivalent to 15.71%, who have low level or low tendency to experience negative emotions with a range of neuroticism score of 7 to 12. The least number of respondents (3) is in the very low level, equivalent to 4.29%. This indicates that only a few of them have a very low tendency to experience neuroticism.

**Table 5**

*The Level of Neuroticism*

<b>Level</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Very High	21	30
High	35	50
Low	11	15.71
Very Low	3	4.29
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

*Legend: 19-24-Very High; 13-18-High, 7-12-Low;0-6-Very Low*

Most of the respondents have a high level and very high level of neuroticism maybe due to the transition and adjustment period during the online classes considering the participants as freshmen college students. This is clearly explained by the Light Program (2020) that students moving to college face a number of challenges, including academic pressure, financial stress, uncertainty about which major or career route to pursue, greater social media use, and a lower stigma associated with seeking help. In addition, the transition to college is a period rather than a single event that causes significant levels of stress in college freshmen students in particular (D'Zurilla & Sheedy, 1991). The pandemic situation has contributed much to the pressing challenges faced by the students.

Table 6 shows the test of relationship between profile as to: age, sex, college, and living arrangement, and level of neuroticism of the respondents. As to age, the computed r-value - 0.110410366, is less than the CV which is 0.2444. Thus, accept  $H_0$ , therefore there is no significant relationship between the age and level of neuroticism of the respondents. As to sex, since the computed r-value is -0.120395806 which is less than the CV of 0.2444, the null hypothesis is also accepted. Similarly, as to the college department, the  $H_0$  is accepted therefore there is no significant relationship between the college and the level of neuroticism of the respondents, as a consequence of the computed r-value of -0.129512249 being lesser than the CV of 0.2444. As to living arrangement, it also doesn't have a significant relationship to the level of neuroticism of the

respondents as the computed r-value is -0.126292615 which is less than the CV of 0.2444. Thus, accept  $H_0$ , therefore, the living arrangement of the respondents doesn't influence the level of neuroticism of the respondents. The demographic profile of the respondents has no significant relations with the level of neuroticism.

**Table 6**

*Test of Relationship Between Profile and Level of Neuroticism of the Respondents*

Variable	r-value	Interpretation
Age	-0.110410366	Not significant
Sex	-0.120395806	Not significant
College	-0.129512249	Not significant
Living arrangement	-0.126292615	Not significant

*Legend: Critical value = 0.2444*

The test of relationship clearly indicate that the demographic profile of the respondents doesn't affect the level of neuroticism. Thus, the results contradict most of the cited studies such as Donnellan et al. (2008) that there is a general declined in the average level of neuroticism with age but it is increased slightly with the onset at around age 80 and Lahey (2009) that that neuroticism and mental and physical health adjust accordingly by age, gender, and socioeconomic levels.

**Table 7**

*Test of Correlation between the Level of Neuroticism and Parenting Style of the Respondents*

Variable	r-value	Interpretation
Authoritative	-0.165984701	Not significant
Authoritarian	0.415357586	Significant
Permissive	0.44199485	Significant

*Legend: Critical value = 0.2444*

Table 7 shows the test of relationship between the level of neuroticism and parenting style of the respondents as to authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive.

As to authoritative parenting style, the computed r-value -0.165984701 being lesser than the CV 0.2444, implies that the  $H_0$  is accepted. Thus, the authoritative parenting style is not significant to the level of neuroticism of the respondents. Although it is tested that authoritative

parenting style and the level of neuroticism has no significant relationship, the table shows a negative correlation. It means that the higher the tendency for a parent to be authoritative, the lower the level of neuroticism. This contradicts the findings of Obaid (2021) that authoritative parenting is utilized more than other parenting styles and has a strong positive relationship with child behavior. As explained by Rahimi (2013) that children raised by authoritative parents had better levels of self-esteem and quality of life than children raised by authoritarian or permissive parents.

As to authoritarian parenting style, the computed r-value is 0.415357586 and is greater than the CV of 0.2444. The  $H_0$  is rejected, therefore there is a significant relationship between the authoritarian parenting style and the level of neuroticism of the respondents. It means that authoritarian parenting style influences the level of neuroticism of the respondents. Moreover, the positive correlation indicates that as parents become more authoritarian, the level of neuroticism increases. Authoritarian parents are high in demandingness but low in responsiveness, they have high expectations and standards that if not met, the parent will blame and punish their children. These punishments lead the children to experience and feel negative emotions. Consequently, their children experience the feeling of being easily hurt when people find fault with their work.

A significant relationship between permissive parenting style and the level of neuroticism was also determined. With a computed r-value of 0.44199485 which is greater than the CV of 0.2444 the  $H_0$  is rejected. It entails a positive correlation, which implies that as parents become more permissive, the level of neuroticism increases. Permissive parents practice lenient parenting style wherein they make all the possible efforts not to upset their children, to meet all their demands, and they emphasize their children's autonomy rather than responsibility. Henceforth, children with permissive parents were taught that sadness and disappointment are intolerable due to their parent's effort not to make them experience distress. Permissive parenting style hampers children's emotion that results in difficulty dealing with their emotions. Thus, when children face stressful or emotionally difficult situations, they tend to lack apt decision making and problem solving capabilities, leading them to feel negative emotions. Lionetti et al. (2021) explain that increased ruminative coping mechanisms in sensitive children were linked to permissive parenting, which predicted greater levels of depression. As a result, ruminating has emerged as a key cognitive risk factor for the development of depression symptoms in children who are susceptible.

Based on the result, authoritarian and permissive parenting style influences the level of neuroticism of the respondents. Moreover, both of them have positive correlation with the level of neuroticism.

## 5. Conclusion

The findings of the study showed no significant relationship between the level of the neuroticism and the profile of the respondents as to: age, sex, college, and their living arrangement. Similarly, there is no significant relationship between the level of neuroticism of the respondents and authoritative parenting style. This implies that authoritative parents do not affect the level of neuroticism of the respondents. However, there is a significant relationship between authoritarian parenting style and permissive parenting style and the level of neuroticism. As such, this study concludes that authoritarian parenting, parents with high demandingness but low responsiveness, affects the level of neuroticism. In addition, permissive parents, low in demandingness but high in responsiveness, also affects the level of neuroticism.

This study suggests both parents and their children to be mindful and sensitive on the parenting style that could deter or harm the emotions and mental health. Further studies are encouraged on the use of different standardized test on neuroticism level and parenting styles. As the current study has limited participants, similar study with higher number of participants are highly recommended to further validate the relationship between parenting style and level of neuroticism.

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