GENDER, PARENTAL BONDING AND PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP AMONG ADOLESCENTS IN AIZAWL, MIZORAM

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Registration No. & Date : MZU/M.Phil/182 of 16.05.2014

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Philosophy in Social Work of Mizoram University, Aizawl

December, 2014

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<div align="center">**December, 2014**</div>

<div align="center">**DECLARATION**</div>

I, Lalrintluangi, hereby declare that the subject matter of this dissertation titled "Gender, Parental Bonding and Parent-child Relationship among Adolescents in Aizawl, Mizoram" is the record of work done by me, under the supervision of Dr C.Devendiran, Associate Professor, Department Social Work, Mizoram University. The contents of this dissertation did not form the basis of award of any previous degree to me or to the best of my knowledge to anybody else, and that the dissertation has not been submitted by me for any research degree to any other University or Institute.

This is being submitted to the Mizoram University for the Degree of **Master of Philosophy in Social Work**.

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that   the dissertation "Gender, Parental Bonding and Parent-Child Relationship among Adolescents in Aizawl, Mizoram" submitted by Lalrintluangi, for the award of Master of Philosophy in Social Work is carried out under my guidance and incorporate the student's bonafide research.

The scholar has fulfilled all the required norms laid down for the M Phil regulations by the   Mizoram University. The thesis has not previously formed the basis for award of any degree of this university or any other and this work is a record of the scholars personal effort carried out under my guidance.

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Date : 18th December 2014

Place : Aizawl, Mizoram

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost, I would like to express my gratitude to our "Almighty God" for giving protection throughout my work and also providing me with good health to complete my Master of Philosophy.

My indebted gratitude goes to my supervisor Dr. C. Devendiran, Associate Professor of Social Work, Mizoram University for his encouragement and guidance throughout my research. He is my source of inspiration and motivation in completing this work.

I sincerely thank Dr. E Kanagaraj, Head, Department of Social Work, Mizoram University for his constant support, motivation and providing me all the necessary help in computing my data.

A special gratitude goes to Youth for Christ leaders for letting me to have access a list for the youth groups and providing me with guidance for my data collection. I give my sincere gratitude to all the respondents who kindly took the time to answer my interview schedule and those who participate in group discussion and help me to complete my work.

I would also like to thank my classmates for their cooperation, encouragement and for lending me a helping hand during my research work. A special thanks to R.Lallianzela for his endless support and always be there whenever I need help.

Lastly, I would like to extend my heartfelt gratitude to my family and friends who have provided me with support and patience during my studies. Without their love, help and encouragement this work would have never been completed.

18th December, 2014   (LALRINTLUANGI)
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WHO	:	World Health Organization
MRO	:	Mutual Responsive Orientation
MROS	:	Mutual Responsive Orientation Scales
PBI	:	Parental Bonding Instrument
PCC	:	Parent-Child Connectedness
AAI	:	Adult Attachment Interview
YCF	:	Youth Christian Fellowship
PRA	:	Participatory Rural Appraisal
FGD	:	Focus Group Discussion
SPSS	:	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
E-NET	:	Ego Network
APL	:	Above Poverty Line
BPL	:	Below Poverty Line
AAY	:	Antyodya Anna Yojana
HSLC	:	High School Living Certificate
HSSLC	:	Higher Secondary School Living Certificate
CHAN	:	Community Health Action Network
YMA	:	Young Mizo Association
MHIP	:	Mizo Hmeichhe Insuihkhawm Pawl

MUP   : Mizoram Upa Pawl

KTP   : Kristian Thalai Pawl

VC   : Village Council

CHAPTER- I

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER-I

INTRODUCTION

The present study explores gender differences in parental bonding and parent-child relationship among the adolescents in Aizawl, Mizoram.

Among the most important factors that influence adolescents' personality constructs and their ability to learn are parents. In their upbringing of children, parents may be accepting or rejecting, punitive or non-punitive, demanding or non-demanding. Such quality of parents is often found to influence their characteristics.

1.1 Overview of Concepts

Parenting has been long recognized as making an important contribution to child development. Various parenting attitudes had practices influence child behavior and the development of either prosocial competencies of psychosocial maladjustment. It is one of the complex tasks every parent hopes to succeed in. For all social and educational development, the family and parenting style plays an important role. Moreover, parenting forms the basis of a family environment because without parental education, it was not possible for parents to fulfill their roles and duties in the family and the society.

Parental bonding is an important predictor that gives a lot of insight into parent-child relationship. One of the many different relationships formed over the course of the life span, the relationship between parent and child is among the most important (Steinberg, 2001). Not surprisingly studies of child development have devoted considerable attention to the parent-child relationship, in order to understand how it develops and functions over the life span. The study is important because family stabilization and the child's adjustment to paternal or maternal absence are aided by several key factors related to psychological well-being of the custodial parent. In other words, child adjustment is closely related to parental adjustment. As marriage relationships deteriorate, spouses often focus on their partner's weakness and faults, often leaving them feeling that their dignity has been wrung out and that they are worthless. Therefore, the ability of

the custodial parent to develop a positive self-concept, to gain a healthy perspective on the dissolution of the marriage, is necessary not only for the sake of the children but also for the mental health of the parent.

Research has found that a loving, responsive and helpful parent who is always available for their child serves the function of binding the child to them and contributes to the reciprocal dynamics of that binding (Bowly,1988). However, research and information is still lacking on how this parental bonding can affect relationship between parent and child. Thus, this study aims to examine the correlation between parental bonding and parent-child relationship in which gender differences is taken into consideration.

The associations a person has with other people, called relationships, are a major part of every person's existence. They can significantly influence and direct the course of a person's life. Relationship occurs between parents and children, friends, co-workers, and many other people. Each relationship, a person is involved in has a potential impact that can be beneficial or detrimental to the development or quality of his or her life. In general, relationships between people have been a topic of great interest.

One of the most consequential relationships people have in their lives is with their families. The family is one of the basic constructs of human relationships and has a major impact on the development of a person. The effect of familial relationship has been studied for many years in order to understand the family's significance. Parental relationships have been to affect many different aspects of development including sexuality gender identity and depression. In recent years, the distinct interactions between parent and child within the family have been of interest to help understand the unique contributions each individual parent has on the child.

Parent child relation plays, a crucial role in the development of personality. An accepted child perceives feeling of self-respect, confidence and security whereas rejecting mother provides negative incentive to the child to identify with the parents, resulting in the dissimilarity of the personality between parents and children. Parental rejection is positively correlated with economic and hedonistic values are negatively related with parental rejection.

Whereas moral values of parents and development of pre-social behavior depicted that mother's moral value plays a vital role in developing the pro-social behavior among children

regardless of any age, even cultural change may lead to pressure o families to readjust their socialization of goals and practices. Parents also have the duty of assisting, the child to mold his behavior and attitude to fit his cultural gap and this requirement sometimes control by the parents in the modifications of child behaviors.

1.2 Parent- Child Relationships

Parent-child relationship can be described as the socialization between parent and child (Sears, 1951). According to Sears (1951), to understand the parent-child socialization, developmentalists should shift from the dominant emphasis on characteristics of the parent and the child as individuals to an emphasis on the parent-child dyad. In addition, Maccoby (1992) further illustrates socialization as a mutual, reciprocal, relationship based enterprise between the parent and the child.

In order to capture the dyadic features of the relationship, some researchers have based on certain concurrent combinations of the parent's and the child's behavior to capture dyadic qualities such as interactional synchrony (Isabella, Belsky & Von Eye, 1989). Yet, another approach by Konchanska (1997) proposed a construct of mutually responsive orientation (MRO) which consists of two main components: mutual responsiveness and shared good times between parent and child. These components are coded during naturalistic interactions of parents and children at infant, toddler, and preschool ages. A further research on MRO has then moved beyond and expanded the two components. Askan, Konchanska and Ortmann (2006) developed the Mutually Responsive Orientation Scales (MROS) which portrayed four basic components: coordination routines, harmonious communication, mutual cooperation, and emotional ambience. Dyads high on MRO develop coordinated, smooth, easily flowing routines, so that parents and children can be proficient in reading each other's signals and have good flow of communication. They also tend to show mutual cooperation and are responsive to each other. Besides, they are more likely to experience frequent bouts of joy, show of mutual affection and humor while effectively reducing negative affect once it arises.

1.3 Adolescents

Adolescence is a critical phase of life where an individual undergoes many changes. The word 'adolescence' comes from the Latin verb 'adolescere', which means 'to grow' or 'to grow to maturity'. Adolescence is much more than one rung up the ladder from childhood. It is a built-in, necessary transition period for ego development. There are various factors like family structure, transition in emotionality, transition in socialization, the social status, changed body, levels of aspiration, their achievements, religious beliefs that play a significant role in adolescent development. Among the various family factors that might influence child and adolescent development, parenting styles have been recognized as important.

Adolescence has been described as a phase of life beginning in biology and ending in society. Indeed, adolescence may be defined, as the period within the life span when most of a person's biological, cognitive, psychological and social characteristics are changing from what is typically considered child-like to what is considered adult-like. For the adolescent, this period is a dramatic challenge, one requiring adjustment to changes in the self, in the family, in the peer group. In contemporary society, adolescents experience institutional changes as well. Among young adolescents, there is a change in school setting, typically involving a transition from elementary school to either junior high school or middle school; and in late adolescence there is a transition from high school to the worlds of work, university, or child rearing.

In India, despite the fact that adolescents from one-fifth of the Indian population, their reproductive health needs are poorly understood and ill served. While the needs of children or pregnant women are not acknowledged in national strategies and programmes, services nor research have focused on adolescents comprise more than 200 million, the health consequences of this neglect take on enormous proportions.

Adolescence is the period in human growth and development that occurs after childhood and before adulthood, from ages 10 to 19 years. The process of adolescence is a period of preparation for adulthood during which time several key developmental experiences occur. Besides, physical and sexual maturation, these experiences include movement toward social and economic independence, and development of identity, the acquisition of skills needed to carry out adult relationships and roles, and the capacity for abstract reasoning (WHO, 2013).

The teen age group is considered to be adolescent. Adolescence is the transitional period between childhood and adulthood. However, its emotional and physical stages can begin in

childhood and end in adulthood. According to the National Youth Policy (Draft, 2007), the age group related definitions of adolescents and youth cut across and overlap each other and that both would, therefore, have to be seen as a part of the larger youth cohort encompassing young people moving out of childhood to adolescence and into young adulthood.

Adolescence is a period of time in which children have to deal with a variety of emotional, psychological, and academic concerns. Although some issues are encountered by a large majority of this group and can be considered normative rites of passage, there are other matters that may affect a smaller subgroup of the adolescent population (Steinberg, 2001).

1.4 Gender

Gender is the state of being male or female (typically used with reference to social and cultural differences rather than biological ones). The World Health Organization (WHO) defines gender as "socially constructed roles, behavior, activities and attributes that a particular society considers appropriate for men and women". The distinct roles and behavior may give rise to gender inequalities i.e. differences between men and women that systematically favor one group. In turn, such inequalities can lead to inequities between men and women in both health status and access to health care.

Gender has to do not with how females and males really are, but with the way that a given culture or sub-culture sees them and therefore the primary issue is to examine how they are 'culturally constructed'. Gender is not a natural process that emanates from the body; it is a socially structuring activity. It refers to the cultural categories of femininity/masculinity based upon the biological division.

Gender roles are beliefs about the ways in which individual, familial, community and societal roles are defined by gender (Slavkin & Stright, 2000). Traditional gender roles, which are common in traditional families in which the male is the breadwinner and the female is in charge of childcare and housekeeping, define masculinity as being independent, assertive, and aggressive (Eagly & Steffen, 1984; Eagly, 1987). Femininity is defined as being nurturing, sensitive and emotional (Slavkin & Straight, 2000; Bem, 1981).

1.5 Nature of Parenting

Parenting is both a biological and social process. Parenting is the term summarizing the set of behaviors involved across life in the realties among organism who are usually co specifics, ad typically members of different generations or, at the least, of different birth cohorts. Parenting interactions provide resources across the general groups and function in regard to domains of survival, reproduction, nurturance and socialization.

Thus, parenting is a complex process, involving much more than a mother or father providing food, safety and succor to an infant or child. Parenting involves bi-directional relationships between members of two (or more) generations, can extend through all or major parts of the respective life spans of these groups, may engage all institutions within a culture (including educational, economic, political and social ones) and is embedded in the history of a people. In addition, there are multiple levels of organization that change in and trough integrated, mutually independent or "fused" relationship; these relationships occur over both ontogenic and historical time. As such, context, as well as diversity, is an important feature of parenting.

Parenting is usually done in a child's family by the mother and/or father (i.e., the biological parents). When parents are unable or unwilling to provide this care, it is usually undertaken by close relatives, such as older siblings, aunts and uncles, or grandparents. In other cases, children may be cared for by adoptive parents, foster parents, godparents, or in institutions (such as group homes or orphanages). There are also circumstances, such as on kibbutz, where parenting is an occupation even when biological parents exist. Parents patria refers to the public policy power of the state to the usurp the rights of the natural parent, legal guardian or informal caregiver, and to act as the parent of any child or individual who is in need of protection (i.e., if the child's caregiver is exceedingly violent or dangerous).

In sum, then, parent-child relationships marked by behavior supportive of the youth and by positive feelings connecting the generations are associated with psychological and socially healthy developmental outcomes for the adolescent. However, some families do not have parent-child relations marked by support and positive emotions; and no family has such exchanges all the time. Families experience conflict and negative emotions. Such exchanges also influence the adolescent; but as we might expect, the outcomes for youth of these influences differ from those associated with support and positive emotions.

1.6 Parenting: socialization and parent adolescent relationship

The key function of a child's family is to raise the young person in as healthy manner as possible. The parent's role is to provide the child with a safe, secure, nurturant, loving, and supportive environment, one that allows the offspring to have a happy and healthy youth; this sort of experience allows the youth to develop the knowledge, values, attitudes and behaviors necessary to become an adult making a productive contribution to self, family, community and society.

What a parent does to fulfill these "duties" of his or her role is termed parenting. In other words parenting is a term that summarizes behaviors used by a person- usually, but of course, not exclusively, the mother or father to raise a child. The parenting is the major function of the family. Parents across cultures have unique socialization goals, such as helping their child become an autonomous, self-reliant individual or a socially interdependent individual (Keller & Otto, 2009). The socialization goals shape parents' everyday interactions and parenting styles with their children.

1.7 Socialization in adolescence

The goal of parenting is to raise a child who is healthy and successful in life, who can contribute to self and to society, who accepts and works to further the social order. The process- the behaviors that are used overtime- to reach these goals is termed socialization. Socialization must include adjustment in family in which the family occupies the first and the most significant influence for the social development of the child. The second one- adjustment in peer groups is an important source of emotional support during the complex transition of adolescence, as well as a source of pressure for behavior that parents may deplore, is young people's growing involvement with their peers. And the last one includes adjustment in society or community. When the child or adolescent is well adjusted in the other organizations like family, school and behave in positive way i.e., govern by society or community then he/she is able to adjust in society. Adolescents do the social behavior like honesty, obey the elders, and follow the rules and norms, friendly to the neighbors and peers and not involved in anti-social activists.

1.8 Statement of the problem

The purpose of the present study is to search into the gender differences in parental bonding and parent child relationship among adolescents in Aizawl. The study will focus on parental bonding in terms of maternal care and over protectiveness and parental care and over protectiveness by using the Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI) developed by Parker, Tupling and Brown, 1979. It seeks to aim on parent-child relationship asking questions about who the respondent spent most time with, felt closest too while growing up and currently, have the most common with, enjoyed spending time with most etc. Further, it will find out the relationship between parental bonding and parent-child relationship. From the light of these, it will offer suggestions for the benefit of the policy makers and social workers at multilevel.

1.9 Objectives

1. To profile adolescents in Aizawl.
2. To assess the parental bonding among the adolescents in Aizawl.
3. To identify the parent-child relationship among adolescents in Aizawl.
4. To find out the relationship between parental bonding and parent-child relationship from the adolescents.
5. To suggest policy measures for social work intervention.

1.10 Hypotheses

1. There is a gender difference in parental bonding among adolescents.
2. There is a gender difference in parent-child relationship among adolescents.
3. Stronger parental bonding promotes better parent-child relationship.
4. Females are more likely to perceive mothers as more caring compared to males.

The first two hypotheses are derived from the intuitive sense of the researcher. The third hypothesis draws its inspiration from the study parental bonding and parent-child relationship among tertiary students (Tam Cai Lian, 2010). The fourth hypothesis draws its inspiration from the study a parental bonding instrument and Parental Characteristics as influences on adjustment in adulthood (Parker, Tupling H., & Brown, 1979 and Gladstone, G.L. and Parker, G, 1996). The testing of the hypotheses would have implications for social policy and social work intervention.

1.11 Chapter Scheme

The study is organized into the following six chapters:

1. Introduction

2. Review of Literature

3. Methodology

4. Results and Discussions

5. Conclusions and Suggestion

CHAPTER- II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review of literature is essential and is often given importance before conducting any study as it helps the researcher to understand the theoretical background and findings of different scholars in various aspects. Also, it gives an idea about the research gaps as well as the differences or commonality of various studies in relation to our present study. It also helps to understand the typology or method suitable for a particular study thus giving one a general idea about the significance or limitations of each method. It also widens the outlook and overall it helps in mapping out what is of core importance for the research at hand thus helping one to have a more systematic study. The present section includes various studies done by researchers across the world which are relevant for the present study.

2.1 Parental Bonding and Parent-Child Relationship

Parents' influence on the healthy development of children starts as early as they project some kind of attitude on the conception of the new child. This means the more positive parents' attitude is toward a child's conception, the more favorable will be the development of the child (Hurlock, 1980:41).

Parents play a vital role in adolescent's development. Parents cannot be present to guide their adolescent's behavior at all times. Parents then must allow their adolescents to make their own decisions and attitudes, so that adolescents can feel responsible for their own lives. The way in which autonomy is negotiated vis-à-vis the present-adolescent relationship has been a primary focus of theory and research on adolescent development. There are several aspects within the parent-adolescent relationship that can influence an individual's effort to become autonomous. Primarily, it includes adolescent's attachment and connection with parents, the interaction and communication patterns and the styles of parenting.

By coping with difficult challenges in a positive way and by persevering in the face of difficulties, parents model hopeful behaviour to their children (McDermott & Hastings, 2000). Parents are primary teachers in instilling agency (motivational thinking) and pathways (routes to

goals) thinking (Snyder, 2000b). This is accomplished as children begin to perceive and make sense of external events, understand that one event can lead to another, and comprehend the value of goal-directed behaviour. Consequently, children acquire 'self-instigatory insights' (Snyder, 2000b, p. 28) which assist them to plan goaldirected behaviour and deal with obstacles that hinder the achievement of those goals. As children develop cognitively and move into adolescence and beyond, so these self instigator insights improve.

Parenting is one of the complex tasks every parent hopes to succeed in. For all social and educational development, the family and parenting style plays an important role. Moreover, parenting forms the basis of a family environment because without parental education, it was not possible for parents to fulfill their roles and duties in the family and the society. Leung (1988) study on the importance of parenting on children's psychosocial development, acknowledged that parenting was a very complex and challenging phenomenon which was very difficult to understand and define. Parents need to educate themselves for their children to become good citizens in the future. So, parents required help to develop their parenting skills. Leung (1988) study on the importance of parenting on children's psychosocial development, acknowledged that parenting was a very complex and challenging phenomenon which was very difficult to understand and define. Parents need to educate themselves for their children to become good citizens in the future. So, parents required help to develop their parenting skills.

Parenting is one of the most important influences on child psychosocial adjustment (see Newman et al. 2008, for a review), and many family-focused programs for youth hypothesize change in parenting behavior as the primary mechanism by which intervention effects on youth adjustment occur (see Henggeler and Sheidow 2011, for a review). Yet, relatively little is known in the literature about the contextual factors that influence parenting style or specific parenting behaviors. In addition, most programs that target parenting have yet to incorporate modules or techniques which specifically aim to address contextual factors into their curriculums (e.g., Al-Hassan 2009; Akers and Mince 2008).

Classic works by Bowlby (1969, 1973, 1980), Ainsworth (1963, 1967), and Blatz (1966) brought our attention to the significance of parental bonding to children's cognitive, physical, and socioemotional adjustment and interaction. Empirical evidence suggested that security, comfort, sensitivity, and a sense of safety and support from a primary caregiver paved the way into the later growing years. Today we know, for example, that parental behaviors influence the

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physical growth (e.g., weight, head circumference) of their infants (DeWitt, Sparks, Swank, Smith, Denson, & Landry, 1997) and that parent's actions and support are critical components for children to be able to accomplish and attain new behavioral and motor skills (e.g., Vygotsky, 1978), expressions and understandings of emotion (e.g., Maccoby, 1980), effective self-regulation and relationships with the social world (e.g., Stern, 1985). Such achievements will allow the child to eventually maintain his or her own physical and emotional health independent of their caregivers, setting the path that leads into adulthood.

As originally defined by Bowlby (1969) and Ainsworth (1973), attachment is an enduring affective bond characterized by a tendency to seek and maintain proximity to the primary caregiver. This is especially true when the child is frightened, ill, tired, or otherwise under stress and in need of care and protection. This behavioral tendency to seek proximity and contact from a caregiving figure when under stress is an evolutionary, instinctive, and biological function that ensures the survival of the child, and in turn, of the species (Bowlby, 1969). The behaviors used to seek proximity, such as crying, can be seen as a set of strategies used to communicate and signal need. Parental anticipation of infant needs and sensitivity to infant signals are therefore critical. How responsive and tolerant the parent is to the child's needs is said to predispose the child to an attachment pattern, broadly defined as secure or insecure. Children whose primary caregiver is accessible, sensitive, and accepting of his or her desire to seek contact are more likely to have "felt security". Children with this secure parent-child bond have, as a result, an internalized sense of being worthy of care, of being effective in eliciting care when required, and a sense of personal efficacy in dealing with most stressors. Children who have poor parent-child bonds, or whose parental figures are unresponsive or intolerant of a child's distress, or who are absent, can experience insecure attachment and inadequate coping mechanisms.

Bowlby also considered the parent-child bond to be a critical component across the life span. More recent research has considered the longer-term effects of impaired attachment on the emotional and physical well-being beyond infancy. Studies show that a lack of parental availability, cohesiveness, and warmth, as well as feelings of detachment and a lack of acceptance by children, are associated with a broad array of mental health risks, including depression, anxiety, and hostility (Chorpita & Barlow, 1998; Kaslow, Deering, & Racusin, 1994), as well as a greater prevalence of physical health problems across childhood. For

example, toddlers with certain chronic illnesses, such as asthma (Carson & Schauer, 1992) have a higher prevalence of insecure attachment as characterized by high levels of rejection by parents. Adolescents with low parental involvement or who report poor emotional attachment to their parent(s) are more likely to use substances such as marijuana and alcohol (Aro & Palosaari, 1992; Doherty & Needle, 1991).

While the above information is powerful, it is also important to note that as we grow older, we form other relationships, including those with siblings, teachers, and significant, close others. This is an important consideration given the fact that while parents are usually the most meaningful source of social support in early life, the support and influence from other people become salient as children's social worlds broaden.

"Good parenting" (De Vore and Ginsburg 2005), i.e. parents who are warm and stimulating, but also able to set limits, has been linked to children's and adolescent's emotional well-being (Chan and Koo 2011; Kiernan and Huerta 2008), self-esteem (Chan and Koo 2011), life satisfaction (Cacioppo et al., 2013), social competence (Lamborn et.al., 1991), cognitive skils (Coley et al., 2011). Parenting seems not only associated with children's current situation, but also to future outcomes, as supportive parenting appears to be associated with physical health (Swanson et al., 2011). Neglectful parenting, on the other hand, has been associated with poor school performance (Dornbush et al., 1987).

Thus, parenting which combines high levels of warmth with moderate levels of control seems associated with higher levels of well-being among children and adolescent. It has been argued that the positive effects of this type of parenting have "transcontextual validity" and are found across different "ecological niches" in terms of parents' social position, ethnicity and family type (Steinberg et al., 1991; Steinberg 2001).

Such studies demonstrate that parenting is part of the complex processes underlying young people's well-being. Children's well-being implies a focus both on the present state- children's *being* in the here and now- and on children's *becoming*, i.e. their prospects and life chances (Ben-Arieh 2008; Ben-Areih and Frones 2011). It has been noticed that "interpersonal relations are a major determinant of personal (subjective) well-being in children and adolescents"

(Casas 2011). As the family is a main arena for developing such relationships, the quality of parenting could play a significant role for the well-being of children and adolescents.

Studies have found that parenting practices that include the provision of positive reinforcement, open displays of warmth or affection, involvement in and active monitoring on children's activities, and consistent but not overly harsh disciplinary strategies tend to relate to various measures of adaptive child psychosocial adjustment, including academic competence, high-self esteem, positive peer relations, and fewer child behavior problems (e.g. Baumrind, 1978; Brody & Flor, 1998; Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992).

For example, supportive parenting accompanied by consistent, yet not overly harsh, discipline practices has been found to relate positively to measures of adaptive child adjustment such as academic competence, self-confidence, and positive peer relations (e.g. Conger et al., 1992). Furthermore, these positive parenting strategies have been found to be particularly important for children in families facing adverse circumstances or stresses, such as financial hardship, parental divorce, or parental illness. Research in this area suggests that harmony in parent-child relationships and consistent discipline and monitoring of children's activities provides a buffer against such stresses and builds children's coping resources (e.g. Armistead, Forehand, Brody, & Maguen, in press; Fauber, Forehand, Thomas, & Wierson, 1990). In contrast, numerous studies point to the deleterious effects of parenting that is passive and inconsistent, overly harsh, or emotionally vacant. For example, Baumrind (1978) observed that parenting that lacks either parental control, in the form of monitoring or consistency in discipline, or parental warmth is associated with greater child behavior problems at various developmental stages.

Families have changed drastically form the stereotypical 1950's stay-at-home mom and working dad. Gerson (2002) found that both men and women often expressed strongly egalitarian attitudes towards parenting. However, even though most mothers form the 1980's to today work outside the home, there is still what is called the second shift of housework and childcare when the woman gets home from a full day of work (Hochschild, 2003). Mothers, on average, spend more time taking care of children than fathers (Craig, 2006). It may follow that children would feel more emotional closeness to their mothers than their fathers because they have spent more time with their mothers.

Folbre et al (2001) said that taking care of children is a complicated mixture of work and love in which the relationship itself is very important. Researchers have begun to study the affect of the child's attachment to the father as well as the mother (Thompson, 2000). Father's relationships with their children are actually very important, despite what many people may think. According to Dalton III, Frick Horbury, and Kitzmann (2006) reports of father's parenting, but not mothers, were related to the quality of current relationships with a romantic partner. Also, father's parenting was related to the view of the self as being able to form close and secure relationships (Dalton et al, 2006).

The results of study conducted by Craig (2006) found that mothers were more likely than fathers to spend not only more time overall with their children, but also more multitasking, more physical labor, a more rigid timetable, more time alone with children and more overall responsibility for their care. Craig (2006) also found that these gender differences in the amount of time spent with children as well as the circumstances stated above are the same even when the mother works full time. Fathers were found to be more likely to spend time with their children by playing with them, engaging in educational and recreational activities more than any other kinds of caring (Craig, 2006). Other research has consistently found that mothers will spend two to three times as much time with children as fathers (Baxter, 2002; Yeung, Sandberg, Davis-Kean, & Hofferth, 2001).

The reason for gender difference in how much time mothers and fathers spend with their children is probably not due to the fact that fathers don't want to spend time with their children. In fact, Milkie, Mattingly, Nomaguchi, Bianchi, and Robinson (2004) found that men said that they wanted to spend more time with their children.

One common view of mothers is that they are often over involved in their children's lives, while fathers have a much less involved approach, being mostly playmates for their children (Craig, 2006). Also, perhaps it is more acceptable for women to show affection than men, so it might be more difficult for men to show affection towards their sons.

Women are more perceived as more nurturing in our society, and many people think that women are better at taking care of children than men are (Craig, 2006). Men and women are often believed to have certain traits that make men more successful in the workplace, and women

are better at taking care of children. Pohl, Bender, and Lachmann (2005) found that women tend to show more empathy than men, and men tend to be more assertive than women. People may assume that findings apply to all men and women and that there cannot be assertive women and empathetic men. Therefore, society often tends to assume that all women should take care of children and all men should focus on work and leave the childrearing to the mother. It is also assumed that mothers should have a closer relationship to their children than the fathers because mothers are supposed to be more focused on their children.

According to social cognitive theory (Bussey & Bandura, 1999) and gender schema theory (Martin, Ruble, & Szkrybalo, 2002) children develop their views about gender by observing salient role model in their lives. Thus, one consequence of traditional family arrangements is that very young children associate various household tasks with gender (Deutsch et al., 2001). For example, children generally view mothers as the ones responsible for the domestic work and care giving within the family (Stroud et al., 1996). When parents' gender roles are more egalitarian-either as a result of mother's employment outside the home or fathers' involvement in household and childcare-children's views about gender tend to be less stereotypical. Thus, people who grew up in egalitarian households may be more likely to have egalitarian gender attitudes than those who were raised in traditional households. Perhaps to a lesser extent, fathers' and mothers' combination of affiliation and control in their parenting may provide a nontraditional model that affects developing gender attitudes. In particular, fathers who are perceived as high in nurturance and other affiliative behaviors reflect a counter stereotypical image of masculinity.

Research has indicated that the quality of parenting that children receive has an impact on overall child development, including social and emotional development. Parenting factors that have been found to increase the risk of child emotional and behavioral problems include the lack of a warm, positive relationship with parents, insecure attachment, inflexible or inconsistent discipline, inadequate supervision of and involvement with children, marital conflict and break down, and parental psychopathology such as maternal depression and parenting stress (Anthony et al. 2005; Miller et al. 1993; Patterson et al. 1989). In contrast, protective factors that have been shown to reduce children's risk of developing emotional and behavioral problems include supportive family relationships, access to professional supports for child emotional and

behavioral problems, and participation in an evidence-based parenting program (Armistead et al. 2002; Belsky 1984; Sanders 2003).

Studies on parent-child relationship during adolescent period have repeatedly shown that the transition into adolescence accompanies a transformation in parent-adolescent relationship (Maccoboy, 1984, Steinberg, 1990; Younnis and Smollar, 1985; Grotevant, 1998) which predominantly occurs as a function of the development of the adolescent's autonomy (Steinberg, 1990; Collins et al., 1997a, 1997b, Noom et al., 1999). Adolescents redefine their role and seek an equalitarian parent-child relationship. The growing sense of autonomy and independence promotes adolescents to exercise more control over their thoughts, emotions and activities and to be more critical of their parent's values and beliefs.

Developmental shifts in metacognitive and representational capacity that occur during adolescence (Case, 1985; Selman, 1980; Chalmers and Lawrence, 1993) promote a more highly differentiated and complex view of the self and others (Harter, 1990; Marsh 1989; Moretti and Higgins, 1999). With increased cognitive maturity adolescents gain the capacity to revaluate and potentially "deidealize" their parents-to see them in both positive and negative ways (Blos, 1979; Fuhram and Holmbeck, 1995; Lamborn and Steinberg 1993; Ryan and Lynch, 1989; Steinberg, 2005). Frank et al., (1988) observed that parental deidealization by adolescents as responsible for promotion of emotional autonomy in adolescence.

Although adolescence involves a transition from a dependency relationship with parents to mutually reciprocal relationship with significant others, this shift need not require that adolescents detach themselves from parents (Lamborn and Steinberg, 1993; Ryan et al., 1995). New models emphasize the importance of attachment or connectedness to parental figures for the development of responsible autonomy in adolescents (Allen et al., 1994; Ryan and Lynch, 1989; Steinberg, 1990; Allen et al., 2003; Sroufe 2005; Collins et al., 2000).

Steinberg et al. (1994) pointed out that instead of pulling in opposite to their parents; adolescents are forming their autonomy and identity by renegotiating their place in the family, evolving to a more peer-like status with their parents. For this status change to occur, the parents must be open, flexible, willing and able to reason with their child, and seek and abide by at least some of the child's input. The child, in turn, must have developed the basic social competencies

and self-regulation that earns their trust. The end result, Chase-Lansdale et al. (1995) maintain, is "a separate identity, a strong sense of autonomy, nested in peer-like, close emotional bonds".

Bean et al. (2004) suggested that when parent-child connectedness (PCC) is high, the emotional context in a family is high in affection, warmth, and trust. At this state, parents and children might have a better relationship as they enjoy having activities together and are more likely to communicate openly. They tend to provide emotional support and pay respect to one another as well. Besides, they are less likely to experience hostile and resentment (Bean et al.2004). Therefore, higher parent-child connectedness (bonding) may lead to a better parent-child relationship in a family.

On the contrary, the emotional climate in a family is strained when parent-child connectedness (PCC) is low (Bean et al., 2004). Under this situation, parents and children tend to experience hostility and anger in their relationship. They are more likely to maintain poor communication and lack of mutual respect for one another (Bean et al., 2004). Hence, they may fail to value opinions and other's needs, which then lead to low satisfaction in parent-child relationship.

Furthermore, research that relied on the AAI (George, Kaplan, & Main, 1985) has shown that individuals with a secure state of mind describe their relationships with their parents coherently and find these relationships to be valuable and influential in their lives. On the contrary, dismissing individuals tend to limit the influence of their relationships with parents by idealizing, derogating, or failing to remember their experiences. Preoccupied individuals are confused, angry or preoccupied with the relationships.

Several studies suggest that parenting plays a central role in understanding the development of internalizing and externalizing behavior (Cummings et al. 2000; Pereira et al. 2009). Parenting has been defined as the parents' attempts to control and socialize their children (Baumrind 1967). This author distinguished three types of parenting styles based on the interaction of two dimensions, parental warmth (which is related to parental involvement between children and parents) and parental control (referring to the role that parents play in promoting respect for rules and social conventions): Authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. Authoritative parents are high on both warmth and firm control, authoritarian parents are high on

firm control and low on warmth, and permissive parents are high on warmth and low on all types of control (Baumrind 1973). Later, Maccoby and Martin (1983) considered two dimensions: Parental demandingness (control, supervision, maturity demands) and parental responsiveness (warmth, acceptance, involvement). The interaction between the two dimensions produced four distinct parenting styles. A difference between Baumrind's and Maccoby and Martin's parenting style typologies is that these last authors distinguished between two types of permissive parenting (indulgent parents and neglecting parents). So, authoritative parents are characterized by high on both demandingness and responsiveness; authoritarian parents are characterized by high in demandingness but low in responsiveness; indulgent parents are characterized by low on demandingness but high on responsiveness; and neglecting parents are characterized by low on both demandingness and responsiveness. Nevertheless, neglected style has been observed infrequently in young children populations compared to the three other styles, but has mainly been reported in studies of adolescents (Baumrind 1991; Lamborn et al. 1991). So, in the child development literature, the Baumrind's (1973) early conceptualization of the parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive) continues to be widely employed in explaining individual differences in parenting rearing (Akhter et al. 2011; Baumrind et al. 2010; Parke 2002; Parke and Buriel 2006; Winsler et al. 2005; Rinaldi and Howe 2012).

Dekovic and Meeus (1997), Nelson and Metha (1994) and Joupert (1991) says that throughout the lifespan, self esteem is influenced by interpersonal relationships in a variety of contexts. Self esteem is influenced by both formal and intimate interactions with one's partner, family, and peers. Of particular interest is the importance of the parent-child relationships and its contribution to adolescent self esteem.

Dekovic and Meeus (1997), and Barber et al., (1992) stated that several child rearing behaviours have been associated with the development of self-esteem. Research has linked many parental behaviours and familial relationships with self-esteem in adolescence.

Bogenschneider, Small and Tsay (1997) studied that the characteristics of children and how they influence the quality and quantity of parenting they receive.

Baumrind, as cited in Darling (1999) stated that Authoritarian parents expect their orders to be obeyed without explanation.

Darling (1999) found that children of neglectful parents perform poorly in all aspects of life.

Grusec J.E. (2000) stated that the socialization process is bidirectional in that parents convey socialization messages to their children, but their children vary in their level of acceptance, receptivity, and internalization of these messages.

Kerr and Stattin (2000), Trost Kerr & Stattin (1999) stated that parent's daily interactions with children are highly important. For instance, in his study, the youth's willingness to tell parents about their daily activities has been a strong marker for good adjustment.

World Health Organization (2000) stated that boys are more likely to be physically abusive and girls more likely to be emotionally abusive towards their parents.

Parenting and family context may contribute to the development of inflexible, avoidant self-regulatory strategies (Gottman et al., 1996; Mitmansgruber et al. 2009; Morris et al., 2007; Rosenthal et al., 2006). Parenting behaviors that inspire guilt, fear or resentment may deprive children of the chance to practice self-regulation skills in a supportive environment, and may also shift attention from the immediate issue (the child's behavior) to the child's feelings (Moilanen et al., 2010). A child who regularly receive dismissive, punitive or derogatory responses to expressions of sadness, fear or anger may learn to label these emotions as unimportant, inappropriate or shameful (Rosenthal et al., 2006). In contrast, some parents are aware of their own and their child's emotions, even at low level of intensity, and help the child to label them and engage in problem solving (Gotmann et al., 1996). Children who receive this "emotion coaching" are better able to self-soothe or down-regulate arousal in situations that provoke strong emotions. This enables children to "focus attention, and organize themselves for coordinated action in the service of some goal" (Gotmann et al., 1996). Thus, a child's ability to respond to environmental demands appropriately, with goal-directed action-which is the essence of psychological flexibility-may be promoted by parental responsiveness and the use of reasoning, or inhibited by punitive, controlling parenting.

Children who meet parental expectations for competence and assertiveness may be more likely to elicit autonomy support, whereas those less capable may prompt intrusive, controlling behavior from parents (Bell 1968). There is limited evidence on reciprocal relationship between

adolescent and parental behavior (Pardini 2008). Adolescents high in aggression and internalizing problems perceived increase levels of parental psychological control. Psychologically controlling parenting appeared to hinder identity commitment and promote broad, rather than deep, identity exploration in emerging adults; subsequently, this scattergun approach to identity exploration was associated with increases in perceived psychological control (Luyckx et al., 2007).

One child characteristics that may affect parenting is gender. Parents may socialize boys and girls differently, with different outcomes for later self control. Autocratic, intrusive parenting in childhood was linked with excessive self-control in young women, but inadequate self-control in young men (Kremen and Block 1998). In contrast, both men and women who had more moderate, healthy levels of ego control in young adulthood had parents who were responsive and democratic. Findings are mixed; however, other studies (e.g. Finkenauer et al., 2005) have found no gender differences in the relationship of parenting.

The reason for the gender difference in how much time mothers and fathers spend with their children is probably not due to the fact that fathers don't want to spend time with their children. In fact, Milkie, Mattingly, Nomaguchi, Bianchi, and Robinson (2004) found that men said that they wanted to spend more time with their children.

Jacques Rousseau (1762) believed that children were born "innately good" and that it is up to parents and society to uphold and further teach the values inherent in children. Similar to the philosophers from centuries ago, educational and developmental psychologists of today are interested in gaining a better understanding of the interactive socialization process by which parents attempt to transmit their values, goals, skills, and attitudes to their children (see Grusec, 1997; Parke and Buriel,1998).

Parental bonding can be described as an attachment between the child and the parent. Studies have demonstrated the importance of parent-child relationship for adjustment, ranging from attachment to infancy, indiscipline style during childhood and adolescence to parenting style during adulthood. This attachment theory is based on the idea that there are individual differences in terms of how infants become emotionally bonded to their primary caregivers and how these first attachments experiences influence the future developments of infants in social, cognitive and emotional aspects (Bowlby, 1969; 1977). According to Bowlby (1977), attachment

is determined by the parent's attitude and behavior towards the infant's needs. Secure attachment occurs where the caregiver is always sensitive and consistent in responding to child's need. In contrast, parents who often neglected or reject the child's need for attention will lead to insecure attachment.

Studies on adult's attachment reveal that securely attached adults tend to be more competent, sociable, and more comfortable in dealing with different kinds of relationship in life (Haft & Slade, 1989). They are more likely to maintain a higher level of self-reliance and self-esteem compared to insecurely attached counterparts (Steinberg, 2001). In contrast, insecurely attached adults showed higher tendency to engage in antisocial behaviors, to suffer from depression and anxiety, to be clingy, dependent and less self-confident (Brennan & Shaver, 1991; Feeney & Noller, 1990).

To measure the bonding between parent and child, Parker, Tupling and Brown (1979) developed the Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI) to assess the parental characteristics – care and overprotection, which might contribute to the quality of attachment. Twelve of the items on the PBI are identified as care items (e.g., affection, emotional warmth, empathy and closeness versus emotional coldness, indifference and neglect) and another 13 items are identified as protection or control items (e.g. overprotection intrusion control prevention of independence versus independency and autonomy).

Besides, another term used to describe enduring bond between parent and child is called the 'parent-child connectedness' (PCC) (Brook, Gordon, Whiteman & Cohen, 1990). The PCC is measured using two factors – control and warmth. Warmth factors include characteristics such as trust, flexibility, shared optimism, autonomy or affection (Miller, Benson & Galbraith, 2001) while parents who scored highly in control factor are more likely to deprive their children from decision-making or would restrict their freedom in making friends (Bean, Lezin, Rolleri & Taylor, 2004). Examinations of PCC have explored the ongoing relationship between parents and children, which are often described in terms of different parenting styles.

Parenting styles are something that many people have familiarity with either while parenting or while growing up, and therefore there are many opinions on the best or better ways of going about it. These different approaches can be categorized as different parenting styles. The idea that parenting styles exist was originally observed by Diana Baumrind in the 1970's.

The term parenting style refers to behaviors and strategies used by parents to control and socialize their children (Lightfoot, Cole & Cole, 2009).

Parents are perhaps the most influential persons that one will ever encounter in life. Their impact is both profound and enduring. In fact, parenting styles are largely influenced by parents' experiences, both positive and negative, with their own parents as they themselves grew up. Others factors such as prevailing cultural norms and expextations, religious beliefs and characteristics of the children in the parent-child relationship also shape the dynamic and complex phenomenon of parenting. In 1971, Baumrind conducted a study consisting of interviews and observations with parents and children, concluding in the identification of three types of parenting based on levels of demandingness (control, supervision and maturity demands) and responsiveness (warmth, acceptance, involvement). These parenting styles she called authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive. The authoritarian parenting style is described as black and white style of parenting, where rules are expected to be followed without question or there will be consequences. These parents tend to be strict and demanding, while not treating their children as equals. They do not appear very responsive to their children.

In recent studies completed by Steinberg and his colleagues, generally one of two techniques has been used to determine parenting style research groupings. The first technique is the grouping of high and low scores on responsiveness and demandingness dimensions according to Maccoby and Matin's (1983) two-dimensional fourfold typology (e.g. see Durbin et at., 1993; Lamborn et al., 19910. This typology provides four discrete, heuristic groups for study. These second technique used more recently, is one in which a third parenting dimension-psychological autonomy granting- is incorporated into authoritative parenting along with the responsiveness and demandingness dimensions. Psychological autonomy granting (or democracy) has surfaced periodically over the past 30 years in work such as Schaefer's (1965) study of the assessment of parenting practices through children's reports, in Steinberg's (1990) factor analysis of parenting behaviors and in Baumrind's cluster analysis of parenting dimensions (1991 a,b). However, because this third parenting dimension has been found to play a major role only in authoritative parenting (Steinberg et al., 1994), it is assumed to have no practical application to the other parenting styles within the fourfold typology. Therefore, in studies incorporating the democracy dimension (in addition to the acceptance and behavioral control dimension), parents typically

have been categorized on an ordinal measure as "authoritative" (high on all three parenting dimensions), "somewhat authoritative" (high on only two of the three dimensions), somewhat "nonauthoritative" (high on only one dimension) or "nonauthoritative" (low on all three dimensions). This rating on "authoritativeness" in parenting styles is accomplished without regards to parents' positions in the classic fourfold typology (e.g. see Steinberg et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1992).

The authoritative parenting style also is one with rules that must be followed, however the parents tend to be more open about their reasoning and take into account their children's opinions more so than authoritarian parents. Authoritative parents tend to talk about issues with their children in a supportive manner instead of simply inflicting punishment.

Permissive parents tend to act more responsively and demand less from their children; in turn they do not usually discipline their children as regularly. They are also communicative and nurturing.

The most favorable parenting style is authoritative parenting (high warmth-moderate control); in which parents are usually emotionally warm, affectionate and able to combine with a set of firm, yet fair disciplinary style (Bean et al, 2004). By doing so, they are able to create an emotional context in which parent-children connectedness (PCC) is high.

The relationship between parenting practices, parenting styles, and behavioral difficulties in youth is complicated further when the child's age is considered. Developmentally, the period from childhood to adolescence is characterized by biological, cognitive and social changes (Paikoff and Brooks-Gunn 1991). These changes affect the way adolescents behave and, in turn, the way parents behave toward them and which parenting practices are employed (Paikoff and Brooks-Gunn 1991; Seydlitz 1991). Research has shown that parental involvement, use of Positive Discipline Techniques, Monitoring and Supervision, and use of Corporal Punishment decrease as children age and is afforded more independence (Shelton et al. 1996). Despite these changes in the parent–child dynamic during puberty, it is surmised that parents continue to use a particular parenting style through childhood into adolescence. During this time when adolescents are likely to balk at or resent parental directives without explanations, authoritative styles with both high control and high warmth are considered the most beneficial while authoritarian styles

with high control and low warmth are believed to exacerbate parent–child conflicts (Paikoff and Brooks-Gunn 1991).

Given the documented relationship between parenting practices and styles and adolescent conduct problems, the changes in parenting practices as children age, and the developmental changes associated with the movement from childhood to adolescence, it is likely that the association between parenting practices and conduct problems changes as children age into adolescence (Paikoff and Brooks-Gunn 1991; Seydlitz 1991; Shelton et al. 1996). Frick et al. (1999) found evidence to support this in a sample of 13–17 year-olds. While corporal punishment was most strongly associated with conduct problems in the middle age group (9–12 years-old), parent involvement was most strongly associated with conduct problems in the adolescent (13–17 years-old) group (Frick et al. 1999). The relation between parenting styles and practices and delinquency also appears to vary based on the gender and age of the child (Seydlitz 1991). Specifically, parental controls (i.e. attachment, monitoring and supervision, and discipline) inhibit delinquency more often in males than females. Moreover, with males, parental controls are more effective in mid-adolescence (13–16 years-old) while with females parental controls are more effective in late adolescence (15–18 years-old; Seydlitz 1991).

One well-developed perspective about this acquisition of parenting styles centers on several prospective, longitudinal studies showing intergenerational continuity in harsh (authoritarian) parenting, and a few studies showing similar continuity in constructive (authoritative) parenting (Belsky et al. 2005; Caspi and Elder 1988; Chen and Kaplan 2001; Conger et al. 2003). Whether this process involves heredity or learning, it seems that children who elicit or receive either of these forms of parenting are apt to repeat the practices if they become parents (Kerr et al. 2009; Neppl et al. 2009). For reasons not specified, permissive parenting was excluded from these correlation studies.

Relationships between parents and their children can also affect the perspective a child has on the roles of each gender. Fischer's (2007) review hypothesized that gender roles cause people to perceive the world through their specific gender's cognitive lens.

Many social theorists propose that children learn how to act in a social situation and develop socially because of the socialization they get from their parents. This socialization comes from observing and participating in social situations in the home with their parents. The

significance of parental relationships can be observed in several other areas of social development as well.

A child's educational success or failure has been associated with the quality of parental and marital relationships. There is evidence that children who have experienced divorce are more likely to struggle with completing school. Orthner, Jones-Sanpei, Hair, Day, Moore and Kaye (2009) hypothesized that adolescents would have a greater chance of graduating from high school and progressing on to postsecondary education if their parents had strong marital and parental relationships.

Research evidence shows that there are gender differences to be found in terms of perceiving parental bonding by using the PBI. Females are more likely to perceive mothers as more caring compared to males (Parker, Tupling & Brown, 1979; Gladstone & Parker, 1996). On the "perceived social control" subscale of the overprotection scale, mothers were rated as more controlling by male participants than by female participants (Gladstone & Parker, 1996). In contrast, on the "personal intrusiveness" subscale, fathers were rated as more intrusive by females compared to males (Gladstone & Parker, 1996). This was further supported in Rey, Bird, Kopec- Schrader and Richards (1993), in which female tended to score their fathers as more overprotective in relative to males.

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Authoritative parenting in Baumrind's classification is documented as being the optimal parenting style with regard to child outcomes. Specifically, authoritative parenting style has repeatedly been found to be correlated with positive self-perceptions while authoritarian parenting style has repeatedly been found to be correlated with negative self-perceptions (Buri, Lousielle, Misukanis, &Mueller, 1988; Klein, Bryant, & Hopkins, 1996; Lamborn et al., 1991; Pawlak & Klein, 1997).

Results from studies that attempt to relate parental styles and child and adolescent academic and social behavior and identity have been mixed and the effect sizes vary widely depending on the gender of the parent or a care-giver, gender, age and temperament of the child and the socio-economic status of the family (Harris, 2002). For instance, Conrade & Ho (2001) found that mothers' parenting style had a bigger impact on child performance in school while Bronte-Tinkew, Moore and Carrano (2006) found that fathers' emotional responsiveness was more highly related to children's performance. In some studies girls are affected both positively and negatively by parenting style differences among parents while in others boys are more negatively or positively affected by parenting styles (Conrade et al., 2001; Lee, et al., 2006).

Parenting styles are something that many people have familiarity with either while parenting or while growing up, and therefore there are many opinions on the best or better ways of going about it. These different approaches can be categorized as different parenting styles. The idea that parenting styles exist was originally observed by Diana Baumrind in the 1970's. The term parenting style refers to behaviors and strategies used by parents to control and socialize their children (Lightfoot, Cole & Cole, 2009).

The traditional parenting style topology was neither concerning the factor of parent's sex, nor considering the possible differential effects of parenting style on boys and girls. One reason may be that Buamrind's earlier studies focused only on young children and their mothers (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Later, Baumrind (1991c) reported 76% of the families had similar parenting characteristics between fathers and mothers. Some studies, indeed, found both parents had similar parenting patterns (e.g., Paulson, 1994; Rubin et al., 1999). However, many studies with both the American and international samples have shown that both parent's and children's sex play an important role in parenting styles and their effects on the child (e.g., Conrade & Ho, 2001; Russell, Alova, Feder, Glover, Miller, & Palmer, 1998; Shek, 1998, 2000, 2002). For instance, Warash and Markstrom (2001) reported the same parenting style had different effects on preschool boy's and girl's self-esteem in a sample of middle-class American families. Conrade and Ho (2001) found Australian parents were likely to be more authoritative to female children. Russell and colleagues (Russell & Saebel, 1997; Russell et al., 1998) also reported similar findings. In an Australian sample of parents with preschool children, they found: (a) mothers were more authoritative than fathers, (b) fathers were more authoritarian and permissive than mothers, and (c) both parents were more likely to use authoritarian strategies toward boys and authoritative reasoning or induction toward girls. In a sample of 429 secondary school students in Hong Kong, Shek (2002) reported Hong Kong adolescents perceived their fathers as (a) less responsive, (b) less demanding, (c) less concerned, and (d) harsher; whereas mothers were more demanding but less harsh.

Psychologists reported the child's active influence and power in shaping parental behaviors and the socialization process (Bell, 1968; Rheingold, 1969). Maccoby and Martin's (1983) landmark chapter explicitly emphasized the bidirectionality of parent-child interactions and relationships in a systematic way. Due to these pioneering works, the paradigm in parenting research has gradually shifted from the parent-oriented unidirectional topology approach to the bidirectional parent-child interaction approach over the past two decades although these bidirectional models have not become the mainstream in parenting research (Kuczynski, 2003; Parke & Buriel, 1998). Under the bilateral framework, parenting style is a product of (a) sociological and environmental factors, (b) parental behavioral and personality characteristics, and (c) the child's characteristics. In addition, parenting behaviors are heavily influenced by the parent-child relationships (Abidin, 1992; Grusec, Goodnow, & Kuczynski, 2000). Kuczynski

summarized the assumptions of the bilateral framework as (a) bidirectional causality, (b) equal agency of parent and child, (c) interactions within the relationship context, and (d) interdependent asymmetric power between parent and child.

The bilateral framework focuses on the processes of parent-child interactions which occur over the continuous developmental changes, and recognizes the diversity of models of bidirectional causality. It also advocates the "agency of parents and children, the dynamic nature of the asymmetrical power, and the parent-child interactions as a distinctive context for parentchild interactions" (Kuczynski, 2003, p.20). This interactionist's view of parent-child interaction is well aligned with the contemporary ecological theory of human development (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1989) and family socialization theories (Parke & Buriel, 1998). In summary, the relationship-oriented bilateral model proposes (a) bidirectional causality between parent and child, (b) equal agency of both parent and child, (c) the parent-child relationship as a context for parent-child interactions, and (d) the interdependency of parent's power and child's power (Kuczynski). In other words, the bilateral model emphasizes both the parent's and the child's roles in interactions, along with the interdependent relationships between parent and child. It also implies an input-process-output model rather than an input-output model as implied in then unilateral model.

The child's potential influences upon parent-child interactions and the reciprocal influences between parenting and child development have long been acknowledged in parenting research after the later 1960s (Hart et al., 1997; Thelen, 1995). Current research has found there are some relationships between temperament and parenting (Crockenberg, 1986; Fish & Crokenberg, 1986). For instance, a child with an easy temperament may elicit responsive and warm parenting. In return, this responsive parenting may decrease the child's expression of negative emotionality and responses (Crockenberg). In contrast, a very reactive child may be difficult to control and demand great attention and direction from parents (Chess & Thomas, 1984). In an 18-month longitudinal study exploring the relationship between early child temperament and later problem behavior at ages 6, 13, and 24 months, Lee and Bates (1985) found mothers of difficult children used intrusive control tactics more frequently than mothers of average or easy children; furthermore, difficult children resisted their mothers' efforts of control significantly more than easy or average children.

Darling and Steinberg (1993) defined parenting style as "a constellation of attitudes toward the child that are communicated to the child and that, taken together, create an emotional climate in which the parent's behaviors are expressed" (p. 488). Popularized by Diana Baumrind's work, parenting style, its implications for child development, and the demographic factors by which it varies (e.g., culture, gender) have all been extensively studied in developmental and family science. Relatively rare are studies of parenting style that have incorporated the examination of culture, parent gender, and child gender. Parents across cultures have different socialization goals for boys and girls, which likely influence their parenting styles (Chao, 2000).

Chao (1994) introduced the notion of chiao shun or ''training'' which emphasizes the importance of parental control and monitoring of children's behaviors, while providing parental involvement, concern and support. Training emphasizes obedience, self-discipline, and the need to do well in school. The notion of training overlaps somewhat with Baumrind's authoritarian parenting style which may explain why Chinese and other Asians and Asian Americans score high on the authoritarian parenting style. The notion of guan is also important to understand in the context of parenting. Tobin, Wu, and Davidson (1989) explained that the term guan literally means ''to govern'', and further explained that the term has a positive connotation in China because it can mean ''to care for'', ''to love'', as well as ''to govern''. Hence, ''control'' and ''governance'' not only have very positive connotations for Asians, but also they are regarded as role requirements of responsible parents and teachers. Given the possibility of authoritarian parenting style having different meanings for different cultural groups, it is not surprising then that authoritarian parenting style has been associated with both positive and negative adolescent adjustment outcomes.

Relationships between parents and their children can also affect the perspective a child has on the roles of each gender. Fischer's (2007) review hypothesized that gender roles cause people to perceive the world through their specific gender's cognitive lens. Positive high father or mother involvement may increase the likelihood of high levels of self-esteem which can percolate through every area of life, increasing the probability that young people will communicate and relate well to others, adjust to change and cope with stress (Amato, 1994; Buchanan, 1998).

Studies on parent child relationship revealed that several aspects of this relationship have been probed by various social scientists. These are parental role and supportiveness, child rearing practices and authority pattern, differences in parental influences according to sex, parental absence, effects of divorce, step parent and adoption upon children juvenile delinquency and family background, academic achievement, creativity, leadership and parenting, children's perception on parenting and their influence etc.

The absence of parental relationships can also have an effect on children and adolescents. It is common for juvenile delinquency to be associated with parental divorce. Burt, Barnes, McGue and Iacono (2008) supported this conclusion of parental divorce and adolescent delinquency by providing evidence against a genetic explanation for adolescent delinquency after the divorce of parents. They accomplished this by involving both biological and adoptive families and observing the behavior of the children after the divorce. If the divorce happened during the children's lifetime and delinquency occurred subsequent to the divorce and persisted across biological and adoptive children, then it can be concluded that there is an environmental, not genetic, association between parental divorce and juvenile delinquency. This was the case in the study; therefore, the authors found support for their hypothesis. The relationship between bad parental relationships and a child's behavior provided evidence for the influence of parents on their children's lives.

Paternal relationships have also been investigated for their role in antisocial personalities and characteristics. Pfiffner, McBurnett and Rathouz (2001), compared families with and without fathers to determine the effect a father has on the antisocial qualities present in each family member. The type of father for every family was placed on a continuum of *In Home, Trackable Out-of-Home* and *Untraceable.* The antisocial characteristics tended to increase as the fathers became further removed from the families. Child antisocial characteristics did not decrease even with the presence of a stepfather to replace the absent father. This indicates that a father's presence has a unique impact on his children's personalities, which may not be duplicated by any other man.

Girngsburg (1942), Koos (1946), Cavan (1959) had made more or less similar observations, as they found that there is less of father's dominance in every instance when he fails to meet the demands of a troubled situation, thus also losses control over children.

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Kagan (1961) investigated symbolic conceptualization of parents among children and found that father was stronger, larger, dangerous, darker, dirtier and more angular. He also found that Ameircan children viewed their fathers as less friendly, more dominating and threatening than mother and mothers as a source of understanding and comfort.

Enmerich (1962) in a study on "variations in the parents". Parent role as a function of sex and child's sex and age, discovered that mothers were generally nurturant than the father.

Gupta (1973, 1981) in a study, discovered about parent-child relationship and said that fathers in Indian families are more active and important figure but they showed little proximity to children while in nuclear type of households, the wife spends most of the time with children even in the lower caste groups. Child rearing is with mother. Srivastva (1982) studied changing patterns of families in urban setting also studied parent child relationship. He presented that majority of children identify with mother while less identification with father. Mother is the main source of emotional support, the expressive authority lies in the hands of mother while father is more influential in disciplining children. The instrumental authority and control is in the hands of children.

Many social theorists propose that children learn how to act in a social situation and develop socially because of the socialization they get from their parents. This socialization comes from observing and participating in social situations in the home with their parents. The significance of parental relationships can be observed in several other areas of social development as well.

A child's educational success or failure has been associated with the quality of parental and marital relationships. There is evidence that children who have experienced divorce are more likely to struggle with completing school. Orthner, Jones-Sanpei, Hair, Day, Moore and Kaye (2009) hypothesized that adolescents would have a greater chance of graduating from high school and progressing on to postsecondary education if their parents had strong marital and parental relationships.

Research evidence shows that there are gender differences to be found in terms of perceiving parental bonding by using the PBI. Females are more likely to perceive mothers as more caring compared to males (Parker, Tupling & Brown, 1979; Gladstone & Parker, 1996). On

the "perceived social control" subscale of the overprotection scale, mothers were rated as more controlling by male participants than by female participants (Gladstone & Parker, 1996). In contrast, on the "personal intrusiveness" subscale, fathers were rated as more intrusive by females compared to males (Gladstone & Parker, 1996). This was further supported in Rey, Bird, Kopec- Schrader and Richards (1993), in which female tended to score their fathers as more overprotective in relative to males.

Consistent with parents' differing goals for girls and boys, parenting styles have also been shown to differ across the gender of the child. Research in Western cultures has shown that parents report using authoritarian parenting with boys, while authoritative parenting with girls. Lytton and Romney (1991) reported that North American boys were treated with more restrictiveness and harsher punishment, characteristic of the authoritarian style, while North American girls were treated with more warmth, characteristic of the authoritative style.

Child rearing practices can be influenced by a number of factors such as parental adaptation to children, age and sex of the child. With regard to parental adaptation, in fact, what matters is parent's perception of their children's personalities. For instance, when hyperactive children are successfully treated with the drug Ritalin, their hyperactivity diminishes substantially and mothers modify their parenting style accordingly and become less controlling (Traver-Behring & Barkley cited in Ambert, 1997:46). In another study, mothers of normal and difficult- oppositional children were paired in an experimental situation with a difficult child (not their own) and then with a normal child (not their own). Both types of mothers exhibited more controlling and intrusive behavior with the oppositional child than with the cooperative on (Brunk & Hengeller cited in Ambert, 1997: 46)

Similarly, Ambert (1997: 46) notes that when adolescents disobey, talk back, threaten to run a way, fail to return home, and be disrespectful, parents may become more forceful. Patterson, Reid & Dishon as cited in Ambert (1997:47) documented that it is difficult to monitor the whereabouts of an adolescent who is extremely coercive. Thus, all in all, it is possible to say that under normal circumstances parents change or adapt their parenting styles to fit their children's temperament or personality.

With respect to parent gender, traditional gender roles in Asian cultures such as India encourage mothers to be nurturing caregivers, while fathers have traditionally been encouraged

to have little involvement in childrearing (Rothbaum & Trommsdorff, 2007). However, contemporary research suggests that middle-class fathers in urban areas of India are increasingly becoming more nurturing, affectionate, and interactive in the daily lives of their young children, suggesting a cultural shift in parenting approaches for fathers (Roopnarine, Talukder, Jain, Joshi, & Srivastav, 1990). Strict adherence to gender roles might explain mothers being viewed as more authoritative and sometimes more permissive, while fathers are traditionally viewed as authoritarian when involved.

Azaiza (2004) conducted a study and found that a lot of differences existed in the parent-child relations of subjects who were of Arab origin. This can be attributed to the issue of gender inequalities as well as to the religious beliefs which still exist in some Eastern countries. Males were found to perceive more positive parent-child relationships compared to females. There were also major gender differences in family upbringing and parental bonding with parents being more strict and distant with their female offspring compared to males. However, another study carried out by Parker et al. (1979) found that there were no significant gender differences when "protection" scales score were summed.

One of the most enduring elements of social and behavioral science research in the last half of the 20th century was the scholarly reexamination of traditional ideas about fatherhood and motherhood. For over 200 years maternal behavior had been considered paramount in child development (Kagan, 1978; Stearns, 1991; Stendler, 1950; Sunley 1955), and fathers were often thought to be peripheral to the job of parenting because children throughout the world spent most of their time with their mothers (Fagot, 1995; Harris,Furstenberg, & Murmer, 1998; Munroe & Munroe, 1994). Some argued that fathers contributed little to the children's development except for their economic contributions (Amato, 1998), and others believed that fathers are not genetically endowed for parenting (Belsky, 1998; Benson, 1968).

Children's psychological well-being is most likely developed through interaction with their parents. Interaction in general and role playing in particular are the basis of an individual's psychological well-being (Rosenberg, 1979). The most salient and central role for children is being a daughter or son to their parents. Salient role identities have the potential to make the greatest impact on psychological well-being (Thoits, 1991). Thus, children's interactions with their parents probably establish the foundation for their psychological well-being, which may

have implications for the children's psychological well-being throughout life. Some empirical evidence supports this notion. Children whose parents show high amounts of affection, acceptance, and support lower levels of anxiety and depression (Goodyer, 1990; Mechanic and Hansell, 1989).

With regard to parent-child relationship, a study done by Prior, Sanson, Smart and Oberklaid (2000) suggest that the gender differences of parent-child relationship differ from time to time during their first 15 years of life. According to their study, females had more difficulties in parent-child relationship during the age of 5 to 7 years; however, it gradually decreases to the age of 15 years. On the contrary, males' difficulty in parent-child relationship gradually increases throughout their first 15 years of life. On the other hand, another study that explored the gender differences in the degree to which parent- child dyads and family system variables are associated with relationship quality in later life has found that the parent-child dyads of young adults were similar for males and females (Robinson, 2000).

Much of the research into parent-child relations has been informed by the belief that mothers influence children's physical, emotional, psychological, and social well-being through expressive and affective behaviors, including warmth and nurturance (Bowlby, 1969; Hojat, 1999; Mahler and Furer, 1968; Phares 1992; Stern, 1995), whereas fathers have often been viewed as influencing children's development through the instrumental roles of provider and protector, and as role models for social, cognitive, psychological and gender-identity development (Bronstein, 1988; Gilmore, 1990; Lamp & Oppenheim,1989; Mackey, 1996; Parsons and Bales, 1955; Radin, 1981).

Conrade and Ho (2001) found that overall mothers were viewed by their college-aged children to be more authoritative and also more permissive than fathers. The interaction of child and parent gender in influencing parenting style has been also examined. Conrade and Ho (2001) found that college-aged females perceived their mothers to be more authoritative than males did, who were more likely to perceive mothers as permissive. Males also were more likely than females to view their fathers as authoritarian. This study adds to both the findings on differential socialization of sons and daughters as discussed earlier and to the findings on differential socialization likely practiced by mothers and fathers

Most research has focused on mother's parenting styles and not father's parenting styles (Shek 1995). Nevertheless, many cultural beliefs and mass media images portray the parenting styles of fathers and mothers as different (Lamb, 1987; Martin 1985). Studies have typically indicated that mothers are more likely to utilize an authoritative style whilst fathers are more likely to adopt an authoritarian style (Aunola, Nurmi, Onatsu-Arvilommi, & Pulkinnen, 1999; Klein O'Bryant, & Hopkins, 1996; Russell, Aloa, Feder, Glover, Miller & Palmer, 1998, Russell, Hart, Robinson & Olsen, 2003; Smetana, 1995). There is also some evidence that fathers exhibit a more permissive approach than mothers (Russell et al., 1998).

One study also reveals that parenting would become equally divided among mothers and fathers and in turn this will result in children feeling similar close to both parents. Ganong and Coleman (2001) believe that we are already moving toward the social ideal of fathers as co-parents with mothers. Fathers today are caring more for their children today than in the past (Sandberg and Hofferth, 2001).

The studies by Jurich and Jurich (1975), Strong (1978), and White and Wells (1973) mentioned previously give the educator some clue as to the general community acceptance of a course about alternative lifestyles. All three studies found male/female differences in the acceptance of alternative family norms. Although, in most cases, the male and female samples placed the alternative family styles in a similar ordinal position, males generally were more accepted of less traditional lifestyles, especially those involving no exclusivity.

Mackey (2003) focused her treatment approaches on developing a connection between parents and adolescent through a focus on parental nurturance, the basis for that approach is her belief, supported by research findings, that a secure attachment between adolescent is the basis for successful adolescent differentiation.

It was examined that the relationship between the representation of early attachment to parents and the quality of adolescent peer relationship. The results shows that boys and girls that remember having established secure infant- parent attachment based on growth on affection and promotion of autonomy maintained more a supportive attachment. Usually attachment to father coincided with attachment to mother, but when this is not the case, establishing a secure

attachment to at least one of the parents was enough to assure the development of positive relationship. (Sanchez et. Al 2003).

Of the many potential role models that influence an individual's special learning, parental role models are particularly relevant, since children are especially exposed to their parents' behaviors. Demonstrating something to someone through one's own choices in life has a very pragmatic influence, serving as an "orientation guide" and encouraging imitation (Schmitt-Rodermund and Vondracek 2002; Bandura 1986). Thus, the behavior that children observe and learn from their parents decisively affects their development. This kind of influence is rooted in sociological and psychological theories focusing on the socialization of children, including the within family transmission of information, beliefs and resources.

Research has demonstrated that parental work experiences have significant effects on children, and that children learn from their parents' experiences by internalizing them as norms of behavior (Menaghan and Parcel, 1995).

It is also important to distinguish between parent and child perceptions of parenting. Children may perceive or experience parenting styles differently than how the parents perceive actually parenting them. Smetana (1995) reported that European American middle-class children in the US perceived their parents as more authoritarian and permissive than parents perceived themselves to be, while the parents considered their styles of parenting to be more authoritative than their children reported. These findings illustrate that children may not experience parenting in the same manner parents believe their children will experience it. Children's perceptions may be more relevant to their well-being, thus, it is important to focus specifically on children's perceptions of parenting styles.

Parents across cultures have unique socialization goals, such as helping their child become an autonomous, self-reliant individual or a socially interdependent individual (Keller and Otto 2009). The socialization goals shape parents' everyday interactions and parenting styles with their children. Parents in Western cultures endorse autonomous socialization goals that focus on helping their children become independent, competitive, and self-expressive, while parents in Asian cultures emphasize obedience, respect, and social interdependence (Keller and Otto 2009). Authoritative parenting style places a high emphasis on development of autonomy in children, and is consistent with the socialization goals of Western parents. In contrast,

authoritarian parenting that focuses on obedience and respect is consistent with the socialization goals of many Asian parents.

The central importance of parents in all this is evident through the notions of partnership and of parental responsibility. Parental responsibility refers to a collection of rights, powers, duties and responsibilities held by parents in relation to their children's upbringing, the effect of which is to empower parents to take most decisions in the child's life (Department of Health, 1989, p.10; the 1989 Children Act, as amended by the 2002 Adoption and Children Act).

2.2 Changes in Parenting over Time

To our knowledge there have no previous longitudinal studies reporting systematic change in parenting over time. Adaptation by parents to the changing developmental needs of their adolescent children is likely to promote optimal competence and well-being (Baumrind 1991; Eccles et al., 1993). In particular, relaxation of parental authority, while maintaining warm involvement, has been linked to enhanced self-esteem and school motivation (Eccles te al., 1993). There is cross-sectional evidence that parents engage in less rule-setting and monitoring with older adolescents than with younger adolescents (Bulcroft et al., 1996). In another cross-sectional study, Smetana (1995) found that authoritative parenting was more frequent for children in the sixth and eighth grades than for children in tenth grade, while authoritarian parenting was more common in the families of older children. This is in contrast to findings that parents and adolescents judge that fewer issues fall legitimately within the realm of parental authority for older, compared with younger, adolescents (Smetana and Daddis 2002). In addition, a recent longitudinal study showed that adolescents' autonomy for decision making, as reported by adolescents and their mothers, increased between ages 13 and 18 (Smetana et al., 2004). However, not all parents "loosen the reins" and this may be unhelpful to the child. One of the major challenges for parents of adolescents is to strike the right balances between continued supervision and meting their child's need for increasing autonomy (Eccles et al., 1993; Morris et al., 2007). Parents who react to adolescents' strivings for greater freedom by exerting greater psychological control may inhibit the development of psychological flexibility.

Subsequent research has expanded on Baumrind's three parenting styles by utilizing a fourfold classification of parenting styles, differentiating between two categories of permissive

parenting; indulgent and neglectful (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994). Lamborn et al. (1991) found that adolescents who considered their parents to be authoritative had higher levels of psychological competence and lower levels of psychological and behavioral dysfunction in comparison to adolescents who perceived their parents as neglectful. Students who believe they have authoritarian parents do well with obedience and conformity to adult standards however, they show relatively poor self-conceptions. Adolescents with permissive/indulgent parents have a strong self-confidence but they also experience more problems with drug experimentation and misconduct in and outside of school. In a two year follow-up of the Lamborn et al. (1991) study, Steinberg et al. (1994) reported similar patterns of adjustment as a function of parenting style over time.

2.3 Socialization and Adolescence

One of the major changes thought to occur during early adolescence is a shift in orientation from parents towards peers (e.g. Coleman, 1980; Havinghurst, 1987; Hill, 1993). However, even as adolescents become more peer-oriented and increasingly aware of their peers' evaluations (Kelly & Hansen, 1987), parents continue to play a significant role in their child's development (e.g. Brown, Mounts, Lamborn, & Steinberg, 1993).

Conceptual models of the nature of parenting styles and their influences on child and adolescent development have been formulated (e.g. Maccoby & Martin, 1983), and empirical evidence on the links between parenting styles and different areas of adolescent development, including academic achievement has been found (Dornbusch, Ritter, 2001). Researchers attribute the nonconformity factors of adolescents to the 'generation gap' that exists between the adolescence and their parents. Perhaps, the most significant change in life pattern has come from the greater educational and cultural advantages today's adolescents have (Hurlock 1998).

Ladd and Pettit (2002), Parke and Buriel (1998) stated that the process of socialization refers to the manner by which a child, through education, training, observation and experience, acquires skills, motives, attitudes, and behaviours that are required for successful adaptation to a family and culture.

Steinberg and Silk (2002), Paulson (1994) stated that adolescence is a particular period of human development in which the interface of the school and home contexts gain critical importance. The social and psychological environments are the most important factors of their social development and have significant impacts on the process of their social development. Among the social environments, family is the main social institution and the first base which can affect development of self-esteem and internal control (Rockhill et al. 2009).

The majority of work on the socialization practices of parents has been limited to investigations of children without considering the uniqueness of the adolescent years. The current trends in parenting styles research suggest differentiating between two categories of permissive parenting; indulgent and neglectful (Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1994). Almost all work in the area has combined maternal and paternal styles in a general categorization of parenting styles without considering the unique contribution of paternal parenting styles.

Through interactions with their parents and other caregivers, children acquire social skills. One model of parent–child socialization reported by Parke et al. (1994), described the parent as taking on three roles: the child's interactive partner, a direct instructor, and a provider of opportunities for the child. As an interactive partner, a parent helps the child to initiate and maintain social relationships with others. As a direct instructor, the parent educates the child on social, moral, and cultural norms, and provides support for handling new social situations. As a provider of opportunity, parents manage and regulate the child's social experiences by deciding when and how often the child will interact with children and other sources of socialization outside of the family (Parke and Buriel 1998).

Another socialization mechanism identified with the acquisition of moral behaviors is observational learning (or modeling). According to Bandura (1986), children who are exposed to models of prosocial behavior will be more likely to emulate those acts (especially if the model is admired or closely identified with). In a similar vein, providing children with hands-on experiences in prosocial acts may facilitate future prosocial behaviors because such experiences provide rehearsal opportunities. Following this notions, one would expect that parents who model and encourage prosocial behaviors might promote prosocial behaviors in their children. Evidence on the power of observational learning is well documented (especially among children; see Eisenberg et al., 2006), though direct examination of the relations between parental modeling

and prosocial behaviors among adolescents is lacking. Moreover, with regard to the relations between experiential learning and prosocial behaviors, there is accumulating evidence that service learning experiences are associated with future spontaneous prosocial acts (see Dubois & Karcher, 2005; Lawford, Pratt, Hunsberger, & Pancer, 2005; McClellan & Youniss, 2003).

Despite the general fact that parents socialize their children throughout infancy to adolescence, parents' socialization varies as function of many factors among which the major ones are type of subsistence (Barry, Child & Bacon as cited in Lee 1982: 247), type of work parents are engaged in (Kohn; Pearlin both cited in Lee, 1982: 252), ethnicity or cultural differences(Steven, Chen & Lee, 1992; Koopnaire & Carter, 1992; Hess, Kashwagi, Azuman, Price, & Dickson 1980).

It is through these different roles that parents shape the child's social skills, such as emotion recognition (Cassidy et al. 2008; Parke et al. 1994) and self-regulation (Grolnick and Kurowski 1999) that contribute to effective social competence. Researchers typically find strong links between warm and supportive parenting practices and high levels of self-esteem and social behaviors in adolescence (Harter 1990; Lamborn et al. 1991).

2.4 Research Gap

From the over view of the literature a few research gaps could be identified. There are copious studies on parenting styles and parental bonding at international level. But there are few studies at studies like gender differences in perceived parenting styles and socio emotional adjustments of adolescents, gender differences between in parenting styles and effects on parent-child relationship at international level. Yet, there is one study on parenting styles, family communication and risk behavior among adolescents in Mizoram in which it covers communication pattern between parents and adolescents, parenting style and risk behavior of adolescent (Lalhmingmawii,2010). Similarly there is no study on gender differences in parental bonding and parent child relationship among adolescent. Thus, the present study attempts to fill these research gaps by way of surveying representative families in Aizawl,Mizoram.

CHAPTER- III

METHODOLOGY

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METHODOLOGY

3.1 Profile of the Study Area

The study was conducted among adolescents in Aizawl and its peripheral area at the age group of 16 years each by using data maintained in the Youth Christian Fellowship (YCF) in the selected area.

3.1.1 Adolescents:

Adolescence has been described as a phase of life beginning in biology and ending in society. Indeed, adolescence may be defined, as the period within the life span when most of a person's biological, cognitive, psychological and social characteristics are changing from what is typically considered child-like to what is considered adult-like. For the adolescent, this period is a dramatic challenge, one requiring adjustment to changes in the self, in the family, in the peer group. In contemporary society, adolescents experience institutional changes as well. Among young adolescents, there is a change in school setting, typically involving a transition from elementary school to either junior high school or middle school; and in late adolescence there is a transition from high school to the worlds of work, university, or child rearing.

3.1.2. Youth Christian Fellowship:

Youth Christian Fellowship is leading young people into a growing relationship with Jesus Christ by creating communities were they priorities their relationship with God. It aims to ensure young people have what they need before they face the pressure of life outside.

Sunday evenings are designed to disciple young Christian, or those seeking to deepen their love, knowledge and understanding of Jesus. In every Sunday evenings, three separate groups i.e. Intermediate, Sacrament and Senior Youth Fellowship join together to worship, other activities such as learning songs, bible study and opportunities to serve in the life of the church throughout the year.

3.2 Pilot Study

For this study a pilot study was first conducted among few adolescents in one core area and was approached randomly.

From the pilot study it was found that many of them have good relationship with their parents. The pilot studies indicate that females perceived that they received more care from mothers and fathers as compared to males.

3.3 Methodology

The study was cross sectional in nature. The study employs a descriptive in design. Data were collected through quantitative and qualitative. Data is collected through field survey with the help of structured questionnaires with the families by using Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI, Parker, Tupling and Brown,1979) which is a 50 question self-report survey using a four-point ranging from "very like" (1) to "very unlike" (4), designed to assess the individual's perception of care and over protection from each parents during the first 16 years of the individual's life and in terms of parent-child relationship asking questions about who the respondent spent most time with, felt closest too while growing up and currently, have the most common with, enjoyed spending time with most etc. The study was carried out to seek answers to the research questions. Prior to conducting questionnaire, participants were briefed on the study and written consent was obtained. It was conducted among a total number of forty three male and fifty seven female of adolescent groups. In the qualitative method, participatory methods included like case study, focus group discussions and daily activity schedule.

3.3.1 Source of Data

The study was based on primary data collected through quantitative, qualitative and participatory methods. Primary data was collected from the adolescents at the age group of 16 years who were selected purposively in core and peripheral area. One PRA activity (Daily Activity Schedule was conducted among adolescents in Aizawl.

Secondary data were collected from books, journals, local newspapers, magazines, websites, etc.

3.3.2 Tools of Data Collection

1. A questionnaire schedule was used to collect primary data. The schedule contains different sections which sought information on the demographic profile, family profile, details about parent-child relationship and parental bonding among adolescents and other information.

The primary data was collected directly from the adolescent. A prior appointment was made with youth fellowship leaders to convince them of the objectives of the study and to obtain their permission to interview the youth for data collection. Voluntary consent of the adolescent participants was obtained after sharing the objectives of the study and reassuring the participants about their anonymity and the confidentiality of information they were providing. Data collection was conducted after the fellowship among adolescents who are at the age group of 16 years. The researcher with the help of interview schedule gathered information from the respondents regarding their personal, relationship with parents and family structure.

After collection of the basic data with the help of interview schedule, the schedule was divided into three sub-sections. The first sections contain the profile of the respondents and in second section, the parenting scale with 50 items was provided to each respondent with proper instruction. They were asked to respond to the first 25 items given in the scale by keeping in view the different modes of parenting that they perceive from their mother at one time. After a gap of five minutes the respondents were asked to respond to the first 25 items given in the scale by keeping in view the different modes of parenting that they perceive from their father. And in the third section, parent-child relationship scale with 14 items was provided and were responded separately that subject to the relations between both the parents only at once.

2. Focus group discussion: Focus groups can reveal a wealth of detailed information and deep insight. When well executed, a focus group creates an accepting environment that puts participants at ease allowing then to thoughtfully answer questions in their own words and add meaning to their answers. Surveys are good for collecting information about people's attributes and attitudes but if you need to understand things at a deeper level then use a focus group.

Focus group discussion (3.1):

Focus Group Discussion (FGD) was used to explore the adolescents' relationship with their parents, factors affecting to parent-child relationship and children's perception of their parents. The topic of discussion is "Perception of children on Parent-Child Relationship". The discussion was set for a time of one hour in which each participant were requested to voice out their opinion and give any suggestion which was noted down by the researcher. It was held with 10 adolescents (girls) and 10 adolescents (boys) from core area at the age of 16years. Topics on their perception and relations with their parents were discussed.

Findings

From the group discussion conducted, it was seen that the relationship between children and their parents were quite strong in such a way that they perceived their parents as good parents. The children also contribute factors affecting parenting that includes social and environmental factors. The perceptions of the children towards their parents is that parental control is too tight and family conflict and discord; lack of structure and discipline, disagreement about child rearing.

The children also perceived that if the involvements of the father in terms of emotional and social whose fathers play a visible and nurturing role in their upbringing outcomes are significantly improved for them. And that it clearly shows that father involvement is associated with positive cognitive, developmental and social-behavioral child outcomes such as improved in the relationship of father-child relationship.

In focus group discussion, the children perception on parent-child relationship has social and environmental factors such as poverty and family conflict which brings the relationship between children and parent to have a lack of communication and results in constraint family. Also it was found that residential instability is one of the factors that contribute to parent-child relationship.

From the group discussion, children found that family factors had also contributed to a large extent of parent-child relationship in terms of large families, family stress, working parents, job satisfaction, fatigue, stress and time and household chores.

3. Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA): The researcher conducted one PRA exercise among adolescents. PRA is described as growing body methods to enable local people to share, enhance, and analyze their knowledge of life and the conditions to plan, act, monitor and evaluate. It has drawn from various sources to develop its body of method and tools, some of which have been in us for decades. The exercise conduct is Daily Activity Schedule.

Daily Activity Schedule (Fig.3.2.):

Daily Activity Schedule is a popular PRA method used to explore the activities of an individual, group or community, on a daily basis. This method forms part of the family of temporal PRA methods. The basis of temporal analysis is hours or periods of the day. It depicts not only the various activities but also the duration of those activities. Its visual nature makes it an attractive method.

From the Daily Activity Schedule, it was found that the respondents wake up between 6:30 a.m and 7:00 a.m. They used to take breakfast during 7:30 a.m. – 8:00 a.m. They went to school between 9:00 a.m. – 3:30 p.m. They spent 4:00p.m. - 5:30 p.m. for home assignments. They had dinner at 6:00 p.m. – 6:30 p.m. They spent watching T.V with their family between 6:30 p.m. and 7:00 p.m. They spent 7:00 p.m. – 10:30 p.m. for studying and they sleep at 11:00 p.m. onwards.

Form the Daily Activity Schedule, it can be seen that participants had been studying at their leisure times and had no quality time with their parents. It can also be seen that the time spent by the respondents with their parents was only during watching T.V.

3.4 Data Processing and Analysis

The quantitative data collected through filed survey was processed through Microsoft excel and with the help of computer software SPSS package and E-net. Qualitative data was processed with the use of transcript and has been presented in the form of reports.

3.5 Limitation of the Study

There are several limitations in this study that must be taken into consideration. Firstly, participants in this area were all Sunday School adolescents selected from core and peripheral in

Aizawl city; hence, results cannot be generalized to adolescents from other areas. Secondly, there were more female participants than male (57 females, 43 males). The results might be replicated. This study could have been improved if there were more representative sample of males. These results may be more interesting in the larger population and may have been given to a different age group or two participants living in a different area of the country. Lastly, faulty memory could have been a factor since the study was done retrospectively; perhaps participants could not accurately remember things about their parents when they were growing up.

Another factor that might have affected the survey is that the participants took the survey on Sunday evening after the church programme , so they might not have thought very carefully about the questions and might not have answered them accurately as they would have if they had not attend the church programme in the evening that had exhausted them.

CHAPTER- IV

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

CHAPTER-IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

In this present chapter an attempt has been made to present the results of the analysis of data collected through interview schedule, PRA activity, focus group discussion and questionnaires among adolescents in Aizawl. This chapter has been presented in different sections and sub-sections.

4.1 Profile of the respondents

The profile of the respondents are presented in nine sub-sections viz., denomination, sub-tribe, type of family, form of family, size of family, status of house, type of house, area of residence and socio-economic status. (See table 1).

The respondents were collected from core and peripheral area. All the respondents declared that they were Christians by faith with maximum number of them (71%) affiliated to the Presbyterian denomination and the other with (29%) affiliated to Salvation Army. The fact that all respondents stated their religion as Christian can be explained by saying that since all families were of Christian households and children acquired their religion by birth and not by choice, thus explaining the indicated (100%) of Christianity of the respondents.

Sub-tribe of the respondents was divided into six types: i) Lusei, ii) Ralte, iii) Hmar, iv) Paihte, v) Sailo and vi) Pawi. A little more than two-fifth (23%) belonged to Pawi, and (21%) belonged to Lusei sub-tribe. A little less than one-fifth (19%) belonged to Ralte and the other sub-tribes consisted of less tha one-tenth of the total respondents.

The family type was divided into two viz., nuclear family and joint family. Findings indicated that nuclear family elicit more respondents comprising more than half (72%) and less than half of the respondents belonged to joint family (28%).

The form of the family was divided into three, namely i) Stable ii) Broken and iii) Reconstituted/ Step family. Majority of the respondents belonged to stable family (90%)

followed by broken family (7%). The remaining of the respondents (3%) belonged to reconstituted/step family.

The findings indicated that medium size family has the highest percentage of respondents comprising of about two-third (72%) while the big size family comprises a little more than one-tenth (17%) of the respondents. The small size family only consists of little more than one-tenth (11%).

The findings revealed that more than three-fourth (75%) lived in their own house while only few (25%) lived in rented house. Same amount of the respondents both lived in pucca (40%) and semi-pucca (45%) house. The lowest group comprising of more than one-tenth (15%) lived in kutcha house.

The respondent's area of residing was divided into two viz., urban ad semi-urban. Findings indicated that more than half of the respondents (53%) reside in semi-urban and less than half of the respondents (47%) reside in urban area.

The table reveals that socio-economic status contributed to an extent in the development of respondents. In the present study, socio-economic status was categorized into APL, BPL and AAY. The findings revealed that majority of the respondents belonged to an APL group comprising of more than three-fourth (70%), followed by BPL members (22%). AAY members were the lowest comprising a minority (8%) of the respondents.

4.2 Profile of the respondents parents

The profiles of the respondent's parents are alienated into four sub-sections viz., father's education, father's occupation, mother's education and mother's occupation. (See table 2).

The educational qualifications of the respondents' parents are classified into four levels viz., middle, H.S.L.C, H.S.S.L.C, and graduate. Regarding education of the respondents father, the highest educational level attained was graduate (35%) followed by middle (33%). The third highest position was occupied by H.S.S.L.C (18%). H.S.L.C constituted the lowest educational qualification (14%).

Regarding the occupation of the respondent's father, it was observed that two-fourth (35%) were engaged in government job and services and while (33%) and (32%) were engaged in private business and others tertiary respectively.

Regarding education of mothers, half of the respondent's mothers attained middle (50%) , followed by (29%), and (15%) were H.S.L.C and graduate. H.S.S.L.C constituted the lowest educational qualification (6%) respectively.

With regard to occupation of the respondent's mother, it was observed that two-fourth (34%) were home maker while (30%) and (15%) were engaged in government job and business followed by (21%) engaged in others tertiary respectively.

4.3 Respondents level of parental bonding

Table 3 shows the level of parental bonding of children with their mother and father. Parental bonding is measured on the basis of care and overprotection.

Majority of the girls (68.4%) report that mother care is high while (31.6%) consider mother care as low. On the other hand, majority of the boys (58.1%) report that mother care is high while (41.9%) considered as low.

Majority of the girls (86.0%) report that overprotection by mother is high and only few girls (14.0%) consider as low. While majority of the boys (83.7%) report that overprotection by mother is high while (16.3%) considered as low.

Half of the girls (50.9%) report that father care is low while (49.1%) consider father care as high. On the other hand, majority of the boys (58.1%) report that father care is high while (49.1%) considered as low.

Majority of the girls (91.2%) report that overprotection by father is high and only (8.8%) considered as low. While majority of the boys (81.4%) report that overprotection by father is high while (18.6%) considered as low.

Overall, the table clearly showed that more than half of the children (64%) report that overprotection is high from their mother while (36%) of children report that care is low. (see table 4). From table 5, it also showed that more than half of the children (53%) report that overprotection is high from their father while (47%) report that care is low.

4.4 Mother's bonding by gender

Of the given four quadrants in Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI), more than half of the respondents (51%) perceived that they received affectionate constraint from mothers among which the percentage of female is higher (56.1%) than male (44.2%).

One fourth of the respondents (34%) perceived that they received affectionless control from mothers among which the percentage of male is higher (39.5%) than female (29.8%).

Few respondents (13%) perceived that they received optimal parenting from mothers among which the percentage of male is much higher (14%) than female (12.3%).

Only two percent of the respondents (2%) perceived that they received neglectful parenting from mothers among which the percentage of male is higher (2.3%) than female (1.8%).

4.5 Father's bonding by gender

Of the given four quadrants in Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI), almost half of the respondents (45%) perceived that they received affectionate constraint from their fathers with a higher percentage of male (48.8%) than female (42.1%).

More than one third of the respondents (42%) perceived that they received affectionless control from fathers among which the percentage of female is higher (49%) than male (32.6%).

Among the respondents less than one tenth (8%) perceived that they received optimal parenting from fathers with a higher percentage of male (9.3%) than female (7%).

Only few respondents (5%) perceived that they received neglectful parenting from fathers among which the percentage of male is higher (9.3%) than female (1.8%).

4.6 Comparison of mean score by gender

From table 6, it shows the comparison of mean score by gender. From this table, we are able to find that care and overprotection of girls is more than boys by their parents. We also further investigated the gender differences in terms of subscales of parental bonding. In terms of mother caring factor, females had a mean score of 27.12 whereas males scored a mean of 26.40. For father caring factor, mean scores for females and males are 24.56 and 24.74 respectively. These results indicate that females perceived that they received little more care from fathers and mothers as compared to males.

In terms of overprotection factor for both parents, results show that there is no difference compared to both females and males. (See table 6).

4.7 Gender, Parent Child Relationship

In table 7, the status of the parents' relationship was shown viz., i) biological parents married, ii) biological parents divorced from each other iii)biological parents were never married, iv) mother is a widow and v) father is a widower. Majority of the respondents' parents were married (80%) followed by parents divorced from each other (13%). Only few (2%) parents were never married and the remaining parents (5%) were widow and widower. (see table 7).

In terms of parent-child relationship, the findings revealed that more than half of the children (66.0%) lived with biological mother and father equally while (26%) and (6%) lived with biological mother and the other with biological father. The remaining (2%) of children lived with neither biological parent.

The children who spent most time with both parents comprising almost half of the children (49%) followed by spending time with mother (36%) and father (11%). With only (4%) of the children did not live with either parent.

4.8 Parent-Child Relationship of the respondents while growing up

In terms of parent-child relationship, majority of the children (49%) felt closest to both parents viz., mother and father equally while growing up followed by children (37%) of them felt closest to their mother. Only few (6%) report that they felt closest to their father and (8%) of them did not feel at all close to either parent.

The findings indicated that mothers' spent the most time taking care of children while growing up with the highest percentage (47%) of them while less than half of the children (42%) report that both parents' are equal in taking care of them. Only few (7%) report that neither spent the most time taking care of children and with the lowest percentage of children (4%) report that father spent in taking care of them. In regard to parent-child relationship, table 8 also shows that less than one-third of the children (29%) were being punished the most as a child by both parents followed by mother (26%) and father (25%). Only some children (7%) report that neither punishes them the most as a child.(see table 8)

4.9 Parent-Child Relationship of the respondents (parents working while nurturing)

Table 9 shows the working time of the parents taking care of their children while growing up. Majority of the children's mother (39%) and majority of the children's father (45%) worked as part time while taking care of them.

Maximum of the children's mother (30%) and fathers' (43%) worked as full time while they were growing up. The findings indicated that less than one-fourth of the children (26%) report that their mother did not work while they were growing up while little less than one-tenth of the children (9%) report that their father did not work while they were growing up. The minimum number of the children who lived with father or other family member consisted (5%) while the minimum number consisted of the children who lived with mother or other family member (3%) respectively.(see table 9)

4.10 Patterns of the Respondents Parent-Child Relationship

Table 10 shows the patterns of parent-child relationship. The patterns is measured on the basis of spending most time with, felt closest too while growing up and currently, have the most common with, enjoyed spending time most etc.

The maximum of the children (41%) report that both parents equally spent the most time playing with them as a child and more than one-fourth (32%) children report that mothers spent the most time playing with them as a child. Among the children only few (16%) report their father spent the most time playing with them as a child while the minimum (11%) report that neither spent the most time playing with them as a child.

Majority of the children (44%) report that they felt closest too today with their mother while majority of the children (42%) report that as a child, they spent the most quality time with both parents equally. More than one-fourth (37%) of them felt closest too today with both parents equally and again with more than one-fourth (39%) of them spent the most quality time with their mother as a child. More than one-tenth (11%) of them report that they spent the most quality time and felt closest too today with their father as a child and a little less than one-tenth (8%) of children report that neither spent or felt closest too today.

More than one-third (44%) of the children report that they talk or see the most today with their mother and children (43%) report that they talk or see the most today with both parents equally. Only few (11%) of them report as they talk or see the most today with their father and only (2%) report that they talk or see the most today with neither parents.

Maximum of the respondents (49%) have the same amount of things in common with both parents and maximum number of the respondents (55%) enjoyed spending time with both parents equally. More than one-third (35%) of the respondents have more in common with their mother and one-third (30%) of the respondents enjoyed spending time with their mother. Among the respondents only few (10%) have more in common with their father and only (7%) of the respondents enjoyed spending time with their father. The minimum numbers of the respondents (6%) have more in common with neither parents and little less than one-tenth (8%) enjoyed spending time with neither parents.(see table 10).

4.11 Correlates of Parental Bonding

To examine the correlation of parental bonding, a Pearson correlation was conducted. It was found out that there was a relationship between mother's education and father's education (.227) at 0.05 level of significance of parental bonding in Pearson's R. In parental bonding, father's care, there was a relationship between mothers and fathers care (.681) at 0.05 level of significance in Pearson's R. Also there was a relationship between mothers and fathers over protection (.527) at 0.05 level of significance in Pearson's R. (see table 11).

From the analysis, the table clearly showed that there was a relationship between mother's education and father's education in parental bonding and also revealed that if the father was perceived as being caring, the mother was also seen as caring. And also, the more overprotective a father was, the more overprotective the mother was as well.

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4.12 Correlation between Parental Bonding and Parent-child Relationship

Table 12 showed the correlation between Parental bonding and Parent-child relationship, to examine this, Pearson's correlation was conducted. In care and over protection, there was relationship between father's care and mother's care (.681) at 0.05 level of significance in Pearson's R. and relationship between father's overprotection and mother's overprotection (.527) at 0.05 level of significance in Pearson's R. In parent-child relationship, there was negative relationship between children who spent most time with their parents while growing up and children who lived with most of their parents while growing up (-.222) at 0.01 level of parent-child relationship in Pearson's R. In the relationship between parent and child, there was relationship between children who felt closest to their parents while growing up and children who spent the most time with their parents while growing up (.534) at 0.05 level of significance in Pearson's R and in care taking, there was a relationship in spending most time (.407) and felt closest too today with their parents (.349) at 0.05 level of significance in Pearson's R. (see table 12).

Analysis of results shows there is a significant positive relationship between parental bonding and parent child relationship. And that mother spent the most time taking care of children.

4.13 Correlates of Parental Bonding and Parent Child Relationship (Care at the time of growing their Children)

Table 13 shows the correlation of parental bonding and parent child relationship of care. There was relationship between father's care and mother's care (.681) at 0.01 level of significance in Pearson's R and a relationship between father's overprotection and mother's overprotection (.527) at 0.01 level of significance in Pearson's R. In care taking, there was relationship between father and mother (.263) at 0.01 level of significance in working while growing their children. (see table 13)

Analysis of results shows that the stronger the parental bonding, the better parent child relationship the children and their parents have.

4.14 Correlates of Parent Child Relationship by Gender

Table 4 shows the correlation of parent child relationship by gender. There was relationship between gender who spent quality time with their parents at (.209) at 0.01 level of significance in Pearson's R and spending time while playing at (.499) at 0.05 level of Pearson's R. regarding closeness to parents, there was relationship between children who spent more time today (.326) and felt closeset too today (.337) at 0.05 level of Pearson's R

Table 4.1 Profile of the Respondents

Sl.No.	Characteristics	Sex	Total

		Female n = 57	Male n = 43	N= 100
I	**Denomination**			
	Presbyterian	39	32	71
		68.4%	74.4%	71.0%
	Salvation army	18	11	29
		31.6%	25.6%	29.0%
II	**Sub-tribe**			
	Lusei	9	12	21
		15.8%	27.9%	21.0%
	Ralte	11	8	19
		19.3%	18.6%	19.0%
	Hmar	12	7	19
		21.1%	16.3%	19.0%
	Paihte	4	2	6
		7.0%	4.7%	6.0%
	Sailo	8	4	12
		14.0%	9.3%	12.0%
	Pawi	13	10	23
		22.8%	23.3%	23.0%
III	**Type of Family**			

	Nuclear	44	28	72
		77.2%	65.1%	72.0%
	Joint	13	15	28
		22.8%	34.9%	28.0%

IV	Form of Family			
	Stable	49	41	90
		86.0%	95.3%	90.0%
	Broken	6	1	7
		10.5%	2.3%	7.0%
	Reconstituted/step family	2	1	3
		3.5%	2.3%	3.0%
V	Size of the Family			
	Small(1-3)	5	6	11
		8.8%	14.0%	11.0%
	Medium(4-6)	43	29	72
		75.4%	67.4%	72.0%
	Big (7 & above)	9	8	17
		15.8%	18.6%	17.0%
VI	Status of House			
	Owned	50	25	75
		87.7%	58.1%	75.0%
	Rented	7	18	25
		12.3%	41.9%	25.0%
VII	Type of House			
	Kutcha	8	7	15

			14.0%	16.3%	15.0%
	Semi-pucca	28	17	45	
		49.1%	39.5%	45.0%	
	Pucca	21	19	40	
		36.8%	44.2%	40.0%	
VIII	**Area of Residence**				
	Rural	28	19	47	
		49.1%	44.2%	47.0%	
	Smi-urban	29	24	53	
		50.9%	55.8%	53.0%	

IX	Socio Economic Status			
	AAY	5	3	8
		8.8%	7.0%	8.0%
	BPL	13	9	22
		22.8%	20.9%	22.0%
	APL	39	31	70
		68.4%	72.1%	70.0%

Source: Computed

Table 4.2 Profile of the Respondents Parents

Sl.No.	Characteristics	Gender		Total
		Female n = 57	Male n = 43	N = 100
I	Father 's Education			
	Middle	18	15	33
		31.6%	34.9%	33.0%
	HSLC	7	7	14
		12.3%	16.3%	14.0%
	HSSLC	13	5	18

		22.8%	11.6%	18.0%
	Graduate	19	16	35
		33.3%	37.2%	35.0%
II	**Father's Occupation**			
	Govt servant	19	16	35
		33.3%	37.2%	35.0%
	Private business	21	12	33
		36.8%	27.9%	33.0%
	Others	17	15	32
		29.8%	34.9%	32.0%
III	**Mother's Education**			
	Middle	26	24	50
		45.6%	55.8%	50.0%
	HSLC	16	13	29
		28.1%	30.2%	29.0%
	HSSLC	6	0	6
		10.5%	.0%	6.0%
	Graduate	9	6	15
		15.8%	14.0%	15.0%
IV	**Mother's Occupation**			
	Govt servant	9	6	15

		15.8%	14.0%	15.0%
	Private business	17	13	30
		29.8%	30.2%	30.0%
	House wife	23	11	34
		40.4%	25.6%	34.0%
	Others	8	13	21
		14.0%	30.2%	21.0%

Table 4.3 Respondents Level of Parental Bonding

Sl.No.	Statements	Gender		Total
		Female n= 57	Male n = 43	Total N = 100
I	**Mother's Care**			
	High	39	25	64
		68.4%	58.1%	64.0%
	Low	18	18	36
		31.6%	41.9%	36.0%

II	**Mother's Over Protection**			
	High	49	36	85
		86.0%	83.7%	85.0%
	Low	8	7	15
		14.0%	16.3%	15.0%
III	**Father's Care**			
	High	28	25	53
		49.1%	58.1%	53.0%
	Low	29	18	47
		50.9%	41.9%	47.0%
IV	**Father's Over Protection**			
	High	52	35	87
		91.2%	81.4%	87.0%
	Low	5	8	13
		8.8%	18.6%	13.0%

Source: Computed

Table 4.4 Mother's Bonding by Gender

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Mother's Bonding	Gender		Total
	Female	Male	
Affectionate Constraint (High Care and High Protection)	32	19	51
	56.1%	44.2%	51.0%
Affectionless Control (High Protection and Low care)	17	17	34
	29.8%	39.5%	34.0%
Optimal Parenting (High Care and Low Protection)	7	6	13
	12.3%	14.0%	13.0%
Neglectful Parenting (Low care and Low Protection)	1	1	2
	1.8%	2.3%	2.0%
Total	57	43	100
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 4.5 Father's Bonding by Gender

Father's Bonding	Gender		Total
	Female	Male	
Affectionate Constraint (High Care and High Protection)	24	21	45
	42.1%	48.8%	45.0%

Affectionless Control (High Protection and Low care)	28	14	42
	49.1%	32.6%	42.0%
Optimal Parenting (High Care and Low Protection)	4	4	8
	7.0%	9.3%	8.0%
Low Care and Low Protection (Neglectful Parenting)	1	4	5
	1.8%	9.3%	5.0%
Total	57	43	100
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source; Computed

Table 4.6 Comparison of Mean Scores by Gender

Dimensions	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Care	Female	57	27.12	5.15
	Male	43	26.40	5.86
Mother 's Over Protection	Female	57	19.19	5.10
	Male	43	18.79	5.17
Father's Care	Female	57	24.56	6.30

		Male	43	24.74	5.10
Father's Over Protection	Female	57	19.00	5.02
	Male	43	17.70	5.93

Source; Computed

Table 4.7 Gender, Parent-Child Relationship

Sl.No.	Characteristics	Gender		
		Female	Male	Total
		n = 57	n = 43	N= 100
I	**Parents Relationship Status**			
	Biological Parents married	42	38	80
		73.7%	88.4%	80.0%
	Biological Parents Divorced Each other	10	3	13
		17.5%	7.0%	13.0%
	Biological Parents were never Married	1	1	2
		1.8%	2.3%	2.0%
	Mother is Widow	3	1	4

		5.3%	2.3%	4.0%
	Father is a Widower	1	0	1
		1.8%	.0%	1.0%
II	**Live with the Most**			
	Biological mother and father equally	35	31	66
		61.4%	72.1%	66.0%
	Biological mother	18	8	26
		31.6%	18.6%	26.0%
	Biological father	2	4	6
		3.5%	9.3%	6.0%
	Neither biological parent	2	0	2
		3.5%	.0%	2.0%
III	**Spend the most time**			
	Mother	23	13	36
		40.4%	30.2%	36.0%
	Father	7	4	11
		12.3%	9.3%	11.0%
	Both parents equally	24	25	49
		42.1%	58.1%	49.0%
	Did not live with either parent	3	1	4

		5.3%	2.3%	4.0%

Source: Computed

Table 4.8 Parent Child relationship of the Respondents while growing up

Sl. No.	Statements	Gender		Total
		Female	Male	
		n = 57	n = 43	N = 100
I	**Felt Closest too Growing up**			
	Mother	26	11	37
		45.6%	25.6%	37.0%
	Father	3	3	6
		5.3%	7.0%	6.0%
	Both parents equally	21	28	49
		36.8%	65.1%	49.0%
	Did not feel at all close to either parent	7	1	8
		12.3%	**2.3%**	**8.0%**

	Chi-square	Value	d.f	Assym sig (2-sided)
		9.813[a]	3	.020
II	**Care taking to me growing up**			
	Mother	30	17	47
		52.6%	39.5%	47.0%
	Father	3	1	4
		5.3%	2.3%	4.0%
	Both parents equally	19	23	42
		33.3%	53.5%	42.0%
	Neither	5	2	7
		8.8%	4.7%	7.0%
III	**Punished Most**			
	Mother	14	12	26
		24.6%	27.9%	26.0%
	Father	17	8	25
		29.8%	18.6%	25.0%
	Both parent equally	13	16	29
		22.8%	37.2%	29.0%
	Neither/does not apply)	13	7	20
		22.8%	16.3%	20.0%

Table 4.9 Parent Child Relationship of the Respondents (parents working while nurturing)

Sl.No.	Characteristics	Gender		Total
		Female	Male	
		n = 57	n = 43	N = 100
I	Mother			
	No	17	9	26
		29.8%	20.9%	26.0%
	Yes, full time	18	12	30
		31.6%	27.9%	30.0%
	Yes, part time	18	21	39
		31.6%	48.8%	39.0%
	Does not apply(lived with father or other family member)	4	1	5
		7.0%	2.3%	5.0%
II	Father			
	No	6	3	9
		10.5%	7.0%	9.0%

		23	20	43
	Yes, full time			
		40.4%	46.5%	43.0%
	Yes, part time	25	20	45
		43.9%	46.5%	45.0%
	Does not apply(lived with mother or other family member)	3	0	3
		5.3%	.0%	3.0%

Source Computed

Table 4.10 Patterns of the Respondents Parent Child Relationship

Sl.No.		Gender		
		Female n = 57	Male n = 43	Total N = 100
I	**Playing**			
	Mother	19	13	32
		33.3%	30.2%	32.0%
	Father	7	9	16
		12.3%	20.9%	16.0%

	Both parent equally	25	16	41
		43.9%	37.2%	41.0%
	Neither	6	5	11
		10.5%	11.6%	11.0%
II	**Quality Time**			
	Mother	28	11	39
		49.1%	25.6%	39.0%
	Father	5	6	11
		8.8%	14.0%	11.0%
	Both parent equally	20	22	42
		35.1%	51.2%	42.0%
	Neither	4	4	8
		7.0%	9.3%	8.0%
III	**Feel Closest too today**			
	Mother	30	14	44
		52.6%	32.6%	44.0%
	Father	5	6	11
		8.8%	14.0%	11.0%
	Both parent equally	15	22	37
		26.3%	51.2%	37.0%

	Neither	7	1	8
		12.3%	2.3%	8.0%
	Chi-Square	**Value**	**Df**	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**
		9.969[a]	3	.019
IV	**Talk to or see the most today**			
	Mother	33	11	44
		57.9%	25.6%	44.0%
	Father	7	4	11
		12.3%	9.3%	11.0%
	Both parent equally	15	28	43
		26.3%	65.1%	43.0%
	Neither	2	0	2
		3.5%	.0%	2.0%
	Chi-Square	**Value**	**Df**	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**
		16.104[a]	3	.001
V	**More in common with**			
	Mother	24	11	35
		42.1%	25.6%	35.0%

	Father	4	6	10
		7.0%	14.0%	10.0%
	I have the same amount of things in common with both parents	26	23	49
		45.6%	53.5%	49.0%
	Neither	3	3	6
		5.3%	7.0%	6.0%
VI	**Enjoy**			
	Mother	24	6	30
		42.1%	14.0%	30.0%
	Father	2	5	7
		3.5%	11.6%	7.0%
	Both parents equally	26	29	55
		45.6%	67.4%	55.0%
	Neither	5	3	8
		8.8%	7.0%	8.0%
	Chi-square	**Value**	**Df**	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**
		11.005[a]	3	.012

Source: Computed

Table 11 Correlates of Parental Bonding

*.Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Variables	Gender	Father 's Education	Mother's Education	Type of Family	Form of Family	Socio Economic Category	Mother's Care	Mother's Over Protection	Father's Care	Father's Over Protection
Place										
Gender	1									
Father 's Education	-.026	1								
Mother's Education	-.113	**.227***	1							
Type of Family	.133	-.060	-.023	1						
Form of Family	-.126	-.079	-.162	.073	1					
Socio Economic Category	.043	.074	.129	.058	-.041	1				
Mother's Care	-.066	.105	.139	-**.290****	**-.211***	.181	1			
Mother's Over Protection	-.039	.194	-.156	-.007	.008	-.016	-.094	1		
Father's Care	.015	.060	.135	-.007	-.088	-.002	**.681****	.028	1	.
Father's Over Protection	-.119	.081	-.079	-.084	.081	-.062	.070	**.527****	.078	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 12 Correlation between Parental Bonding and Parent child Relationship

Variables	Mother's Care	Over Protection Mother Scores	Father's Care Scores	Father's Over Protection Scores	Live with most while growing up	Spend most time while growing up	Felt Closest too while growing up	Care taking while growing up	Punished Most
Mother's Care	1								
Mother 's Over Protection	-.094	1							
Father's Care	**.681****	.028	1						
Father's Over Protection	.070	**.527****	.078	1					
Live with most while growing up	-.092	-.082	-.036	-.014	1				
Spent most time while growing up	-.056	-.079	.024	-.162	**-.222***	1			
Felt Closest too while growing up	-.173	-.039	-.028	-.132	-.155	**.534****	1		
Care taking while growing up	-.048	-.066	.049	-.115	.067	**.407****	**.349****	1	
Punished Most	-.015	-.106	.072	-.118	.147	.009	.079	.018	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 13 Correlates of Parental Bonding and Parent Child Relationship (Care at the time of Growing their Children)

Variables	Care	Over Protection Mother Scores	Father's Care Scores	Father's Over Protection Scores	Mother work while growing up	Father work while growing up
Care	1					
Over Protection Mother Scores	-.094	1				
Father's Care Scores	.681**	.028	1			
Father's Over Protection Scores	.070	.527**	.078	1		
Mother work while growing up	-.113	-.147	-.034	.045	1	
Father work while growing up	.053	-.036	-.035	.121	.263**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 14 Correlates of Parent Child Relationship and with Gender

Variables	Gender	Playing	Quality time	Felt Closest too today	Talk to or see the most day	Have more in common
Playing	-.006	1				
Quality time	.209*	.499**	1			
Feel Closest too today	.117	.293**	.346**	1		
Talk to or see the most today	.326**	.179	.299**	.337**	1	
Have more in common	.137	.153	.295**	.410**	.114	1
Enjoy	.229*	.388**	.489**	.493**	.326**	.311**

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

CHAPTER- V

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

CHAPTER-V
CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In this chapter, conclusions and suggestions of the present study is to be presented. It has been divided into sections with its subsections.

5. 1 Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to examine whether parental bonding is associated with parent-child relationship. Besides, it is of our interest to investigate whether there are differences in gender and races in terms of parental bonding and parent-child relationship.

The study explores gender differences in parental bonding and parent-child relationship among the adolescents in Aizawl, Mizoram. Mizoram is a state known for tribal societies having different clans, followed by different system of dialects, sacrificial rites, priest and chief. Family occupies the most important and prominent place in the history of the Mizo. In Mizo society, the fathers exercise all supreme authority over matters pertaining to the family and the women have no significance roles in decision making. In Mizoram scenario, child rearing practices differentiate from one family to another family. Children are often seen as the product of their environment and their parents' child rearing skills. While they are undoubtedly by their family environment, they come into the world with very different personalities and characteristics. Parents often notice that strategies which work with one child may not work as well with another. This research provides an overview of evidence about the importance of synchrony between parenting methods and child characteristics, and the bonds of parent and child acquire through the process of parenting.

The study was cross sectional in nature and descriptive in design. The study was based on primary data collected through quantitative, qualitative and participatory methods. The secondary data were collected from books, journals, local newspapers, magazines, websites, etc. Quantitative data was collected from adolescents by using structured questionnaires with the families by using Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI, Parker, Tupling and Brown,1979) which is a 50 question self-report survey using a four-point ranging from "very like" (1) to "very unlike" (4), designed to assess the individual's perception of care and over protection from each parents

during the first 16 years of the individual's life and in terms of parent-child relationship asking questions about who the respondent spent most time with, felt closest too while growing up and currently, have the most common with, enjoyed spending time with most etc. The interview schedule was conducted among adolescents who were at the age of 16 years which included 57 females and 43 males.

The qualitative data collected through filed survey was processed with computer packages of MS excel, SPSS and E-Net.

The objectives of the study were to profile adolescents in Aizawl; to assess the parental bonding among adolescents; to identify the parent-child relationship among adolescents; to find out the relationship between parental bonding and parent-child relationship from the adolescents and to suggest measures for social work intervention.

The research observed the major the following major findings:-

5.1.1 Profile of the Respondents

- More than half (57%) of the total respondents were female while a little less than half (40%) were male.
- All the respondents are in the age group of 16years.
- Majority (100%) of the respondents were Christians by faith with maximum number of respondents (71%) affiliated to Presbyterian denomination.
- Majority (23%) of the respondents belonged to Pawi sub-tribe.
- Majority (72%) of the respondents belonged to nuclear family.
- Majority (90%) of the respondents belonged to stable family.
- Majority (72%) of the respondents comprised of medium size family.
- Majority (75%) lived in their own house.
- More than half (53%) of the respondents resides in semi-urban.
- Majority (70%) of the respondents belonged to APL group comprising of more than three- fourth of the respondents.

5.1.1 Profile of the Respondents' Parents

- The highest (35%) educational level attained by the respondents' father was Graduate.

- The highest (50%) educational level attained by the respondents' mother was middle.
- Majority (35%) of the respondents' father were engaged in government servant.
- Majority (35%) of the respondents' mothers were home maker.

5.1.2 Parental Bonding

- More than half of the respondents (51%) perceived that they received affectionate constraint from mothers among which the percentage of female (56%) is higher than male.
- Majority of the respondents (45%) perceived that they received affectionate constraint from their fathers with a higher percentage of male (48.8%) than female.

Results show that there are gender differences in terms of parental bonding which support our first hypothesis. When compared to males, females have reported a better parent-child bond with both fathers and mothers. Further analysis on the subscales for parental bonding shows that there are differences among genders in terms of the caring factor but not the overprotection factor. This result is concurrent with previous research which found that females perceived mothers to be more caring as compared to males (Parker *et al*., 1979; Gladstone & Parker, 1996). Besides results also support finding by Parker *et al.* (1979) that there were no significant gender differences when "protection" scale scores were summed. For parent-child relationship, the result supports our third hypothesis which finds that there are gender differences regarding parent-child relationship. Females are found to have better parent-child relationship compared to males. Rather, it is in accordance to our hypothesis that parental bonding is related to parent-child relationship. Thus, when gender does make a difference in terms of parental bonding, the same difference should be seen in parent-child relationship and the results prove this.

Analysis supports our third hypothesis, and shows that there is a significant positive correlation between parental bonding and parent-child relationship, with a low margin of unknown error. This indicates that the stronger the parental bonding, the better parent-child relationship there is. In terms of maternal relationship, a higher level of care received from the mother leads to more positive affect, more mother identification, better communication and less resentment or role confusion. These results are also consistent with the findings studied by Bean *et al.* (2004). In terms of the overprotection factor, when the mother is perceived to be more

overprotective, children reported poorer communication and more resentment or role confusion they had toward their mothers. This is probably because when parents overprotect their children, they might be perceived as restricting their children's freedom. In terms of paternal relationship, a higher level of care received from the father leads to more positive affect, more father involvement, better communication and less anger between fathers and children. These results are in accordance with the research by Bean*et al.* (2004) which finds that when parent-child connectedness (bonding) is high, parents and children are more likely to provide emotional support and pay respect to each other, enjoy having activity together, communicate openly, and are less likely to experience hostility and resentment. Besides, when the father is perceived to be more overprotective, children reported more anger toward their fathers. Hence, when children are not given enough autonomy to be independent, they may be resentful toward their parents which results in poor communication with parents. In addition, the present study aims to examine whether there is any discrepancy between genders in relation to parental bonding and parent-child relationship.

. Besides, further analyses on subscales reveal that females tend to perceive more positive affect from both parents and more father involvement compared to males. This may be due to females' tendency to develop positive interaction and better communication skills in family as they usually are more nurturing and warm compared to males (Tam & Tay, 2007).

The correlations that were found in this study were also very interesting. The more caring a mother or father was, the less likely they were to be viewed by their adult children as overprotective and vice versa. It seems that being over-protective may be the opposite of being caring for many participants and their parents. Another interesting finding was that if the mother or father was perceived as caring, the other parent was also very likely to be regarded as being caring. Also if one parent was considered overprotective, the other parent was also more likely to be seen as overprotective. Perhaps it is less likely for one parent to be caring and the other overprotective. Most parents appear to have similar styles, at least in the eyes of their college student children, as far as caring and overprotection go. Also, a very interesting gender difference that was found in this survey is that female students were more likely than male students to indicate that they had overprotective fathers.

In conclusion, most young people in this sub sample have had traditional parents and felt closest to their mothers. Mothers on average spent more time with their children in general than

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fathers, spent more time taking care of their children, were seen as more overprotective and more caring, and spent the most quality time with their children. Even though, in the Parental Bonding Inventory, mothers were seen as more overprotective, female students were more likely to say that they had over protective fathers than male students were. Therefore, a stronger parental bonding does promote a better parent-child relationship. Females have shown a better parent-child bond as well as a better parent-child relationship when compared to males.

5.2 Suggestions

Going to the bottom of parent-child relationship problems can be different because there can be many different underlying issues. The possible outcomes may also vary depending upon individual families, religion, culture, attitudes, ethnicity and resources available.

- Awareness generation on importance of parent child relationship which will affect many aspects of development including sexuality gender identity and depression.

- Based on the findings of the study two parental bonding is prevalent i.e. Affectionate constraint and Affectionless control. In order have optimal parenting; a training programme can be conducted with the help of NGO's, Educational Institutions etc.

- The adolescents are the forerunners of social change and development in modern society. Their educational status, their readiness to take on adult roles and responsibilities, and the support they receive from their families will determine their own future and the future of the country.

- Awareness on the importance of parenting

- Parents need to teach children useful skills and values. This training should be done when neither parents nor children are upset. Taking time for training will eventually save time; untrained children demand much of their parents' time

- Parents must accept responsibility for doing what they can to improve the situation other than making futile attempts to make children behave. Instead of ruling children, parents can create an atmosphere in which guiding and helping children is possible.

- When parents have warm, trusting, and reliable relationships with peers, family, community members, and service providers, they are more likely to have positive

relationships with their children. To work toward the PFCE Positive ParentChild Relationships Outcome, providers and programs can:

- provide emotional and concrete support to parents,
- respect diverse parenting styles,
- value cultural differences and home languages,
- reinforce the importance of fathers and other co parents,
- help parents connect with other parents and community members and resources, and
- model warm, responsive relationships by engaging in these relationships with parents and other family members.

APPENDICES

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Fig.3.1 GROUP DISCUSSION

Sl.No	Gender	Have strong relationship with father	Have strong relationship with mother	Factors affecting parent-child relationship(social and environmental factors)
1.	Female	Yes	Yes	Family conflict
2.	Female	Yes	Yes	Low discipline
3	Female	No	Yes	Low discipline
4	Female	No	Yes	Large families
5	Female	Yes	Yes	Family conflict
6	Female	No	Yes	Disagreement about child rearing
7	Female	Yes	Yes	Stress
8	Female	Yes	Yes	Tight control
9	Female	No	Yes	Lack of communication
10	Female	No	Yes	Residential instability

Sl.no	Gender	Have strong relationship with father	Have strong relationship with mother	Factors affecting parent-child relationship(social and environmental factors)
1.	Male	Yes	Yes	Poverty
2.	Male	No	Yes	Large families
3	Male	No	Yes	Poverty
4	Male	No	Yes	Tight control
5	Male	Yes	Yes	Family conflict
6	Male	No	No	Lack of communication
7	Male	Yes	No	Low discipline
8	Male	No	Yes	Low discipline
9	Male	No	Yes	Working parents
10	Male	No	Yes	Poverty

Fig.3.2 DAILY ACTIVITY SCHEDULE

TIME	DIAGRAM	ACTIVITIES
6:30 am – 7:00 am		Wake up
7:30 am – 8:00 am		Breakfast
9:00 am – 3:30 pm		School
4:00pm – 5:00pm		Home Assignment
6:00 pm – 6:30pm		Dinner
6:30pm – 7:00 pm		Watching T.V, Quality time with parents
7:00pm – 10.30 pm		Studying
11:00pm – 6:00 am		Sleep

PARTICULARS OF THE CANDIDATE

NAME OF THE CANDIDATE   : Lalrintluangi

DEGREE   : M.Phil

DEPARTMENT   : Social Work

TITLE OF DISSERTATION   : Gender, Parental bonding and Parent-Child Relationship among Adolescents in Aizawl, Mizoram.

DATE OF PAYMENT OF ADMISSION   : 2nd August, 2014

COMMENCEMENT OF SECOND SEMESTER   : 18th Feruary, 2014

APPROVAL OF RESEARCH PROPOSAL

     1. Board of Professional Studies   : 15th April, 2014

     2. SCHOOL BOARD   : 16th May, 2014

     3. REGISTRATION NO. & DATE   : MZU/M.Phil/182 of 16.05.2014

     4. DUE DATE OF SUBMISSION   : 31st January, 2015

(Dr. C. DEVENDIRAN)   (Dr. KANAGARAJESWARAN)

Associate Professor   Head, Department of Social work

Mizoram University   Mizoram University

BIO-DATA

Name : Lalrintluangi

Sex : Female

Date of Birth : 01.09.1988

Age : 26

Educational Qualification : Master of Social Work

Marital Status : Unmarried

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Aizawl, Mizoram.

796001

Details of Educational Qualification

Class	Subject	Board/Universiy	Percentage	Division
H.S.L.C	-	Mizoram Board of Education	63.8	First
H.S.S.L.C	Arts	Mizoram Board of Education	48.8	Third
Bachelor of Arts	Education	Mizoram University	55.9	Second
Master of Social Work	Social Work	Mizoram University	63.4	First

Fieldwork Experience

1.   **1st Semester:** The venue for fieldwork during this semester was at Sacred Heart Society. The Sacred Heart Society was established in the year 2015 dated 6th April. It aims at Community Development and the upliftment of the community by providing training, promotion, development and marketing of products, general education, and effective health care delivery at affordable level of the community. The trainee was placed at CHAN (Community Health Action Network) for a period of time where the trainee explores the on-going project of the agency concerning Human Trafficking. The trainee attended a programme on Human Trafficking Awareness Campaign and also attends the prayers victim of Anti-Human Trafficking at Aizawl Temple Square. Duration of the field work was four months. The objectives were to put theory into practice, to develop skills of working with individuals and to provide an understanding of the theoretical knowledge and techniques of working with individuals. Work done during this semester included group vigilance, case study, home visits and exploring.

2.   **2nd Semester:** The trainee was placed at Protective Home, Mualpui which was established in the year 2005. It is an institution where convicted victims of Immoral Traffic already apprehended and remand are detained for correction, protection, treatment (casework, medical aid, moral education etc) and rehabilitation. The trainee is placed in a rehabilitation centre the trainee works are to understand their problem and to give a helping hand and work with them to achieve a certain level of goal to overcome their challenges and obstacles on their way and to bring effective change. The trainee during her field work has used the Principles of Social Work and Group work principles to achieve their goal and to bring an effective change in field setting. Work done during this semester included case study and group work.

3.   **3rd Semester:** The trainee was placed in Tuikual South Community for the concurrent filedwork along with two other trainees. The duration was for four months. Tuikual community was divided into two- Tuikual North and Tuikual South in the year 1987. Tuikual South community was divided into 5 sections. In Tuikual South area there were denominations like Presbyterian, Salvation Army, United Penticostal Church, Isua Krista Kohhran (IIK) and Mizo Kohhran etc. The trainees were mainly concentrated in Section

3 and 4 which was designated by Urban Development and Poverty Alleviation (UD & PA) department as slum pockets. In Section 3 and 4 areas there were one primary school, one high school, one sub-centre and two Anganwadi centres. Young Mizo Association (YMA), Local Council, Mizoram Upa Pawl (MUP). Mizo Hmeichhe Insuihkhawm Pawl (MHIP) etc. where the community based organizations found in Tuikual South Community. The objectives were to expose oneself to urban community, to understand the working of Local Council, MHIP, YMA, MUP and other community based organizations, to learn the role of social worker in community work and to evaluate the working of the community based organizations. Work done included interactions with leaders of YMA, MHIP, KTP, VC and MUP, community needs and problems were identified through them.

4.   **4th Semester:** Work from 3rd semester was continued in the same community. During the fieldwork, the trainees implemented some interventions. A project was taken up during this semester and the trainee worked specifically with divorced women within the community. The objective of the project were : to profile divorced women at Tuikual South, to understand the dynamics of divorce, to understand the situation of divorced women, to identify the factors responsible for divorced and abandonment and to find measures and suggestions in solving problems faced by divorced women. Title of the project during this semester was "Working with Divorced Women at Tuikual South Community: A Case Studies". Observation, Case studies, PRA and socio economic survey were used to identify the issues and problems faced by the divorced women.