PRO-SOCIAL AND ANTI-SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS AND SPIRITUAL WELLBEING OF YOUNG ADULTS IN MIZORAM IN RELATION TO PERCEIVED PARENTING STYLES

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Registration No. & Date - MZU/Ph.D/451 of 02.05.2012

Thesis Submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology

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2016

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AIZAWL-796004

Dated: 18th Jan, 2016

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the present research work titled, "PRO-SOCIAL AND ANTI-SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS AND SPIRITUAL WELLBEING OF YOUNG ADULTS IN MIZORAM IN RELATION TO PERCEIVED PARENTING STYLES" is the original research work carried out by Ms. Zomuanawmi under my supervision. The work done is being submitted for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology of the Mizoram University.

This is to further certify that the research conducted by Ms. Zomuanawmi has not been submitted in support of an application to this or any other University or an Institute of Learning.

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DECLARATION

I, Zomuanawmi, hereby declare that the subject matter of this thesis is the record of work done by me, that the contents of this thesis did not form basis of the award of any previous degree to me or to do the best of my knowledge to anybody else, and that the thesis has not been submitted by me for any research degree in any other University/ Institute.

This is being submitted to the Mizoram University for the degree of Master of Philosophy/Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology.

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A C K N O W L E D G E M E N T

Completion of this thesis was possible with so many people's kind help:

Foremost, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor, Prof. Zokaitluangi for her valuable guidance, scholarly inputs and consistent encouragement I received throughout the research work, for her patience, motivation, enthusiasm, and immense knowledge. Her guidance helped me in all the time of research and writing of this thesis. I could not have imagined having a better advisor and mentor for my Ph.D study. Her advice on both research as well as on my personal life have been invaluable.

I am extremely indebted to all the teaching staff of the Department of Psychology, Mizoram University for their kind help and suggestions at various stages of production of this study. I would not be here without your thoughtful guidance and inspirations that you tirelessly evoke throughout the years.

The thesis would not have come to a successful completion, without the help I received from all the non-teaching staff at the Department of Psychology, Mizoram University, without whom I would be lost navigating the labyrinth of Mizoram University.

Dr. C. Lalfakawmi, who as a good friend, was always willing to help and give her best suggestions. My fellow scholar and friend Mary Zothanmawii, although it was a whirlwind sometimes, I'm glad I have you on this journey with me. Thank you.

I especially thank my mom for her unconditional love, care and patience, who encouraged and helped me at every stage of my personal and academic life, and longed to see this achievement come true. My sister for all her advice and support; I would not have made it this far without them.

To my son, Christian Vandingpuia, words are not enough to describe how much I am grateful for having you. Thank you. You are my inspiration.

Above all, I owe it all to Almighty God for granting me the wisdom, health and strength to undertake this research task and enabling me to its completion.

Aizawl
the 18th January, 2016 (ZOMUANAWMI)

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Parenting can be simply defined as "the process or the state of being a parent" (Brooks, 1987). Once you have a child, you are involved in the process of parenting. However, it is not that simple and Morrison defined parenting as "the process of developing and utilizing the knowledge and skills appropriate to planning for, creating, giving birth to, rearing and/or providing care for offspring" (Morrison, 1978). This definition implies that parenting starts when there is a plan for it and it involves not just bringing up the children but also providing care for them.

There are several characteristics of parenting. First of all, with the advance of medical knowledge and technology, parenting becomes a choice in life. Secondly, being a parent is a life-long commitment. Thirdly, it involves responsibilities as parents are responsible to take good care of their children physically as well as psychologically. Lastly, parenting involves not just the couple but all the family members since the birth of a child affects the whole family.

Many parents create their own style from a combination of factors, and these may evolve over time as the children develop their own personalities and move through life's stages. Parenting style is affected by both the parents' and children's temperaments, and is largely based on the influence of one's own parents and culture. Most parents learn parenting practices from their own parents - some they accept, some they discard.

Theories of parenting:

Rohner's theory of Parental acceptance-rejection is commonly known as a theory of socialization. This theory focuses on four major issues, such as behavioral, cognitive and emotional development of children and adult personality functioning. Every individual has experienced the warmth and affection provided to him/her by someone important, who is called the parent not necessarily, mother and father. This warmth and affection is a range from a great deal to none, where one end is parental acceptance while the other one is rejection (Hussain and Munaf, 2012).

Two dimensional model of parenting: warmth-hostility and restrictiveness-permissiveness was presented by Becker. High in warmth and restrictiveness parents produce complaint, well-behaved children, whereas those high in warmth and

permissiveness promote socially outgoing, independent, and creative children (Khalid, 2004).

Baumrind (1966) theoretical model of parenting style which included the nurturance and control dimensions of child rearing into a conceptualization of parenting style that was fastened in a emphasis on parents 'belief system (Darling and Steinberg, 1993). For Baumrind, key element of parental role is to socialize the child to conform to the necessary demands of others and maintaining a sense of personal integrity. She defined control as strictness, use of corporal punishment, consistency of punishment, use of explanations, and so on (Baumrind, 1966). In contrast, Baumrind argued that parents' willingness to socialize their child is conceptually separate from parental restrictiveness.

Young adulthood:

It is the developmental period recognized as an important time for the learning, development and maintenance of social skills (Buhrmester and Furman, 1986). According to Santrock (2006), young adulthood, the period which span from 18 to 40 years of age is the time for establishing long term, intimate relationships with other people, choosing a lifestyle and adjusting to it, deciding on an occupation, and managing a home and family.

The transition from adolescence to young adulthood is characterized by an emergence from more structured family and school contexts to the more independent roles and responsibilities of young adult life (Arnett 2000; Masten et al. 2010). The success of this transition has significant implications for adult psychosocial development, including: vocational and educational outcomes (Skrobanek et al., 2011); romantic and interpersonal relationships (Chen et al. 2006) and the health and wellbeing of the next generation (Erikson, 1963).

The changing nature of the transition to adulthood may be extending the length of time parents are engaged in ''parenting'' activities. For example, the majority of 18–29 year olds (i.e., young adults) do not consider themselves to be adults (Arnett, 2000), nor do their parents (Nelson et al. 2007). Therefore, many parents feel they still need to help their children navigate this period of experimentation and exploration, while at the same time allowing them the

independence they want and need. Indeed, as emerging adults strive to gain more autonomy by fulfilling adult roles (Aquilino, 1996, 2006; Schnaiberg and Goldenberg 1989), the parent–child dyad enters a new stage of commonality where different styles of interaction and mutuality may emerge (Aquilino, 1997, 2006). As such, parenting may look different in young adulthood than in childhood or adolescence, but it may still play an important role.

There is a fair amount of work that has been done with college students examining the parent-child relationship, attachment, and broader parenting-related variables such as living arrangements (at home vs. dorm vs. apartment), and economic support (Aquilino, 2006). For example, Barry and friends (2008) demonstrated that a positive mother-child relationship was linked to emerging adults' regulation of values and pro-social tendencies. From an adult-attachment perspective, securely attached emerging adults have been found to have greater self-worth (Kennyand Sirin, 2006) and greater perceived personal efficacy (Leondari and Kiosseoglou, 2002). There is also some work identifying aspects of emerging adulthood that are associated with changes in the parent-child relationship, such as the impact of moving away from home (Buhl, 2007)

Parenting style*:*

It is a psychological construct representing standard strategies that parents use in their child rearing. There are many differing theories and opinions on the best ways to rear children, as well as differing levels of time and effort that parents are willing to invest and parental investment starts soon after birth. Parenting has been playing very crucial roles in adolescent's transition to adulthood. Parenting has been recognized as a major vehicle in socializing the child, the child's upbringing, training, and rearing or child education (Utti, 2006).

The child-rearing practices and interactive behaviors which have been developed and implemented by parents are referred to as parenting style. 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".

'Perceived Parenting Styles' are defined as 'a perception of adolescents or children about styles of parental behaviors during the childhood'. Based on the definition, assessment of children about parental behavior is important. The most frequently cited model of parenting style was proposed by Baumrind (1966, 1967). Assessment of parenting on a number of relevant dimensions (i.e., acceptance, control, demandingness, disciplinary practices, and encouragement of autonomy) resulted in three prototypes of parenting style: ***(i) authoritarian, (ii) authoritative***, and (***iii) permissive*** (Baumrind, 1966). In 1983, Maccoby and Martin suggested a revision of this threefold categorization system by distinguishing between indulgent and neglectful parenting, both of which were previously referred to as permissive. There are a number of limitations in many of the existing measures of parenting styles. First, many assessments of parenting constructs rely on only one or a very few items to assess the parenting constructs of interest, thus calling into question the reliability of the measure (Shelton, Frick and Wootten, 1996). Second, many of the questionnaires that have been developed to assess family functioning (Roberts, Block, and Block, 1984) focus on parental stress and competence, or the emotional climate in the home, and not on parenting practices that are most relevant to conduct problems (Darling and Steinberg, 1993). To overcome the problems associated with the existing instruments for the assessment of parenting practices, the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ; Frick, 1991) was developed. The APQ consists of items that assess the five parenting constructs which have been consistently associated with conduct problems and anti-social behavior. (Shelton et al., 1996): parental involvement, positive parenting, poor monitoring/supervision, inconsistent discipline, and corporal punishment.

Parental involvement takes many forms including good parenting in the home, including the provision of a secure and stable environment, intellectual stimulation, parent-child discussion, good models of constructive social and educational values and high aspirations relating to personal fulfillment and good citizenship; contact with schools to share information; participation in school events; participation in the work of the school; and participation in school governance.

The extent and form of parental involvement is strongly influenced by family social class, maternal level of education, material deprivation, maternal psycho-social health and single parent status and, to a lesser degree, by family ethnicity.

The extent of parental involvement diminishes as the child gets older and is strongly influenced at all ages by the child characteristically taking a very active mediating role. Differences between parents in their level of involvement are associated with social class, poverty, health, and also with parental perception of their role and their levels of confidence in fulfilling it. Some parents are put off by feeling put down by schools and teachers.

Positive parenting can also be defined as parent supportiveness, affection and companionship. This kind of parenting style is more or less similar to the authoritative style proposed by Baumrind. In positive parenting, parents may sometimes use rewards to show appreciation to children for appropriate behavior and praise when needed.

Generally, authoritative parents or positive parents are more democratic and less concerned with strict adherence to the rules than with explaining the rules and helping their child understand the reasons behind them. Baumrind's early research, confirmed by more recent studies, identified authoritative parenting as a key determinant of children's and adolescents' psychosocial wellbeing (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg and Dornbusch, 1991; Slicker, 1998). Interview and observational data collected by Baumrind (1967) suggested that the most well socialized and independent preschoolers were raised in authoritative households. More recently, adolescents who described their parents as authoritative scored highest on measures of psychosocial competence and maturity and lowest on measures of psychological and behavioral dysfunction (Lamborn et al., 1991; Mantzicopoulos and Oh-Hwang, 1998). They were less likely to be anxious or depressed and scored higher on measures of self-reliance (Radziszewska, Richardson, Dent and Flay, 1996; Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn and Dornbusch, 1991). Compared to parents using other childrearing models, authoritative parents were also more successful in protecting their adolescents from drug use and delinquent activities as well as facilitating school involvement and academic performance (Baumrind, 1991; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1992).

Inconsistent Discipline: Parents sometimes become overly lenient. Lack of consistent discipline is increasingly becoming a major problem among families today. This new generation of parents is convinced that discipline means that they are

abusing or unreasonably punishing their children. When in actuality lack of discipline is a form of abuse. Discipline, which comes from the root word disciple, means to teach and to guide, and when children are guided toward positive behavior, we help them develop a healthy attitude toward life.

Parental monitoring is a parenting practice that is defined as parents' knowledge of their adolescents' school and social activities and whereabouts. Common monitoring strategies include parents' establishment of boundaries for adolescents' autonomy, expectations for socially acceptable behaviors, and consequences for violating the established boundaries and expectations (Dishion and McMahon 1998; Stattin and Kerr 2000). Parental monitoring has been associated with reduction in school dropout (Martinez et al. 2004) and promotion of academic achievement, school engagement, and academic motivation (Gonzales et al. 1996; Henry et al. 2011) among minority youth. For example, Woolley and colleagues (2009) explored links between parental monitoring and Latino middle school students' school engagement and achievement.

Corporal punishment (CP) is the intentional infliction of pain for the purpose of correcting or controlling a child. Numerous research studies have demonstrated that Corporal Punishment (CP) is both ineffective and linked to negative outcomes. CP is often used synonymously with spanking or paddling but more broadly defined; it is any punishment that inflicts bodily pain for disapproved behavior. Shaw and Braden (1990) concluded that CP fails to suppress negative behavior or teach pro-social behavior, and that it legitimizes hitting as a problem-solving option. In many instances the student who receives CP receives it repeatedly over time (Block, 1994), indicating its ineffectiveness as a punisher.

Correlational research has revealed some possible side effects of CP include running away or truancy (McCown, Driscoll and Roop, 1996), fear of the teacher and/or school, high levels of anxiety (Biehler and Snowman, 1997), feelings of helplessness, humiliation, aggression and destruction at home and at school (Cryan, 1995), and animal cruelty (Flynn, 1999). Bryan and Freed (1982) reported that community college students who received a high amount of CP reported lower grades and higher aggression, delinquency, depression and anxiety. CP has also been linked to substance abuse and criminal activity (Straus and Lauer, 1992), and low economic

achievement (Straus and Gimped, 1992). In a recent, widely publicized meta-analysis, Gershoff (2002) concluded that although CP was linked to immediate compliance, it was also related to increased aggression and lower levels of moral internalization and mental health. Adults who were corporally punished as children were more likely to be criminals, be violent with their sexual partner, and spank their own children.

Baumrind's parenting styles are focused on two main elements of parenting: parental responsiveness and parental demandingness. ***Parental responsiveness***, also referred to as parental supportiveness and warmth, refers to "the extent in which parents intentionally foster individuality, self-regulation, and self-assertion by being attentive, supportive, and compliant to children's needs and demands" (Baumrind, 1991b). ***Parental demandingness***, also referred to as behavioral control, refers to " the claims parents make on children to become integrated into the family whole, by their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child who disobeys" (Baumrind, 1991b). Categorizing parents according to whether they are high or low on parental responsiveness and demandingness creates four parenting styles: authoritarian, authoritative, indulgent, and uninvolved.

1**) Authoritarian** parents are highly controlling in the use of authority and rely on punishment but are not responsive. They value obedience and do not tolerate give and take relationships with their children. Authoritarian parents do not expect their children to express disagreement with their decisions and rules and do expect them to obey without explanation (Maccoby and Martin, 1983).

2) **Authoritative** parents are warm and communicate well with their children; they are both demanding and responsive. Parents of this style are able to stay in authority and expect maturity from their children. They respect their children's opinions and independence while also maintaining their own positions. This parenting style permits children enough freedom of expression so that they can develop a sense of independence but know the boundaries of rules and obey them. Both authoritative and authoritarian parents have high expectations of their children but use control in different ways (Maccoby and Martin, 1983).

3) **Indulgent** parents are warm and accepting but their main concern is not to interfere with their children's creativity and independence; these parents are more responsive than demanding. They demand little in terms of obedience and respect for

authority. They are nontraditional and lenient, do not require mature behavior, allow considerable self-regulation, and avoid confrontations (Maccoby and Martin, 1983).

4) **Uninvolved** parents are both low in responsiveness and demandingness. In extreme cases, this parenting style might include both rejecting-neglecting and neglecting parents. This parenting style is viewed as the worst of the four. Parents in this style do not establish rules nor do they even care in which direction the child's behavior is headed (Maccoby and Martin, 1983).

Baumrind's parenting styles have been found to predict child well being in terms of social competence, academic performance, psychosocial development, and problem behavior. Research using parent interviews, teacher interviews, and child report consistently finds these characteristics associated with each parenting style (Baumrind, 1991a). Children of authoritarian parents tend to lack social competence in dealing with other children, frequently withdraw from social contact and rarely take their own initiative, look to outside authority to decide what is correct, and often lack spontaneity and intellectual curiosity. Sons show more difficulties than daughters, and sons are more likely to show anger and defiance towards people in authority.

Children of authoritative parents tend to be more self-reliant, self-controlled, willing to explore, and content than other groups. Daughters are more independent than sons; sons are more socially responsible than daughters and associated with better school performance. In high school, children of indulgent parents tend to be relatively immature, exhibit poor impulse control, and have difficulty accepting responsibility for their own actions and acting independently. Children of uninvolved parents tend to lack social competence in many areas, be overly independent, have difficulty determining right and wrong behavior, and experience school problems (academic and behavioural).

When considering parenting styles and child behavior, there is ample research to indicate that parenting styles are related to anti-social (delinquent) behavior in children and adolescents. However, there is little research that questions the relationship between parenting styles and delinquent behavior in young adults. A study done by Weiss and Schwartz (1996), based on the four typologies, consistently

yielded results indicating that parenting styles can enhance or diminish acceptable behavioral outcomes in children.

In previous studies, authoritative parenting has been associated with positive behavioral outcomes including increased competence, autonomy, and self esteem as well as better problem solving skills, better academic performance, more self-reliance, less deviance, and better peer relations (Barnes, 2002; Baumrind, 1991b; Bystritsky, 2000; Linder, Hetherington and Reiss, 1999; Lomeo 1999; Petito and Cummings, 2000; Steinberg, Darling, and Fletcher, 1995). In contrast, the authoritarian style has been linked with negative behavioral outcomes including aggressive behavior, decreased emotional functioning, depression and lower levels of self-confidence (Barnes, 2002; Beyers and Goossens, 2003; Pychyl, Coplan, and Reid, 2002; Scales, 2000).

The indulgent parenting style has been related to future delinquency and aggression. Poor supervision, neglect, and indifference are all indulgent parental practices that play a crucial role in engaging in future delinquency and anti-social behavior. Adolescents from indulgent homes report a higher frequency of involvement in deviant behaviors, such as drug use and alcohol use, school misconduct and emotional, impulsive, nonconforming behaviors (Durbin, Darling, Steinberg, and Brown, 1993; Miller, DiOrio and Dudley, 2002). With an uninvolved parenting style, children tend to look for acceptance in other places and associate with peer groups with similar family backgrounds (Mounts, 2002). Also, if family environments fail to provide structure, then child conduct problems are more likely to be maintained or worsen.

While many researchers have found a clear relationship between parenting style and the behavioral outcomes of children, other studies have found that there is no clear relationship between parenting style and child psychopathology (Havill, 1996; Olafsson, 2001; Revie-Petterson, 1998). Thus, it is important to note that the influence of parenting style is often moderated or mediated by a number of variables such as temperament (Owens-Stively et al., 1997), gender (Beyers and Goossens, 2003), the child/teen's perception of the parenting style (Paulson, 1994; Slicker, 1998), socioeconomic status and ethnicity (McCarthy, 1995), the age of the child (Harris, 1998; Revie-Pettersen, 1998), religiosity (Feinman, 2001; Lindner and

Hetherington, 1999), and family structure or cohesion (Bystritsky, 2000; Webster-Stratton and Hammond, 1999).

Pro-social behavior is defined as voluntary behavior enacted with the intent of benefiting others (Eisenberg et al., 2006). Exemplary pro-social behaviors include sharing personal resources, providing instrumental help, and supporting others emotionally in times of distress (Eisenberg et al., 2006). Research has shown how parenting techniques can have selective effects on concomitant child pro-social behaviors (Grusec, 1991). For example, parents' reinforcement of pro-social behavior following a request, but not of spontaneous pro-social behavior, related negatively to children's compliant pro-social behavior (Eisenberg et al., 1992). Many environmental forces, such as schools, peer, and the media (Eisenberg et al., 2006), may influence pro-social behavior, as indicated by the environmental estimates derived from twin studies.

In an influential review, Eisenberg and friends (2006) surveyed the extensive literature on the relationship between pro-social behavior and a variety of parenting attitudes and disciplinary practices. The bottom line of this vast literature is that the positive aspects of parenting, such as induction (a reasoning practice that can increase children's awareness of the consequences of their behavior to others), warmth and support toward children (providing a caring model for children, and increasing children's willingness to attend to parental messages), and autonomy support (focusing on the child's needs and abilities rather than imposing rules and directives) are related to children's empathy and pro-social behavior, whereas the opposite is true for power-assertive and negative discipline (Clark and Ladd, 2000; Krevans and Gibbs, 1996; Whiteside-Mansell, Bradley, Tresch Owen, Randolph, and Cauce, 2003).

In a longitudinal twin study of parental positivity and negativity toward children, these effects were replicated with regard to parent-rated and teacher-rated pro-social behavior, with parental positivity having a longitudinal positive effect on change in pro-sociality over and above earlier pro-sociality (Knafo and Plomin, 2006a).

Note, however, that Eisenberg et al. (2006) also reviewed a number of null findings in which parenting did not relate to pro-social behavior. These exceptions

typically indicated that the effects noted by prior studies are less relevant at certain ages, for one of the sexes, or when a particular measure of pro-social behavior is used. It is therefore important to consider moderating factors affecting the parenting–pro-sociality relationship. Another important factor concerns the context of the pro-social behavior performed, for example, whether it is performed following a request (Grusec, 1991).

In a recent review of parenting across socialization and parent-child interaction domains, Grusec and Davidov (2010) show strong evidence that parents may be successful in one domain of interaction but not in another, because successful parenting in each domain of interaction requires parents to show different abilities and invest different resources in their interaction with children. It is therefore important to study parenting in relation to different aspects of pro-social behavior. Eisenberg et al. (2006) reported in their review that parental punishment was either unrelated or negatively related to pro-social behavior, suggesting a modest negative relationship between punishment and pro-sociality. However, punishment could relate positively to empathy if it was accompanied by high levels of inductive discipline (Miller, Eisenberg, Fabes, Shell and Gular, 1989).

Based primarily on co-relational, single time-point studies, recent reviews have generally agreed on a consistent profile of childrearing that typifies the socialization experiences of more pro-social children (Eisenberg and Fabes, 1998; Grusec et al., 2002). Their parents are authoritative in style, balancing reasonable exertions of control and consistent expectations for maturity with flexibility and responsiveness to children's desires. These parents eschew harsh punishments, rigid strictness, and strong expressions of hostility or rejection. They are warm toward their children, enjoy shared activities, and provide praise more than criticism. They engage in pro-social acts themselves, encourage such behavior from their children, and provide explanations for these expected behaviors.

The dominant paradigm for studying parental socialization in the last 25 years of the 20th century was through the examination of parenting styles, or the usual patterns of control, responsiveness, warmth and punishment that parents use most often, across contexts and over time, to manage their children's behavior. Authoritative parenting could support pro-social behavior by modeling other-oriented

behavior those children may emulate, encouraging children to be more considerate and caring, and eliciting affection and connectedness that make children more receptive to efforts to foster concern for others (Hastings et al., 2000). An authoritarian style of parenting may undermine children's pro-social behavior by modeling a lack of concern for the needs of others, or engendering hostility and the rejection of parental socialization efforts.

The current research made use of Pro-social Personality Battery (PSB) created by L. A. Penner, B. A. Fritzsche, J. P. Craiger, T. S. Freifeld (1995). The battery is intended to research specific personality components in the spirit of the tendency to think, feel and behave in a specific manner. The PSB inventory diagnoses four components sorted into seven scales: 1. Ascription of Responsibility includes the Social Responsibility (SR) scale. 2 – 4: Empathy includes three subscales - Empathic Concern (EC), Perspective Taking (PT), and Personal Distress (PD). 5. Other Oriented Reasoning (O). 6. Mutual Moral Reasoning (M). 7. Self-Reported Altruism (SRA).

The construct of pro-social personality formulated by L. A. Penner and his colleagues (Penner et al., 1995; Penner, Finkelstein, 1998; Penner, 2002) presupposes stable tendency to think of the benefit of others, empathic interest and care for others and tendency to act with regard to others, in a manner beneficial to others. The axis of pro-social personality consists of two dimensions (factors): other-oriented empathy and helpfulness. The dimensions are made of several components taken over by L.A.Penner and colleagues from formerly created constructs within the concept of empathy (Davis, 1980, 1983, 1994), moral reasoning (Kohl-berg, 1984; Gilligan, 1982) and altruism (Rushton, Chrisjohn, Fekken, 1981). The dimensions of pro-social personality consist of:

1) Social Responsibility (SR) represents seven-item scale taken over from original items by S. H. Schwartz and J. A. Howard (1982) to measure the tendency to assume responsibility for the consequences of someone's acts.

2) **Empathic Concern (EC)** consists of five-item scale put together from original items of Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI), suggested by M. H. Davis (1980, 1983, and 1994). The scale measures emotional empathy in the spirit of the

tendency to experience concern, sympathy, fears and interests in other persons in adverse situation.

3) **Perspective Taking (PT)** consists of four-item scale taken over from original items of Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI), designed by M. H. Davis (1980, 1983, and 1994). Perspective taking corresponds to the subject's tendency to assume spontaneously the cognitive psychological perspective of another person.

4) **Personal Distress (PD)** is a three-item scale, also put together from the original items of Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) created by M. H. Davis (1980, 1983, 1994). It ascertains the person's tendency to experience concern, anxiety and unease together with a person in an adverse interpersonal situation.

5) **Other Oriented Reasoning (O)** is a three-item scale, based theoretically on the theory of moral reasoning by L. Kohlberg (1984) and on the theory of moral development by C. Gilligan (1982). The scale ascertains the respondent's tendency to focus on the best interests of other people at moral decision making.

6) **Mutual Moral Reasoning (M)** is also a three-item scale, based on the theory of moral reasoning by L. Kohlberg (1984) and of moral development by C. Gilligan (1982). The scale ascertains the tendency of the respondents to see the best solution in a solution considering the interest of all parties.

7) **Self-Reported Altruism (SRA)** represents a five-item scale including original items from Self-report altruism scale (SRA), designed by J. P. Rushton, R. D. Chrisjohn and G. C. Fekken (1981) to measure individual differences in the area of altruistic behavior.

The version of the pro-social personality inventory used in this study included 30 items. The measure based on the respondent's self-information (self-report measure) used five-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (expressing strong disagreement) to 5 points (strong agreement). The subscale of self-reported altruism (SRA) has different structure, measuring the answers in a range from 1 to 5 points, but 1 point means never, 2 - once, 3 - more than once, 4 - often, 5 - very often.

Anti-social behavior is a behavior that lacks consideration for others and may cause damage to the society, whether intentionally or through negligence, as opposed

to pro-social behavior - behavior that helps or benefits the society. In psychiatry, particularly in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, persistent anti-social behavior is part of a diagnosis of anti-social personality disorder (APA, 2002). The term anti-social behavior refers to actions, such as deliberate theft, vandalism, and physical aggression.

Antisocial behavior can also be defined as acts that inflict physical or mental harm or property loss or damage on others. It is behavior that is intended to lower the well-being of other persons, which may or may not constitute the breaking of criminal laws (Coie and Dodge, 1998; Loeber and Schmaling, 1985; Rutter, Giller, and Hagell, 1998).

Formulating a working definition of anti-social behavior is no easy task; in fact, an absolute precise definition is not possible. However, within psychological literature some general characteristics have been identified (Smith et al.2002):

- It is aggressive behavior or intentional 'harm doing'
- Is carried out repeatedly and overtime
- It occurs in an inter personal relationship characterized by a power imbalance
- It often occurs without apparent provocation
- Is negative actions carried out by contact (physical or otherwise such as with cyber-bullying)

Delinquent is a subset of anti-social behaviors in which the behavior violates criminal law. Not all anti social or delinquent acts however involve harm to other individuals, either physically or through property loss. A number of victims less behaviors, such as truancy and substance abuse are relevant to the development to anti-social behavior (Loeber, 1990).

Parents of young people are often blamed for the anti-social (delinquent) behavior of their children. In some courts, parents are even penalized for the antisocial conduct of their children (e.g., Bessant and Hil 1998; Drakeford 1996; Dundes 1994). Although lay as well as scholarly theories assume that a link between parenting and delinquency exists, clear conclusions concerning the magnitude of this link are difficult to draw. An important reason for this difficulty is the heterogeneity

of the studies and their findings in this field of research. Studies vary on the kinds of delinquency and parenting dimensions that are investigated, on how these constructs are measured, and on the populations from which the samples are drawn.

Research on family antecedents and correlates of delinquency/anti-social behavior is of direct importance to both theory and practice. Interest in the family was apparent in early theories on social disorganization (Gove and Crutchfield 1982; Van Voorhis et al. 1988), and in the social bond model of Hirschi (1969). Other theories such as those of Moffitt (1993, 2006) and Patterson (e.g., Patterson and Yoerger 2002) go beyond explaining only level differences in delinquency and examine how delinquency changes by age. The child's difficult behavior affects parents' disciplinary strategies, resulting in harsher and inconsistent punishments and less involvement by parents in the socialization process (Patterson 1982). These negative child-parent transactions increase the risk of setting a child off on a delinquent path that starts in the early teens, entails many delinquent acts and persists far into adulthood (Moffitt 1993; Patterson and Yoerger 2002)

Antisocial behavior is a major problem in childhood and beyond. More severe, persistent forms affect 5% - 10% of children in developed western countries (Rutter, et al., 2008) and are linked to future adult crime, drug and alcohol misuse, unemployment, poor physical health and mental disorders (Cohen, 1998; Odgers, et al., 2007). It is estimated that a high risk youth could cost the public $1.7 - 2.3 million over their lifetime (Cohen, 1998).

A major risk factor is parenting style, in particular harsh and inconsistent parenting, which research has shown is associated with child behavior problems (Scott, 2008; Finzi-Dottan, Bilu, and Golubchik, 2011; Dadds, 1995).Other factors that feed into this directly and indirectly include domestic violence, parental drug abuse, maternal depression, family poverty, parents with low education, stressed families and single parent status (Webster-Stratton and Reid, 2008; Bloomquist and Schnell, 2005).

Previous research has suggested some of the parenting behaviors that can improve or exacerbate children's behavior problems. Studies have reported a significant relationship between high levels of parental warmth and lower levels of externalizing behavior problems in children (Garber, Robinson and Valentiner, 1997).

Research also suggests that a lack of involvement, as well as poor monitoring and supervision of children's activities, strongly predicts antisocial behavior (Loeber and Stouthamer-Loeber 1986). Parents of children with antisocial behavior are likely to be less positive, more permissive and inconsistent, and use more violent and critical discipline (Reid, Webster-Stratton and Baydar 2004). In an influential review Rutter, Giller and Hagell (1998) concluded that antisocial behavior is associated with hostile, critical, punitive and coercive parenting.

The proximal relationship of parent to child ensures that each exerts a strong influence on the other. Social Learning Theory suggests that a child learns behavior from interaction with significant people in their environment; particularly parents and these behaviors are maintained through modeling and reinforcement. Conversely, undesirable behaviors can be unintentionally reinforced by parents' attention to such behavior and subsequent attempts at appeasement.

Additionally, the coercive nature of this interaction results in an increased risk of scholastic difficulties when negative spiral patterns of reinforcement, involving both the parent and the child, go unchallenged (Taylor and Biglan 1998). Patterson (1982) found that these patterns, when established in a coercive family environment, result in an escalation of negative behavior on the part of the child, which in turn reinforces the parent's withdrawal and harshness towards the child, as well as the child's problematic behavior (McKee, Colletti, Rakow, Jones, and Forehand, 2008). Therefore, parents who are inconsistent in their approach towards their child can unintentionally promote negative child behavior, which can lead to a mutual escalation into negative behavior from both (Rutter, et al., 2008).

In families where the focus is on negative behavior, pro-social behavior often goes unrecognized and nonviolent conflict resolution is neither taught, nor modeled (Patterson 1982). Reducing harsh, negative and inconsistent parenting has been shown to have a positive influence on children's behavior in a number of studies (Eyberg, Nelson, and Boggs, 2008;Kaminski, Valle, Filene, and Boyle, 2008);once parents have been shown the skills to manage problem behavior, levels of antisocial behavior in children can return to a normal level (Jouriles et al., 2009)

Anti-social behavior, particularly delinquent behavior stems from several factors including: poor academic achievement, low self esteem, lack of acceptance

from peers, and unstable family environments. These factors not only influence a person during the transition to adolescence but during the transition into adulthood as well. If parenting styles have an influence on the anti-social behavior (delinquency) of children and adolescents, then it seems likely that they impact the behavior of young adults as well. Hickman, Bartholomae, and McKenry (2000) found this to be true when looking at college students.

The National Interfaith Coalition on Aging (1975), suggested that "**Spiritual wellbeing** is the affirmation of life in a relationship with God, self, community and environment that nurtures and celebrates wholeness". Ellison suggested that spiritual wellbeing "arises from an underlying state of spiritual health and is an expression of it, much like the color of one's complexion and pulse rate are expressions of good (physical) health" (Ellison, 1983). Fehring, Miller, and Shaw (1997) agreed that "spiritual wellbeing is an indication of individuals' quality of life in the spiritual dimension or simply an indication of their spiritual health."

Until today, there is no universally accepted scientific definition of spirituality and no consensus concerning its significance on research and health (Cobb and Robshaw, 1998; Moberg, 2002). Several efforts resulted in numerous distinct meanings of spirituality (Moberg, 2002). The definitions of spirituality often include a sense of transcendence as well as other dimensions, including purpose or meaning of life, reliance on internal resources, sense of self-fulfilment or cohesion and (Chandler, Holden, and Kolander, 1992; Miller and Thoresen, 2003; Moberg, 2002) distinct beliefs and values. Therefore, spirituality can have different meanings to different people (Egan, 2010). Spiritual well-being (SWB) can be an indispensable companion to the concept of spirituality; it is closely connected with it (Imam, Abdul Karim, Jusoh andMamad, 2009). Similarly, SWB is not synonymous to the mental and physical health, but it is likely to be associated with these two variables (Paloutzian, Bufford and Wildman, 2012)

Psycho-spiritual well-being is an area of interest to researchers all over the world. Spiritual well-being is described as a dual status which includes: 1) a vertical dimension referring to well-being in relation to God or a higher power; i.e. referring to the religious element, and 2) a horizontal dimension referring to the purpose and

satisfaction from life; i.e. referring to a spiritual or existential component (Cooper-Effa, Blount, Kaslow, Rothenberg and Eckman, 2001; Ellison, 1983).

Individuals with high and low spiritual well-being portrayed substantially different personality profiles. According to the results of studies, the high spiritual well-being group scored lower on neuroticism and higher on extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness than the low spiritual well-being group. Paloutzian and Ellison reported that spiritual well-being is positively related with the purpose of life, intrinsic religious commitment and self-esteem, while negatively related to individualism, individual freedom and loneliness. These results show that individuals with high spiritual well-being tend to portray more positive personalities in comparison with low spiritual well-being individuals (Ramanaiah, 2001).

A systematic review in 2011 identified 35 instruments used in clinical trials to assess multiple dimensions of spirituality and to measure its association with impact on health. The most popular and widely used scale is Spiritual Wellbeing Scale (SWBS) (Koenig and Cohen, 2002), designed by Paloutzian and Ellison in 1982. This scale is intended to assess the individuals' subjective perception of their quality of life in relation with spirituality, as perceived through religious and existential dimensions (Moberg and Brusek, 1978; Moberg, 1979) and it is utilized in studies concerning clinical and general health cases (Koenig and Cohen, 2002). Since it is non-sectarian it can be used in a variety of religious and cultural backgrounds, in health, and in general research (Musa and Pevalin, 2012).

The notion of spiritual well-being is different to the idea of health or maturity in terms of spirituality, or to the notion of spirituality itself. It has been designed on two main components: one religious and one social-psychological component. From those two components, two subscales emerge which compose the scale: 1) Religious Well-being subscale (RWB), and 2) Existential Well-being subscale (EWB) (Moberg and Brusek, 1978; Moberg, 1971).

Religious Well-being subscale (RWB) focuses on how well individuals feel in regards with and in relation with God. To that end, all questions included in RWB scale contain the word "God". **Existential Well-being** subscale (EWB) focuses on the ability of the individuals to adjust to themselves, their life, living, social environment and community (Boivin, Kirby, Underwood and Silva, 1999). The

questions included in this subscale do not refer to specific religious issues. They refer to general issues concerning the meaning of and satisfaction with life (Koenig and Cohen, 2002; Bruce, 1997).

SWBS is easy to understand and includes clear scoring guidelines (Imam, Abdul Karim, Jusoh, and Mamad, 2009), portrays good conceptual validity, as well as ostensible validity, proven by the questions' content (Bufford, Paloutzian, and Ellison, 1991; Paloutzian and Ellison, 1982) its construct validity has been supported by factor analysis (Ellison, 1983; Phillips, Mock, Bopp, Dudgeon, and Hand, 2006). Its overall reliability is extensively endorsed by existing bibliography, with Cronbach's alpha exceeding 0.82 (Phillips, Mock, Bopp, Dudgeon and Hand, 2006). Cronbach's alpha for RWBS ranges between 0.82 and 0.99 and for EWBS from 0.73 to 0.98 (Brinkman, 1989; Phillips, Mock, Bopp, Dudgeon and Hand, 2006).

Scales SWB, RWB, and EWB are positively correlated with positive self-perception, sense of purpose and meaning of life, self-confidence, physical health, emotional adjustment, locus of control, as well as higher self-confidence and less aggressiveness. They are negatively correlated with distress, poor health, low ability for emotional adjustment, dissatisfaction with life and lack of purpose in life (Brinkman, 1989; Bufford, Paloutzian and Ellison, 1991; Phillips, Mock, Bopp, Dudgeon and Hand, 2006).

The terms 'spirituality' and 'religiousness' are usually used interchangeably, as equivalents. According to the previous studies, some aspects of spirituality and religiousness are closely connected, whereas other spiritual spheres are loosely connected or independent of religious behaviors and motives (Heintz and Baruss2001). Nevertheless, spirituality seems to be an idea having a broader meaning than religiousness. Unlike religiousness, spirituality assumes the realization of non-religious goals, such as identity, affiliation, health, or wellbeing (Sawatzky et al. 2005). It means that one can develop spiritually without being religious. On the other hand, spiritual experience is the crucial element of religious development (Wnuk, 2008).

Home has been emphasized as being the center of spiritual formation (Nelson, 1967). Faith has been a vital part of daily living which has been best "transmitted and supported by lifestyle, in that life and behavior afford the child the concrete

experiences necessary to frame an understanding of faith" (Dirks, 1989, p. 88). Parents, or the primary caregivers in the home, have usually been responsible for establishing a lifestyle that guides a child's spiritual development (Strauss, 1984). Regardless of this phenomenon, a small amount of research has been designed to measure the effect a parent has on a child's religious development (Spilka, Hood, and Gorsuch, 1985).

Freud (1955, 1961) hypothesized individuals' God concepts are primarily projections of attitudes and feelings towards their own father. Rizzuto (1979) suggested that individuals' concepts of God are largely projections of feelings and attitudes towards either one or both parents. Several studies concerning the kind and loving nature of God have been conducted from a psychoanalytic viewpoint (Tamayo and Desjardins, 1976). The results of the studies have apparently supported a strong correlation between individuals' perceptions of the loving and caring nature of God and individuals' perceptions of the loving and caring nature of their parents. Yet, research has resulted in conflicted and mixed findings.

Some study results have indicated no relationship between individuals' God concepts and parent concepts (Vergote and Tamayo, 1980). Some studies have seemed to indicate a limited but statistically significant relationship between individuals' God concepts and father concepts (Siegmann, 1961). Other studies have indicated a strong relationship only between individuals' God concepts and mother concepts (Nelson and Jones, 1957).

Still, other studies seem to have indicated a strong relationship between the God concepts and both the mother and father concepts (Godin and Hallez, 1965) Relationships between parents and children are a complex, multi-directional process of interactions (Bell, 1968, 1986). Still, parents usually seem to have the greater power to implement long-term goals and plans for child development (Hoffman, 1975). Eisenberg-Berg and Mussen (1978) found parent-child relationships to be a primary determinant in moral development. Hoffman (1963) found parent-child relationships are a primary determinant in moral behavior transmission.

Studies by Coby and Kohlberg (1984) found parent-child relationships to be vital to the development of empathy in children. Colby and Kohlberg (1984) discovered the development of guilt to be primarily related to parent-child

relationships. McCord (1988) found a primary relationship between parents and children in demonstration of aggression and antisocial behavior. McCord (1988) found the same primary relationship in the development of depressive symptoms in adult children. Finally, Wheeler (1989) discovered the parent-child relationship to be a primary determinant in the development of religiosity and spiritual well-being.

Shin and Johnson (1978) have defined **Life satisfaction** as an overall assessment of an individual's quality of life according to his/her chosen criteria. Life satisfaction is an important construct in positive psychology (Gilman and Huebner2003). Measures of Life satisfaction are sensitive to the entire spectrum of functioning, and thus, provide indicators of both well-being and anti social characteristics. Further Life satisfaction is integral to the science of positive psychology which focuses on identifying strengths and the building of them as buffers against the development of behavioral problems (Veenhoven1988).

Life satisfaction is also defined as an individual's conscious, cognitive and affective evaluation of life quality (Diener and Diener, 1996). Changes in life satisfaction reports have been shown to precede changes in various psychological states, including depression and suicide, physical health, and interpersonal problems (Frisch et al. 2003). Positive psychosocial benefits have been related to incremental levels of life satisfaction, with higher levels appearing to serve as a cognitive buffer against adverse responses to stressful life events (Keyes 2005). Thus, life satisfaction appears to be a necessary if not entirely synonymous with positive behavior (Diener2000).

Correlational research has highlighted the role of familial variables, such as, family structure, parenting style, parental emotional and social support, and family conflict, as crucial in the attainment of adolescent Life Satisfaction. For instance, Suldo and Huebner (2004b) found that all three dimensions of the authoritative parenting style: social support-involvement, strictness-supervision, and psychological autonomy granting were positively related to Life Satisfaction among adolescents, with perceived parental social support having the strongest correlation. Specifically, an interaction effect was found between Life Satisfaction and parental social support such that the influence of parenting behaviors on adolescent global Life Satisfaction decreased as age increased.

In a related study, Ortman (1988) found that adolescents' feelings of social control and responsibility were positively related to Life Satisfaction among a group of students who reported having positive relationships with supportive parents. Studies of adolescents in China have revealed relationships between parenting style and adolescent Life Satisfaction similar to that found in the West. For example, Leung et al. (2004) found that perceived maternal concern was positively related to academic competence and that both were significant in predicting concurrent and longitudinal Life Satisfaction. More specifically, this study showed that overall satisfaction with family, school, and self significantly decreased as age increased, however satisfaction with friends did not significantly change over time (Leung et al. 2004); similar results have been reported by Park (2005) among South Korean students.

Extensive literature exists on the negative influence of disruptive family events on adolescent well-being (McFarlane et al. 1995). For example, in a series of studies, Shek (1997a–c, 1998b, 2002a, b) has demonstrated negative correlations exist between Life Satisfaction and both parental and child indicators of parent-child conflict and poor family functioning among Chinese adolescents and their parents. Further, the data have generally indicated that increased parent-adolescent conflict and poor family functioning is related to increased mental health problems, problem behavior, poorer academic performance, delinquent behavior, and substance abuse (Shek1997a–c, 2002a, b). Moreover, Shek (1999a–c, 2002c) has demonstrated that positively perceived parental qualities, parental styles, parental characteristics, and dyadic functioning predict positive adolescent Life Satisfaction; findings also suggested that paternal characteristics were more important than maternal characteristics in predicting Life Satisfaction in both males and females (Shek2005d).

Similarly, Shek (2003a, 2005b, and e) has examined the relationship between perceived parenting behavior, parental control processes, and parent-child relational qualities, family functioning and adolescent psychological well-being, substance abuse, and delinquent behavior in a series of studies with Chinese adolescents with economic disadvantage. Results revealed that adolescents with economic disadvantage had relatively lower levels of Life Satisfaction and perceived parenting characteristics more negatively than non-economically disadvantaged adolescents (Shek2003a, 2005b). Additional studies revealed that current economic hardship and

future economic worry are both related to lower levels of Life satisfaction, emotional quality of life, self-esteem, and mastery, and increased levels of psychiatric morbidity, substance abuse, and problem behavior (Shek2003b, 2005c). Similarly, economically disadvantaged adolescents have generally been found to not only have lower Life Satisfaction and feel more hopeless, but also to perceive paternal behavioral control, and father–child relational qualities more negatively than adolescents whose families do not receive social assistance (Shek2005e).

Procrastination is the lack or absence of self-regulated performance, the tendency to put off or completely avoid an activity under one's control (Tuckman and Sexton, 1989b). It has been proposed that procrastination results from a combination of - (i) disbelieving one's own capability to perform a task (Bandura 1986), (ii) being unable to postpone gratification, and (iii) assigning blame for one's own predicament to external sources (Ellis and Knus,1977; Tuckman,1989) .

Like many common-language terms drafted into scientific study, definitions for procrastination tend to be almost as plentiful as the people researching this topic (Ferrari, Johnson and McCown, 1995). Initially, such definitional variation may seem to obscure the nature of procrastination, but it may also serve partially to illuminate it. Different attempts by researchers to refine understanding can be complementary rather than contradictory. In addition, any common theme likely reveals a core or essential element. It is evident that all conceptualizations of procrastination recognize that there must be a postponing, delaying, or putting off of a task or decision, in keeping with the term's Latin origins of 'pro' meaning 'forward, forth, or in favor of', and 'crastinus' meaning 'of tomorrow' (Klein, 1971).

Perching on the high hills of North Eastern corner, **Mizoram** is one of the states of Northeast India, with Aizawl as its capital. Flanked by Bangladesh on the west and Myanmar on the east and south, Mizoram occupies an important strategic position having a long international boundary of 722 kms. The state comprises of mostly rural areas with few urban/semi-urban settlements.

World-renowned for their hospitality, Mizo's are a close-knit society with no class distinction and no discrimination on grounds of sex. The entire society is knitted together by a peculiar code of ethics 'Tlawmngaihna', an untranslatable term meaning on the part of everyone to be hospitable, kind, unselfish and helpful to others.

The fabric of social life in the Mizo society has undergone tremendous changes over the years. The Mizo code of ethics or Dharma moved around ‘Tlawmngaihna”, an untranslatable term meaning on the part of everyone to be hospitable, kind, unselfish and helpful to others. The study of Mizo society clearly shows that, the Mizos as a whole possess a unique social system, which although patriarchal, yet the women play a key role in the social affairs and in the process of betterment of the society. When looking at the inheritance law of the society, the Mizo women lived a lower status, especially in the inheritance of property rights; they have not much inheritance right. In fact the women were confined to the kitchen and the field and had no voice in the day to day affairs of the village. But in the family, the women do exert a lot of influence on their men folk and Mizo men in general are very much attached to their women.

As the time passes by, not only have the people got the best possible education, but also the process of modernization enveloped all aspects of Mizo society. The remarkable feature of the Mizo society is that it has yet retained the character of a closely related society even after modernity has reached their society. The Mizo’s form a close-knit society; they are classless and casteless. The society is cohesive and in times of crisis they have the capacity to rise as one man to safeguard and protect their identity and their social and cultural life.

The social life of the Mizo, since the advent of Christianity experienced a constructive change. The society is decorated by the church which has an imminent influence on the life of the people. Religion has affected the life of the Mizos in a comprehensive but amazing way. No fact of spiritual or social life escapes its attention. An individual, a family and the community becomes so involved in the activities that the church indeed occupies a pivotal role in the society. Church activities do not confine only to preaching the gospel. It puts into action the teaching of Christ to love and care for the less fortunate. There are many social services run by the church which offers shelter to orphans and a home to the poor and destitute.

Given the scenario of the Mizo society and its history, it can be seen that the population in general are altruistic or pro-social. In fact, they take pride in possessing this unique form of altruism which is mentioned above as ‘Tlawmngaihna’. However, no research has ever been conducted in a systematic and authentic manner in the

context of the Mizo family. Nonetheless, although pro-sociality and spirituality occupies a pivotal role in the society, many delinquent acts and anti-social behaviors are still very much prevalent. The present concern therefore is to understand the mechanisms by which parenting affect pro-social and anti-social behaviors as well as spiritual wellbeing.

For identification of places which would qualify to be classified as 'Urban' villages, Census of India 2011 was referred in this study. In the Census of India, 2011 the definition of urban area adopted is as follows:

(a) All statutory places with a municipality, corporation, cantonment board or notified town area committee, etc.

(b) A place satisfying the following three criteria simultaneously:

i) A minimum population of 5,000

ii) At least 75 percent of male working population engaged in non-agricultural pursuits ; and

iii) A density of population of at least 400 sq.km (1,000per sq.mile)

An area is considered 'Rural' if it is not classified as 'Urban' as per the above definition.

The statement of the Present study is highlighted in the next Chapter, **Chapter - II: Statement of the Problem.**

Young adulthood or early adulthood according to Santrock (2007) is the period beginning in the late teens and early twenties and lasting through the thirties. It is a time of establishing personal and economic independence, career development, and, for many, selecting a mate, learning to live with someone in an intimate ways starting a family, and rearing children (Santrock, 2007). Individuals in their young adulthood life stage are in a turbulent, dynamic and restless phase marked by many transitions (Santrock, 2003:1-495).

The challenges and changes faced by young people, and the role requirements of these individuals can lead to stress and this can have major consequences in developmental, emotional, social, academic and general life spheres as they enter adulthood. It is evident that research is needed regarding well-being in young adulthood in order to assess how young people's perceived parenting styles relate to their pro-social, anti-social characteristics and spiritual wellbeing.

Though a great deal of literature have been published which examined the effects of parenting styles on their children's outcomes, particularly establishing the benefits to children of authoritative parenting as opposed to the negative outcomes such as anti-social behavior which was produced by authoritarian and permissive parenting. Much of the parenting style literature has focused on predominantly white middle-class samples, and relatively few researchers have examined the childrearing attitudes and behaviors of other ethnic and socio-demographic groups.

Here it is deserved to mention that only a few have been done among Mizo Society, but all of which among adolescents and children, the present study is perhaps the first endeavor to study this relation among adult samples. Hence, it is also expected that the behavioral measures would find replicability (psychometric adequacy) and would manifest differential behavioral patterns across samples of the study. The present study will employ the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ; Frick, 1991) to measure parenting practices across five domains: parental involvement, positive parenting, poor monitoring/supervision, inconsistent discipline, and corporal punishment.

There is an extensive literature linking parenting styles to the child's anti-social behavior. In general, authoritative parenting is negatively associated with internalizing and externalizing problems in childhood and adolescence (Steinberg et al. 1994; Steinberg et al. 2006). On the other hand, both permissive and authoritarian parenting are positively associated with internalizing and externalizing problems, including internalized distress, conduct disorder, and anti-social behavior (Querido et al. 2002; Thompson et al. 2003). In a study of adolescents, Steinberg and colleagues (1994) found that adolescent-reported authoritative parenting was associated with maintaining a higher level of social competence and adjustment across a two-year period of high school. In contrast, authoritarian parenting was associated with increased internalized distress, while permissive parenting was associated with less distress and more externalizing problems.

Two perspectives have been adopted in the parenting literature: research that is focused on dimensions of parenting and research focusing on typologies (Darling and Steinberg 1993; O'Connor 2002; Ten Haaf1993). Dimensions are concepts to categorize parenting behaviors such as affection, punishment, monitoring, whereas typologies are constellations of parenting dimensions such as an authoritative parenting style which is a combination of supportive parenting, attachment and guiding the child's behavior by explanation and appropriate expectations for conformity.

Although various parenting dimensions have been proposed, two key dimensions - support and control, have been used to assess the quality of parenting behavior (Maccoby and Martin 1983). The support dimensions (also labeled warmth, responsiveness or acceptance–rejection by some scholars), refers to parental behaviors toward the child that makes the child feel comfortable, accepted and approved (Rollins and Thomas 1979). The support dimension can be represented as a range of positive and negative behavioral aspects such as acceptance, affection, love, support, warmth, responsiveness, sensitivity, communication and intimacy, but also hostility, neglect, and rejection (Rohner2004; Rollins and Thomas 1979; TenHaaf 1993).

These various aspects of parental support whether negative or positive can be placed along the continuum of low to high support and is generally considered to be

unidimentional (Ten Haaf et al. 1994). For example, rejection is represented by low scores and acceptance by high scores. In general, supportive parenting behaviors are negatively linked to delinquency, indicating that high levels of support and warmth are associated with low levels of delinquency and that low levels of support or even rejection are linked to high levels of delinquency (Barnes and Farrell 1992; Juang and Silbereisen 1999;Simons et al. 1989).

Consistent with parents' differing goals for girls and boys, parenting styles have also been shown to differ across the gender of the child. Research has shown that parent's report using authoritarian parenting with boys, while authoritative parenting with girls. In a meta-analysis of the literature on differential socialization of boys and girls, Lytton and Romney (1991) reported that boys were treated with more restrictiveness and harsher punishment, characteristic of the authoritarian style, while girls were treated with more warmth, characteristic of the authoritative style.

Mothers and fathers tend to play different roles in their children's lives. For instance, a study by Videon reported that while relationships between adolescents and their fathers are more volatile, it nonetheless concluded that an adolescent's satisfaction with their relationship with their father had significant influence on the wellbeing of the child (Videon, 2005). And although this is gradually changing, mothers still are more likely to work less, do more caring, and be the primary carer in the early years, and if the parents' relationship ended.

Different parenting styles across the gender of the parent have also been suggested in the literature regarding Western populations. European American mothers have been more likely to endorse authoritative parenting, while fathers have been more likely to rate themselves higher in both authoritarian and permissive styles of parenting (Russell andAloa, 1998; Winsler, Madigan, andAquilino, 2005). 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.

Research on the role of gender in parenting in Asian cultures is quite limited. Someya, Uehara, Kadowaki, Tang, and Takahashi (2000) studied Japanese siblings, reporting that sons felt more parental rejection, indicative of the low levels of warmth seen in authoritarian parenting than daughters, who felt more parental warmth, which is indicative of authoritative parenting. The findings are similar to Lytton and Romney's (1991) meta-analysis of North American studies, indicating that the authoritarian style may be used with boys more than girls across cultures.

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 and 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, and 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. This pattern is similar to the findings seen in Western cultures, however, research examining culture and parent gender together in influencing parenting style in Asia has thus far been limited.

Many different types of child-rearing methods predict a child's delinquency. One of the most important dimensions of child-rearing is supervision or monitoring of children, discipline or parental reinforcement, warmth or coldness of emotional relationships, and parental involvement with children. However, these constructs are difficult to measure, and there is some evidence that results differ according to methods of measurement.

Parental supervision refers to the degree of monitoring by parents of the child's activities, and their degree of watchfulness or vigilance. Of all the child rearing methods, poor parental supervision is usually the strongest and most replicable predictor of offending (Farrington and Loeber, 1999; Smith and Stern, 1997). It typically predicts a doubled risk of delinquency. Many studies show that parents who do not know where their children are when they are out, and parents who let their children roam the streets unsupervised from an early age, tend to have delinquent children. For example, in the classic Cambridge-Somerville study in Boston, Joan McCord (1979) found that poor parental supervision in childhood was the best predictor of both violent and property crimes up to age 45.

Parental discipline refers to how parents react to a child's behavior. It is clear that harsh or punitive behavior (involving physical punishment) predicts a child's delinquency, as the review by Haapasalo and Pokela (1999) showed. In a follow-up study of nearly 700 Nottingham (UK) children, John and Elizabeth Newson (1989) found that physical punishment at ages 7 and 11 years predicted later convictions; 40 percent of offenders had been smacked or beaten at age 11 years, compared with 14 percent of non-offenders. In the Seattle Social Development Project, which is a follow-up of over 800 children from age 10 years to age 30 years, poor family management (poor supervision, inconsistently rules, harsh discipline) in adolescence predicted violence in young adulthood (Herrenkohl et al., 2000). In the Columbia County (NY) follow-up of over 850 children from age 8 years to age 46 years, Eron and friends (1991) reported that parental punishment at age 8 years predicted not only arrests for violence up to 30 years, but also the severity of the man's punishment of his child at age 30 years and his history of spouse assault.

Erratic or Inconsistent discipline also predicts delinquency (Weat and Farrington, 1973). This can involve either erratic discipline by one parent, sometimes turning a blind eye to one behavior and sometimes punishing it severely, or inconsistency between two parents, with one parent being tolerant or indulgent and the other being harshly punitive. It is not clear whether unusually lax discipline predicts delinquency, low parental reinforcement (not praising) of good behavior is also a predictor (Farrington and Loeber, 1999).

Cold, rejecting parents tend to have delinquent children, as Joan McCord (1979) found almost 30 years ago in the Cambridge-Somerville study in Boston. More recently, she concluded that parental warmth could act as a protective factor against the effects of physical punishment (McCord, 1997). Whereas 51 percent of boys with cold, physically punishing mothers were convicted in her study, only 21 percent of boys with warm, physically punishing mothers were convicted, similar to the 23 percent of boys with warm non-punitive mothers who were convicted. The father's warmth was also a protective factor against the father's physical punishment.

Low parental involvement in the child's activities predicts delinquency, as the Newson's found in their Nottingham Survey (Lewis, Newson, and Newson, 1982). In the Cambridge study, having a father who never joined in the boy's leisure activities doubled his risk of conviction (West and Farrington, 1973), and this was the most important predictor of persistence in offending after age 21 years, as opposed to desistance (Farrington and Hawkins, 1991). Similarly, poor parent-child communication predicted delinquency in the Pittsburg Youth Study (Farrington and Loeber, 1999), and low family cohesiveness was the most important predictor of violence in the Chicago Youth Development Study follow-up of over 350 boys (Gordon-Smith et al., 1996).

In psychology, there has been a great emphasis on parenting styles. In the Cambridge study it was found that having authoritarian parents was the second most important predictor (after hyperactivity/ poor concentration) of convictions for violence (Farrington,1994). Also having Authoritarian parents was the most important childhood risk factor that discriminated between violent offenders and frequently convicted non-violent offenders (Farrington, 1991).

Most explanations of the link between child-rearing methods and delinquency focus on social learning or attachment theories. Social learning theories suggest that children's behavior depends on parental rewards and punishments and on the models of behavior that parents represent (Patterson, 1995). Children will tend to become delinquent if parents do not respond consistently and contingently to their anti-social behavior and if parents behave in an anti-social manner.Attachment theory was inspired by the work of John Bowlby and suggests that children who are not emotionally attached to warm, loving, and law-abiding parents will tend to become

delinquent (Carbon and Sroute, 1995).The sociological equivalent of attachment theory is social bonding theory, which suggests that delinquency depends on the strengths or weakness of a child's bond to society (Catalano et al., 2005).

Regarding how parental factors have different effects on boys and girls, there is a well-documented literature addressing gender differences in child rearing experiences. In particular, boys are more likely to receive physical punishment from parents (Smith and Brooks – Gunn, 1997). However, in their extensive review of gender differences in anti-social behavior, Moffitt and others (2001) concluded that boys were more anti-social essentially because they were exposed to more risk factors or a higher level of risk.

In the Pittsburg Youth Study, good supervision (compared with average levels) predicted non-delinquency, just as poor supervision (compared with average levels) predicted delinquency (Stouthamer-Loeber et al., 1993)

Several researchers have concluded that socio-economic factors have an effect on offending through their effect on family factors and parenting (Stern and Smith, 1995). In the Pittsburgh Youth Study, it was proposed that socio-economic and neighborhood factors (e.g. poor housing) influenced family factors (e.g. lack of guilt), which in turn influenced offending (Loeber et al., 1998a, p.10).

Two longitudinal studies have shown that earlier paternal supportive parenting predicts more pro-social behavior within sibling (Volling and Belsky, 1992) and father-child relationships (Eberly and Montemayor, 1999). Focusing on emotion socialization, Roberts (1999) found that boys' pro-social behavior toward peers decreased over 3 years when fathers were more suppressing of their preschool-age sons' emotional expressiveness.

Conversely, Hastings, Rubin, and DeRose (2005) did not find any associations between fathers' self-reported authoritarian, authoritative or protective parenting of toddlers and the children's observed pro-social responses to mothers and experimenters 2 years later. Thus, the limited set of longitudinal analyses involving fathers suggests that the lasting influences of paternal socialization may be more limited than has been documented for mothers. Additional research on fathers certainly is warranted.

Longitudinal studies support the suggestion that parenting styles foster children's pro-social development over time, but not always in the straightforward manner researchers have expected. In a study predicting pro-social behavior at 4 years from mother and child characteristics at 2 years, children were observed interacting with a researcher and their mother on one day and with peers but without their mother present on another day. Earlier maternal authoritative style predicted more pro-social responses to a researcher for girls who had been less inhibited toddlers (Hastings, Rubin, and DeRose, 2005). For girls who had been more inhibited, early maternal authoritarianism predicted more pro-social responses to the researcher but fewer pro-social responses to peers (Hastings, Rubin, Mielcarek, and Kennedy, 2002).

In a study of the contributions of parenting styles to adolescents' pro-social development, youths perceived that the extent to which they and their parents valued being kind, caring, and fair corresponded more closely when they saw their parents as more authoritative (Pratt, Hunsberger, Pancer, and Alisat, 2003). This harkens to the argument of Grusec and Goodnow (1994) that central to effective internalization is the parent's generation of a relationship in which the child is likely to be receptive to the parent's socialization message. It also suggests, though, that authoritative parents must themselves hold pro-social values, or subscribe to an "ethic of care," in order for their children to internalize such an orientation.

Existing studies generally suggest that high levels of parental knowledge are associated with positive child outcomes during adolescence, such as relationship harmony and overall life satisfaction (Stewart et al. 2000) and reduced problem behaviors in adolescents, including delinquency and antisocial behavior (Laird, Pettit, Bates, et al. 2003; Willoughby and Hamza2011). However, studies that investigate parental knowledge as the predictor of empathic and pro-social development are less common, although a few studies support the conclusion that parental knowledge promotes pro-social behavior among youth (Kerr et al. 2003).

Moral socialization theorists have postulated that there might be gender differences in pro-social behaviors, particularly during adolescence (Eisenberg and Fabes, 1998; Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974). Such differences might be due to gender intensification and differential socialization pressures experienced by boys and girls during adolescence (Fabes et al., 1999). Consistent with those notions, scholars have

reported moderately strong gender differences in pro-social behaviors such that adolescent girls exhibit higher levels of pro-social traits and behaviors than do adolescent boys (Carlo, Koller, Eisenberg, Da Silva, and Frohlich, 1996; Eisenberg et al., 1991).

Given prior research showing that adolescent girls tend to have fewer and more intimate relationships with peers than adolescent boys (Crockett, Losoff, and Petersen, 1984; Rice and Mulkeen, 1995) and that parents have more open communication and more involvement with girls and monitor them more closely than boys (Carlo et al., 1999; Lefkowitz, Boone, Sigman, and Kit-fong Au, 2002; Richards, Miller, O'Donnell, Wasserman, and Colder, 2004), the relations between quality of peer and parent relationships and pro-social behaviors might be different for adolescent boys and girls. However, no studies exist that directly examine this issue. Therefore, we explored the relations between parenting styles and pro-social behaviors separately for male and female.

The current study aimed to fill the research gap by exploring how different parenting styles are associated with pro-social and anti-social behavior in young adults. By doing so, this study has the potential to make an implicit connection between children's positive functioning and negative behaviors during their young adulthood. Based on some evidence that adolescents' increased empathy may reduce their problem behaviors (McMahon and Washburn 2003), the role of parental behaviors on adolescents' pro-social development may provide some insight about how parents might help prevent their adolescents' negative behavioral outcomes as well.

One of the major recent findings of social psychology has been the discovery of more helpful behavior in rural versus urban settings (Yousif and Korte, 1995). Christensen and Fierst (1998) suggest that a greater pro-social response is likely in open, rural communities and a lower response in dense, urban communities. Furthermore, researchers have demonstrated that population density, not size is the greatest predictor of helping behavior (Levine, Martines, Brase, and Sorenson, 1994). Specifically, it has been proposed that urban unhelpfulness is restricted to spontaneous and informal types of helping (Amato, 1983) as well as limited to interactions with only neighbors and strangers (Korte, 1980).

The importance of urbanization – accompanied by socioeconomic, socio-demographic, familial, and socio-cultural differences – for helping is a relatively well studied line of research. In 1975, Korte and Kerr observed that strangers were being helped more often in rural (small towns around Massachusetts) than urban environments (Boston). This finding was extended by House and Wolf (1978) who analyzed the refusal rates of survey participation in representative samples of the United States. Again, refusal rates were higher in large cities than in small towns.

To examine whether similar urban-rural differences also occur in more traditional, and collectivistic contexts, Korte and Ayvalioglu (1981) examined helping within Turkey. Again, strangers were less often helped in the big cities than in the small towns and in the squatter settlements. Moreover, helping rates in the suburbs were found to be lowest.

Bufford, Paloutzian and Ellison (1991) describe spiritual well-being (SWB) as a combination of religious well-being (RWB), which is defined as a person's relationship to God, and existential well-being (EWB), which is defined as a person's relationship to the world and includes a sense of meaning, satisfaction, and purpose in life. Paloutzian (1982) contends that spiritual well-being and its component parts, religious well-being and existential well-being, are integral to a person's perception of the quality of life.

The relationship between gender and spirituality is one of great interest. Many scholars grasp to understand this interaction. Most agree that women tend to be more religious than men (Hammermeister, Flint, El-Alayli, Ridnour, and Peterson, 2005). However, this could be because of the way religion is defined on typical scales. Scholars have explored several reasons for the difference between women and men in religion, including biology, emotionality, socialization and gender roles. Bryant (2007) defined spirituality as: the process of seeking personal authenticity, genuineness, and wholeness; transcending one’s current locus of centricity (i.e., recognizing concerns beyond oneself); developing a greater connectedness to self and others through relationships and community; deriving meaning, purpose, and direction in life; and openness to exploring a relationship with a higher power or powers that transcend human existence and human knowing. (p. 835).

Spirituality is a separate concept from religiosity, although the two may be intertwined in specific situations. In his study, Bryant (2007) administered the 2000 Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) Freshman Survey to representative samples of incoming freshman at 434 colleges and universities. The results of this study indicated that women scored higher than men in religiosity (Bryant, 2007). However, the gap between women and men on the construct of religious practice was smaller than it was on the construct of religious belief. Hammermeister, Flint, El-Alayli, Ridnour, and Peterson (2005) reached similar findings concerning gender and spirituality. In addition to demographic questions and 176 questions concerning physical health, the survey included the Spiritual Well-Being Scale. Females scored higher males on all three spiritual or religious health measures.

Research has consistently shown positive correlations between spirituality and pro-social behavior. Rossano (2007) claimed that the belief in supernatural forces in life (Gods, ancestors, spirits) influenced our predecessors to work together and behave more socially responsibly than they would have otherwise. It is thought that if one believes his or her behavior is being monitored by a supernatural force, then selfishness will be reduced and pro-social behavior will be increased.

This finding coincides with Batson (1983) who theorized that humans are biologically programmed to be altruistic toward their kin, but that social forces such as religious beliefs are necessary in order for humans to extend this altruism outside of their kinship circle. Further, he said that humans act altruistically towards their own kin to ensure the survival of their genes, but acting altruistically towards those who are biologically unrelated produces no such survival benefit. Therefore, social influences such as religion provide reason for humans to act altruistically towards others in society.

A study by Thompson and Remmes (2002) suggests that men and women differ in the way their spirituality is perceived and expressed. Gender differences in spirituality are not limited to adults but have been found to exist amongst adolescents as well. According to the National Longitudinal Survey of Adolescent Health (1994), among youth who profess no religion, 55% are male and 45% are female. Six percent

more females than males attend church regularly. Five percent more males than females do not attend church at all. Among 12th graders, 14% more males than females have never been involved in a religious youth group. 28% of 12thgrade girls have been involved in a religious youth group all throughout high school, while only 22% of 12th grade boys can say the same.

Co-relational research has highlighted the role of familial variables, such as, family structure, parenting style, parental emotional and social support, and family conflict, as crucial in the attainment of adolescent **Life Satisfaction (LS)**. Suldo and Huebner (2004b) found that all three dimensions of the authoritative parenting style: social support-involvement, strictness-supervision, and psychological autonomy granting were positively related to LS among adolescents, with perceived parental social support having the strongest correlation.

In a related study, Ortman (1988) found that adolescents' feelings of social control and responsibility were positively related to LS among a group of student's who reported having positive relationships with supportive parents. Studies of adolescent's in China have revealed relationships between parenting style and adolescent LS similar found in the West. For example, Leung et al. (2004) found that perceived maternal concern was positively related to academic competence and that both were significant in predicting concurrent and longitudinal LS.

Extensive literature exists on the negative influence of disruptive family events on adolescent well-being (McFarlane et al. 1995). For example, in a series of studies, Shek (1997a–c, 1998b, 2002a, b) has demonstrated negative correlations exist between LS and both parental and child indicators of parent-child conflict and poor family functioning among Chinese adolescents and their parents.

Further, the data have generally indicated that increased parent-adolescent conflict and poor family functioning is related to increased mental health problems, problem behavior, poorer academic performance, delinquent behavior, and substance abuse (Shek1997a–c, 2002a, b). Moreover, Shek (1999a–c, 2002c) has demonstrated that positively perceived parental qualities, parental styles, parental characteristics, and dyadic functioning predict positive adolescent LS; findings also suggested that

paternal characteristics were more important than maternal characteristics in predicting LS in both males and females (Shek2005d).

Adolescent LS has also been shown to be independently related to the extent of father, or father figure, involvement (Flouri and Buchanan 2002; Zimmerman et al. 1995). Past research has shown that fathers make a unique contribution to the happiness, LS, and psychological distress of their children (Amato 1994). Further, various studies have shown that closeness to, involvement of, and nurturance from fathers is associated with psychological adjustment, reduced antisocial behavior, intellectual development, social competence, and internal locus of control (LOC) among many other positive outcomes (Amato 1994, Flouri and Buchanan 2002; Zimmerman et al. 1995). For example, Wenk et al. (1994) demonstrated that for both girls and boys feeling close to their father had a significant positive effect on LS. These results compare to those reported from a national survey of American youth where intrinsic support was found to be not only the most predictive facet of adolescent LS, but also that both perceived maternal and paternal support were equally important in predicting LS of adolescent males and females (Vilhjalmsson, 1994; Young et al., 1995).

The results of a study by Valois and friends (2001) have demonstrated that LS is negatively associated with many adolescent risk behaviors, including: physical fighting, fighting requiring medical treatment, carrying a gun, carrying a weapon, and carrying a weapon at school. Similarly, Mac-Donald et al. (2005) reported that students with increased LS were less likely to have carried a weapon in general, or on school property during the past 30 days, or carried a gun or reported engaging in physical fights during the preceding 12 months. Moreover, students in the bottom quartile of LS, but in the top quartile of cigarette smoking and sexual promiscuity, were found to report higher involvement in violent behavior compared to those reporting higher LS and not participating in such risk-taking behaviors.

Research has also shown that pro-social behavior is positively correlated with satisfaction with life. Hunter and Lin (1981) found that retirees over the age of 65 who volunteered were more satisfied with life, and were less depressed and had low anxiety. This effect has been shown among other age groups as well. Martin and

Huebner (2007) found that a higher rate of pro-social interactions was linked to greater life satisfaction and pro-social acts for middle school students.

Several studies also reveal that being exposed to pro-social 'activities' and 'attitude' reduces anti-social behavior and exposure to religious and spiritual activities is a potential inhibitor of anti-social behavior (Bandura et al, 2003). Evidence also exists that frequency of church attendance is inversely related to a variety of anti-social behavior, including drug use, skipping schools, fighting and violent and non-violent crime (Jang and Johnson, 2001).

Bonner, Koven and Patrick (2003) also found that both religiosity and general spirituality are positively correlated with pro-social behavior. They suggested that this was because people's spiritual or religious beliefs may help them feel more personally fulfilled and worthy, leading them to participate in activities that heighten their levels of self-actualization, including pro-social behavior. According to them, religiosity involves organizational behaviors such as participation in religious services. It also involves non-organizational elements such as prayer and religious reading. Spirituality, in comparison, is more general and subjective, and may involve feelings of closeness to a higher power, harmony with others, and a sense of coherence.

Lay (1986) conceived procrastination as a frequent failure at doing what ought to be done to reach goals. Ellis and Knaus (2002) perceive procrastination as the desire to avoid an activity, the promise to get it late, and the use of excuse making to justify the delay and avoid blame. Popoola (2005) considered procrastination as a dispositional trait which has cognitive, behavioural and emotional components. Popoola (2005) describes the procrastinator as someone who knows what he wants to do in some sense, can do it, is trying to do it, yet doesn't do it. Solomon and Rothblum (1984) posited that people tend to avoid tasks which they find unpleasant and engaged in activities which are more rewarding, especially with short term over long term gain. Ferrari and Emmons (1995) found that procrastinator have low self esteem and delay task completion because they believe they lack the ability to achieve a task successively.

Procrastination also appears to be a troubling phenomenon because people most strongly characterize it as being bad, harmful, and foolish (Briody, 1980), and over 95% of procrastinators wish to reduce it (O'Brien, 2002). Justifying this viewpoint, several studies have linked procrastination to individual performance as the procrastinator performing more poorly overall (Beswick, Rothblum and Mann, 1988; Steel, Brothen and Wambach, 2001; Wesley, 1994), and to individual well-being that the procrastinator being more miserable in the long term (Knaus, 1973; Lay and Schouwenburg, 1993; Tice and Baumeister, 1997).

In view of the theoretical and methodological foundations presented, the present study shall attempt to highlight the impact of parenting on the pro-social and anti-social characteristics and its concomitant relation to Spiritual Wellbeing (religious and existential wellbeing) of young Mizo adults. Such findings may throw light or contribute to a better understanding of the Mizo parenting styles and its effects with far reaching consequences on the wellbeing of its population. This study is, therefore, evolved with the following specific set of objectives:

OBJECTIVES:

1) To examine the role of 'ecology', 'gender' and 'ecology and gender interaction' in explaining the behavioral constructs as evinced by the psychological measures employed in the study.

2) To elucidate different types of perceived parenting styles, pro-social characteristics, anti-social behavior (delinquency), procrastinating characteristics, spiritual wellbeing (religious and existential wellbeing) and life satisfaction amongst the comparison groups of the study.

3) To illustrate the relationship between perceived parenting styles with pro-social and anti-social characteristics (delinquency), procrastination, and spiritual wellbeing (religious and existential wellbeing) and life satisfaction.

HYPOTHESIS:

In line with the aforementioned objectives the following hypotheses have been formulated:

1) It is expected that there will be 'Gender' (Male and Female) differences on the psychological measures.(Parenting styles, Delinquency, Pro-social personality, Anti-social behavior, Spiritual Wellbeing, Satisfaction with life and Procrastination)

2) It is expected that there will be 'Ecological' (Urban and Rural) differences on the psychological measures.(Parenting styles, Delinquency, Pro-social personality, Anti-social behavior, Spiritual Wellbeing, Satisfaction with life and Procrastination)

3) It is expected that interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' will be present on the psychological variables.

4) It is expected that female samples may be higher on the behavioral measures such as Pro-social characteristics, Spiritual Wellbeing and Satisfaction with life and lower in anti-social (delinquency) behavioral measures than male samples.

5) It is expected that parenting styles will predict Anti-Social behavior and Pro-Social behavior, Spiritual Wellbeing, Satisfaction with Life and Procrastination differently.

6) It is expected that Anti-Social behavior (delinquency) will be observed more in urban areas as compared to rural areas and that male will be higher in Anti-Social behavior (delinquency) than female.

The methodology for the present study is presented in the next chapter, **CHAPTER-III: METHODS AND PROCEDURE.**

Sample:

This study uses a multi stage random sampling method. Samples of 600 young adults were taken for the study, their age ranges from 19 - 30 years. There were 300 males and 300 females in the sample (150 rural and 150 urban samples in each category). The selection of participant was done in a multi-stage in such a way that in the first stage the total population of interest is divided into 8 cluster i.e., 8 districts of Mizoram. The cluster is then further divided into second stage by selecting out 2 districts i.e., Aizawl District and Serchhip District. Third stage is dividing each regional cluster by RD block i.e., Tlangnuam RD Block from Aizawl District and Serchhip RD Block from Serchhip District. Last stage is dividing these regional clusters by neighborhood i.e., 10 neighborhood within the Tlangnuam Block and 10 villages or neighborhood from the Serchhip RD Block and then each individual are selected by random sampling.

800 samples were firstly selected following the objectives of the study; 400 samples from rural and 400 samples from urban area, in which 400 were males and 400, were females. The samples selected were again cross checked with the information provided by the demographic profiles of each participant. At the final count, **600** samples comprises of 300 rural and 300 urban samples, in which 150 samples were male and 150 samples were females whom were found true representative for the present study. The demographic profile was prepared by the researcher that includes information concerning gender, age, marital status, ecology, educational level and profession. The selected participants were carefully examined to determine that the participants are within the sapling frame to meet the objectives of the study.

Design of the study:

A Correlation Research Design was employed to elucidate the inter relationships between four groups on pro-social and anti-social characteristics (delinquency) and Spiritual Well being with perceived Parenting Styles. Thus, antecedents and consequence relationships are considered for all the participants

(N=600), males (n=300) and females (n=300), and the rural (n=150) and urban (n=150) separately to achieve the objective of the study.

The 'Gender' and 'Ecology' (Rural/Urban) variable was included as an ancillary variable that depicts a 2 x 2 factorial designs [2 Ecology (rural and urban) x 2 Gender (male and female)] was employed to elucidate the independent and interaction effect of the main design on dependent variables.

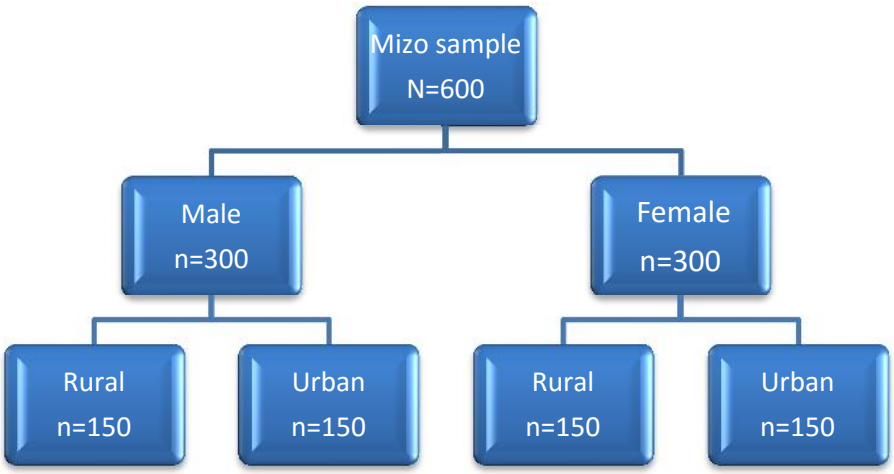


Figure -1:- Sample Characteristic Diagram of the Proposed Study.

Procedure:

The identification and selection of the samples was done following multi-stage random sampling procedure. The researcher prepared demographic profile to evince the background information of the participants that included: name, father/ mother's name, date of birth, monthly income, sex, age, permanent address, etc. All selected participants were cross checked with the information collected with the demographic profile of the participants. The selected psychological measures: (i) Alabama Parenting Questionnaire APQ; Frick, 1991), (ii) The Self-Reported Delinquency Measure(SRD; Elliot and Ageton, 1980), Spiritual Wellbeing Scale (SWBS; Paloutzian and Ellison, 1982), Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, Griffin, 1985), The Pro-social Personality Battery (Penner, L.A, 2002), 16-item Tuckman Procrastination Scale (Tuckman, 1990) were originally in English.

Translation of the original scales was carried out using forward/backward translation method by two translators. The English version was pre-tested on a small sample (approximately five individuals) in order to trace unclear parts of the questions and to determine the final assessment of the translation.

After obtaining their necessary consent, the participants of the study were thoroughly informed of the purpose of the research. After rapport and careful explanations of instructions for completing the questionnaires, participants were anonymously required to fill out the booklet including the background demographic sheets with assured confidentiality so as to minimize the potential influence of social desirability response sets. Each testing session lasted for approximately one hour.

The researcher makes sure that the respondents provided honest and independent answers to the questions or not. The responses were then screened for missing items and outliners prior to scoring and tabulation to enable further statistical analysis. All participants were duly informed of the protection of their privacy and the confidentiality of their results. They were also informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any time.

Psychological measures:

1) Demographic profile: In order to complete this study, a demographic data-series of items was created. This series of items includes information concerning gender, age, marital status, ecology, educational level and profession.

2) Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ; Frick, 1991): The APQ consists of 42 items which can be used to measure parenting practices across five domains: (i) parental involvement, (ii) positive parenting, (iii) poor monitoring/supervision, (iv) inconsistent discipline, and (v) corporal punishment. Items assessing the first two constructs are worded in the positive direction (indicating more positive parenting) and items assessing the latter three constructs are worded in the negative direction. The APQ also includes 7 additional items that measure specific discipline practices (e.g., “Your parents take away a privilege or money from you as a punishment”) other than corporal punishment. The inclusion of these items was important so that corporal punishment items were not asked in isolation of other

forms of discipline, which could place a negative bias toward these items. Ratings of the items are made on a 5-point scale (never, almost never, sometimes, often, always).

3) **The Self-Reported Delinquency Measure (SRD; Elliot and Ageton, 1980):** This is a 47 item measure used to assess self-reported involvement in delinquency. It has six scales assessing different types of delinquent acts. Time required for completion of this measure is approximately 20 minutes.

The SRD measure gathers information on the frequency of six types of delinquency which might have been committed over the past 12 months : (i) crime against other person (9 items) such as aggravated assault, robbery ; (ii) crime against property (14 items) such as fraud, vandalism; (iii) illegal service crimes (4 items) such as prostitution, buying alcohol for a minor; (iv) public disorder (8 items) such as carrying a concealed weapon, disorderly conduct; (v) status offenses (5 items) such as truancy, alcohol use, and (vi) hard drug use (5 items) such as using amphetamines or heroin. The 47 items use an 8-piont Likert scale response format, minimum total score is 47 and a maximum total is 360 (Elliot and Ageton, 1980), with a higher number representing high delinquency. This measure has high test-retest reliability and the data it produces compare favorably with interview data. (Hindelang, Hirschi and Weis, 1981).

3) Spiritual Wellbeing Scale (SWBS; Paloutzian and Ellison, 1982): The SWBS is a general indicator of the subjective state of wellbeing. It provides the overall measure of the perceived spiritual quality of life, as understood in two senses- (i) Religious Wellbeing (RWB) and (ii) Existential Wellbeing (EWB) (Moberg, 1979; Moberg and Brusek, 1978). In addition to the spiritual wellbeing scales total scores providing an overall measures of one's SWB, RWB subscales provides a self assessment of one's wellbeing in a religious sense, while the EWB subscales gives a self assessment of one's sense of life purpose and life satisfaction.

This scale has 20 items: ten odd numbered items assess RWB and contain the word 'God'. Another ten even numbered items assess EWB and have no religious connotation; these statements asked about such things as life satisfaction and direction. Each item is answered on a 6-point Likert scale, and is scored from 1 to 6, with a higher number representing greater well-being. Negatively worded items are reversed scored. Summing up the ten odd numbered items compute the RWB subscale

score; summing up the ten even numbered items compute the EWB subscale scores. The overall SWB score is computed by summing responses to all twenty items.

4) Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, Griffin, 1985): The SWLS is a 5-item measure that was used to evaluate each participant's global cognitive judgment of satisfaction with his or her life (e.g. "In most ways my life is close to ideal" and "The condition of my life is excellent"). Participants responded to each questions of the SWLS using a 7-point Likert-type scale, minimum score is 5 and maximum score is 35, and with a higher number indicates high satisfaction with life.

5) The Pro-social Personality Battery (Penner, L.A, 2002): This Battery consists of 30-items. This test produce scores on seven factors: (i) social responsibility, (ii) empathic concern, (iii) perspective taking, (iv) mutual moral reasoning, (v) other-oriented reasoning, (vi) personal distress, and (vii) self-reported altruism. According to Penner, these factors had reliabilities above .70. All items associated with the helpfulness factor are rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale, minimum score is 30 and maximum score is 150, with a high score indicating high pro-social characters.

6) 16-item Tuckman Procrastination Scale (Tuckman, 1990): The 16-item Tuckman Procrastination Scale is to measure procrastination tendency. Procrastination tendency was measured as overall total score, with a score range of 16 to 80, reliability (Cronbach α's) was .90.

Statistical Analyses:

Keeping in view the problems of the study, the methodological refinements were done in a step-wise manner. Firstly, the preliminary psychometric analyses of the psychological measures on the sample equated and/or matched on the demographic variables included the statistical analyses of psychometric adequacy including: item-total coefficient of correlation, Cronbach alpha and split-half reliability coefficient and inter-scale relationships as the psychological reliability and validity of their proven psychometric adequacy cannot be assumed to carry their psychometric properties when transported and applied in any other cultural setting.

The analyses of the preliminary psychometric analyses subscribes to the admonition of researchers in culture specific and cross-cultural studies: that scale constructed and validated for measurement of theoretical construct in a given population when taken to another cultural milieu may not be treated as reliable and valid unless specific checks are made (Berry, 1974; Witkin, et al., 1975); and that cultural researches employing the derived-etic approach assume that each group that occupies an ecological niche is equivalent to that of the other and the study is free of systematic bias (Pootinga, 1989).

Secondly, correlation design between the four groups (Male-Urban, Female-Urban, Male-Rural and Female-rural), was employed with appropriate Post-hoc mean comparison to highlight the independent and interaction effects of the independent variables on the dependent measures. The analyses incorporated preliminary check of the assumptions underlying the analysis of variance for the interpretability of the finding. The analyses also included the ANOVA with repeated measure to account for the introspective and retrospective responses.

Thirdly, multiple regression analyses were employed for prediction, clarity and precision.

The responses of the subjects were computerized and analyzed employing statistical software by following the objectives set forth for this study. The overall analyses of results are presented and discussed in the following chapter, **CHAPTER –IV: RESULTS.**

The present study is entitled “Pro-social and Anti-social Characteristics, and Spiritual Wellbeing of Young adults in Mizoram in relation to Perceived Parenting Styles”. The analysis of the data is done to get an easy, understandable and meaningful representation of the data of the study, and have been done using a stepwise analysis as under.

A multistage random sampling method, (in which the samples were drawn randomly from all the 8 districts, followed by sub-divisions within the district, then from the village or towns within the sub-division, from the list of citizens of the selected village or town sample) with due care for equal representation of gender and ecology variables. Accordingly, 600 samples, ages ranging between 19-30 years of age, among young adults (Santrock, 2007) of Mizo samples were selected for the present study. Thus, 300 males and 300 females, and also equal number of participants were selected from the ‘Rural’ and ‘Urban’ areas, referred to as the ‘Ecology’ variable. The background information such as educational qualification, family structure, single/dual parenting, socioeconomic status, religious affiliation was also considered to equate or matched the participants along the dimensions of ‘Gender’ and ‘Ecology’.

Firstly, the descriptive statistics were computed including the mean, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, reliability, linearity of the Scales/Subscales in checking the normal distribution of scores for checking data structure to decide appropriate statistics on selected behavioural measures such as : (1) Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ; Frick, 1991) with each five domains namely (i) Parental Involvement (PI), (ii) Positive Parenting (PP), (iii) Inconsistent Discipline (ID), (iv) Corporal Punishment(CP) and (v) Poor Monitoring/Supervision (PM) ; (2) The Self-Reported Delinquency Measure (SRD; Elliot & Ageton, 1980); (3) Spiritual Wellbeing Scale (SWBS; Paloutzian and Ellison, 1982): with its two subscales - (i) Religious Wellbeing (RWB) and (ii) Existential Wellbeing (EWB) (Moberg, 1979; Moberg and Brusek, 1978); (4) Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, Griffin, 1985); (5) The Pro-social Personality Battery (PSB) (Penner, L.A, 2002) with its seven subscales (i) Social Responsibility, (ii) Empathic concern (EC), (iii) Perspective Taking (PT) (iv) Mutual Moral Reasoning (R), (v) Other-Oriented

Reasoning (R), (vi) Personal Distress (PD), and (vii) Self-Reported Altruism(SRA); and (6) 16-item Tuckman Procrastination Scale (TPS) (Tuckman, 1990) .

Secondly, Pearson's Bivariate Correlation on scales/subscales of the behavioral measures for the whole samples were calculated to indicate significant relationship of variables for further analysis in predicting cause and effect among variables.

Thirdly, 2 X 2 ANOVA with Post-hoc multiple mean comparison (Scheffe) was employed to illustrate the independent and interaction effect of the independent variables on selected dependent variables for the whole samples.

Finally, multiple regression analysis was employed to determine prediction (R^2), Multi-colinearity indices of Durbin–Watson statistic, Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) were employed. This was done to detect the presence of autocorrelation in the residuals (prediction errors) to make conclusion of the cause and effect relationship.

In view of the foregoing objectives and hypothesis set forth which was presented under Statement of the Problem (Chapter –II), the outcome of the study was to highlight the "Pro-social and anti social characteristics and spiritual wellbeing of young adults in relation to perceived parenting styles" in the target population. The analyses of the results were done following step wise as follows:

Psychometric properties of the behavioral measures:

The parametric statistical analyses of Descriptive Statistics, Cronbach Alpha and Split Half Reliability, normality, linearity, additivity and homogeneity were checked with an objective to justify the appropriate statistical treatment for further analyses of the raw data; to work out any requirement of appropriate transformation of the raw data; missing responses, outliers and those responses outside the sampling frame as well as deviated responses from the distributed data which were excluded for statistical analyses were performed for simple and clear presentation of the results, and the descriptive statistics of the Scales/Subscales of the behavioral measures are presented in Table-1 to 3.

The results (Table -1) highlighted the Mean, Mean SD, Mean SE , Skewness, Skewness SE, Kurtosis, Kurtosis SE of the scales/subscales of : (1) Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ; Frick, 1991); **(**2) The Self-Reported Delinquency Measure (SRD; Elliot & Ageton, 1980); (3) Spiritual Wellbeing Scale (SWBS; Paloutzian and Ellison, 1982): with its two subscales - (i) Religious Wellbeing (RWB) and (ii) Existential Wellbeing (EWB) (Moberg, 1979; Moberg and Brusek, 1978); (4) Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, Griffin, 1985); (5) The Pro-social Personality Battery (Penner, L.A, 2002 and (6) 16-item Tuckman Procrastination Scale (Tuckman, 1990) over the two levels of analyses. The results are given together/compiled in Table- 3 for the four comparison groups. Figure –I shows the mean difference of the subscales of all the APQ for Urban and Rural samples.

Figure -1: Showing interaction effects of 'Ecology' and 'Gender' on **Parental Involvement** for the whole samples.

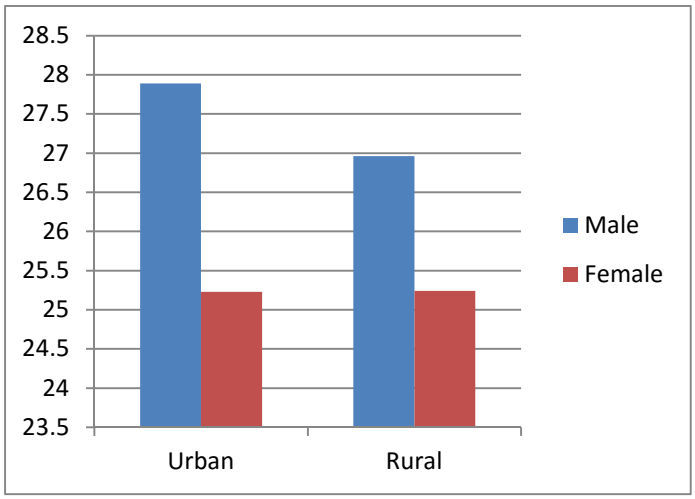


Figure -2: Showing interaction effects of 'Ecology' and 'Gender' on **Positive Parenting** for the whole samples.

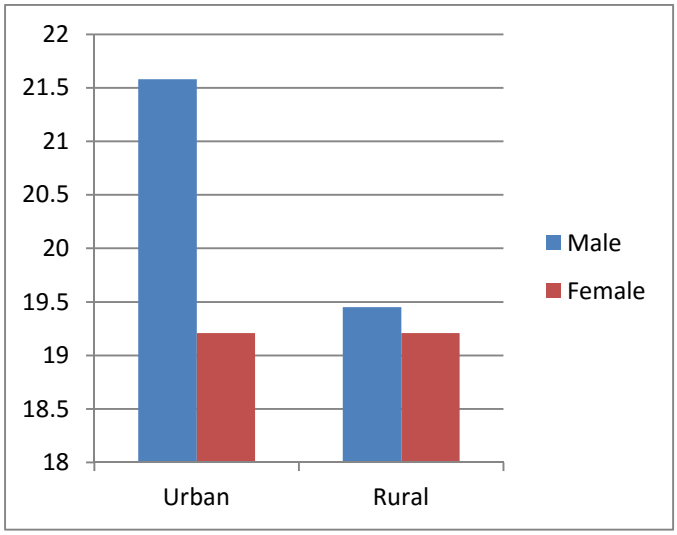


Figure - 3: Showing interaction effects of ‘Ecology’ and ‘Gender’ on **Inconsistent Discipline** for the whole samples.

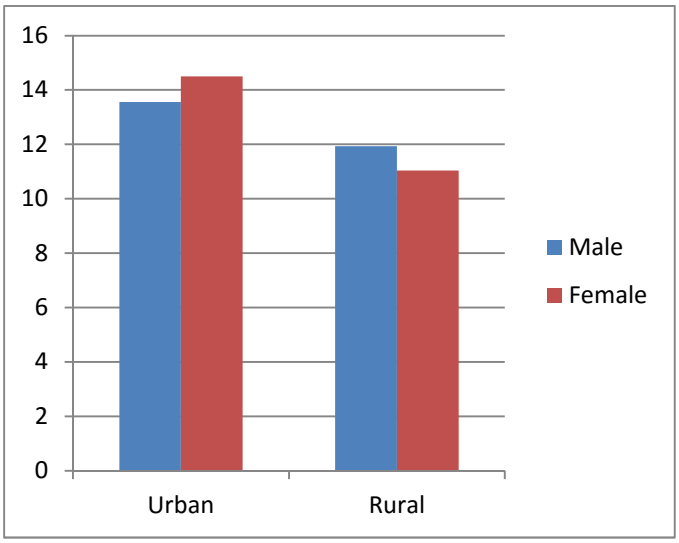


Figure - 4: Showing interaction effects of ‘Ecology’ and ‘Gender’ on **Corporal Punishment** for the whole samples.

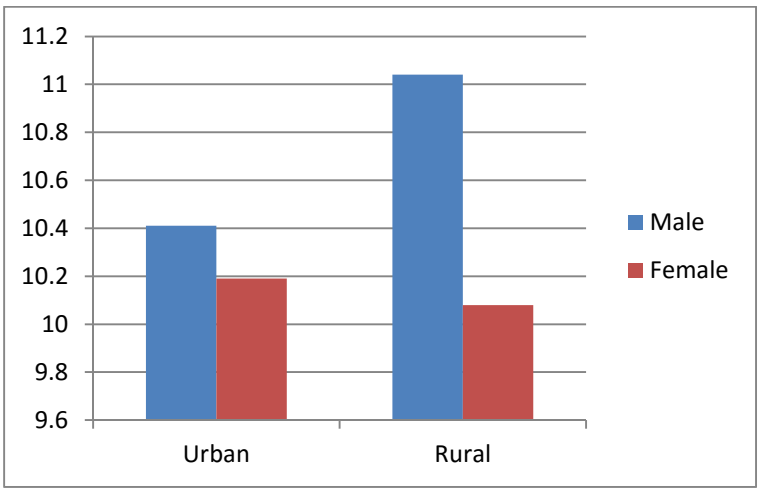


Figure - 5: Showing interaction effects of 'Ecology' and 'Gender' on **Poor monitoring** for the whole samples.

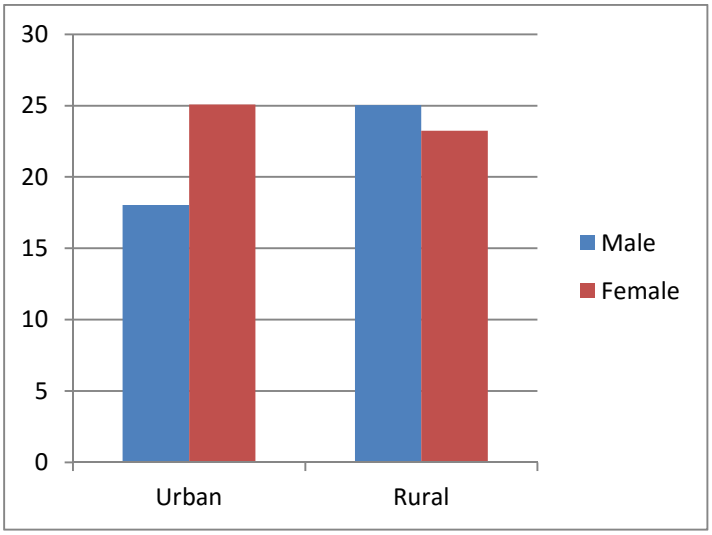


Figure - 6: Showing interaction effects of 'Ecology' and 'Gender' on **Self Report Delinquency** for the whole samples.

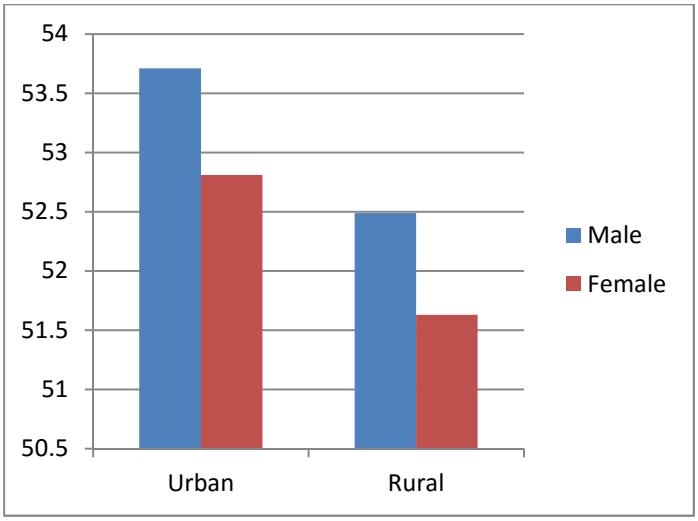


Figure - 7: Showing interaction effects of ‘Ecology’ and ‘Gender’ on **Religious Wellbeing** for the whole samples.

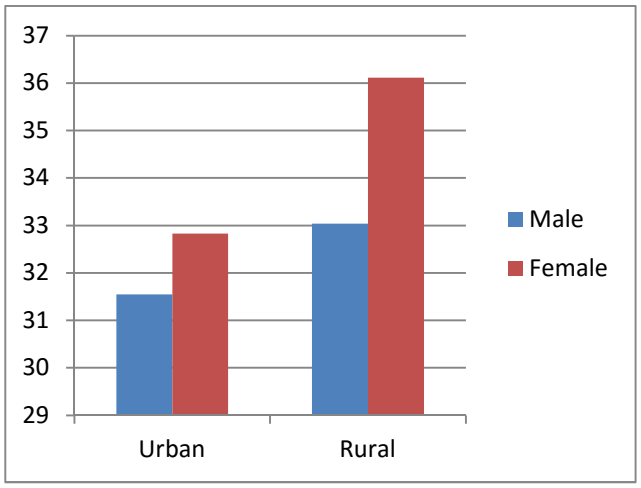


Figure - 8: Showing interaction effects of ‘Ecology’ and ‘Gender’ on **Existential Wellbeing** for the whole samples.

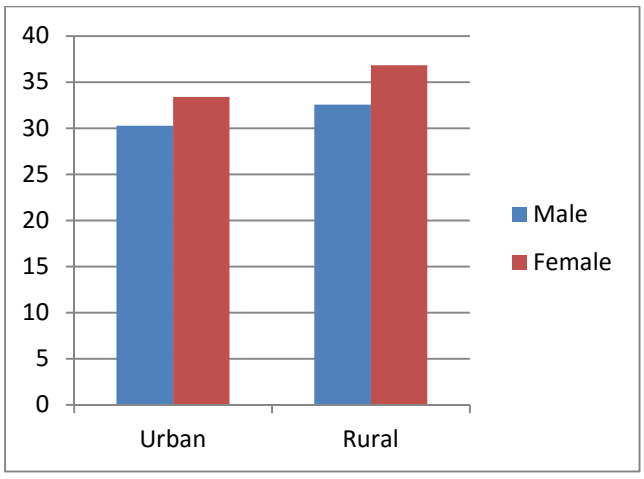


Figure - 9: Showing interaction effects of 'Ecology' and 'Gender' on **Satisfaction with Life Scale** for the whole samples.

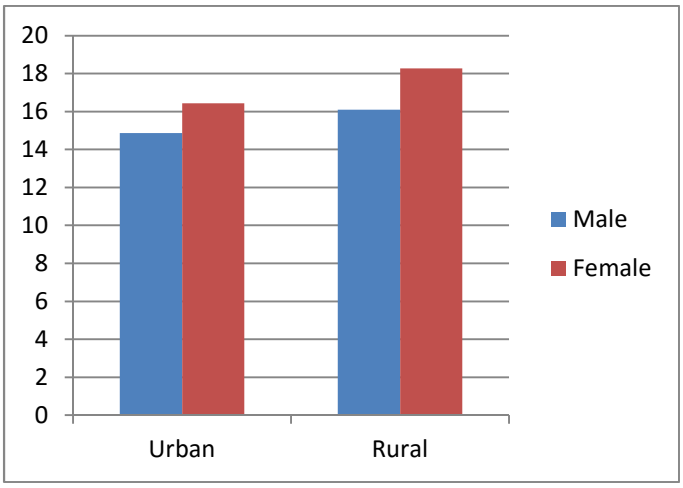


Figure - 10: Showing interaction effects of 'Ecology' and 'Gender' on **Social Responsibility** for the whole samples.

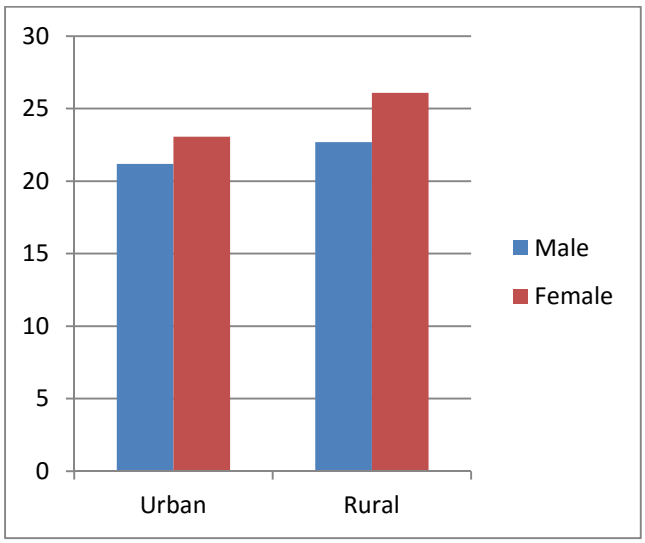


Figure - 11: Showing interaction effects of ‘Ecology’ and ‘Gender’ on **Empathetic Concern** for the whole samples.

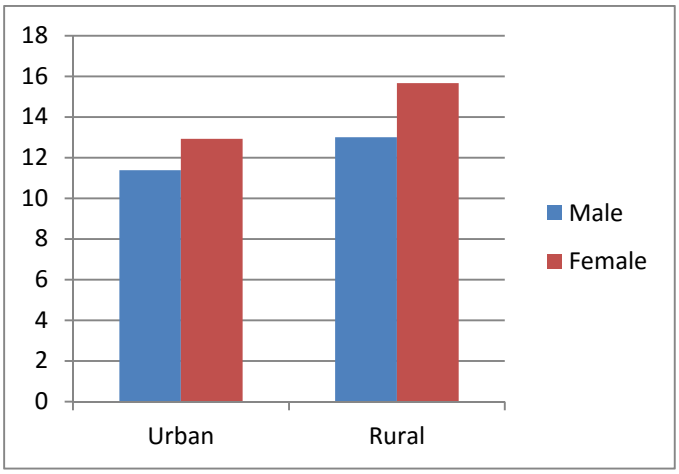


Figure - 12: Showing interaction effects of ‘Ecology’ and ‘Gender’ on **Perspective Taking** for the whole samples.

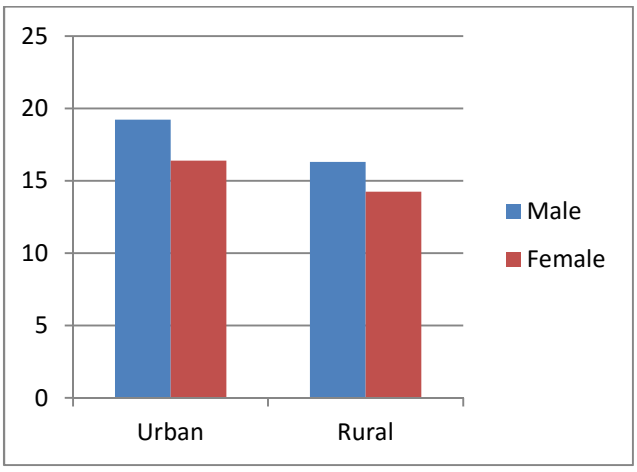


Figure - 13: Showing interaction effects of 'Ecology' and 'Gender' on **Personal Distress** for the whole samples.

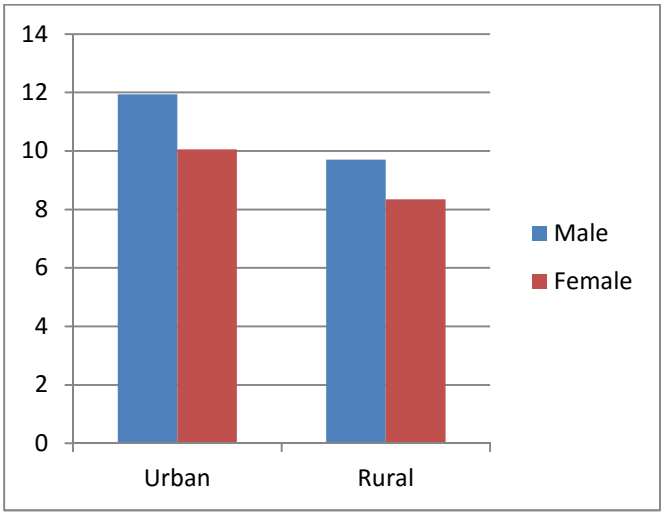


Figure - 14: Showing interaction effects of 'Ecology' and 'Gender' on **Other Oriented Reasoning** for the whole samples.

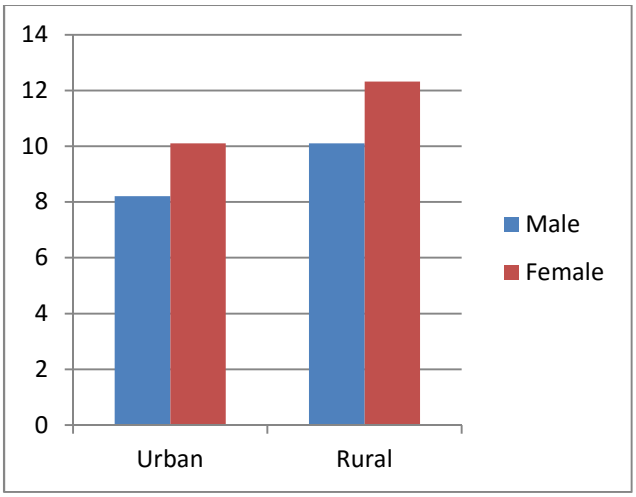


Figure - 15: Showing interaction effects of ‘Ecology’ and ‘Gender’ on **Mutual Moral Reasoning** for the whole samples.

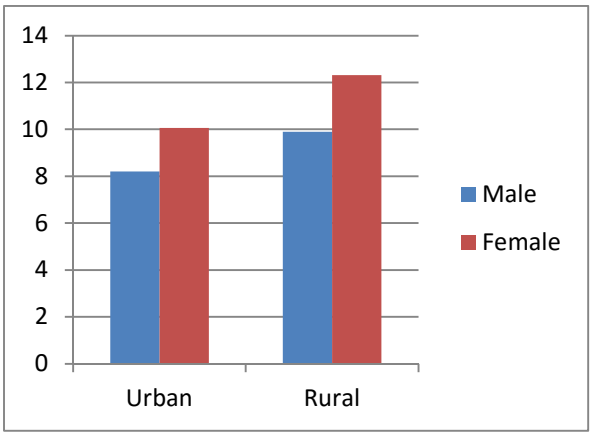


Figure - 16: Showing interaction effects of ‘Ecology’ and ‘Gender’ on **Self Report Altruism** for the whole samples.

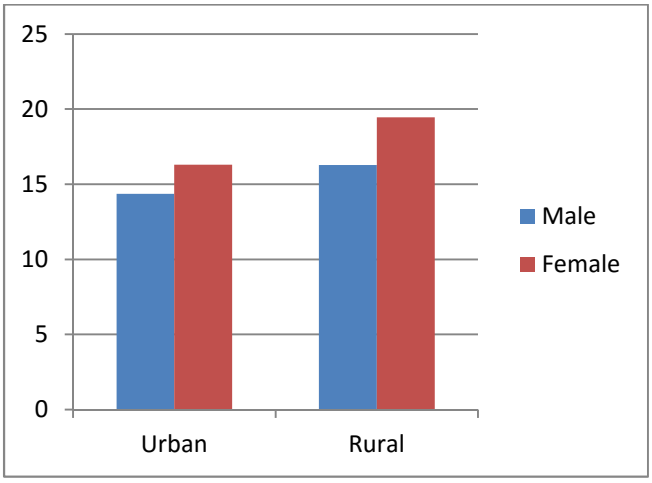
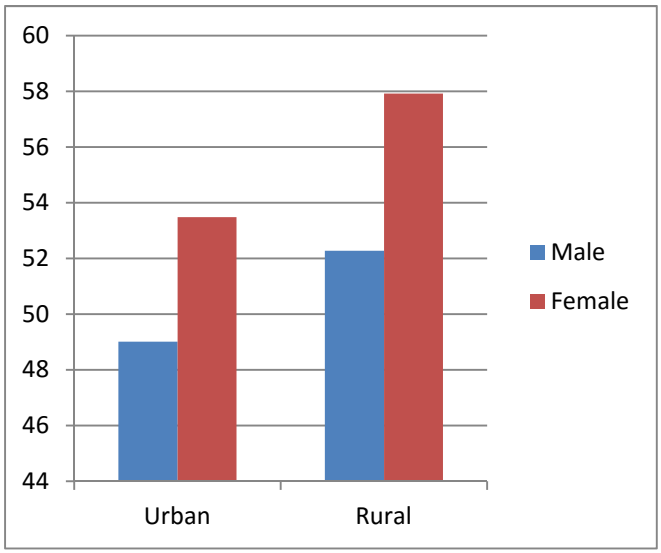


Figure - 17: Showing interaction effects of 'Ecology' and 'Gender' on **Tuckman Procrastination Scale** for the whole samples.



The perusal of the results (**Table-3 and Figure -1**) revealed that on **Parental Involvement,** 'Urban male' as compared to 'Urban female' revealed greater mean scores (M = 27.89; 25.23; with significant mean difference (M = 2.66 p < 0.5), also with Rural male (M = 27.89; 26.96) but not significant level, and also with Rural female (M = 27.89; 25.24; p <.05 with significant Mean Difference (M = 2.65 p < 0.5)

The **Table-3 and Figure -2** also revealed that 'Urban male' as compared to 'Urban female' revealed greater mean scores (M = 21.58; 19.21; p <.01) with significant mean difference (M = 2.36; p < 0.1), also with Rural male (M = 21.58; 19.45; p <.01), and also with Rural female (M = 21.58; 19.21; p <.01 with significant Mean Difference (M = 2.36; p < 0.1) on ***Positive Parenting***.

On **Inconsistent Discipline** 'Urban Female' showed highest Mean score as compared to Urban male (M = 14.50; 13.56),also with Rural male (M = 14.50; 11.93) with significant mean difference (M = 2.58; p < 0.1), also with Rural female (M = 14.50; 10.04) with significant Mean Difference(M = 4.46; p < 0.1) as shown in the **Table -3 and Figure -3**.

Results (**Table -3 and Figure -4**) on ***Corporal Punishment*** 'Rural Male' showed highest Mean score as compared to Urban male (M = 11.04; 10.41), also with

Urban Female (M = 11.04; 10.19) with significant mean difference (M = 10.28; p < 0.5), also with Rural female (M = 11.04; 10.08) with significant Mean Difference (M = 1.37; p < 0.5).

On **Poor Monitoring,** 'Urban Female' showed highest Mean score as compared to Urban male (M = 25.07; 18.04) with significant mean difference (M = 7.03; p < 0.1),also with Rural male (M = 25.07; 25.03), also with Rural female (M = 25.07; 23.24) with significant Mean Difference (M = 1.83; p < 0.5) as shown in **Table -3 and Figure -5**.

On **Self Report Delinquency**, 'Urban male' showed highest Mean score as compared to Urban female (M = 53.71; 52.81), also with Rural male (M = 53.71; 52.49), also with Rural female (M = 53.71; 51.63) with significant Mean Difference (M = 2.08; p < 0.01) as evinced by **Table -3 and Figure -6**.

On Religious Wellbeing, Rural female showed highest Mean score as compared to Urban male (M = 36.11; 31.55) with significant Mean Difference (M = 4.56; p < 0.01), also with Urban Female (M = 36.11; 32.83) with significant Mean Difference (M = 3.27; p < 0.01),), also with Rural Male (M = 36.11; 33.04) with significant Mean Difference (M = 3.07; p < 0.01) as shown in **Table - 3 and Figure - 7**.

On **Existential Wellbeing**, Rural female showed highest Mean score as compared to Urban male (M = 36.83; 30.26); with significant Mean Difference (M = 6.57; p < 0.01), also with Urban Female (M = 36.83; 33.40) with significant Mean Difference M = 3.42 p < 0.01),), also with Rural Male (M = 36.83; 32.54) with significant Mean Difference (M = 4.29; p < 0.01) as displayed in **Table - 3 and Figure -8.**

On **Satisfaction With Life**, Rural female showed highest Mean score as compared to Urban male (M = 18.28; 14.86) with significant Mean Difference (M = 3.41; p < 0.01), also with Urban Female (M = 18.28; 16.43) with significant Mean Difference (M = 1.85; p < 0.01), also with Rural Male (M = 18.28; 16.10) with significant Mean Difference (M = 2.18; p < 0.01) as evinced by **Table-3 and Figures -9.**

On **Social Responsibility** (SR), Rural female showed highest Mean score as compared to Urban male (M = 26.09; 21.18) with significant Mean Difference (M = 3.41; p< 0.01), also with Urban Female (M = 26.09; 23.05) with significant Mean Difference (M = 1.85; p < 0.01), also with Rural Male (M = 22.68; 16.10) with significant Mean Difference (M = 2.18 p < 0.01) as portrayed in **Table 3 and Figure -10.**

On **Empathic Concern**, Rural female showed highest Mean score as compared to Urban male (M = 15.66; 11.39) with significant Mean Difference (M = 4.27; p < 0.01), also with Urban Female (M = 15.66; 12.92) with significant Mean Difference (M = 2.74; p < 0.01) also with Rural Male (M = 13.01; 16.10) with significant Mean Difference (M = 2.65; p < 0.01) as evinced by **Table -3 and Figure -11**.

On **Perspective Taking**, UrbanMale showed highest Mean score as compared to Urban female (M = 19.21; 16.40 with significant Mean Difference (M = 4.96; p < 0.01), also with Rural Male (M = 19.21; 16.29) with significant Mean Difference (M = 2.93; p < 0.05) also with Rural Female (M = 19.21; 14.25) with significant Mean Difference (M = 2.04; p < 0.05) as evinced by **Table -3 and Figure -12.**

On **Personal Distress**, Urban Male showed highest Mean score as compared to Urban female (M = 11.94; 10.05) with significant Mean Difference (M = 1.89; p < 0.01), also with Rural Male (M = 11.94; 9.70) with significant Mean Difference (M = 2.24; p < 0.01), also with Rural Female (M = 11.94; 8.34) with significant Mean Difference (M = 3.60; p < 0.01) as shown in Table **-3 and Figure -13**.

On **Other Oriented Reasoning**, Rural female showed highest Mean score as compared to Urban male (M = 12.32; 8.21) with significant Mean Difference (M = 4.10; p< 0.01), also with Urban Female (M = 12.32; 10.10) with significant Mean Difference (M = 2.33; p < 0.01), also with Rural Male (M = 12.32; 10.10) with significant Mean Difference (M = 2.42; p < 0.01) as shown in **Table -3 and Figure -14**.

On **Mutual Moral Reasoning**, Rural female showed highest Mean score as compared to Urban male (M = 12.32; 8.20) with significant Mean Difference (M = 4.12; p < 0.01), also with Urban Female (M = 12.32; 10.06) with significant Mean

Difference (M = 2.26; p < 0.01), also with Rural Male (M = 12.32; 9.90) with significant Mean Difference (M = 2.42; p < 0.01) as evinced by **Table -3 and Figure -15.**

On **Self Report Altruism**, Rural female showed highest Mean score as compared to Urban male (M = 19.45; 16.30) with significant Mean Difference (M = 5.10; p < 0.01), also with Urban Female (M = 19.45; 16.30) with significant Mean Difference (M = 3.15; p < 0.01), also with Rural Male (M = 19.45; 16.28) with significant Mean Difference (M = 3.17; p < 0.01) as evinced by **Table -3 and Figure -16.**

On **Tuckman Procrastination Scale**, Rural female showed highest Mean score as compared to Urban male (M = 57.91; 49.01) with significant Mean Difference (M = 8.90; p < 0.01), also with Urban Female (M = 57.91; 53.48) with significant Mean Difference (M = 4.43; p < 0.01), also with Rural Male (M = 57.91; 52.28) with significant Mean Difference (M = 5.63; p< 0.01) as shown by **Table -3 and Figure -17.**

The mean scores of Ecology and Gender interaction on the dependent variables (APQ, SRD, SWBS, SWLS, PSB and TPS) was calculated. Table 3 shows the mean scores of Ecology and Gender interaction of the whole samples on the dependent variables depicting that urban samples scored higher on the dependent measures like Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ), and Self report Delinquency (SRD) while rural samples scored higher on most of the dependent variables like Spiritual Wellbeing Scale (SWBS), Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS), Pro-social Personality Battery (PSB) and Tuckman Procrastination Scale (TPS)

The result revealed that female scored higher on the dependent measures like Spiritual Wellbeing Scale (SWBS), Satisfaction with Life (SWLS) and Pro-social Personality Battery (PSB) and Tuckman Procrastination Scale (TPS) which shows that females are higher on these behavioral measures as compared to males, while male samples scored higher on the dependent measures like Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ) and Self report Delinquency (SRD).

In accordance to the findings of the present study many researchers have found urban- rural differences in Parenting styles, Pro-social and anti-social behavior,

religiosity and wellbeing and are in fact a relatively well studied line of research. In 1975, Korte and Kerr observed that strangers were being helped more often in rural (small towns around Massachusetts) than urban environments (Boston). This finding was extended by House and Wolf (1978) who analyzed the refusal rates of survey participation in representative samples of the United States. Again, refusal rates were higher in large cities than in small towns.

To examine whether similar urban-rural differences also occur in more traditional, and collectivistic contexts, Korte and Ayvalioglu (1981) examined helping within Turkey. They compared helpfulness towards a stranger in big cities, small towns, and squatter settlements. The squatter settlements of the big cities are particularly interesting to better understand the nature of the observed differences, as families with a low socio-economic status that migrated from rural areas were living there. Again, strangers were less often helped in the big cities than in the small towns and in the squatter settlements. Interestingly, no differences in helping between small towns and squatter settlements of the big cities emerged. Moreover, helping rates in the suburbs were found to be lowest. Christensen & Fierst (1998) suggest that a greater pro-social response is likely in open, rural communities and a lower response in dense, urban communities. Furthermore, researchers have demonstrated that population density, not size is the greatest predictor of helping behavior (Levine, Martines, Brase and Sorenson, 1994). Specifically, it has been proposed that urban unhelpfulness is restricted to spontaneous and informal types of helping (Amato, 1983) as well as limited to interactions with only neighbors and strangers (Korte, 1980).

With respect to gender difference in anti-social behavior the result of the study is once again consistent with the literature. Proportionately, more males than females overall reported involvement in anti-social and delinquent behaviors. Males report significantly more delinquency overall and also for several types of crime. This pattern of findings is keeping with the traditional views that males are more delinquent than females (Moffitt et al., 2001). In their extensive review of gender differences in anti-social behavior, Moffitt et al. (2001) concluded that boys were more anti-social essentially because they were exposed to more risk factors or a higher level of risk.

These findings suggest the possibility that boys whose parents might be classified as neglectful (Lamborn et al. 1991), offering relatively little interested attention, responsiveness, affection, encouragement, or guidance, may have developed lower self-esteem and poorer social skills, which may have contributed to their greater degree of delinquency.

Also consistent with current findings, scholars have reported moderately strong gender differences in pro-social behaviors such that female exhibit higher levels of pro-social traits and behaviors than do males (Carlo, Koller, Eisenberg, Da Silva and Frohlich, 1996; Eisenberg et al., 1991). Beutel & Johnson, 2004; Fabes et al., 1999; Froming, Nasby and McNamus, 1998 also found in their studies that girls consistently reported higher levels of pro-social behavior than boys across adolescence.

The findings of the result also revealed similar results from literature review regarding gender differences in spirituality and satisfaction with life. Female participants revealed greater significant mean differences in both the spiritual wellbeing subscales i.e., Religious Wellbeing and Existential Wellbeing and also in the Satisfaction with Life Scale.

In his study, Bryant (2007) administered the 2000 Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) Freshman Survey to representative samples of incoming freshman at 434 colleges and universities. The results of this study indicated that women scored higher than men in religiosity (Bryant, 2007). However, the gap between women and men on the construct of religious practice was smaller than it was on the construct of religious belief.

Hammermeister, Flint, El-Alayli, Ridnour, and Peterson (2005) reached similar findings concerning gender and spirituality. They administered a survey that measured various dimensions of health to 435 college students enrolled in health and fitness classes. In addition to demographic questions and 176 questions concerning physical health, the survey included the Spiritual Well-Being Scale. Females scored higher than males on all three spiritual or religious health measures. Hammermeister et al. suggest that men ought to be targets for greater spiritual exposure at universities, places of learning, and health centers.

Stark (2002) posits that these gender differences in religiosity may be due to physiological factors. He cites that men engage in more impulse, criminal activity than do women. This gender difference is generally true for all risky, impetuous behavior due to men having more testosterone than women. Stark presents that socialization may be a factor as well, meaning that society's expectations, roles, and modeling of gender roles predispose women from youth to be more religious.

Nash (1998) poses that the character and teachings of Jesus Christ may have contributed to a rise of spirituality among women. Christ taught love, humility, meekness, patience, peace, kindness, forgiveness, tolerance, and compassion. In His Sermon on the Mount, Jesus preached, "…Do not resist an evil person. If someone strikes you on the right cheek, turn to him the other also" (Matthew 5:39 New International Version [NIV]).These principles may have much more of a feminine appeal than those of aggression, violence, and retribution. The apostle Paul expounds in Galatians 3:28, "There is neither Jew nor Greek, slave nor free, male nor female, for you are all one in Christ Jesus" (NIV). This verse liberates women not as those to be discriminated against in religion, but as equals, worshipping together with men.

TABLE - 4 (a): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Parental Involvement' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Parental Involvement	Urban-Male	Urban-female	2.66*	0.82	0.02	0.36	4.97
		Rural-Male	0.94	0.83	0.74	-1.40	3.27
		Rural-Female	2.65*	0.84	0.02	0.29	5.02
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	-2.66*	0.82	0.02	-4.97	-0.36
		Rural-Male	-1.72	0.82	0.22	-4.03	0.58
		Rural-Female	-0.01	0.83	1.00	-2.35	2.33
	Rural male	Urban-Male	-0.94	0.83	0.74	-3.27	1.40
		Urban-female	1.72	0.82	0.22	-0.58	4.03
		Rural-Female	1.71	0.84	0.25	-0.65	4.08
	Rural female	Urban-Male	-2.65*	0.84	0.02	-5.02	-0.29
		Urban-female	0.01	0.83	1.00	-2.33	2.35
		Rural-Male	-1.71	0.84	0.25	-4.08	0.65

TABLE - 4 (b): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Positive Parenting' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Positive Parenting	Urban-Male	Urban-female	2.36**	0.58	0.00	0.72	4.00
		Rural-Male	2.13**	0.59	0.01	0.47	3.78
		Rural-Female	2.36**	0.60	0.00	0.69	4.04
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	-2.36**	0.58	0.00	-4.00	-0.72
		Rural-Male	-0.24	0.58	0.98	-1.87	1.40
		Rural-Female	0.00	0.59	1.00	-1.66	1.66
	Rural male	Urban-Male	-2.13**	0.59	0.01	-3.78	-0.47
		Urban-female	0.24	0.58	0.98	-1.40	1.87
		Rural-Female	0.24	0.60	0.98	-1.44	1.92
	Rural female	Urban-Male	-2.36**	0.60	0.00	-4.04	-0.69
		Urban-female	0.00	0.59	1.00	-1.66	1.66
		Rural-Male	-0.24	0.60	0.98	-1.92	1.44

TABLE - 4 (c): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Inconsistent Discipline' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Inconsistent Discipline	Urban-Male	Urban-female	-0.94	0.46	0.24	-2.23	0.35
		Rural-Male	1.64**	0.46	0.01	0.33	2.94
		Rural-Female	3.52**	0.47	0.00	2.20	4.84
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	0.94	0.46	0.24	-0.35	2.23
		Rural-Male	2.58**	0.46	0.00	1.29	3.86
		Rural-Female	4.46**	0.46	0.00	3.15	5.77
	Rural male	Urban-Male	-1.64**	0.46	0.01	-2.94	-0.33
		Urban-female	-2.58**	0.46	0.00	-3.86	-1.29
		Rural-Female	1.89**	0.47	0.00	0.56	3.21
	Rural female	Urban-Male	-3.52**	0.47	0.00	-4.84	-2.20
		Urban-female	-4.46**	0.46	0.00	-5.77	-3.15
		Rural-Male	-1.89**	0.47	0.00	-3.21	-0.56

TABLE - 4 (d): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Corporal Punishment' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Corporal Punishment	Urban-Male	Urban-female	0.06	0.46	1.00	-1.22	1.35
		Rural-Male	-1.21	0.46	0.08	-2.52	0.09
		Rural-Female	0.15	0.47	0.99	-1.17	1.47
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	-0.06	0.46	1.00	-1.35	1.22
		Rural-Male	-1.28*	0.46	0.05	-2.56	0.01
		Rural-Female	0.09	0.46	1.00	-1.21	1.39
	Rural male	Urban-Male	1.21	0.46	0.08	-0.09	2.52
		Urban-female	1.28*	0.46	0.05	-0.01	2.56
		Rural-Female	1.37*	0.47	0.04	0.05	2.69
	Rural female	Urban-Male	-0.15	0.47	0.99	-1.47	1.17
		Urban-female	-0.09	0.46	1.00	-1.39	1.21
		Rural-Male	-1.37*	0.47	0.04	-2.69	-0.05

TABLE - 4 (e): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Poor Monitoring' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Poor Monitoring	Urban-Male	Urban-female	-7.03**	0.62	0.00	-8.76	-5.30
		Rural-Male	-6.99**	0.62	0.00	-8.74	-5.24
		Rural-Female	-5.20**	0.63	0.00	-6.97	-3.43
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	7.03**	0.62	0.00	5.30	8.76
		Rural-Male	0.05	0.62	1.00	-1.68	1.78
		Rural-Female	1.83*	0.62	0.04	0.08	3.59
	Rural male	Urban-Male	6.99**	0.62	0.00	5.24	8.74
		Urban-female	-0.05	0.62	1.00	-1.78	1.68
		Rural-Female	1.79*	0.63	0.05	0.01	3.56
	Rural female	Urban-Male	5.20**	0.63	0.00	3.43	6.97
		Urban-female	-1.83*	0.62	0.04	-3.59	-0.08
		Rural-Male	-1.79*	0.63	0.05	-3.56	-0.01

TABLE - 4 (f): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Self Report Delinquency' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Self Report Delinquency	Urban-Male	Urban-female	-0.90	0.48	0.31	-2.24	0.44
		Rural-Male	0.33	0.48	0.93	-1.03	1.68
		Rural-Female	1.18	0.49	0.12	-0.19	2.55
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	0.90	0.48	0.31	-0.44	2.24
		Rural-Male	1.23	0.48	0.09	-0.11	2.56
		Rural-Female	2.08**	0.48	0.00	0.73	3.44
	Rural male	Urban-Male	-0.33	0.48	0.93	-1.68	1.03
		Urban-female	-1.23	0.48	0.09	-2.56	0.11
		Rural-Female	0.86	0.49	0.38	-0.52	2.23
	Rural female	Urban-Male	-1.18	0.49	0.12	-2.55	0.19
		Urban-female	-2.08**	0.48	0.00	-3.44	-0.73
		Rural-Male	-0.86	0.49	0.38	-2.23	0.52

TABLE - 4 (g): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Religious Wellbeing' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Religious Wellbeing	Urban-Male	Urban-female	-1.28	0.57	0.17	-2.88	0.32
		Rural-Male	-1.49	0.58	0.09	-3.11	0.13
		Rural-Female	-4.56**	0.58	0.00	-6.20	-2.91
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	1.28	0.57	0.17	-0.32	2.88
		Rural-Male	-0.20	0.57	0.99	-1.80	1.40
		Rural-Female	-3.27**	0.58	0.00	-4.89	-1.65
	Rural male	Urban-Male	1.49	0.58	0.09	-0.13	3.11
		Urban-female	0.20	0.57	0.99	-1.40	1.80
		Rural-Female	-3.07**	0.58	0.00	-4.71	-1.43
	Rural female	Urban-Male	4.56**	0.58	0.00	2.91	6.20
		Urban-female	3.27**	0.58	0.00	1.65	4.89
		Rural-Male	3.07**	0.58	0.00	1.43	4.71

TABLE - 4 (h): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Existential Wellbeing' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Existential Wellbeing	Urban-Male	Urban-female	-3.14**	0.47	0.00	-4.47	-1.82
		Rural-Male	-2.28**	0.48	0.00	-3.62	-0.93
		Rural-Female	-6.57**	0.48	0.00	-7.93	-5.21
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	3.14**	0.47	0.00	1.82	4.47
		Rural-Male	0.87	0.47	0.34	-0.46	2.19
		Rural-Female	-3.42**	0.48	0.00	-4.77	-2.08
	Rural male	Urban-Male	2.28**	0.48	0.00	0.93	3.62
		Urban-female	-0.87	0.47	0.34	-2.19	0.46
		Rural-Female	-4.29**	0.48	0.00	-5.65	-2.93
	Rural female	Urban-Male	6.57**	0.48	0.00	5.21	7.93
		Urban-female	3.42**	0.48	0.00	2.08	4.77
		Rural-Male	4.29**	0.48	0.00	2.93	5.65

TABLE - 4 (i): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Satisfaction with Life' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Satisfaction With Life Scale	Urban-Male	Urban-female	-1.57**	0.27	0.00	-2.34	-0.79
		Rural-Male	-1.24**	0.28	0.00	-2.02	-0.46
		Rural-Female	-3.41**	0.28	0.00	-4.21	-2.62
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	1.57**	0.27	0.00	0.79	2.34
		Rural-Male	0.33	0.27	0.70	-0.44	1.10
		Rural-Female	-1.85**	0.28	0.00	-2.63	-1.06
	Rural male	Urban-Male	1.24**	0.28	0.00	0.46	2.02
		Urban-female	-0.33	0.27	0.70	-1.10	0.44
		Rural-Female	-2.18**	0.28	0.00	-2.97	-1.38
	Rural female	Urban-Male	3.41**	0.28	0.00	2.62	4.21
		Urban-female	1.85**	0.28	0.00	1.06	2.63
		Rural-Male	2.18**	0.28	0.00	1.38	2.97

TABLE - 4 (j): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Empathic Concern' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Empathic Concern	Urban-Male	Urban-female	-1.53**	0.28	0.00	-2.33	-0.73
		Rural-Male	-1.63**	0.29	0.00	-2.43	-0.82
		Rural-Female	-4.27**	0.29	0.00	-5.09	-3.45
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	1.53**	0.28	0.00	0.73	2.33
		Rural-Male	-0.10	0.28	0.99	-0.89	0.70
		Rural-Female	-2.74**	0.29	0.00	-3.55	-1.93
	Rural male	Urban-Male	1.63**	0.29	0.00	0.82	2.43
		Urban-female	0.10	0.28	0.99	-0.70	0.89
		Rural-Female	-2.65**	0.29	0.00	-3.46	-1.83
	Rural female	Urban-Male	4.27**	0.29	0.00	3.45	5.09
		Urban-female	2.74**	0.29	0.00	1.93	3.55
		Rural-Male	2.65**	0.29	0.00	1.83	3.46

TABLE - 4 (k): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Perspective Taking' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Perspective Taking	Urban-Male	Urban-female	2.81**	0.34	0.00	1.86	3.75
		Rural-Male	2.93**	0.34	0.00	1.97	3.88
		Rural-Female	4.96**	0.35	0.00	3.99	5.93
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	-2.81**	0.34	0.00	-3.75	-1.86
		Rural-Male	0.12**	0.34	0.99	-0.83	1.06
		Rural-Female	2.15**	0.34	0.00	1.20	3.11
	Rural male	Urban-Male	-2.93**	0.34	0.00	-3.88	-1.97
		Urban-female	-0.12	0.34	0.99	-1.06	0.83
		Rural-Female	2.04**	0.35	0.00	1.07	3.01
	Rural female	Urban-Male	-4.96**	0.35	0.00	-5.93	-3.99
		Urban-female	-2.15**	0.34	0.00	-3.11	-1.20
		Rural-Male	-2.04**	0.35	0.00	-3.01	-1.07

TABLE - 4 (l): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Personal Distress' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Personal Distress	Urban-Male	Urban-female	1.89**	0.24	0.00	1.21	2.57
		Rural-Male	2.24**	0.24	0.00	1.55	2.92
		Rural-Female	3.60**	0.25	0.00	2.90	4.29
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	-1.89**	0.24	0.00	-2.57	-1.21
		Rural-Male	0.35	0.24	0.55	-0.33	1.02
		Rural-Female	1.71**	0.24	0.00	1.02	2.39
	Rural male	Urban-Male	-2.24**	0.24	0.00	-2.92	-1.55
		Urban-female	-0.35	0.24	0.55	-1.02	0.33
		Rural-Female	1.36**	0.25	0.00	0.67	2.05
	Rural female	Urban-Male	-3.60**	0.25	0.00	-4.29	-2.90
		Urban-female	-1.71**	0.24	0.00	-2.39	-1.02
		Rural-Male	-1.36**	0.25	0.00	-2.05	-0.67

TABLE - 4 (m): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Other Oriented Reasoning' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Other Oriented Reasoning	Urban-Male	Urban-female	-1.78**	0.26	0.00	-2.51	-1.04
		Rural-Male	-1.69**	0.27	0.00	-2.43	-0.94
		Rural-Female	-4.10**	0.27	0.00	-4.86	-3.35
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	1.78**	0.26	0.00	1.04	2.51
		Rural-Male	0.09	0.26	0.99	-0.65	0.83
		Rural-Female	-2.33**	0.27	0.00	-3.08	-1.58
	Rural male	Urban-Male	1.69**	0.27	0.00	0.94	2.43
		Urban-female	-0.09	0.26	0.99	-0.83	0.65
		Rural-Female	-2.42**	0.27	0.00	-3.17	-1.66
	Rural female	Urban-Male	4.10**	0.27	0.00	3.35	4.86
		Urban-female	2.33**	0.27	0.00	1.58	3.08
		Rural-Male	2.42**	0.27	0.00	1.66	3.17

TABLE- 4 (n): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Mutual MoralReasoning' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Mutual Moral Reasoning	Urban-Male	Urban-female	-1.86**	0.26	0.00	-2.60	-1.11
		Rural-Male	-1.70**	0.27	0.00	-2.45	-0.95
		Rural-Female	-4.12**	0.27	0.00	-4.88	-3.35
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	1.86**	0.26	0.00	1.11	2.60
		Rural-Male	0.16	0.26	0.95	-0.59	0.90
		Rural-Female	-2.26**	0.27	0.00	-3.01	-1.50
	Rural male	Urban-Male	1.70**	0.27	0.00	0.95	2.45
		Urban-female	-0.16	0.26	0.95	-0.90	0.59
		Rural-Female	-2.42**	0.27	0.00	-3.18	-1.65
	Rural female	Urban-Male	4.12**	0.27	0.00	3.35	4.88
		Urban-female	2.26**	0.27	0.00	1.50	3.01
		Rural-Male	2.42**	0.27	0.00	1.65	3.18

TABLE - 4 (o): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Self Report Altruism' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Self Report Altruism	Urban-Male	Urban-female	-1.95**	0.33	0.00	-2.88	-1.02
		Rural-Male	-1.93**	0.33	0.00	-2.87	-0.98
		Rural-Female	-5.10**	0.34	0.00	-6.05	-4.14
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	1.95**	0.33	0.00	1.02	2.88
		Rural-Male	0.02	0.33	1.00	-0.91	0.95
		Rural-Female	-3.15**	0.34	0.00	-4.09	-2.21
	Rural male	Urban-Male	1.93**	0.33	0.00	0.98	2.87
		Urban-female	-0.02	0.33	1.00	-0.95	0.91
		Rural-Female	-3.17**	0.34	0.00	-4.13	-2.22
	Rural female	Urban-Male	5.10**	0.34	0.00	4.14	6.05
		Urban-female	3.15**	0.34	0.00	2.21	4.09
		Rural-Male	3.17**	0.34	0.00	2.22	4.13

TABLE - 4 (p): Mean differences for significant of two way interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' on 'Tuckman Procrastination scale' for the whole samples.

Post –Hoc Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe)							
Dependent Variable	Groups	Comparison group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Tuckman Procrastination Scale	Urban-Male	Urban-female	-4.46**	0.70	0.00	-6.43	-2.50
		Rural-Male	-3.26**	0.71	0.00	-5.25	-1.28
		Rural-Female	-8.90**	0.72	0.00	-10.91	-6.88
	Urban-female	Urban-Male	4.46	0.70	0.00	2.50	6.43
		Rural-Male	1.20	0.70	0.40	-0.76	3.16
		Rural-Female	-4.43**	0.71	0.00	-6.42	-2.44
	Rural male	Urban-Male	3.26**	0.71	0.00	1.28	5.25
		Urban-female	-1.20	0.70	0.40	-3.16	0.76
		Rural-Female	-5.63**	0.72	0.00	-7.65	-3.62
	Rural female	Urban-Male	8.90**	0.72	0.00	6.88	10.91
		Urban-female	4.43**	0.71	0.00	2.44	6.42
		Rural-Male	5.63**	0.71	0.00	3.61	7.64

Table-5: Reliability Coefficients (Cronbach Alpha and Split Half Coefficient), Homogeneity and Robust Test of the Scales /Subscales of the Behavioral variables – Alabama Parenting Questionnaire, Self Report Delinquency, Spiritual Wellbeing, Satisfaction With Life Scale, Pro – Social Personality Battery and Tuckman Procrastination Scale for the whole samples.

Scales	**Dependent Variables**	**Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Brown-Forsythe)**	**Test of Homogeneity of Variances (Levene statistic)**	**Reliability Test**	
		Sig.	Sig.	Alpha	Split-half
APQ	PI	.00	0.91	.73	.75
	PP	.00	0.10	.72.	.78
	ID	.00	0.64	.64	.68
	CP	.00	0.55	.73	.76
	PM	.00	0.10	.75	.78

SRD		.00	0.12	.53	.68
SWB	RW	.00	0.11	.83	.77
	EW	.00	0.08	.81	.75
SWLS		.00	0.47	.69	.62
PSB	EC	.00	0.27	.79	.75
	SR	.00	0.27	.77	.72
	PT	.00	0.23	.81	.77
	PD	.00	0.51	.77	.63
	O	.00	0.27	.81	.68
	M	.00	0.14	.81	.68
	SRA	.00	0.12	.81	.72
TPS		.00	0.24	.86	.93

The reliability coefficient (Cronbach Alphas and Split Half Reliability) was computed on all behavioral measures. Results (Table- 5) revealed substantial consistency over the level of analyses that ascertained applicability of the scales/subscales of the behavioral measures and recommended using a total score of scale as well as subscale scores. Thus, the scales/subscales was retained for further analyses as it fulfilled the statistical assumption of additivity, linearity, normality and homogeneity tests (Glass, Peckham and Sandras, 1972; Tomarken and Serlin, 1986; Rogan & Keselman, 1977). Results revealed substantial item-total coefficient of correlation (and relationship between the items of the specific scales) for the sub-scales and order of reliability coefficient of Cronbach's alpha was .73 with Split half .75 for Parental Involvement, Cronbach's alpha was .72 with Split half .78 for Positive Parenting, Cronbach's alpha was .64 with Split half .68 for Inconsistent Discipline, Cronbach's alpha was .73 with Split half .76 for Corporal Punishment, Cronbach's alpha was .75 with Split half .78 for Poor Monitoring of the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire Subscales;

Cronbach's alpha was .53 with Split half .68 for Self – Report Delinquency ; Cronbach's alpha was .83 with Split half .77 for Religious Wellbeing ; Cronbach's

alpha was .81 with Split half .75 for Existential Wellbeing of the Spiritual Wellbeing Subscale; Cronbach's alpha was .69 with Split half .62 for Satisfaction With Life; Cronbach's alpha was .79 with Split half .75 for Empathic Concern ; Cronbach's alpha was .77 with Split half .72 for Social Responsibility; Cronbach's alpha was .81 with Split half .77 for Perspective Taking; Cronbach's alpha was .77 with Split half .63 for Personal Distress; Cronbach's alpha was .81 with Split half .68 for other oriented reasoning ; Cronbach's alpha was .81 with Split half .68 for Mutual Moral Reasoning (M); Cronbach's alpha was .81 with Split half . 72 for Self Report Altruism and Cronbach's alpha was .86 with Split half .93 for Tuckman Procrastination Scale. These results of the study conform to the findings of those who constructed the selected scales/ subscales of the present study.

The psychometric properties of the behavioral measures results confirmed adequacies of the psychometric properties of the selected scales for measurement purposes in the targeted population under study. The preliminary psychometric analyses for each of the specific items and scales/subscales were determined with the objectives to ensure further statistical analyses, and the results as presented in Table – 5, warranted applicability of the behavioral variables for measurement purposes. Overall, the reliability coefficients emerged to be robust, suggesting the trustworthiness of the test scales for measurement purposes in the project population under study.

The analysis for the preliminary psychometric properties was required for illuminating the applicability of the concerned scale/subscale of the behavioral measures for the present study. The main reason was because scales constructed and validated for measurement of theoretical construct for a given population might not be reliable and valid when taken to another culture setting, and need to check again the reliability and validity (Berry, 1974; Witkin & Berry, 1975), as the differential social desirability and response styles should influence the results among the group (Van de Vjver & Leung, 1997), and for methodological fulfillment.

Diagnostic tests of assumptions that underlie the application of General Linear Model (ANOVA etc.) were first checked using the Levene’s Test of Equality of error variances for each scale to indicate homogeneity of error variance. The Levene’s Test of Equality of error Variances for each scale was shown in Tables – 5, it revealed

non-significance on all the scales that indicated that there was a difference between the variances (heterogeneous variance) on all behavioral variables. The Brown forsythe results revealed the robust of equality means on all behavioral measures, depicting significant level that counter confirmed the applicability of parametric statistics for further analysis including ANOVA and Regression Analysis in the present study.

Relationship of the Behavioural Measures:

The Bivariate relationships between the scales /sub-scales of the behavioral measures were computed and presented in Table-6. The Bivariate Correlation Matrix (Table-6) indicated the relationships among the scales/sub-scales of the behavioral measures accounting for the 'Ecology' along with the 'Gender' representing the independent variables.

The results (Table- 6) revealed that Parental Involvement was found to indicate significant positive relationship with Positive Parenting (r = .34; p < .01), Existential Wellbeing (r = .15; p < .01), Perspective Taking (r = .15; p < .01), Personal Distress (r = .28; p < .01),Self Report Altruism (r =.14; p < .05), but negative significant relationship with Inconsistent Discipline (r = -.14; p < .05);Corporal Punishment (r = -.29; p < .01); Poor Monitoring (r= -.34; p < .01); Self Report Delinquency (r = -.32; p <.01).

Positive Parenting showed significant positive relationship with Existential Wellbeing (r = .14; p < .05), Satisfaction with Life (r = .19; p < .05), Satisfaction with Life (r = .19; p < .01), Social Responsibility (r = .14; p < .05), Empathic Concern (r = .16; p < .05), Perspective Taking (r = .17; p < .01), Personal Distress (r = .16; p < .01) and Self Report Altruism (r = .18; p < .01), but showed negative significant relationship with Inconsistent Discipline (r = -.28; p < .01); Poor Monitoring (r = -.17; p < .01); Self Report Delinquency (r = -.42; p <.01) and Tuckman Procrastination Scale (r = -.14; p < .05).

Inconsistent Discipline showed significant positive relationship with Corporal Punishment (r = 014; p < .05); Poor Monitoring (r = .24; p < .01); Self Report Delinquency (r = .18; p <.01), Perspective Taking (r = .22; p < .01), Personal Distress (r = .28; p < .01), but showed negative significant relationship with Religious Wellbeing (r = -.28; p < .01), Existential Wellbeing (r = -.14; p < .05), Satisfaction with Life (r = -.15; p < .01), Social Responsibility (r = -.14; p < .05), Empathic Concern (r = -.21; p < .01), Other Oriented Reasoning (r =- .24; p < .01), Mutual Moral Reasoning (r = -.23; p < .01), Self Report Altruism (r = -.20; p < .01) and Tuckman Procrastination Scale (r = -.16; p < .01).

Corporal Punishment showed significant positive relationship with Self Report Delinquency (r = .17; p <.01) but showed negative significant relationship with Satisfaction with Life (r = -.18; p < .01),

Poor Monitoring showed positive significant relationship with Self Report Delinquency (r = .24; p <.01), Social Responsibility (r = .19; p < .01), Empathic Concern (r = .23; p < .01) and Tuckman Procrastination Scale (r = .21; p < .01) but showed negative significant relationship with Existential Wellbeing (r = -.22; p < .01), Satisfaction with Life (r = -.20; p < .01), Perspective Taking (r = -.26; p < .01),

Personal Distress (r = -.20 p < .01), Other Oriented Reasoning (r = - .24; p < .01), Mutual Moral Reasoning (r = -.23; p < .01), Self Report Altruism (r = -.23; p < .01).

Self-Report Delinquency showed significant negative relationship with Existential Wellbeing (r = -.17; p < .01), Satisfaction with Life (r = -.28; p < .01), Social Responsibility (r = -.13; p < .01), Empathic Concern (r = -.12; p < .05),Other Oriented Reasoning (r = - .21; p < .01), Mutual Moral Reasoning (r = -.12; p < .05), Self Report Altruism (r = -.12; p < .05).

Religious Wellbeing depicted significant positive relationship with Existential Wellbeing (r = .25; p < .01), Satisfaction With Life (r = .21; p < .01), Social Responsibility (r = .22; p < .01), Empathic Concern (r = .26; p < .01), O (r = .32; p < .01), Perspective Taking (r = .25; p < .01), Other Oriented Reasoning (r = .32; p < .01), Mutual Moral Reasoning (r = .32; p < .01), Self Report Altruism (r= .26; p < .01) and Tuckman Procrastination Scale (r = .21; p < .01) but showed negative significant relationship with Personal Distress (r = -.26; p < .01)

Existential Wellbeing depicted significant positive relationship with Satisfaction with Life (r = .90; p < .01), Social Responsibility (r = .92; p < .01), Empathic Concern (r = .78; p < .01), Other Oriented Reasoning (r = .67; p < .01), Mutual Moral Reasoning (r = .67; p < .01), Self Report Altruism (r = .84; p < .01) and Tuckman Procrastination Scale (r = .94; p < .01) but showed negative significant relationship with Personal Distress (r = -.14; p < .05).

Satisfaction with Life showed significant positive relationship with Social Responsibility (r = .90; p < .01), Empathic Concern (r = .86; p < .01), Other Oriented Reasoning (r = .71; p < .01), Mutual Moral Reasoning (r = .70; p < .01), Self Report Altruism (r = .90; p < .01) and Tuckman Procrastination Scale (r = .88; p < .01) but no negative significant relations.

Social Responsibility has also showed significant positive relationship with Empathic Concern (r = .82; p < .01), O (r = .68; p < .01), Mutual Moral Reasoning (r = .67; p < .01), Self-ReportedAltruism (r = .86; p < .01) and Tuckman Procrastination Scale (r = .91; p < .01).

Empathic Concern depicted significant positive relationship with Other Oriented Reasoning (r = .81; p < .01), Mutual Moral Reasoning (r = .80; p < .01), Self

Report Altruism (r = .98; p < .01) and Tuckman Procrastination Scale (r = .80; p < .01) and a negative significant relationship with Personal Distress(r = -.15; p < .01).

Perspective Taking showed significant positive relationship with Personal Distress (r = .78; p < .01) but negative significant relationship with Other Oriented Reasoning (r = -.17; p < .01) and Mutual Moral Reasoning (r =.-17; p < .01).

Personal Distress showed no positive relations but has a significant negative relationship with Other Oriented Reasoning (r = -.19; p < .01), Mutual Moral Reasoning (r = -.19; p < .01) and Self Report Altruism (r = -.16; p < .01).

Other Oriented Reasoning depicted significant positive relationship with Mutual Moral Reasoning (r = .92; p < .01), Self Report Altruism (r = .78; p < .01) and Tuckman Procrastination Scale (r = .68; p < .01).

Mutual Moral Reasoning showed significant positive relationship with Self Report Altruism (r = .78; p < .01) and Tuckman Procrastination Scale (r = .68; p < .01). And finally, Self Report Altruism also showed significant positive relationship with Tuckman Procrastination Scale (r= .85; p < .01)

To be more precise, the highest significant positive relationship was between Empathic Concern and Self Report Altruism from the subscale of Pro-social Personality Battery (r = .98; p < .01).

In accordance with the current findings, the significant relationship between behavioural variables was already found in earlier studies which reported a highly significant positive relationship (p < .001) between Parenting styles, Pro-social and anti-social behavior in the present study.

Consistent with delinquency research, Parental Involvement and Positive parenting were strongly negatively related with delinquency while Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring were also found to have positive relation with delinquency (Frick et al, 1999; Boeldt et al, 2012; Dishion et al.1998).

Some of the most robust associations between parenting and later delinquent and behavioral problems include parental monitoring (keeping track of their child's whereabouts and behavior), inconsistent discipline (following through on commands),

parental involvement (participating in their child's activities), positive parenting (rewarding children for appropriate behavior), and corporal punishment (engaging in physical discipline such as spanking to punish bad behavior) (Dishion and McMahon,1998;Frick et al, 1999; Boeldt et al, 2012; Gardner 1989). Forexample, Frick et al. (1999) examined the associations between these parenting behaviors and delinquency. In a clinical sample of children ages 9 – 12, they found corporal punishment to be significantly associated with increased delinquent behavior. A trending association between poor monitoring and delinquencies was also found. While maternal and paternal involvement, positive parenting, and inconsistent discipline were associated with problem behavior within different age groups, they were not significantly related to delinquency and defiant symptoms in children 9 – 12 years old (Frick et al. 1999). Thus, it appears those parenting behaviors, particularly corporal punishment and poor parental monitoring; contribute to the link between aggression and delinquent behaviors.

For example, in a community sample of 525 at-risk boys, Brendgen et al. (2001) found that parental monitoring exacerbated the relation between proactive aggression at age 13 and delinquency-related violence at ages 16 and 17, such that at low levels of parental monitoring, proactive aggression was associated with increased levels of delinquency.

Wright and Cullen (2001) also reported that parental control that is not overly punitive and is consistent with early socialization is likely to result in lower involvement in delinquent activities during adolescence. Consistent with findings from Warr (1993), effective parental monitoring during these younger years may work to reduce opportunities to develop delinquent peer networks during adolescence, and consequently restrict opportunities for offending as young adults

Empirical evidence from the developmental literature suggests that ongoing parental attachment produces positive outcomes, in terms of identity development and overall well-being in young adulthood (Kenny 1987; Samoulis et al. 2001). In the Dunedin Health and Development study, for example, poor parenting in early life was associated with a two-fold increase in delinquent behavior and was an especially important predictor of delinquent behavior among children judged to have an irritable temperament (Henry *et al*., 1996).

Ineffective parenting practices have been identified as a risk factor for the development of conduct problems. Indeed, numerous longitudinal studies have demonstrated a significant relation between ineffective parenting practices and the development or escalation of child conduct problems (e.g., Dodgeet al. 2008; Kilgore et al. 2000; Shaw et al. 2000; Smith and Farrington 2004). These parenting practices include low levels of positive parenting, including lack of warmth or praise, and high levels of negative parenting, such as harsh or critical behavior. Although it is acknowledged that the relation between child conduct and parenting contains bidirectional influences and evolves in a transactional manner over time (Lansford et al.2011; Pardini et al. 2008).

The present study also found consistency with previous research that supports the theoretical assertion that parenting styles are linked to pro-social development (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998). In several studies parenting styles have been related to pro-social development (Barber et al. 2005; Baumrind 1991; Laible et al. 2004; Maccoby and Martin 1983). Carlo et al. (1998) have suggested that parental practices are very important in the prediction of pro-social behaviors.

The available evidence indicates that supportive parenting is associated with pro-social behaviors (Carlo, Roesch and Melby, 1998; Eberly & Montemayor, 1998, 1999; Eisenberg-Berg & Mussen, 1978; Krevins & Gibbs, 1996) and that positive parenting is linked to adolescents' social responsibility, social competence, and pro-social behavior (Baumrind, 1991; Dekovic & Janssens,1992; Gunnoe, Hetherington and Reiss, 1999; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts and Dornbusch, 1994). Taken together, these studies suggest that the quality of parenting is positively associated with pro-social behavior in adolescence. However, no research has examined whether changes in the quality of parenting and family relationships predict changes in pro-social behaviors.

Eisenberg-Berg and Mussen (1978), and still others have shown parental warmth to be associated with pro-social behavior (Janssens and Gerris 1992; Zhou et al. 2002; also see Eisenberg and Fabes 1998). In contrast, research has linked power assertive disciplinary techniques with children's lower levels of pro-social behavior (Dekovic and Janssens 1992; Eisenberg and Fabes1998; Krevans and Gibbs 1996).

Prediction of the independent variables on dependent variables:

The ANOVA was computed to depict the significant independent effects of 'Ecology' and 'Gender', and their interaction effect on the test scores of the behavioral measures.

Table – 7: ANOVA for the effect of 'Ecology', 'Gender' and 'Ecology x Gender' on Behavioral variables (Parental Involvement, Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment, Poor Monitoring) for the whole samples.

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Eta square
Parental Involvement	Ecology	1036.80	1	1036.80	37.77**	.00	0.11
	Gender	479.30	1	479.30	16.41**	.00	0.05
	Ecology x Gender	1769.36	3	589.79	23.30**	.00	0.18
Positive Parenting	Ecology	80.00	1	80.00	5.50*	.02	0.02
	Gender	135.56	1	135.56	9.43**	.00	0.03
	Ecology x Gender	315.83	3	105.28	7.57**	.00	0.07
Inconsistent Discipline	Ecology	858.05	1	858.05	98.34**	.00	0.24
	Gender	11.58	1	11.58	1.02	.31	0.00
	Ecology x Gender	911.63	3	303.88	35.29**	.00	0.25
Corporal Punishment	Ecology	20.00	1	20.00	2.28	.32	0.01
	Gender	49.08	1	49.08	5.64**	.01	0.02
	Ecology x Gender	99.74	3	33.25	3.87**	.01	0.04
Poor Monitoring	Ecology	463.20	1	463.20	20.76**	.00	0.06
	Gender	596.07	1	596.07	27.22**	.00	0.08
	Ecology x Gender	2657.08	3	885.69	57.09**	.00	0.35

Table –8: ANOVA for the effect of 'Ecology', 'Gender' and 'Ecology x Gender' on Behavioral variables (Religious Wellbeing, Existential Wellbeing, Self

Report Delinquency, Satisfaction With Life Scale and Tuckman Procrastination Scale) for the whole samples.

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Eta square
Religious Wellbeing	Ecology	564.45	1	564.45	39.91**	.00	0.11
	Gender	343.80	1	343.80	23.17**	.00	0.07
	Ecology x Gender	866.36	3	288.79	21.75**	.00	0.17
Existential Wellbeing	Ecology	559.15	1	559.15	43.87**	.00	0.12
	Gender	1056.49	1	1056.49	94.49**	.00	0.23
	Ecology x Gender	1729.73	3	576.58	63.21**	.00	0.38
Self Report Delinquency	Ecology	130.05	1	130.05	13.87**	.00	0.04
	Gender	0.04	1	0.04	0.00	.00	0.00
	Ecology x Gender	177.75	3	59.25	6.38**	.00	0.06
Satisfaction With Life Scale	Ecology	154.01	1	154.01	38.01**	.00	0.11
	Gender	267.90	1	267.90	72.54**	.00	0.19
	Ecology x Gender	463.93	3	154.64	49.94**	.00	0.32
Tuckman Procrastination Scale	Ecology	1029.61	1	1029.61	38.76**	.00	0.11
	Gender	1961.39	1	1961.39	82.98**	.00	0.21
	Ecology x Gender	3159.70	3	1053.23	52.68**	.00	0.33

Table -9 : ANOVA for the effect of 'Ecology', Gender' and 'Ecology x Gender' on Behavioral variables Social Responsibility, Empathic Concern, Perspective Taking, Mutual Moral Reasoning, Other Oriented Reasoning, Personal Distress and Self Report Altruism) for the whole samples.

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Eta square
Social Responsibility	Ecology	346.53	1	346.53	44.00**	.00	0.12
	Gender	528.98	1	528.98	72.44**	.00	0.19
	Ecology x Gender	987.71	3	329.24	55.84**	.00	0.35
Empathic Concern	Ecology	330.08	1	330.08	72.75**	.00	0.19
	Gender	326.89	1	326.89	71.88**	.00	0.18
	Ecology x Gender	731.47	3	243.82	73.98**	.00	0.41
Perspective Taking	Ecology	492.53	1	492.53	80.23**	.00	0.20
	Gender	446.22	1	446.22	71.01**	.00	0.18
	Ecology x Gender	976.36	3	325.45	70.04**	.00	0.40
Mutual Moral Reasoning	Ecology	306.15	1	306.15	76.77**	.00	0.19
	Gender	346.92	1	346.92	89.88**	.00	0.22
	Ecology x Gender	665.25	3	221.75	77.08**	.00	0.42
Other Oriented Reasoning	Ecology	316.01	1	316.01	81.16**	.00	0.20
	Gender	332.43	1	332.43	86.52**	.00	0.21
	Ecology x Gender	662.20	3	220.73	78.20**	.00	0.43
Personal Distress	Ecology	314.03	1	314.03	105.04**	.00	0.25
	Gender	199.95	1	199.95	59.71**	.00	0.16
	Ecology x Gender	516.34	3	172.11	72.67**	.00	0.41
Self Report Altruism	Ecology	444.15	1	444.15	70.24**	.00	0.18
	Gender	495.30	1	495.30	80.37**	.00	0.20
	Ecology x Gender	1036.60	3	345.53	76.97**	.00	0.42

(- Significant at .05; ** - Significant at .01)*

The illustration of the results of ANOVA Table : 7 -9 showed significant independent effects of ‘Ecology’’ for all the analyses on the subscales of Alabama Parenting Questionnaire; Parental Involvement ($F = 37.77$; $p < .01$; $\eta^2 = .11$), Positive Parenting ($F = 5.50$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .02$), Inconsistent Discipline ($F = 98.34$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .24$), Poor Monitoring ($F = 20.76$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .06$), but not on Corporal Punishment. The table also showed significant independent effects of ‘Ecology’’ for all the analyses on Religious Wellbeing ($F = 39.91$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .11$), Existential Wellbeing ($F = 43.87$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .12$), Self Report Delinquency ($F = 13.87$; $p < .01$; $\eta^2 = .04$), Satisfaction With Life ($F = 38.01$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .11$), Tuckman Procrastination Scale ($F = 52.68$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .33$), Social Responsibility ($F = 44.00$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .12$),Empathic Concern ($F = 72.75$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .19$), PT ($F = 80.23$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .20$), Mutual Moral Reasoning ($F = 76.77$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .19$), Other Oriented Reasoning ($F = 81.16$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .20$), Personal Distress ($F = 105.04$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .25$), Self Report Altruism ($F = 70.24$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .18$).

It also depicted significant independent effects of ‘gender’ for all the analyses on the subscales of APQ; Parental Involvement ($F = 16.41$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .05$), Positive Parenting ($F = 9.43$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .03$), Corporal Punishment ($F = 5.64$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .02$), Poor Monitoring ($F = 27.22$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .08$), but not on Inconsistent Discipline. The table also showed significant independent effects of ‘ecology’’ for all the analyses on Religious Wellbeing ($F = 23.17$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .07$), Existential Wellbeing ($F = 94.49$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .23$), SWLS ($F = 72.54$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .19$), Tuckman Procrastination Scale ($F = 82.98$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .21$), Social Responsibility ($F = 72.44$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .19$),Empathic Concern ($F = 71.88$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .18$), Perspective Taking ($F = 71.01$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .18$), Mutual Moral Reasoning ($F = 89.88$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .22$), Other Oriented Reasoning ($F = 86.52$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .21$), Personal Distress ($F = 59.71$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .16$), Self Report Altruism ($F = 80.37$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .20$) but not on Self Report Delinquency.

It also illustrated significant independent interaction effects of ‘Ecology’ and ‘Gender’ for all the analyses on Parental Involvement ($F = 23.30$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .18$), Positive Parenting ($F = 7.57$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .07$), Inconsistent Discipline ($F = 35.29$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .25$), Corporal Punishment ($F = 3.87$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .04$), Poor Monitoring ($F = 57.09$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .35$),. The table also showed significant independent effects of ‘ecology’’ for all the analyses on Religious Wellbeing ($F = 21.75$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .17$),

Existential Wellbeing ($F = 63.21$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .38$), Self Report Delinquency ($F = 6.38$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .06$), Satisfaction With Life ($F = 52.68$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .32$), Tuckman Procrastination Scale ($F = 52.68$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .33$), SR ($F= 55.84$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .35$), Empathic Concern ($F = 73.98$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .41$), Perspective Taking ($F =70.04$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .40$), Mutual Moral Reasoning ($F = 77.08$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .42$), O ($F = 78.20$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .43$), Personal Distress ($F = 72.67$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .41$), Self Report Altruism ($F = 76.97$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .42$).

The results revealed the effect-size on Parental Involvement indicated that ecology showed effect of 11% ($p < .01$) and gender had effect size of 05% ($p < .01$); Positive Parenting indicated that ecology showed effect of 02% ($p < .05$) and gender had effect size of 03% ($p < .01$); Inconsistent Discipline indicated that ecology showed effect of 24% ($p < .01$) while gender had no significant effect; Corporal Punishment indicated that ecology showed no significant effect while gender had effect size of 02% ($p < .01$); Poor Monitoring indicated that ecology showed effect of 06% ($p < .01$) and gender had effect size of 08% ($p < .01$); Religious Wellbeing indicated that ecology showed effect of 11% ($p < .01$) and gender had effect size of 07% ($p < .01$); Existential Wellbeing indicated that ecology showed effect of 12% ($p < .01$) and gender had effect size of 23% ($p < .01$); Self Report Delinquency indicated that ecology showed effect of 04% ($p < .01$) while gender showed no significant effect; SWLS indicated that ecology showed effect of 11% ($p < .01$) and gender had effect size of 19% ($p < .01$); Tuckman Procrastination Scale indicated that ecology showed effect of 11% ($p < .01$) and gender had effect size of 21% ($p < .01$); Social Responsibility indicated that ecology showed effect of 12% ($p < .01$) and gender had effect size of 19% ($p < .01$); Empathic Concern indicated that ecology showed effect of 19% ($p < .01$) and gender had effect size of 18% ($p < .01$); Perspective Taking indicated that ecology showed effect of 20% ($p < .01$) and gender had effect size of 18% ($p < .01$); Mutual Moral Reasoning indicated that ecology showed effect of 19% ($p < .01$) and gender had effect size of 22% ($p < .01$); Other Oriented Reasoning indicated that ecology showed effect of 20% ($p < .01$) and gender had effect size of 21% ($p < .01$); Personal Distress indicated that ecology showed effect of 25% ($p < .01$) and gender had effect size of 16% ($p< .01$) and Self Report Altruism indicated that ecology showed effect of 18% ($p < .01$) and gender had effect size of 20% ($p < .01$)

The result showed interaction effect of ‘ecology and gender’ on Parental Involvement with effect size of 18% ($p < .01$); Positive Parenting with effect size of 7% ($p < .01$); Inconsistent Discipline with effect size of 25% ($p < .01$); Corporal Punishment with effect size of 04% ($p < .01$); Poor Monitoring with effect size of 35% ($p < .01$); Religious Wellbeing with effect size of 17% ($p < .01$); Existential Wellbeing with effect size of 38% ($p < .01$); Self Report Delinquency with effect size of 6% ($p < .01$); Satisfaction With Life with effect size of 32% ($p < .01$); Tuckman Procrastination Scale with effect size of 33% ($p < .01$); Social Responsibility with effect size of 35% ($p < .01$); Empathic Concern with effect size of 41% ($p < .01$); Perspective Taking with effect size of 40% ($p < .01$); Mutual Moral Reasoning with effect size of 42% ($p < .01$); Other Oriented Reasoning with effect size of 43% ($p < .01$); Personal Distress with effect size of 41% ($p < .01$) and Self Report Altruism with effect size of 42% ($p < .01$).

Thus, results on Table: 7 – 9 showed that ‘Ecology’ appeared to have the highest significant independent effect on Personal Distress ($F = 105.04$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .25$) among all the behavioral variables. The same goes for ‘gender’, that is, gender had the highest independent effect on Existential Wellbeing ($F = 94.49$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .23$), and largest effect size was found to be on Other Oriented Reasoning from the sub scales of Pro-Social Personality Battery 43% ($p < .01$).

Multiple Regression Analysis:

Using the step wise method model of Regression, a significant model emerged that the Durbin Watson statistics and the co linearity statistics were supported by the normality and the homogeneity of the regression slope.

Table- 10: R^2, Durbin Watson, Standardized Beta-values, Tolerance and VIF values in the multiple stepwise regression for the prediction of Self Report Delinquency(SRD) by the APQ sub-scales of Parental Involvement (PI), Positive Parenting (PP), Inconsistent Discipline (ID) Corporal Punishment AND), Parental Monitoring for the whole samples.

Criterion	Predictor Model	R2	F change	sig	DW		Beta	T	VIF
SELF REPORT DELINGUENCY	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT	0.01	0.08	0.78	1.77	PI	-0.02	1	1
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING	0.02	5.18	0.02		PI	0.03	0.89	1.13
						PP	-0.14	0.89	1.13
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING,INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE	0.03	4.45	0.04		PI	0.03	0.88	1.13
						PP	-0.14	0.88	1.14
						ID	0.12	0.99	1.01
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING,INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT	0.03	0.03	0.86		PI	0.03	0.86	1.16
						PP	-0.15	0.88	1.14
						ID	0.12	0.99	1.01
						PM	0.01	0.97	1.03
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING,INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT, POOR MONITORING	0.03	0.31	0.58		PI	0.03	0.86	1.17
						PP	-0.15	0.87	1.15
						ID	0.20	0.99	1.01
						CP	0.01	0.97	1.03
						PM	-0.03	0.98	1.02

The findings shown in Table - 10 revealed that Positive Parenting and Inconsistent Discipline are significant predictors on scores of Self Report Delinquency. Parental Involvement as a predictor explains 1% of Self Report Delinquency; Parental Involvement and Positive Parenting together explains 2%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting and Inconsistent Discipline explains 3%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Corporal Punishment explains 3% ; and Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring explains3% of Self Report Delinquency for the whole sample.

Table- 11: R^2, Durbin Watson, Standardized Beta-values, Tolerance and VIF values in the multiple stepwise regression for the prediction of Religious Wellbeing (RWB) by the APQ sub-scales of Parental Involvement (PI), Positive Parenting (PP), Inconsistent Discipline (ID) Corporal Punishment (CP), Parental Monitoring (PM) for the whole samples.

Criterion	Predictor Model	R^2	F change	sig	DW		Beta	T	VIF
RELIGIOUS WELL-BEING	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT	0.01	2.65	0.10	.87	PI	-0.09	1	1
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING	0.01	0.34	0.56		PI	-0.08	0.89	1.13
						PP	-0.03	0.89	1.13
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE	0.09	26.29	0.00		PI	-0.08	0.88	1.13
						PP	-0.01	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.28	0.99	1.01
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT	0.09	0.55	0.46		PI	-0.07	0.86	1.16
						PP	-0.01	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.29	0.89	1.01
						CP	-0.04	0.97	1.03
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT, POOR MONITORING	0.10	4.11	0.04		PI	-0.07	0.85	1.17
						PP	0.00	0.87	1.15
						ID	-0.28	0.99	1.01
						CP	-0.05	0.97	1.03
						PM	0.11	0.98	1.02

The findings shown in Table - 11 revealed that Inconsistent Discipline and Poor Monitoring are significant predictors on scores of Religious Wellbeing. Parental Involvement as a predictor explains 1% of Religious Wellbeing; Parental Involvement and Positive Parenting together explains 1%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting and Inconsistent Discipline explains 9%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Corporal Punishment explains 9% ; and Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring explains 10% of Religious Wellbeing for the whole sample.

Table- 12 : R^2, Durbin Watson, Standardized Beta-values, Tolerance and VIF values in the multiple stepwise regression for the prediction of Existential Wellbeing (EWB) by APQ sub-scales of Parental Involvement (PI), Positive Parenting (PP), Inconsistent Discipline (ID) Corporal Punishment (CP), Parental Monitoring (PM) for the whole samples.

Criterion	Predictor Model	R2	F change	sig	DW		Beta	T	VIF
EXISTENTIAL WELLBEING	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT	0.01	4.33	0.03	1.05	PI	-0.11	1	1
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING	0.02	3.29	0.07		PI	-0.08	0.89	1.13
						PP	-0.11	0.89	1.13
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING,INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE	0.04	5.44	0.02		PI	-0.08	0.88	1.13
						PP	-0.10	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.13	0.99	1.01
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING,INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT	0.04	0.07	0.79		PI	-0.08	0.86	1.16
						PP	-0.10	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.13	0.99	1.01
						PM	-0.02	0.97	1.03
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING,INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT, POOR MONITORING	0.09	16.51	0.00		PI	-0.09	0.86	1.17
						PP	-0.08	0.87	1.15
						ID	-0.14	0.99	1.01
						CP	-0.03	0.97	1.03
						PM	0.22	0.98	1.02

The findings shown in Table - 12 revealed that Parental Involvement, Inconsistent Discipline and Poor Monitoring are significant predictors on scores of Existential Wellbeing. Parental Involvement as a predictor explains 1% of Existential Wellbeing; Parental Involvement and Positive Parenting together explains 2%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting and Inconsistent Discipline explains 4%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Corporal Punishment explains 4% ; and Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring explains 9% of Existential Wellbeing for the whole sample.

Table- 13 : R^2, Durbin Watson, Standardized Beta-values, Tolerance and VIF values in the multiple stepwise regression for the prediction of Satisfaction With Life (SWLS) by APQ sub-scales of Parental Involvement (PI), Positive Parenting (PP), Inconsistent Discipline (ID) Corporal Punishment (CP), Parental Monitoring (PM) for the whole samples.

Criterion	Predictor Model	R2	F change	sig	DW		Beta	T	VIF
SATISFACTION WITH LIFE SCALE	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT	0.01	3.36	0.07	1.15	PI	-0.10	1	1
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING	0.04	9.05	0.00		PI	-0.04	0.89	1.13
						PP	-0.18	0.89	1.13
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE	0.05	3.89	0.05		PI	-0.04	0.88	1.13
						PP	-0.17	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.11	0.99	1.01
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT	0.05	1.06	0.30		PI	-0.03	0.86	1.16
						PP	-0.17	0.89	1.14
						ID	-0.11	0.99	1.01
						PM	-0.06	0.97	1.03
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT, POOR MONITORING	0.09	14.25	0.00		PI	-0.04	0.86	1.17
						PP	-0.15	0.87	1.15
						ID	-0.12	0.99	1.01
						CP	-0.07	0.97	1.03
						PM	0.20	0.98	1.02

The findings shown in Table - 13 revealed that Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Poor Monitoring are significant predictors on scores of Satisfaction with Life. Parental Involvement as a predictor explains 1% of Satisfaction with Life; Parental Involvement and Positive Parenting together explains 4%; Parental Involvement, Positive Parenting and Inconsistent Discipline explains 5%; Parental Involvement, Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Corporal Punishment explains 5%; and Parental Involvement, Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring explains 9% of Satisfaction with Life for the whole sample.

Table- 14: R^2, Durbin Watson, Standardized Beta-values, Tolerance and VIF values in the multiple stepwise regression for the prediction of Social Responsibility by APQ sub-scales of Parental Involvement (PI), Positive Parenting (PP), Inconsistent Discipline (ID) Corporal Punishment (CP), Parental Monitoring (PM) for the whole samples.

Criterion	Predictor Model	R^2	F change	sig	DW		Beta	T	VIF
SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT	0.01	3.32	0.07	1.11	PI	-0.10	1	1
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING	0.02	4.10	0.04		PI	-0.06	0.89	1.13
						PP	-0.12	0.89	1.13
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE	0.04	4.91	0.03		PI	-0.06	0.88	1.13
						PP	-0.11	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.12	0.99	1.01
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORAL PUNISHMENT	0.04	0.72	0.40		PI	-0.05	0.86	1.16
						PP	-0.11	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.12	0.99	1.01
						PM	-0.05	0.97	1.03
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORAL PUNISHMENT, POOR MONITORING	0.08	12.67	0.00		PI	-0.06	0.86	1.17
						PP	-0.09	0.87	1.15
						ID	-0.13	0.99	1.01
						CP	-0.06	0.97	1.03
						PM	0.19	0.98	1.02

The findings shown in Table - 14 revealed that Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Poor Monitoring are significant predictors on scores ofSocial Responsibility. Parental Involvement as a predictor explains 1% of Social Responsibility; Parental Involvement and Positive Parenting together explains 2%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting and Inconsistent Discipline explains 4%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Corporal

Punishment explains 4% ; and Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring explains 8% of Social Responsibility for the whole sample.

Table- 15: R^2, Durbin Watson, Standardized Beta-values, Tolerance and VIF values in the multiple stepwise regression for the prediction of Empathic Concern by APQ sub-scales of Parental Involvement (PI), Positive Parenting (PP), Inconsistent Discipline (ID) Corporal Punishment (CP), Parental Monitoring (PM) for the whole samples.

Criterion	Predictor Model	R2	F change	sig	DW		Beta	T	VIF
EMPATHETIC CONCERN	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT	0.01	3.79	0.05	1.16	PI	-0.11	1	1
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING	0.03	5.74	0.02		PI	-0.06	0.89	1.13
						PP	-0.14	0.89	1.13
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE	0.07	12.55	0.00		PI	-0.06	0.88	1.13
						PP	-0.13	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.19	0.99	1.01
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORAL PUNISHMENT	0.07	0.75	0.39		PI	-0.05	0.86	1.16
						PP	-0.13	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.19	0.99	1.01
						PM	-0.05	0.97	1.03
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT, POOR MONITORING	0.12	19.58	0.00		PI	-0.06	0.86	1.17
						PP	-0.10	0.87	1.15
						ID	-0.20	0.99	1.01
						PM	-0.06	0.97	1.03
						CP	0.24	0.98	1.02

The findings shown in Table - 15 revealed that Parental Involvement, Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Poor Monitoring are significant predictors on scores ofEmpathic Concern. Parental Involvement as a predictor explains 1% of Social Responsibility; Parental Involvement and Positive Parenting together explains 3%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting and Inconsistent Discipline explains 7%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Corporal

Punishment explains 7% ; and Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring explains 12% of Empathic Concern for the whole sample.

Table - 16: R^2, Durbin Watson, Standardized Beta-values, Tolerance and VIF values in the multiple stepwise regression for the prediction of Perspective Taking by APQ sub-scales of Parental Involvement (PI), Positive Parenting (PP), Inconsistent Discipline (ID) Corporal Punishment (CP), Parental Monitoring (PM) for the whole samples.

Criterion	Predictor Model	R2	F change	sig	DW		Beta	T	VIF
PERSPECTIVE TAKING	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT	0.01	0.16	0.69	1.18	PI	0.02	1	1
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING	0.01	1.28	0.26		PI	-0.00	0.89	1.13
						PP	0.07	0.89	1.13
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE	0.05	14.83	0.00		PI	-0.00	0.88	1.13
						PP	0.05	0.88	1.14
						ID	0.21	0.99	1.01
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT	0.05	0.31	0.58		PI	-0.01	0.86	1.16
						PP	0.05	0.88	1.14
						ID	0.21	0.99	1.01
						PM	0.03	0.97	1.03
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT, POOR MONITORING	0.12	26.28	0.00		PI	0.01	0.86	1.17
						PP	0.02	0.87	1.15
						ID	0.22	0.99	1.01
						PM	0.50	0.97	1.03
						CP	-0.15	0.98	1.02

The findings shown in Table -16 revealed that Inconsistent Discipline and Poor Monitoring are significant predictors on scores of Perspective Taking. Parental Involvement as a predictor explains 1% of Perspective Taking; Parental Involvement and Positive Parenting together explains 1%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting and Inconsistent Discipline explains 5%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Corporal Punishment explains 5% ; and Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring explains 12% of Perspective Taking for the whole sample.

Table- 17: R^2, Durbin Watson, Standardized Beta-values, Tolerance and VIF values in the multiple stepwise regression for the prediction of Personal Distress by APQ sub-scales of Parental Involvement (PI), Positive Parenting (PP), Inconsistent Discipline (ID) Corporal Punishment (CP), Parental Monitoring (PM) for the whole samples.

Criterion	Predictor Model	R^2	F change	sig	DW		Beta	T	VIF
PERSONAL DISTRESS	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT	0.01	1.90	0.17	1.52	PI	0.08	1	1
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING	0.02	3.63	0.06		PI	0.04	0.88	1.13
						PP	0.11	0.88	1.13
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE	0.09	24.88	0.00		PI	0.03	0.88	1.13
						PP	0.09	0.88	1.14
						ID	0.27	0.99	1.01
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT	0.09	0.45	0.50		PI	0.03	0.86	1.16
						PP	0.09	0.88	1.14
						ID	0.27	0.99	1.01
						PM	0.04	0.97	1.03
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT, POOR MONITORING	0.13	15.09	0.00		PI	0.04	0.86	1.17
						PP	0.07	0.87	1.15
						ID	0.28	0.99	1.01
						PM	0.05	0.97	1.03
						CP	-0.21	0.98	1.02

The findings shown in Table –17 revealed that Inconsistent Discipline and Poor Monitoring are significant predictors on scores ofPersonal Distress. Parental Involvement as a predictor explains 1% of Personal Distress; Parental Involvement and Positive Parenting together explains 9%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting and Inconsistent Discipline explains 9%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Corporal Punishment explains 13% ; and Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring explains 12% of Personal Distress for the whole sample.

Table- 18: R^2, Durbin Watson, Standardized Beta-values, Tolerance and VIF values in the multiple stepwise regression for the prediction of Mutual Moral Reasoning by APQ sub-scales of Parental Involvement (PI), Positive Parenting (PP), Inconsistent Discipline (ID) Corporal Punishment (CP), Parental Monitoring (PM) for the whole samples.

Criterion	Predictor Model	R2	F change	sig	DW		Beta	T	VIF
MUTUAL MORAL REASONING	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT	0.01	1.95	0.16	1.28	PI	-0.09	1	1
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING	0.01	2.05	0.15		PI	-0.05	0.88	1.13
						PP	-0.08	0.88	1.13
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE	0.06	16.75	0.00		PI	-0.05	0.88	1.13
						PP	-0.07	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.22	0.99	1.01
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT	0.06	0.02	0.88		PI	-0.04	0.86	1.16
						PP	-0.05	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.22	0.99	1.01
						PM	-0.01	0.97	1.03
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT, POOR MONITORING	0.12	19.45	0.00		PI	-0.06	0.86	1.17
						PP	-0.04	0.87	1.15
						ID	-0.23	0.99	1.01
						PM	-0.02	0.97	1.03
						CP	0.24	0.98	1.02

The findings shown in Table – 18 revealed that Inconsistent Discipline and Poor Monitoring are significant predictors on scores ofMutual Moral Reasoning. Parental Involvement as a predictor explains 1% of Personal Distress; Parental Involvement and Positive Parenting together explains 1%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting and Inconsistent Discipline explains 6%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Corporal Punishment explains 6% ; and Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring explains 12% of Mutual Moral Reasoning for the whole sample.

Table- 19: R^2, Durbin Watson, Standardized Beta-values, Tolerance and VIF values in the multiple stepwise regression for the prediction of Other Oriented Reasoning by APQ sub-scales of Parental Involvement (PI), Positive Parenting (PP), Inconsistent Discipline (ID) Corporal Punishment (CP), Parental Monitoring (PM) for the whole samples.

Criterion	Predictor Model	R2	F change	sig	DW		Beta	T	VIF
OTHER ORIENTED REASONING	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT	0.01	1.69	0.20	1.29	PI	-0.07	1	1
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING	0.01	2.06	0.15		PI	-0.04	0.89	1.13
						PP	-0.09	0.89	1.13
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE	0.07	18.26	0.00		PI	-0.04	0.89	1.13
						PP	-0.07	0.88	1.13
						ID	-0.23	0.99	1.00
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT	0.07	.19	0.66		PI	-0.04	0.86	1.16
						PP	-0.07	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.23	0.99	1.00
						CP	-0.02	0.97	1.03
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT, POOR MONITORING	0.13	21.45	0.00		PI	-0.05	0.86	1.17
						PP	-0.04	0.87	1.15
						ID	-0.24	0.99	1.01
						PM	-0.04	0.97	1.03
						CP	0.25	0.98	1.02

The findings shown in Table – 19 revealed that Parental Involvement, Inconsistent Discipline and Poor Monitoring are significant predictors on scores ofOther Oriented Reasoning. Parental Involvement as a predictor explains 1% of Other Oriented Reasoning; Parental Involvement and Positive Parenting together explains 1%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting and Inconsistent Discipline explains 7%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Corporal Punishment explains 7% ; and Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring explains 13% of Other Oriented Reasoning for the whole sample.

Table- 20: R^2, Durbin Watson, Standardized Beta-values, Tolerance and VIF values in the multiple stepwise regression for the prediction of Self Reported Altruism by APQ sub-scales of Parental Involvement (PI), Positive Parenting (PP), Inconsistent Discipline (ID) Corporal Punishment (CP), Parental Monitoring (PM) for the whole samples.

Criterion	Predictor Model	R2	F change	sig	DW		Beta	T	VIF
SELF REPORT ALTRUISM	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT	0.01	4.60	0.03	1.11	PI	-0.12	1	1
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING	0.03	6.94	0.01		PI	-0.07	0.88	1.13
						PP	-0.15	0.88	1.13
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE	0.07	12.01	0.00		PI	-0.06	0.88	1.13
						PP	-0.14	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.19	0.99	1.01
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT	0.07	1.09	0.30		PI	-0.05	0.86	1.16
						PP	-0.14	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.19	0.99	1.01
						PM	-0.06	0.97	1.03
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT, POOR MONITORING	0.13	20.39	0.00		PI	-0.07	0.86	1.17
						PP	-0.12	0.87	1.15
						ID	-0.20	0.99	1.01
						PM	-0.07	0.97	1.03
						CP	0.24	0.98	1.02

The findings shown in Table – 20 revealed that Parental Involvement, Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Poor Monitoring are significant predictors on scores ofSelf Reported Altruism. Parental Involvement as a predictor explains 1% of Self Reported Altruism; Parental Involvement and Positive Parenting together explains 3%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting and Inconsistent Discipline explains 7%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Corporal Punishment explains 7% ; and Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring explains 13% of Self-Reported Altruism for the whole sample.

Table- 21: R^2, Durbin Watson, Standardized Beta-values, Tolerance and VIF values in the multiple stepwise regression for the prediction of Tuckman Procrastination Scale by APQ sub-scales of Parental Involvement (PI), Positive Parenting (PP), Inconsistent Discipline (ID) Corporal Punishment (CP), Parental Monitoring (PM) for the whole samples.

Criterion	Predictor Model	R2	F change	sig	DW		Beta	T	VIF
TUCKMAN PROCRASTINATION SCALE	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT	0.02	5.36	0.02	1.17	PI	-0.13	1	1
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING	0.03	3.51	0.06		PI	-0.09	0.86	1.14
						PP	-0.11	0.88	1.15
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE	0.04	4.10	0.04		PI	-0.09	0.89	1.13
						PP	-0.10	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.11	0.99	1.07
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT	0.04	.13	0.72		PI	-0.09	0.86	1.16
						PP	-0.10	0.88	1.14
						ID	-0.11	0.97	1.06
						PM	-0.02	0.95	1.07
	PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT, POSITIVE PARENTING, INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE, CORPORALPUNISHMENT, POOR MONITORING	0.08	14.91	0.00		PI	-0.10	0.86	1.17
						PP	-0.08	0.87	1.15
						ID	-0.12	0.94	1.08
						PM	-0.03	0.94	1.06
						CP	0.21	0.95	1.07

The findings shown in Table – 21 revealed that Parental Involvement, Inconsistent Discipline and Poor Monitoring are significant predictors on scores ofTuckman Procrastination Scale. Parental Involvement as a predictor explains 2% of Self-Reported Altruism; Parental Involvement and Positive Parenting together explains 3%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting and Inconsistent Discipline explains 4%; Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Corporal Punishment explains 4% ; and Parental Involvement,Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring explains 8% of Tuckman Procrastination Scale for the whole sample.

The Conclusion and summary of the results of the present Study is presented in the next Chapter, **Chapter – V: Summary and Conclusion**.

Given the theoretical and empirical background and underpinnings on perceived parenting styles, pro-social and anti-social characteristics and spiritual wellbeing, the main concern of the present study is to understand the mechanisms by which parenting styles affect pro-social and anti-social characteristics as well as spiritual wellbeing.

The study was designed with manifold objectives to delineate the research problem envisaged above. The study aimed to elucidate the psychometric adequacy of the behavioral measures of :(i) Alabama Parenting Questionnaire APQ; Frick, 1991), (ii) The Self-Reported Delinquency Measure(SRD; Elliot & Ageton, 1980), (iii) Spiritual Wellbeing Scale (SWBS; Paloutzian and Ellison, 1982),(iv) Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, Griffin, 1985), (v) The Pro-social Personality Battery (Penner, L.A, 2002),and (vi**)** 16-item Tuckman Procrastination Scale (Tuckman, 1990) for measurement purposes in the target population - the Mizo. These analyses revealed that specific items of all measures were endorsed within the optical limits.

To achieve the objectives, 600 (300 male and 300 female; 150 rural and150 urban samples in each category) young Mizo adults age ranging between 19 – 30 years were randomly selected on the basis of multi-stage random sampling procedure from Mizoram. With the objective to equate/match the sample and obtain a representative sample, a number of background information of the subject like family structure with information on age of the respondent when the parent passed away, or age of the respondent at the time of divorce in case of single parenting. Age, gender, Employment status, average monthly income, marital status, educational qualification, occupation, religious denomination, participation in NGO's and church, name of village/district were recorded. Preliminary analyses revealed that all the extraneous variables were more or less uniformly distributed across the samples.

The preliminary psychometric analyses of the behavioral measures included the analysis of (i) item-total coefficient of correlation (as an index of internal consistency and item validity) was ascertained for the scale/subscales of the behavioral measures with the criterion of items showing item-total coefficient of correlation $\geq .01$ for the whole sample to be retained for further analysis, (ii) Reliabilty coefficients (Cronbach alphas & Split- half) of the specific subscales, (iii)

inter-scale relationships (in the instances where there were two or more subscales/ sub-factors).Following the broad format of analysis,the psychometric properties of the behavioral measures were analyzed by employing IBM-SPSS.

These analyses were aimed with the objective (i) to find consistency in results, (ii) to evolve theoretical constructs and (iii) to find empirical basis for comparability of the test scales for cross-cultural studies in view of the theoretical and methodological foundations that the psychological test(s) of proven psychometric adequacy for a given population, if transported and employed for measurement purposes in another cultural milieu, may not carry their identical psychometric properties (Witkins & Berry, 1975).

Psychometric analyses of the behavioral measures revealed that the tests (as incorporated in the present study) find their reliability in the project population for the measurement of the theoretical constructs. The trends of mean differences on the various scales/sub-scales measures of the behavioral gamut revealed : (i) female scored higher on the dependent measures like Spiritual Wellbeing (Religious wellbeing and existential wellbeing) , Satisfaction with Life and Pro-social Personality and Procrastination tendency than Males.(ii) Males manifested greater scores on Alabama Parenting Questionnaire and Self Report Delinquency (SRD) (iii) urban samples scored higher on the dependent measures like Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ), and Self report Delinquency (SRD) than rural samples (iv) rural samples scored higher on the dependent variables like Spiritual Wellbeing Scale (SWBS), Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS), Pro-social Personality Battery (PSB) and Tuckman Procrastination Scale (TPS) than urban population.

The psychometric properties of behavioral measures were computed which confirmed the adequacies of the psychometric properties of the selected scales for measurement purposes for the present study. The reliability coefficients emerge to be strong indicating the dependability of the test scales for measurement purposes in the project population (Mizo). The reliability coefficient (Cronbach Alphas and Spearman Brown Coefficient) also revealed substantial consistency over the level of analyses that ascertained applicability of the scales/subscales of the behavioral measures and recommended using a total score of scale as well as subscale scores. Furthermore, the

preliminary psychometric analyses for each of the specific items and scales/subscales were determined with the objectives to ensure further statistical analyses, and the results are presented in Table-5, warranted applicability of the behavioral variables for measurement purposes. Overall, the reliability coefficients emerged to be robust, suggesting the trustworthiness of the test scales for measurement purposes in the project population under study. The Levene's Test of Equality of error Variances for each scale, also shown in Tables – 5, revealed non-significance on all the scales that indicated that there was a difference between the variances (heterogeneous variance) on all behavioural variables. The *Brown forsythe* results revealed the robust of equality means on all behavioural measures, depicting significant level that counter confirmed the applicability of parametric statistics for further analysis including ANOVA and Regression Analysis in the present study.

The bivariate relationships between the scales/subscales of the behavioral measures were computed for the whole sample to indicate significant relationship of variables for further analysis in predicting cause and effect among variables. Result table-6 revealed that : (i) for the behavioral measures of the subscales of the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire - Parental Involvement and Positive Parenting styles were strongly negatively related with delinquency and also showed moderate positive relation with almost all the subscales of Pro-social Personality Battery which is consistent with the literature that warm and positive styles of parenting decreases anti-social behavior or delinquency while Lack of parental warmth is a risk factor for aggressive and delinquent behavior problems (Loeber and Dishion 1983; Stormshak et al. 2000), (ii) Ineffective parenting practices including Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring were found to have significant positive relation with delinquency.(iii) Existential wellbeing and satisfaction with life also showed significant negative relation with delinquency and positive relation with pro-social personality subscales. The highest significant positive relationship was between Empathic Concern and Self Report Altruism from the subscale of Pro-social Personality Battery ($r = .98$; $p < .01$).At the same time the highest significant negative relationship was found to be between Positive Parenting and Delinquency ($r = -.42$; $p > .01$).

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} with post-hoc multiple mean comparison was employed to illustrate the

independent and interaction effect of the independent variables on selected dependent variables for the whole samples. The ANOVA was computed to depict the significant independent effects of 'Ecology' and 'Gender', and their interaction effect on the test scores of the behavioural measures. Results Table: 7 – 9 showed that 'Ecology' appeared to have the highest significant independent effect on Personal Distress ($F=105.04$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .25$) among all the behavioral variables. The same goes for 'Gender', that is, gender had the highest independent effect on Existential Wellbeing ($F = 94.49$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .23$), and largest effect size was found to be on Other Oriented Reasoning from the sub scales of Pro-Social Personality Battery 43% ($p < .01$).

The post-hoc multiple mean comparisons of Scheffe test was done sequentially on all behavioural measures of Parenting (Parental Involvement, Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring), Delinquency, Spiritual Wellbeing (Religious Wellbeing and Existential Wellbeing), Satisfaction with Life, Pro-social Personality (Social Responsibility, Empathic Concern, Perspective taking, Personal Distress, Mutual Moral Reasoning, Other Oriented Reasoning and Self Report Altruism) and Procrastination for the whole samples, which revealed mean differences significant interaction effects of 'Ecology and Gender' between almost all the groups on each variable, and was shown in Table 4 (a) to (p).

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Parental Involvement measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology and Gender. The mean score also showed that Male scored higher than females and Urban scored higher than Rural in Parental Involvement. The effect of Ecology on Parental Involvement is 11% and the effect of Gender on Parental Involvement is 5%.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Positive Parenting measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology and Gender. The mean score also showed that Male scored higher than females and Urban scored higher than Rural in Positive Parenting. The effect of Ecology on Positive Parenting is 2% and the effect of Gender on Parental Involvement is 3%.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Inconsistent Discipline measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology. The mean score also showed that Male scored higher than females and Urban scored higher than Rural in Inconsistent Discipline. The effect of Ecology on Inconsistent Discipline is 24% however there is no significant effect of Gender on Inconsistent Discipline.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Corporal Punishment measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Gender. The mean score also showed that Male scored higher than females and Rural scored higher than Urban in Corporal Punishment. The effect of Ecology on Corporal Punishment is 1% and the effect of Gender on Corporal Punishment is 2%.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Poor Monitoring measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology and Gender. The mean score also showed that Female scored higher than Males and Rural scored higher than Urban in Poor Monitoring. The effect of Ecology on Poor Monitoring is 6% and the effect of Gender on Parental Involvement is 8%.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Delinquency measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology and Gender. The mean score also showed that Female scored higher than Males and Rural scored higher than Urban in Poor Monitoring. The effect of Ecology on Poor Monitoring is 6% and the effect of Gender on Parental Involvement is 8%.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Religious Wellbeing measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology and Gender. The mean score also showed that Female scored higher than Male and Rural scored higher than Urban in Religious Wellbeing. The effect of Ecology on Religious Wellbeing is 11% and the effect of Gender on Religious Wellbeing is 7%.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Existential Wellbeing measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology and Gender. The mean score also showed that Female scored higher than Male and Rural scored higher than Urban in Existential Wellbeing. The effect of Ecology on Existential Wellbeing is 12% and the effect of Gender on Existential Wellbeing is 23%.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Satisfaction with Life measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology and Gender. The mean score also showed that Female scored higher than Male and Rural scored higher than Urban in Satisfaction with Life. The effect of Ecology on Satisfaction with Life is 11% and the effect of Gender on Satisfaction with Life is 19%.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Social Responsibility measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology and Gender. The mean score also showed that Female scored higher than Male and Rural scored higher than Urban in Social Responsibility. The effect of Ecology on Social Responsibility is 12% and the effect of Gender on Social Responsibility is 19%.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Empathic Concern measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology and Gender. The mean score also showed that Female scored higher than Male and Rural scored higher than Urban in Empathic Concern. The effect of Ecology on Empathic Concern is 19% and the effect of Gender on Empathic Concern is 18%.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Perspective Taking measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology and Gender. The mean score also showed that Male scored higher than Female and Urban scored higher than Rural in Perspective Taking. The effect of Ecology on Perspective Taking is 20% and the effect of Gender on Perspective Taking is 18%.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Personal Distress measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology and Gender. The mean score also showed that Male scored higher than Female and Urban scored higher than Rural in Personal Distress. The effect of Ecology on Personal Distress is 25% and the effect of Gender on Personal Distress is 16%.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Other Oriented Reasoning measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology and Gender. The mean score also showed that Female scored higher than Male and Rural scored higher than Urban in Other Oriented Reasoning. The effect of Ecology on Other Oriented Reasoning is 20% and the effect of Gender on Other Oriented Reasoning is 21%.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Mutual Moral Reasoning measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology and Gender. The mean score also showed that Female scored higher than Male and Rural scored higher than Urban in Mutual Moral Reasoning. The effect of Ecology on Mutual Moral Reasoning is 19% and the effect of Gender on Other Oriented Reasoning is 22%.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Self Report Altruism measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology and Gender. The mean score also showed that Female scored higher than Male and Rural scored higher than Urban in Self Report Altruism. The effect of Ecology on Self Report Altruism is 18% and the effect of Gender on Self Report Altruism is 20%.

Results of 2 X 2 ANOVA {2 gender (Male and Female) x 2 (Rural and Urban)} and post hoc mean comparisons on Procrastination measures revealed that there is a significant effect of Ecology and Gender. The mean score also showed that Female scored higher than Male and Rural scored higher than Urban in Procrastination. The effect of Ecology on Procrastination is 11% and the effect of Gender on Procrastination is 21%.

Multiple regression analysis was employed to determine Multi-colinearity indices of Durbin–Watson statistic, Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) were employed. This was done to detect the presence of autocorrelation in the residuals (prediction errors) to make conclusion of the cause and effect relationship. Results (Table - 10 to 21) showed that the predictability of most of the behavioral measures was determined by Parental Involvement, Positive Parenting, Inconsistent Discipline and Poor Monitoring. However, Corporal Punishment did not seem to predict the behavioral measures under study.

The result of this study is summarized in the following in relation to the theoretical expectation (hypotheses) set forth for the study:

1) Female exhibited greater scores than male on various psychological variables (Spiritual Wellbeing, Satisfaction with Life, Pro-social Personality and Procrastination) as compared to Male.
2) Male exhibited greater mean scores on Anti-Social Behavior (Delinquency) as compared to female.
3) Urban samples exhibited higher score than rural samples on Anti-Social Behavior (Delinquency).
4) Rural samples showed higher score as compared to Urban samples score on Pro-social Personality Characteristics.
5) Parental Involvement and Positive Parenting had negative correlation with Anti-Social Behavior (Delinquency) while Inconsistent Discipline, Corporal Punishment and Poor Monitoring had positive correlation with Anti-Social Behavior (Delinquency).
6) There are significant interactions between Ecology (Urban and Rural) and Gender (Male and Female) on the psychological variables {Perceived Parenting Styles, Anti-Social Behavior (Delinquency) Pro-social Personality, Spiritual Wellbeing, Satisfaction with Life, and Procrastination}.

In conclusion, the findings of the study provided the component empirical bases that are sufficient enough in conformity to the theoretical expectations as set forth for the conduction of the study.

Limitations and future directions:

The present study, although designed to be systematic and authentic is not without limitations. The present study included young adults from Mizoram rural and urban areas. Thus, our samples may not be representative of similar-aged emerging adults of other socioeconomic statuses or geographic regions and research has shown that parenting styles tend to vary as a function of SES (Hoff et al. 2002).

Second, the participants lacked ethnic diversity. Theoretical and empirical work has shown the importance of examining how parenting is affected by larger socio-cultural contexts and conditions such as poverty, segregation, racism, belief/value systems, and acculturation (e.g., Harrison et al. 1990; Taylor 2000). This body of work suggests that what may be considered adaptive or maladaptive in one setting may be reversed in another context. Therefore, there is a need to replicate these findings in more ethnically diverse samples.

In terms of sample size, the overall sample (600) was relatively small which may not be representative of the Mizoram population more generally. Additionally, the present study relied on self-report of participants that captured the participant's perceptions of parenting styles, which may or may not correspond with actual parenting behaviors. Their perceptions of what they consider to be effective parenting may also are influenced by social desirability concerns. Future research should continue to collect data from both children as well as parents to further understand how attitudes might differ. Such information would prove useful in further developing public education messages that most effectively address certain target audiences. Nonetheless, the use of hypothetical vignettes and an assessment of explicit perceptions of parenting style may prove to be an effective measurement tool in parenting style research.

Future research may also focus on these directions - The construct of parenting style and its measurement tools have traditionally focused on explicit forms of parental behavioral control and warmth. Future research may incorporate an assessment of implicit parental control and warmth to capture a wider range of parenting approaches.

Despite these limitations, the present study contributed to scarce literature concerning the intersecting influence of youth's gender, their ecology and parents in perceptions of parenting style. Such examinations contribute to developing a culturally informed theory of parenting with implications for understanding parenting influences on youth outcomes.

Overall, this study makes several unique contributions to our understanding of parenting in young adulthood. The findings indicate that warmth/responsiveness and control remain central components in the parent–child relationship and in relation to child outcomes in emerging adulthood. Indeed, these findings suggest that parenting in emerging adulthood may be linked to important aspect of young people's development during a period of extensive transition, thereby underscoring the need for researchers to examine the role that parenting may play during this unique time in children's lives, and serving as a significant starting point for such work to be conducted in the future.

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APPENDIX –I

YOUR DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM (MIZO)

1. Kum zat (age) : _____
2. Sex : : i) Mipa (Male) ☐
   : ii) Hmeichhia (Female) ☐
3. Nupui/Pasal I nei tawh em? : (i) Nei ☐ (ii) Nei lo ☐
4. Tuna awmna veng : _____
5. Mahni khua : _____
6. District : _____
7. Zir san zat (educational qualification) : _____
8. Hnathawh (employment status) :
   i) Hna thawh hming :
   ii) Thawhna hmun :
   iii) Hna thawh hun darkar zat :
   iv) Hna thawh ṭan lai a kum zat :
9. Chhungkua (Family):
   i) Nuclear family (Mahni chhungkaw bik – nu, pa, leh unau te nen chauh a awm): ☐
   Or
   ii) Joint Family (mahni chhungkaw bik leh pi, pu, ni, patea etc te nena awm) : ☐
10. Pa hnathawh : _____
11. Nu hnathawh : _____
12. I nu emaw i pa emaw a thi tawh a nih chuan kum engzat i nih in nge a thih? : _____
13. I nu leh pa inṭhen hlen tawh an nih chuan kum engzat i nih in nge an inṭhen? : _____
14. Kawhhran awmna : _____

APPENDIX –II

Alabama Parenting Questionaire (Mizo)

A hnuai a thu inziak te hi chhungkaw chungchang a ni a. Kum (6 – 18) vel i nih lai kha ngaihtuah let la, khawngaihtakin heng thil te hi kha tih lai a in chhungkua a a thlen ṭhin dan ang in han chhang teh le.A chhanna awm thei te chu :

(1) Ngai miah lo (2) Ngai mang lo (3) A chang in (4) Thleng fo mai (5) Englai pawh in.

A chhanna awm thei panga aṭang hian, pakhat chauh thlan tur a ni a, i duh ber zawn ah i tick dawn nia. Chhanna dik leh dik lo a awm lova, chuvangin ni a i hriat dan ang chiahin i chhang dawn nia. Khawngaihin zawhna te hi chhang kim vek la, ṭha leh mawi ni a i hriat ang ni lovin, nangma hriat dan dik takin i chhang dawn nia.

Sl. No	Item	Ngai miah lo	Ngai mang lo	A chang in	Thleng fo mai	Englai pawh in
1	I nu nen ṭhian in biak in in inbe ngai em?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1A	I pa ve le?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	I nu leh pa ten hna i thawk ṭha tih an hrilh ṭhin che.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	I nu leh pa ten hrem ah an vau che a, mahse an ti leh lem lo	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	I nu in i thil tih tur ah a pui ṭhin che (eg. Sports naah te, inkhawm na a item neih na tur ah te)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4 A	I pa in a ti ve em?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	I nu leh pa ten nungchang ṭhat avangin lawmman an pe che.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	I nu leh pa te i kal na tur i hrilh lo ṭhin	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	I nu nen infiam dun emaw thil dang nuam i tih zawng in ti duh ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7A	I pa ve le?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	Thil i tih sual in i nu leh pa ten an hrem loh nan che i in sawi chhuak thei ṭhin	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	I nu in school a i hun hman dan a zawt ṭhin che.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9A	I pa ve le?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	Zan ah i haw hun tur aia tlai daih thleng i chhuak ṭhin	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	I nu in i homework a tih pui ṭhin che.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11A	I pa ve le?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	I nu leh pa ten an thu awih tir che harsa an tih lutuk avangin an beidawng hial tawh	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13	I nu leh pa ten thil i tih ṭhat in an fak ṭhin che.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	Naktukah eng nge i tih dawn tih i nu in a zawt ṭhin che	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14A	I pa ve le?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15	I nu in thil tih tur pawimawh i neih na ah a thlah ṭhin che.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15A	I pa in a thlah ve ṭhin che em?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16	Nungchang mawi tak i neih in i nu leh pa ten an fak ṭhin che	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	I nu leh pa ten i ṭhian kawm te an hre lo,	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	Thil i tih ṭhat viau chuan i nu leh pa ten an kuah in emaw an fawp ṭhin che.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19	Haw hun tur bithliah awm lovin i chhuak mai mai ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	I nu in i ṭhiante chungchang a sawipui ṭhin che.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20A	I pa in a ti ve em?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	Zan thim ah puitling tel lovin i chhuak ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22	I nu leh pa ten hrem an tum na che an ti nep leh in emaw an ṭhulh leh ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23	In chhungkua thil tih tur ah i rel pui ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

25	Thil i tih dik loh pawh in i nu leh pa ten an hrem ngai lo che	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26	I nu chu i school chungchang a koh a nih in a kal ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26A	I pa ve thung?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27	I nu leh pa te inchhung a tih tur te i lo tih pui hian an lawm ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28	I haw hun tur ai a tlai a i haw pawh in i nu leh pa ten an hre lo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29	I nu leh pa ten an chhuah dawn in an kal na tur an hrilh ngai lo che.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30	I nu leh pa ten i haw hun tur a an beisei ai a tlai daih ah i haw ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31	I nu leh paten an hlim leh hlim loh a zir in an hrem mai mai che.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
32	Puitling tel lovin nangmahin inah i awm ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
33	Thil i tih dik loh in i nu leh paten an vaw ṭhin che.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34	I ninhlei leh awm ṭhat loh lai pawhin i nu leh paten an hai der ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35	Thil tih dik loh i neih in i nu leh paten an beng ṭhin che	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
36	I nu leh paten ten hrem nan che pawisa lak sak che emaw tih tur tih phal loh an nei ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
37	Hrem nan che room ah an awm tir ṭhin che	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
38	Thil tih dik loh i neih in i nu leh paten kawnghren emaw thil dang emaw hmangin an vaw ṭhin che	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
39	Thil i tih dik lohin an vin vak vak ṭhin che.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
40	Thil pawi i tih in i nu leh paten ṭha deuh in i thil tih dik loh an hrilh ṭhin che.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
41	Hrem nan che kil khat a din emaw ṭhut tir che an ching ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
42	Hrem nan che tih tur an pek belh ṭhin che.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX- III

Self Report Delinguency (Mizo)

Heng a hnuai a zawhnate hi i School kal lai (High school and Higher secondary school) ngaihtuah let la, i nun a a thlen dan ang mil in han chhang teh le.

Sl. No	Item	Ngai miah lo	Kum khatah vawi 2-3	Thla khatah vawi 2- 3	Kar khatah vawi 1	Kar khatah vawi 2-3	Ni khatah vawi 1	Ni khatah vawi 2-3
1	Tum vang reng in i nu leh pa emaw i chhungte thil i lo tichhia emaw khawih khawloh.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	Tum vang reng in school thil i lo tichhia emaw khawih khawloh.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	Tum vang reng in mi thil hrim hrim i lo tihchhiat emaw khawih khawloh.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	Car emaw two wheeler emaw ruk/ruk tum	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	Thil sangkhat man aia to ruk/ruk tum.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	Hre reng chungin thilruk lei, hralh emaw kawl.(Tih I tum hrim hrim em?)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	In aṭangin i tlan bo tawh em?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	Dawta i kum sawi upa in i rualpui tana thil tih phal loh tih luih. (meizuk, zu in etc,.)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	Hriamhrei a ruka lo pai, chemte satliah chhiar tel lo in.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	Cheng za man hu aia tlem ruk emaw ruk tum.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	Mi tu emaw thah emaw tihnat viau tuma beih/insual pui.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13	Mipat hmeichhiatna hmanpui avanga pawisa dawn.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	I kawppui ni lo midang mipat/hmeichhiatna hmanpui.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15	In pheksualna ah tel.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

16	Kanja/marijuana hralh	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	Exam/test na a entawn.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	Phal loh na hmun ah mi motor a chuan dil.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19	Pawisa leh thil hlu mahni chhungte hnen aṭanga ruk.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	School ah zirtirtu emaw aia upa zawk kut thlak emaw kut thlak tum a vau.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	Nu emaw pa emaw kutthlak (kut thlak tum a vau).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22	Mahni zirlai pui kut thlak (kut thlak tum a vau).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23	Puipunna hmun ah chimawm zawng a khawsak.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24	Damdawi ruih tur liau liau a siam chi (No. 4 etc.) hralh.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25	Mi motor phalna la hmasa lo a khalh	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26	Kum tling lo tan a zu lei sak emaw pek.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27	Mi duh lo chung mipat hmeichhiatna hmanpui luih/tum hrim hrim.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28	Tharum hmang a zirlaipuite hnen aṭanga pawisa leh thil dang chhuh sak.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29	School ah tharum hmang a pawisa leh thil dang zirtirtu emaw aia upate chhuh sak.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30	Tharum hmang a midang thil chhuh sak.(School ah ni lo)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31	Bus chuan man, thingpui dawr/restaurant etc a man pek duh loh.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
32	Puipunna a rui chunga kal.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

33	Cheng 300 man aia tlawm ruk/ruk tum.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34	School ah mi thilruk tum.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35	Mi in ah/motor ah thil ru tur emaw awm mai mai ringawt tur a luh ruk.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
36	Hmel hriat loh hnena pawisa dil chawt.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
37	School/Class phal na la lo a tlan bo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
38	Pawisa nawi dawr nghak tu kir tam palh che pek kir duh loh.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
39	School aṭanga suspend.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
40	Phone ah zahmawh rawngkai leh ṭawngkam mawi lo hmanga mi biak.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Heng hi kum kal ta chhung khan vawi engzat/eng tia zing nge i lo hman/tih?

Sl. No	Item	Ngai miah lo	Kum khatah vawi 2-3	Thla khatah vawi 2-3	Kar khatah vawi 1	Kar khatah vawi 2-3	Ni khatah vawi 1	Ni khatah vawi 2-3
41	Zu lam chi hrim hrim (beer, wine,whisky,rum etc).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
42	Kanja (“marijuana”,"grass,").	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
43	Hallucinogens ("Dendrite”, “correcting fluid” etc).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
44	Khuh damdawi lam chi (“corex”, etc)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
45	Barbituarates("Diazepam”, “Alprazolam” “Tramazac”, “Tramadol” etc)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
46	Heroin ("No.4")	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
47	Proxyvon,Parvon Spas etc.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX-IV

Spiritual Wellbeing Scale (Mizo)

Chhandan: A hnuaia thuziak tin zawn ah zel khuan I tawn chin ah i ngaihdan nen a in mil a zir zelin thai bial rawh.		**Dik lutuk**	**Dik tho mai**	**Dik**	**Dik lo**	**Dik chiah lo**	**Dik lo tawp**
1	Pathian hnen a ṭawngtai hian min ti thlamuang vak lo.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
2	Tunge ka nih, khawi lam mi nge ka nih a enge ka tih zel dawn pawh ka in hre lo.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
3	Lalpa chuan min hmangaih a min ngaihtuah tih ka ring ani.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
4	Nun hi inzirna ṭha tak ah ka ngai.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
5	Pathian hian mimal tin min ngaihtuah lem lo a ka nitin nun ah hian a inrawlh ka ring lo.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
6	Kan tun hnu hun awm dan tur hi a derthawng riau in ka hria.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
7	Lalpa nen hian in laichinna ṭha tak kan nei ani.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
8	Ka nun ah hian ka lungawi a ka hlim tawk ani.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
9	Pathian hnen aṭang hian chakna leh puihna ka dawng vak in ka hre lo.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
10	Ka nun kawng kal zel dan hi ka tana ṭha lam zawng hlir ni in ka hria.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
11	Pathian hian ka manganna a hria ani.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
12	Nun ah hian hlimna vak ka nei lo.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
13	Pathian nen a inlaichinna hlimawm vak ka nei lo.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
14	Ka chunga lo thleng tur hi thil ṭha lam anih ka ring.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
15	Pathian ka hnaih avang hian mal anga inhriatna ka nei lo.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
16	Nun hi in inhmuhthiam lohna leh lungngaihna hlir a khat ni in ka hria.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
17	Pathian hnaih a ka awm hian ka zangkhai berin ka hria.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
18	Nun hian awmzia a nei lo.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
19	Pathian nen a kan inlaichinna hian ka lungawina a ti zual.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6
20	He lei ah hian damchhan ka neih ve ka ring.	**1**	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX -V

Satisfaction with Life Scale (Mizo)

Chhan dan tur : Ahnuaiah hian thuziak panga(5) dik emaw, dik lo i tih zawk emaw rawn tih lan ani a. A hma a thaiphei ah khuan a dik tih dan zawng tih lan nan 1-7 ziakin tilang ang che. Khawngaih takin dik taka chhang tura ngen i ni e.

1 = Dik lo tawp
2 = Dik lo
3 = Dik chiah lo
4 = Ngaihdan nei lo/Hre lo
5 = Dik deuh tho
6 = Dik
7 = Dik lutuk

_____1. A tlangpuiin ka nun hi ka duhthusam a ni.

_____2. Ka nun hi a hlim khawp mai.

_____3. Ka nun awm dan ah hian ka lungawi.

_____4. Tun dinhmun ah chuan ka nun atan a ka ngaihpawimawh ho chu ka nei vek.

_____5. Piang nawn leh thei ila ka nun ah hian thlak tur vak ka hre chuang lo ang.

APPENDIX - VI

Pro-Social Personality Battery (Mizo)

A hnuaia thu rawn tarlante hian i nihna, i ngaihdan leh i mizia a rawn sawichhuak emaw, sawichhuak chiah lo zawk emaw ani thei a. Khawngaihtakin uluk takin chhiar la, a dik i tih zawn zelah i thai dawn nia.
Chhanna dik leh dik lo a awm chuang lo.

Sl. No	Item	Dik lo tawp	Dik lo	Hre lo	Dik	Dik lutuk
1	Ka lakah mi an ṭhat loh chuan anmahni lak a ṭhat hi ka mawhphurh na ah ka ngai lo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	Hmun bal deuh a bawlhlawh hnutchhiah chu hmun fai a hnutchhiah ai chuan a inthlahrunawm loh zawk.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	Mite kan chung ah engtizawng pawh in khawsa mahse anmahni chaldelh kher hi a ṭul lo ani.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	Tunlai zirna lama in tlansiakna nasat tawh vang leh entawn a hluar tak em avang hian a chang a han entawn ve zeuh te hi chu an thiamawm tho mai.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	Kan dam loh leh rilru hah lai vel hi chuan kan awm dan chungchangah midang mitmei ven vak a ngai lo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	Khawl thil lo tichhe ta ila, ka hman hma a lo chhe sa tih ka hriat chuan ka inthiam lo em em vak lo ang.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	Tih tur neih chuan mi zawng zawng tih lawm tuma thawh kher a ngai lo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	A chang chuan midangte thlir dan hriatthiampui hi harsa ka ti ṭhin	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	Mihnuaihnungte chaldelha an awm ka hmuh chuan an mahni humhim duhna rilru ka pu.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	A changchuan ka ṭhiante hi hriatthiam tumin thil an hmuh ve dan tur awm ang ka suangtuah sak ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	Midang vanduaina hian ka rilru a ti buai ngai lem lo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	Ka dik ani tih ka inhriat chuan midang ngaihdan ngaithla turin ka hun ka khawh ral ngai lo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

13	Dik lo taka mi hnuaichhiaha an awm ka hmuh hian ka khawngaih ngai lem lo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	A tlangpuiin in rin lawk loh thil thleng thut a awm hian hneh takin ka hma chhawn ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15	Thilthleng ka hmuh ṭhenkhat hian min hneh thei viau zel.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16	Thil reng reng ah ngaihdan in ang lo a awm thei a, kawng dang deuh zawng a thlir te hi ka tum ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	Buaina karah hi chuan chi ai tlat hi ka ching.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	Midang laka ka lungawiloh pawh hian an dinhmun ka ngaihtuah hmasa phawt ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19	Mi in chhiatna tawk thut se engmah ti thei lo in ka buai vek zel.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PART 2:

Sl. No	Item	Dik lo tawp	Dik lo	Hre lo	Dik	Dik lutuk
20	Ka duhthlanna hi midang ngaihtuah chung a ka siam a ni tlangpui.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	Dik leh awm ber turin duhthlanna ka siam ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22	Midangte tana pawmawm tur ber hi ka thlangṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23	Midangte puih theihna tur ber ngaihtuahin duhthlanna ka siam ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24	Midangte dikna humhalh thei tur ber zawngin duhthlanna ka siam ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25	Ka duhthlannate hi midangte ṭhatna tur ngaihtuah chunga siam ṭhin ka ni.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX- VII

16 Items – Tuckman Procrastination Scale (Mizo)

Sl. No	Item	Ka nihna diktak	Ka tih thin dan	Ka ti ngai lo	Chutiang mi ka ni lo
1	Ṭul lo deuh in ka hna ka puitlin lo ṭhin, pawimawh viau pawh ni se.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	Thil ka tih peih loh hi chu ka ti lawk ngai lo.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	Duhthlanna khirh deuh a awm hi chuan rilru ka siam fel vat ngai lo.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	Ka hnathawh na ah ka zelthel fo mai.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	Hna a awm chuan ka thawk vat zel, nuam lo pawh ni se.	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	Hnathawh loh dan tur hi ka ngaihtuah chhuak zel.	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	Thil ninawm deuh tih nan pawh hun ka pe tho ṭhin, entirnan lehkha zir te hi	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	Ka hnathawh lai mek hian awmzia a neih loh chuan ka tawp hmak mai	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	Hun khawhral mai mai hi ka sim thei lo.	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	Hun khawhral hi ka ching tih chu ka hria, mahse eng vak tih theih ka nei lo	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	Awlsamte a hna han ṭan mai tur a mahni in nawrchhuah dan hi ka hre chak	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	Hna pawimawh chu a hun aia hma ah ka zo ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐
13	Ka hna ka thawh zawh veleh ka en nawn leh ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	Hnathawh awlsam dan leh pumpelh dan hi ka zawng ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐
15	Hna pawimawh a awm tih pawh hre mah i la tih mai hi ka harsat ṭhin.	☐	☐	☐	☐
16	Vawiin a tih tur naktuk a tan a khek hi ka tih dan a ni lo.	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX–VIII

YOUR DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM (English)

15. Age : _____

16. Sex : : i) Male ☐

: ii) Female ☐

17. Marrital status: (i) Yes (ii) No

18. Present Address : _____

19. Permanent Address : _____

20. District : _____

21. Educational qualification : _____

22. Employment status :

i) Name of work :
ii) Place :
iii) Hna thawh hun darkar zat :
iv) Hna thawh ṭan lai a kum zat :

23. Family:

i) Nuclear family : ☐
ii) Joint Family : ☐

iii) Father's employment status :

_____

iv) Mother's employment status :

_____

v) Age when father or mother died, if they are deceased : _____

vi) Age when parents divorced, if divorced or separated : _____

vii) Denomination : _____

APPENDIX–IX

Alabama Parenting Questionaire (English)

Sl. No	Item	1 Never	2 Almost Never	3 Sometimes	4 Often	5 Always
1	You have a friendly talk with your mom.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1A	How about your dad?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	Your parents tell you that you are doing a good job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	Your parents threaten to punish you and then do not do it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	Your mom helps with some of your special activities (such as sports, boy/girl scouts, church youth groups).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4 A	How about your dad?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	Your parents reward or give something extra to you for behaving well.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	You fail to leave a note or let your parents know where you are going.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	You play games or do other fun things with your mom.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7A	How about your dad?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	You talk your parents out of punishing you after you have done something wrong.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	Your mom asks you about your day in school.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9A	How about your dad?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	You stay out in the evening past the time you are supposed to be home.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	Your mom helps you with your homework.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11A	How about your dad?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	Your parents give up trying to get you to obey them because it's too much trouble.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

13	Your parents compliment you when you have done something well.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	Your mom asks you what your plans are for the coming day.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14A	How about your dad?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15	Your mom drives you to a special activity.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15A	How about your dad?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16	Your parents praise you for behaving well.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	Your parents do not know the friends you are with.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	Your parents hug or kiss you when you have done something very well.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19	You go out without a set time to be home.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	Your mom talks to you about your friends.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20A	How about your dad?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	You go out after dark without an adult with you.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22	Your parents let you out of a punishment early (like lift restrictions earlier than they originally said).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23	You help plan family activities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24.	Your parents get so busy that they forget where you are and what you are doing.					
25	Your parents do not punish you when you have done something wrong.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26	Your mom goes to a meeting at school, like a PTA meeting or parent/teacher conference.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26A	How about your dad?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27	Your parents tell you that they like it when you help out around the house.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

28	You stay out later than you are supposed to and your parents don't know it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29	Your parents leave the house and don't tell you where they are going.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30	You come home from school more than an hour past the time your parents expect you to be home.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31	The punishment your parents give depends on their mood.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
32	You are at home without an adult being with you.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
33	Your parents spank you with their hand when you have done something wrong.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34	Your parents ignore you when you are misbehaving.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35	Your parents slap you when you have done something wrong.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
36	Your parents take away a privilege or money from you as a punishment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
37	Your parents send you to your room as a punishment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
38	Your parents hit you with a belt, switch, or other object when you have done something wrong.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
39	Your parents yell or scream at you when you have done something wrong.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
40	Your parents calmly explain to you why your behavior was wrong when you misbehave.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
41	Your parents use time out (make you sit or stand in a corner) as a punishment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
42	Your parents give you extra chores as a punishment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX–X

Self-Report Delinquency Survey (English)

	How many times in the last year have you?							
Sl. No	**Item**	**Never**	**2-3 times in a year**	**2-3 Times in ayear**	**Once a week**	**2-3 times in a week**	**Once a day**	**2-3 times in a day**
1	Purposely damaged or destroyed property belonging to your parents or other family members.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	Purposely damaged or destroyed property belonging to a school.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	Purposely damaged or destroyed other property that did not belong to you (not counting family or school property).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	Stolen (or tried to steal) a motor vehicle, such as a car or motorcycle.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	Stolen (or tried to steal) something worth more than Rs 1000.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	Knowingly bought, sold, or held stolen goods (or tried to do any of these things).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	Run away from home	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	Lied about your age to gain entrance or to purchase something: for example, lying about your age to buy liquor or to get into a movie.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	Carried a hidden weapon other than a plain pocketknife.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	Stolen (or tried to steal) things worth $5 or less.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	Attacked someone with the idea of seriously hurting or killing him/her.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13	Been paid for having sexual relations with someone.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	Had sexual intercourse with a person of the opposite sex other than your wife/husband.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15	Been involved in gang fights.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16	Sold marijuana or hashish ("pot," "grass," "hash").	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	Cheated on school tests.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	Hitchhiked where it was illegal to do so.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

19	Stolen money or other things from your parents or other members of your family	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	Hit (or threatened to hit) a teacher or other adult at school.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	Hit (or threatened to hit) one of your parents.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22	Hit (or threatened to hit) other students.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23	Been loud, rowdy, or unruly in a public place (disorderly conduct).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24	Sold hard drugs, such as heroin, cocaine, and LSD.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25	Taken a vehicle for a ride (drive) without the owner's permission.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26	Bought or provided liquor for a minor.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27	Had (or tried to have) sexual relations with someone against their will.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28	Used force (strong-arm methods) to get money or things fro m other students.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29	Used force (strong-arm methods) to get money or things from a teacher or other adult at school.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30	Used force (strong-arm methods) to get money or things from other people (not students or teachers).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31	Avoided paying for such things as movies, bus or subway rides, and food. 32. Been drunk in a public place.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
32	Been drunk in a public place.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
33	Stolen (or tried to steal) things worth Rs 300 or less	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34	Stolen (or tried to steal) something at school, such as someone's coat from a classroom, locker, or cafeteria, or a book from the library.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35	Broken into a building or vehicle (or tried to break in) to steal something or just to look around.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
36	Begged for money or things from strangers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
37	Skipped classes without an excuse.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
38	Failed to return extra change that a cashier gave you by mistake.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
39	Been suspended from school.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
40	Made obscene telephone calls, such as calling someone and saying dirty things.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

How often in the last year have you used?								
41	Alcoholic beverages (beer, wine, and hard liquor).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
42	Marijuana-hashish ("grass," "pot," "hash").	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
43	Hallucinogens ("LSD," "Mescaline," "Peyote," "Acid").	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
44	Amphetamines ("Uppers," "Speed," "Whites").	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
45	Barbiturates ("Downers," "Reds")	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
46	Heroin ("Horse," "Smack")	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
47	Cocaine ("Coke")	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX -XI

Spiritual Wellbeing Scale (English)

Instruction: For each of the following statements circle the choice that best indicates the extent of your agreement or disagreement as it describes your personal experience.		Strongly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I don't find much satisfaction in private prayer with God.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I don't know who I am, where I came from, or where I am going.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I believe that God loves me and cares about me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I feel that life is a positive experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I believe that God is impersonal and not interested in my daily situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I feel unsettled about my future.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I have a personally meaningful relationship with God.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I feel very fulfilled and satisfied with life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I don't get much personal strength and support from my God.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I feel a sense of wellbeing about the direction my life is headed in.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I believe that God is concerned about my problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	I don't enjoy much about life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	I don't have a personally satisfying relationship with God.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I feel good about my future.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	My relationship with God helps me to not feel lonely.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I feel that life is full of conflict and unhappiness.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I feel most fulfilled when I'm in close communion with God.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Life doesn't have much meaning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	My relation with God contributes to my sense of wellbeing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I believe there is some real purpose for my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX -XII

The Satisfaction with Life Scale

DIRECTIONS: Below are five statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using
the 1-7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate
number in the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Slightly Disagree
4 = Neither Agree or Disagree
5 = Slightly Agree
6 = Agree
7 = Strongly Agree

_____1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.

_____2. The conditions of my life are excellent.

_____3. I am satisfied with life.

_____4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.

_____5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

APPENDIX -XIII

PROSOCIAL PERSONALITY BATTERY (PSB)

Below are a number of statements that may or may not describe you, your feelings, or your behavior. Please read each statement carefully and blacken in the space on your answer sheet that corresponds to choices presented below.

There is no right or wrong responses.

1. When people are nasty to me, I feel very little responsibility to treat them well.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

2. I would feel less bothered about leaving litter in a dirty park than in a clean one.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

3. No matter what a person has done to us, there is no excuse for taking advantage of them.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

4. With the pressure for grades and the widespread cheating in school nowadays, the individual who cheats occasionally is not really as much at fault.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

5. It doesn't make much sense to be very concerned about how we act when we are sick and feeling miserable.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

6. If I broke a machine through mishandling, I would feel less guilty if it was already damaged before I used it.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. When you have a job to do, it is impossible to look out for everybody's best interest.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

8. I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the "other person's" point of view.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

9. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective towards them.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

10. I sometimes try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

11. Other people's misfortunes do not usually disturb me a great deal.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

12. If I'm sure I'm right about something, I don't waste much time listening to other people's arguments.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

13. When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don't feel very much pity for them.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

14. I am usually pretty effective in dealing with emergencies.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

15. I am often quite touched by things that I see happen.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

16. I believe that there are two sides to every question and try to look at them both.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

17. I tend to lose control during emergencies.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

18. When I'm upset at someone, I usually try to "put myself in their shoes" for a while.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

19. When I see someone who badly needs help in an emergency, I go to pieces.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

PART 2:

Below are a set of statements, which may or may not describe how you make decisions when you have to choose between two courses of action or alternatives when there is no clear right way or wrong way to act. Some examples of such situations are: being asked to lend something to a close friend who often forgets to return things; deciding whether you should keep something you have won for yourself or share it with a friend; and choosing between studying for an important exam and visiting a sick relative. Read each statement and blacken in the space on your answer sheet that corresponds to the choices presented below.

20. My decisions are usually based on my concern for other people.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

21. My decisions are usually based on what is the most fair and just way to act.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

22. I choose alternatives that are intended to meet everybody's needs.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

23. I choose a course of action that maximizes the help other people receive.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

24. I choose a course of action that considers the rights of all people involved.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

25. My decisions are usually based on concern for the welfare of others.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

Below are several different actions in which people sometimes engage. Read each of them and decide how frequently you have carried it out in the past. Blacken in the space on your answer sheet which best describes your past behavior. Use the scale presented below.

26. I have helped carry a stranger's belongings (e.g., books, parcels, etc.).

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Once	More than Once	Often	Very Often

27. I have allowed someone to go ahead of me in a line (e.g., supermarket, copying machine, etc.)

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Once	More than Once	Often	Very Often

28. I have let a neighbor whom I didn't know too well borrow an item of some value (e.g., tools, a dish, etc.).

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Once	More than Once	Often	Very Often

29. I have, before being asked, voluntarily looked after a neighbor's pets or children without being paid for it.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Once	More than Once	Often	Very Often

30. I have offered to help a handicapped or elderly stranger across a street.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Once	More than Once	Often	Very Often

16-Item Tuckman Procrastination Scale

1. I needlessly delay finishing jobs, even when they're important.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

2. I postpone starting in on things I don't like to do.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

3. I delay making tough decisions.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

4. I keep putting off improving my work habits.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

5. I get right to work, even on life's unpleasant chores.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

6. I manage to find an excuse for not doing something.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

7. I put the necessary times into even bring tasks, like studying.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

8. When something's not worth the trouble, I stop.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

9. I am an incurable time waster.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

10. I'm a time waster now, but I can't seem to do anything about it.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

11. I wish I could find an easy way to get myself moving.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

12. I always finish important jobs with time to spare.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

13. When I'm done with my work, I check it over.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

14. I look for a loophole or shortcut to get through a tough task.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

15. I still get stuck in neutral even though I know how important it is to get started.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

16. Putting something off until tomorrow is not the way I do it.

A	B	C	D
That's me for sure	That's my tendency	That's not my tendency	That's not me for sure

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PARTICULARS OF THE CANDIDATE

NAME OF CANDIDATE	:	Ms. ZOMUANAWMI
DEGREE	:	Doctor of Philosophy
DEPARTMENT	:	PSYCHOLOGY
TITLE OF DISSERTATION	:	"Pro-Social and Anti- Social Characteristics and Spiritual Wellbeing of Young Adults in Mizoram in Relation to Perceived Parenting Styles"
Date of Admission	:	06.07.2011
APPROVAL OF RESEARCH PROPOSAL		
1. BPGS	:	26.04.12
2. SCHOOL BOARD Registration No. & Date	:	MZU / Ph.D. /451 of 02.05.2012
3. Academic Council	:	1.06.2012
4. Date of Completionof Ph.D Course Work	:	25.01.2012
Extension (If any)	:	Nil

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Table - 1: Mean SD, Mean SE, Skewness, Skewness SE, Kurtosis and Kurtosis SE on ECOLOGY for all dependent variables of the whole samples.

Ecology	*Statistics*	*PI*	*PP*	*ID*	*CP*	*PM*	*SRD*	*RWB*	*EWB*	*SWLS*	*SR*	*EC*	*PT*	*PD*	*O*	*M*	*SRA*	*TPS*
URBAN	**Mean**	**26.62**	**20.36**	**14.2**	**10.09**	**21.66**	**53.33**	**32.01**	**31.89**	**15.7**	**22.17**	**12.19**	**17.81**	**11.02**	**9.08**	**9.11**	**15.38**	**51.32**
	SD	5.27	3.88	2.84	2.94	5.08	2.6	3.23	3.43	1.95	2.6	1.97	2.54	1.83	1.95	2	2.36	5.09
	SE	0.42	0.31	0.22	0.23	0.4	0.21	0.26	0.27	0.15	0.21	0.16	0.2	0.14	0.15	0.16	0.19	0.4
	Kurtosis	-0.81	-0.86	-0.75	-0.67	-1	-0.21	-0.83	-0.74	-0.45	-0.48	-0.88	-0.91	-0.46	-0.73	-0.86	-0.86	-0.6
	SE	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38
	Skewness	0.02	-0.03	-0.11	0.03	0.34	0.24	-0.19	0.1	0.19	0.01	0.06	-0.11	-0.2	0.1	0.1	-0.05	0.25
	SE	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19
RURAL	**Mean**	**26.03**	**19.36**	**10.93**	**10.59**	**24.07**	**52.05**	**34.67**	**34.54**	**17.09**	**24.25**	**14.23**	**15.33**	**9.04**	**11.07**	**11.07**	**17.73**	**54.91**
	SD	5.43	3.75	3.06	2.99	4.34	3.47	4.23	3.7	2.08	3	2.28	2.42	1.62	1.99	1.99	2.66	5.22
	SE	0.43	0.3	0.24	0.24	0.34	0.27	0.33	0.29	0.16	0.24	0.18	0.19	0.13	0.16	0.16	0.21	0.41
	Kurtosis	-0.8	-0.93	-1.04	-0.68	-0.45	-1.13	-1.03	-0.69	-0.46	-0.75	-0.74	-0.82	-0.83	-0.86	-0.86	-1.01	-0.35
	SE	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38
	Skewness	0.03	0.14	0.1	-0.12	-0.17	0.32	-0.03	-0.12	-0.29	-0.1	-0.14	0.08	-0.12	-0.19	-0.19	-0.14	-0.26
	SE	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19
TOTAL	**Mean**	**26.33**	**19.86**	**12.56**	**10.34**	**22.87**	**52.69**	**33.34**	**33.22**	**16.39**	**23.21**	**13.21**	**16.57**	**10.03**	**10.08**	**10.09**	**16.55**	**53.11**
	SD	5.35	3.84	3.37	2.97	4.87	3.12	3.98	3.8	2.13	2.99	2.36	2.77	1.99	2.21	2.22	2.77	5.45
	SE	0.3	0.21	0.19	0.17	0.27	0.17	0.22	0.21	0.12	0.17	0.13	0.15	0.11	0.12	0.12	0.16	0.3
	Kurtosis	-0.81	-0.91	-0.78	-0.7	-0.93	-0.81	-0.64	-0.7	-0.66	-0.57	-0.7	-0.75	-0.53	-0.78	-0.82	-0.76	-0.68
	SE	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27
	Skewness	0.02	0.06	-0.08	-0.04	0.02	0.12	0.17	0.05	-0.01	0.08	0.11	0.04	0.03	-0.01	-0.04	0.05	0.01
	SE	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14

Table 2: Mean, Standard Deviation, Standard Error, Skewness and Kurtosis on GENDER for dependant variables for all samples

Gender		*PI*	*PP*	*ID*	*CP*	*PM*	*SRD*	*RWB*	*EWB*	*SWLS*	*SR*	*EC*	*PT*	*PD*	*O*	*M*	*SRA*	*TPS*
M A L E	**Mean**	**27.37**	**20.51**	**12.75**	**10.73**	**21.51**	**52.7**	**32.31**	**31.41**	**15.48**	**21.93**	**12.2**	**17.74**	**10.81**	**9.06**	**9.06**	**15.32**	**50.65**
	SD	5.27	3.98	3	3.12	4.97	3.58	3.03	3.33	1.94	2.48	2.04	2.64	1.84	1.85	1.85	2.41	4.9
	SE	0.42	0.31	0.24	0.25	0.39	0.28	0.24	0.26	0.15	0.2	0.16	0.21	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.19	0.39
	Kurtosis	-0.88	-0.98	-0.25	-0.82	-0.77	-1.17	-0.47	-1.08	-0.92	-0.93	-0.7	-0.98	-0.58	-0.53	-0.54	-0.82	-0.9
	SE	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38
	Skewness	-0.07	-0.05	-0.16	-0.13	0.43	0.06	-0.27	0.04	0.09	0.06	0.21	-0.14	-0.07	0.19	0.2	0.09	0.07
	SE	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19
F E M A L E	**Mean**	**25.26**	**19.21**	**12.37**	**9.94**	**24.24**	**52.68**	**34.38**	**35.04**	**17.31**	**24.5**	**14.23**	**15.38**	**9.23**	**11.1**	**11.14**	**17.81**	**55.6**
	SD	5.24	3.6	3.72	2.77	4.37	2.6	4.53	3.36	1.9	2.91	2.22	2.36	1.82	2.07	2.07	2.55	4.82
	SE	0.42	0.29	0.29	0.22	0.35	0.21	0.36	0.27	0.15	0.23	0.18	0.19	0.14	0.16	0.16	0.2	0.38
	Kurtosis	-0.71	-0.87	-1.12	-0.55	-0.47	-0.43	-1.15	-0.97	-0.58	-0.28	-0.63	-0.86	-0.43	-0.31	-0.25	-0.93	-0.86
	SE	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38
	Skewness	0.1	0.09	0.02	-0.03	-0.3	0.25	-0.07	0.06	-0.05	-0.22	-0.11	-0.05	0.12	-0.47	-0.55	-0.11	0
	SE	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19
T O T A L	**Mean**	**26.33**	**19.86**	**12.56**	**10.34**	**22.87**	**52.69**	**33.34**	**33.22**	**16.39**	**23.21**	**13.21**	**16.57**	**10.03**	**10.08**	**10.09**	**16.55**	**53.11**
	SD	5.35	3.84	3.37	2.97	4.87	3.12	3.98	3.8	2.13	2.99	2.36	2.77	1.99	2.21	2.22	2.77	5.45
	SE	0.3	0.21	0.19	0.17	0.27	0.17	0.22	0.21	0.12	0.17	0.13	0.15	0.11	0.12	0.12	0.16	0.3
	Kurtosis	-0.81	-0.91	-0.78	-0.7	-0.93	-0.81	-0.64	-0.7	-0.66	-0.57	-0.7	-0.75	-0.53	-0.78	-0.82	-0.76	-0.68
	SE	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27
	Skewness	0.02	0.06	-0.08	-0.04	0.02	0.12	0.17	0.05	-0.01	0.08	0.11	0.04	0.03	-0.01	-0.04	0.05	0.01
	SE	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14