CHAPTER – 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
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In this chapter, the researcher has compiled all relevant conceptual and empirical literature related to the topic that has reviewed. The initial part of the literature gives a general idea of the concept of child rearing, its evolution, characteristics, influencing factors like marital quality and family functioning, enactments and policies for child welfare and the problems related to child rearing.

The studies that are reviewed in this chapter contain the second part. The studies divided into the following:

- Studies in child rearing practices in India as well as in other countries
- Studies on parenting styles
- Studies on the role of marital quality in child rearing practices
- Studies on family environment and child rearing

The family unit in its most regular form arose tens or thousands of years ago among our hunting ancestors. The relations of our evolutionary ancestors did not just promote the survival of its own members. It also performed fundamental services for the society of which it was a part. As societies became more complex, the demands placed on the family became too much for it to sustain alone. Consequently, other institutions developed to assist with certain functions and families became linked to larger social structures. Although certain functions have been taken over by or are
shared with other institutions, three important ones- reproduction, socialization and emotional support- remain primarily the province of the family. These functions are especially concerned with children, since they include giving birth to, rearing and nurturing the young.

2.1. PARENTHOOD

Parenthood is life’s most interesting and challenging opportunity. Parent is the child’s first and most influential teacher. The delight, the parents experience in fostering the children’s development the satisfaction which getting from the interaction with them, are some of the positive aspects of parenthood. Parenthood also involves loss of sleep, restricted social life, increased expenses, noise and new routines (Knox, 1979).

Parenthood is a glowing picture, a central icon in cultures and religions from time immemorial. The basic assumption is that parenthood is an automatic leap ahead in status, joy, and fulfillment but now days it becomes more difficult than it used to be. Child rearing is the number one practical concern at this phase of the life cycle.

2.2. HISTORY OF CHILD REARING

The history of child rearing has no exact chronological markings. Stages and cultural traditions blend and overlap, yet changes and trends are perceptible. There are references to child-rearing and parental activities in written records from the earliest times (French, 1995). Written speculation on parenting date back to ancient Egypt, the code of Hammurabi and the pre-Socratic philosophers. In the Laws, Plato theorized about the significance of parenting. Both Aristotle and Plato discussed about the
appropriate rearing of children of various ages (Wal, 1999). Writings of clergy and philosophers replete with theories concerning what kinds of child training best ensure social order. Bornstein (2006) pointed out that the formal study of parenting had its beginning in attempts by philosopher, educator and scientist parents to do systematically by observing their children in their natural setting and it referred as Baby biographies. It provoked formal studies of how to guide child development. In twentieth century, parenting became the focus of scientific study.

When considering the struggle for life in the past, the children received the same amount of attention relative to their ‘times’. At early times, parents were unselfconscious about the importance of emotional investments in childrearing. Parents demanded strict obedience from children. From 18th century, they were considered as mini adults, though industrialization extended the use of children as cheap labour. Continuously male labour mobility increased by industrial revolutions and demanded that women were children’s primary care givers. In western countries, the state starts to intervene to protect children in mid 19th century. However, in developing countries like India it started only in 20th century. The death and ill health of children in this time proves that the intervention of state is only partially effective.

Early work on parenting focused on parents as agents of socialization and on aspects of parenting that were thought to influence social and personality development in children. In the 1930s and 1940s, the weaning and toilet training of infants was a primary concern. The Freudian influence seen in these variables also appears in variables having to do with handling aggression and sex play, which are subsumed under headings such as "impulse control" (Bronfenbrenner, 1958). Also of interest
during this period and continuing through the 1960s was "responsibility training" or the demands for independence that parents placed on children. However, interest in specific parenting behaviours such as weaning and toilet training declined, and the focus shifted to more global dimensions of parenting.

2.3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF CHILD REARING

To understand child rearing one has to look into the various aspects of child rearing like the theories, major conceptual contributions, its origin, goals, influencing factors etc. Parenthood is a stage which starts in adulthood and ends in the last stage of life. Child rearing is different according to the age of child and it is influenced by various factors like gender, culture, characteristics of parents, social class, marital relations and family environment.

Child rearing is a specialty of animals. All type of species following their own ways of rearing according to the context. We can observe the different varieties of rearing in different species like elephants, cat, cow, etc. But prolonged rearing had happened only in human beings. Child rearing is not a unidirectional process; it is a great activity which reflects back.

Child rearing is a reflection of our family relationships and social context. To perform this activity parents not only need training and skills but also the attitude and interest. The base of child rearing is family relationship, so it needs a strong family support. Family’s financial status, educational standard and culture have important role in child’s growth and development.
The behaviour of child is the result of knowledge and value he acquired from the family. The family has to encourage the talents of children. The mental health of child is depending on the family’s mental health. Love, co-operation and faith between members will foster the mental health of child. Family is the first training centre of children. Family gives opportunity to express the children’s feelings and to evaluate its merits and demerits. Families have to provide the opportunity for children to mingle with others. That experience will give way to social and intellectual development. The proper care, love and safety are necessary for the children’s growth.

2.3.1. Child Rearing- The Conceptual Contributions

The concepts in child rearing are contributed by many. One of the treatises on child rearing in Western culture was that of John Locke in 17th century. His essay concerns about establishing early authority over the child. In late 18th century, Mary Wollstonecraft wrote about early care of children. Freud articulated very clearly the role of father and mother within the family and the importance of quality care in early childhood influencing later development. John Bowlby has given major contribution to parenting by his formulation of the concepts maternal deprivation and attachment (Bowlby, 1980). His focus on complexities of parent child interaction and maternal deprivation opened up a new area of research into parenting processes and outcomes. Robert Sears and his colleagues reworked the Freudian theory within the framework of learning theory and two qualities of parenting ‘warmth and control’ were made explicit. Winnicott (1958) introduced the humane and necessary concept of good enough parenting as a desirable goal of what parents do and according to Cassidy and Shaver (1999) secure attachment is a crucial outcome of good parenting which will create a
protective shield for the child against adversity. Bronfenbrenner (1979, 1998) showed that the child may be the focus of parents’ concerns and activities, but the effectiveness of these activities is dramatically depend on parents’ own relationships, economic circumstances, cultural context, and the wider social and political structures within which they operate. Baumrind (1968, 1989) has explored about the different managing styles of parents in social and developmental context. Authoritative parenting is the most effective style in terms of a child’s self control and parent child harmony.

Chess and Thomas (1999) drew attention to the central importance of children’s temperament. Children actively shape the quality and range of practices through their own behaviour. Patterson and his associates (1975, 1989) identified the processes of parent child interaction among difficult and antisocial children. According to Rutter the factors that are affected by and affect the outcome of parenting practices with children are vulnerability and resilience (Rutter et al., 1998). Recently, Eleanor Maccoby has used Sear’s initial formulation of warmth and control and Baumrind’s emphasis on style of control to attempt a reformulation of parenting into two major divisions: demandingness and responsiveness.

The current view of parenting is one of infinite complexity. There are numerous researches that are taking place in this field and along with their development, countries are placing it as an important factor in their policy development. All these researches lead to the conclusion that child rearing is the crucial process in shaping children’s future.
2.3.2. History of Theories

According to French, 2002 child rearing responsibilities has viewed as fundamental to societal well being throughout time and so every society has paid considerable attention to parenting. Decades of scientific enquiry about child rearing yielded a wealth of information about the impact of child rearing on child development. Early research also consisted largely of a search for direct connections between parental practices and child outcomes, whereas current work focuses on processes that may mediate the ways parental practices affect a child (Bornstein, 2006).

2.3.3. Theories of Child Rearing

Many theories in philosophy and psychology focused on child rearing. Several theories of child development have been put forth and have had an impact on approaches to child rearing.

Freudians and other proponents of the psychodynamic approaches to child rearing stressed the importance of providing a positive emotional environment for the child, who needs to believe that the world is a safe and good place and that parents can be trusted to be kind and consistent. He stresses on the importance of childhood. Freud hypothesized that parent’s personality and whether they met their emotional needs in their own development will reflect in their parenting. (Bornstein, 2006)

Scaffolding theory – Cognitive and social development occur in interactive contexts with trusted, more competent parents who do not reward, punish or correct children, but they provide a structure for learning that increases the likelihood of children’s succeeding in their own attempts to learn (Rogoff, 1990).
Attachment theory - posits that an infant’s experience of responsive and sensitive care early in life leads to a greater sense of self-efficacy and trust in significant others (Bowlby, 1969). This secure attachment leads to children who exhibit more exploratory behaviour using their caregiver as a secure base and who are easier to comfort when distressed. Conversely, infants experiencing inconsistent, unresponsive, or rejecting care later see themselves as unworthy and others as untrustworthy and unpredictable. The behaviour of insecure children tends to be angry, withdrawn, explosive, and disorganized. Behaviour with peers in later childhood tends to be more aggressive among insecurely attached children.

Family Systems Theory- What transpires between parent and child is governed not only by the characteristics’ of each individual but also by patterns of transactions between them and others. Each element within the family both affects and is affected by other elements. A change in any one aspect of the system can lead to change in others (Bornstein, 2006).

Parsons' Theory- Parsons suggested that the mother-child subsystem expanded to incorporate the father as well. Before then, Parsons argued, the mother played both expressive (nurturant, empathic) and instrumental (competence-directed, achievement-focused) functions in relation to the child. Thereafter, however, the father was established as the primary representative of the instrumental role and the mother played a more restricted expressive role. The functional dichotomy seen by Parsons reflected basic and universal sex role differences, not just parental role differences. In Parsons' scheme, a power dimension also governed family structure, differentiating parental from child roles (Fagot, 1994).
Baumrind’s theory - One of the earliest parenting theories was developed by Baumrind (1971), whose approach classified parents into three types: authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive, by crossing the dimensions of responsiveness/warmth and control/demandingness. Later, she added neglectful (or disengaged) as a fourth type of parent (Baumrind, 1989). Authoritative parents are high in both control and responsiveness, whereas authoritarian parents are high in control but low in responsiveness. Permissive parents are low in control but high in responsiveness, and neglectful parents are low on both dimensions. A considerable amount of research has been conducted using this model. Children from authoritative homes generally fair better than other children. They are more competent than other children, use fewer drugs as adolescents, and generally have a happier life than other children. Children from authoritarian homes tend to be more aggressive, less independent, more depressed, and have lower academic achievement. Permissive parents have children who are less achievement-oriented, have lower levels of self-control and self-esteem, and higher levels of aggression toward their parents. The children of neglectful parents are at higher risk for a variety of emotional and achievement problems.

2.3.4. Theoretical Framework

The factor that influence child rearing is an interesting topic for early researchers of child development. Even, great effort is expended in understanding why parents select a particular method of child rearing. Less attention is given to the factors that influence child rearing. An inspiration for this theoretical proposition comes from Belsky’s (1984) model of the determinants of parenting. In Belsky’s model, he suggests that parenting is a central, proximal socialization influence in children’s development.
and child and parental characteristics shape child rearing. One of the salient predictors of parenting is the quality of the marital relationship. Theoretically, support from one’s marital partner facilitates effective parenting, whereas marital conflict disrupts it. Belsky’s model, describes about the determinants of parenting. He has given attention to three general sources of influence on parental functioning: they are (1) parents ontogenic origins and personal psychological resources, (2) the child’s characteristics of individuality and contextual sources of stress and support. The model presumes that parenting is directly influenced by personality of the parent, child characteristics, and social context- specifically marital relations, social networks and jobs influence individual personality and general psychological well-being of parents and thereby, parental functioning and in turn, child development.

Belsky explains personality of the parent (parent’s ontogenic origins and personal psychological resources) as the ability of an individual to appraise accurately the perspective of others, understanding, leading and empathize with them. These people would be mature and psychologically healthy. The people with that kind of personality can understand the children’s capabilities and can promote valued developmental outcomes like emotional security, behavioural independence, self-esteem and social competence. This model finds linkages between parent’s personality and childhood experiences of parent’s and its contribution to parenting of their own children (Belsky, 2005). Child characteristics on temperament also determine the development of parent child relations.

Contextual sources means the context of parent child relations. Social support positively influencing psychological well-being and mental health of parents and as a
consequence, it is related to parental functioning. According to Belsky (1984), sources of stress and support can be divided into three - they are, the marital relationship, social networks and employment.

The marital relationship – Fathers who felt support from their wives had a high sense of parental competence regardless of the temperamental difficulty of their infants.

Bandura and Walters (1959) found that mothers tending to irritate and scold their sons felt less affection toward their husbands. Complementing these findings are data from a study by Sears et al. (1957) indicating that mothers’ professed esteem for their husbands was related to praise they directed at their preschool children. Marital relations have indirect influence on parenting than direct influence - by having an impact on the psychological well-being of individuals and only thereby the parenting role. Marital satisfaction and closeness are related to effective parenting (Cox, 1989). A satisfying marriage encourages parent’s involvement in parenting. When both parents are equally involved in parenting, providing mutual support and agreement over parenting strategies also tend to individually parent in consistent and effective ways. Parents in confliction, distressed or dissatisfied marriages are exhibiting a variety of maladaptive child rearing practices. They tend to display more negative affect toward their children and even reject or withdraw from their parenting role (Kerig, 1993). Marital conflict undermines parental warmth, support and leading to less secure parent child attachment (Frosch, 2000). Some research suggests that parenting stress influencing marital relationship (Almeida, 1999) and exist a cyclical relation between parenting stress and marital stress (Hoghughi and Long, 2004).
Social network - Stress of every day life and strains from parenting influencing parent child interaction. Research indicates a direct positive effect of social support on the psychological wellbeing of parents and on parenting skills. Mental health challenges have direct influence on parenting process and also have indirect effect on family environment (Hoghugh and Long, 2004). The availability of significant people and their support have a positive impact on parent child relations. Those parents who have contact with friends have quality parenting than others.

Work – The mother’s employment status influences both the quantity and quality of her own and her spouse’s parenting behaviour. The working status of mothers also create some difference in there use of disciplinary techniques (Belsky, 2005).

Darling and Steinberg - also posit a theory of direct and indirect parental influences on child adjustment. Adjustment in the child is predicted directly by both parenting style and parenting practices, but parenting style also indirectly influences adjustment through its influence on parenting practices. Parenting practices are defined as specific behaviours that parents use to socialize their children (Darling and Steinberg, 1993). For example, when socializing their children to succeed in school, parents might enact certain practices such as doing homework with their children, providing their children with time to read, and attending their children’s school functions. In contrast, Darling and Steinberg (1993) define parenting style as the emotional climate in which parents raise their children. Parenting styles have been characterized by dimensions of parental responsiveness and demandingness (Baumrind, 1991; Spera, 2005).
Research delineating parenting practices from parenting styles has been helpful in extending our understanding of parental influence. For example, alternatives to Baumrind’s (1968) typology have focused on specific parental behaviours rather than general attitudes. Darling and Steinberg (1993) suggested parenting styles are a steady composite of beliefs and attitudes that provide context for parental behaviour. Homework assistance aimed at promoting a child’s academic achievement is one such example of a constructive parenting practice. Distinguishing between parenting style and parenting practices (Bean et al., 2003; Darling and Steinberg, 1993; Stevenson-Hinde, 1998) also has methodological implications relative to measuring parental influence. In effect, parenting style implies an indirect effect on children and adolescent outcomes, whereas parenting practices have direct impact on outcomes (Darling and Steinberg, 1993). Because parenting practices have a direct link to a child’s behaviour and outcomes.

Belsky’s model is giving more importance to personal psychological wellbeing, the influences that marital relations, social network support and work exert on parenting may be traced back to personality and developmental history. In the routine life, there is a tendency to discard some important normal processes. The determinants of parental functioning are considered to be one such set of relatively unnoticed event and processes. Research on child rearing has explained that certain factors of parents and their contexts can challenge to adaptive parenting. Viewing this research in light of contextual and multidimensional models of parenting, it is essential to have a new perspective on the pathways linking marital quality, parenting style and family environment with the process of child rearing.
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY

Socio-demographic Factors (Belsky, 1984)

CONTRIBUTES

Family Environment

CONTRIBUTES

Parenting Style (Darling & Steinberg, 1993)

Marital Quality (Belsky, 1984)
2.4. CONCEPT OF CHILD REARING

The connotation of the word is that child rearing is a positive, nurturing activity. It emerges as probably the most fundamental and universal concern of society. Child rearing is observed across nations, generation, and social classes, religious or political creeds where commonalities are greater than the differences. Child rearing is an activity which normally involves the children, parents and other family members in lifelong interaction. Child rearing process is defined as activities that are specifically aimed at promoting the child’s welfare. Hoghughi and Long, 2004 explains the elements of child rearing as child rearing activities, functional areas and prerequisites.

2.4.1. Child Rearing Activities

It is necessary for good enough parenting. These activities falls into three groups: care, control and development. Care comprises a cluster of activities aimed at meeting the survival needs of children. These include physical activities, which aimed at ensuring a child’s survival by providing food, warmth, cleanliness, reliably providing shelter, education, medical care, physical safety, and nourishment. Emotional care ensures that the child is not unhappy through anxiety, fear or preventable trauma and love, play, and physical touch, and social care is aimed at ensuring that the child is not isolated from significant people and peers in the course of growth. (Pathak, 2007)

Control - Control comprises the range of activities concerned with setting and enforcing boundaries for the child in an age and culturally appropriate manner. Control activities are guided by a complex interaction of parents’ personal predisposition and cultural expectations. Parent’s attempts at control are complicated by their own history
and the type of control they experienced, their beliefs in the efficacy of particular methods of control and their style of making wishes known. Setting and enforcing boundaries for children involves the whole complex psychology of shaping behaviour mixed with changing cultural and ethical considerations of what punishment is acceptable (Patterson, 1989). Now days the children challenge their parents control. Parents are adapting their approach to shifting social dynamics. Responsibilities of the parent are not only limited to feeding, assisting with education, ensuring their safety and wellness, but also providing them with a loving and nurturing home environment and responsibility training (Pathak, 2007).

**Development** - Development activities are lead by parents’ desire to fulfill their children’s potential. It is not necessary for survival or for social functioning. The social system provides opportunity for promoting children’s talents in cultural awareness, sports, arts and science. The most important parental task, the inculcation of values, is mention only in religious texts of parenting (Grusec, 2000).

**2.4.2. Functional Areas**

Child rearing is not limited to any particular area of child’s functioning. It flows from one to another such as feeding to playing and one activity fulfils more than one purpose. The parent’s attention in the areas of children’s functioning cover physical health, intellectual and educational functioning, social behaviour and mental health.

**2.4.3. Prerequisites of Child Rearing**

Child rearing needs a sense of commitment and responsibility which is most demanding. Parents need extensive resources to carry out this complex task which
change according to context. These include knowledge and understanding, motivation, resources and opportunity.

Knowledge and understanding are the essential starting point of active parenting. It is concerned with the parent’s ability to understand the child’s needs and responding to it appropriately. The knowledge is acquiring from culture and from one’s own socialization. Understanding implies a reasonably accurate interpretation of the child’s state. These are necessary for effective child rearing.

Motivation - Motivation concerns parents’ commitment and interest to improve children’s state. The parents getting this motivation from their own life experience and they expect a social recognition through the child’s right activities and the bright future. Now-a-days the mothers have dual career as mothers and workers. So they have less quality time to spend with children. The increasing complexity of fatherhood is now recognized (Burghes, 1997).

Resources for parenting - Along with the financial factor the resources for parenting include qualities (personality characteristics such as warmth and intelligence), skills (to meet the physical, emotional and social care needs of the child, to communicate with the child and management skills), social network (network of significant people, relatives and friends as a source of empowerment) and material resources (money, goods and services).

Opportunity - Parents need time to do their parenting. At present time both of the parents are working. Because of their labour strain, they do not get opportunity to spend more time with their children. This will inversely affecting parenting.
2.5. CHILD REARING PRACTICES IN URBAN AND RURAL AREA

Urbanization is a process in which a great impetus is given to the development of cities. The concept of urban family is very much indebted to and has been influenced by urbanization and modernization. In industrialization one finds impersonal relationship, specialization and division of work and these concepts are part of urban family system as well. But in spite of all this one finds that urban family system has its roots and foundations in rural family systems to a largely extent. Because of urbanization and industrialization, the institution of family has witnessed far reaching changes. In the urban area, approach to family and family life has altogether changed but importance of family in no way can be underestimated. There are differences in child rearing practices between the rural and urban groups and their influences in development of behaviour. The rural group is a primary group, characterized by intimate, face to face contact, by the mutual social support of the individuals who belong to the village and by the ability of the village group to prescribe, or order a considerable proportion of the behaviour of its individual members. All the individuals in the village know one another and information regarding quarrels, etc, spread quickly to the whole group. There is hardly any conflict in the value system of the various sub groups in the village.

A city is largely a secondary group society. There are a variety of sub groups in the city and they are not characterized by intimate face to face contacts. There is multiple group membership. A man works in one group, a factory or office. He lives in another group. He may be a member of a third group which is a recreation club or
musical society. The different groups of which he is a member may differ in their values and goals. There is no universal consensus regarding what is good behaviour and bad behaviour. These values become relative in the city while in a rural group they are practically absolute. However, it is a fact that even in the city, the family, the caste group; the peer groups are primary groups.

It is obvious that the child rearing practices in these two types of environment are quite different. There is considerable agreement regarding what is acceptable way of behaving within the village; so the people tend to be conservative in their outlook. But in the urban society the culture is dynamic and rapidly changing. Traditional behaviours are of little use in preparing the child for adulthood in the city, since there is considerable change in the social norms and ways. The parents cannot insist on their children conforming to certain traditional ways of behaviour, clothing etc., since the peer group may be having other norms. The city child is more autonomous in his behaviour than the rural child. The urban parents have to be more permissive than the rural parent. It is not possible for urban parent to keep a constant watch and check over the child since he is a member of different groups engaging themselves in diverse activities. As a result, the child of the city knows many sets of conflicting values; probably he may not accept any of them whole heartedly; ultimately he may have to select from among them what he finds best for himself (Devi, 1998). Li et al. (2000) conducted an epidemiological survey of maternal child-rearing behaviours in the rural minority areas of Yunnan, China. This study found that maternal child rearing behaviours differed significantly between urban and rural areas.
2.6. GOALS OF CHILD REARING PRACTICES

After studying the child rearing practices of many diverse cultures, Robert LeVine 1973 concluded that families in all societies have three basic goals for their children viz., survival goal, economic goal and self-actualization goal.

The survival goal is to promote the physical survival and health of the child, ensuring that he or she will live long enough to have children too. The economic goal is to foster the skills and behavioural capacities that the child needs for economic and self-maintenance as an adult. The self actualization goal is to foster behavioural capabilities for maximizing other cultural values.

According to LeVine, these universal goals of parenting form a hierarchy. Parents and other care givers are initially concerned about maximizing the child’s chances of survival. When physical health and security can be taken for granted, then parents begin to encourage those characteristics that are necessary for economic self sufficiency. Only after survival and the attributes necessary for economic productivity have been established, parents begin to encourage the child to seek status, prestige, and self-fulfillment.

2.7. UNIVERSAL FEATURES OF CHILD REARING

Four universal features of child rearing that together explain how child rearing everywhere so effectively turns children into valued adults. According to Quinn (2005) four universal features of child rearing are constancy, emotional arousal, evaluation (approval or disapproval) and pre-dispositional priming.
Constancy of experience is meant both in the sense of that experience being repeated with regularity and in the sense of it being undiluted by other, possibly contradictory or diverting experiences that might create confusion, uncertainty, or ambiguity.

Another feature of child rearing everywhere, emotional arousal – by various widespread techniques such as beating, frightening, teasing, shaming, or praising, greatly heightens this effect, making the experience accompanied by arousal especially memorable over the long term.

A third characteristic of child-rearing practices everywhere also depends on emotional arousal, working similarly to frightening, praising, or other techniques specific to given cultural models for child rearing, to make lessons memorable and motivating – and, may indeed be coupled with these other emotion-arousing techniques, as well as with repetition, for maximum effect. One final characteristic of child rearing everywhere is the early training of the child in some suitable emotional predisposition, one that primes the child for the lessons to follow about the kind of adult he or she is expected to become.

Constancy of experience starting in infancy and enforced vigilantly by parents and other child rearers.
2.8. CULTURE AND CHILD REARING

Culture refers to the behaviour patterns, beliefs and all other products of a particular group of people that are passed on from one generation to generation. Parents form attitudes about how to raise their children based on cultural definitions of appropriate child rearing strategies. The diversity of cultures naturally supports a wide variety of beliefs and values about child rearing. Mead (1978) described that subtle changes in culture have significant influence on the family. These changes include the longevity of older adults, movement to urban or suburban areas and influence of media.

The six central dimensions of child rearing identified by Barry et al. (1959) believed to be common to all societies

1. Obedience training: The degree to which children are trained to obey adults.

2. Responsibility training: The degree to which children are trained to take responsibility for subsistence or household tasks.

3. Nurturance training: The degree to which children are trained to care for and help younger siblings and other dependent people.

4. Achievement training: The degree to which children are trained to strive towards standards of excellence in performance.

5. Self-reliance training: The degree to which children are trained to take care of themselves and to be independent of assistance from others in supplying their needs or wants.
6. General independence training: The degree to which children are trained (beyond self-reliance as defined above) toward freedom from control, domination, supervision.

2.9. CHILD REARING THROUGH THE YEARS

Children change as they grow from infancy to adolescence. At infancy, parent child interaction focus on routine care taking - feeding, bathing, soothing - etc. Later more non-care giving activities enter and disciplinary matters handle by physical manipulation. As the child grows older, parents increasingly turn to reasoning, moral exhortation, and giving or withholding special privileges. Parent child interactions during early childhood focus on modesty, control of temper, autonomy in dressing etc. According to Collins et al. 1995, although parents spend less time with their children in middle or late childhood, they continue to be the best socializing agents in their children’s lives. In middle childhood, parents must deal with new issues like promote responsible behaviour, constructive use of leisure time, and deal with problems at school (Berk, 1996). Parents continue to exercise general supervision and exert control while children are allowed to engage in moment to moment self regulation. In this period, parents should a) monitor, guide and support children at a distance, b) effectively use the times when they have direct contact with the child, c) strengthen in children the ability to monitor their own behaviour, to adopt appropriate standards of conduct, to avoid hazardous risk and to sense when parental support and contact are appropriate. Parents of elementary school children use less physical discipline than do parents of preschool children. By contrast, parents of elementary school children are more likely to use deprivation of privileges, appeals directed at the child’s self-esteem,
comments designed to increase the child’s sense of guilt, and statements indicating to the child that she is responsible for her actions (Santrock, 2007).

2.10. CHILD REARING PRACTICES – INFLUENCE OF SOCIO DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

Parenting is likely to be influenced by the characteristics of the child as well as characteristics of the parent and the context in which the relationship occurs. Some studies have found the expected relationship between difficult temperament and less supportive parenting. The effect of temperament on parenting may depend on other factors such as characteristics of mother or contextual factors (e.g., level of social support or other stressors with which the parent is contending).

2.10.1. Characteristics of Parents

At early times, parents develop or fall into any particular parenting style or set of parenting practices, they bring their own characteristics, family histories, ideals, and problems to the table. Parental use of induction or reasoning, consistent discipline, and expression of warmth have been found to relate positively to self-esteem, internalized controls and pro-social orientation (Belsky, 2005).

In a longitudinal study of 248 young adults, Brooke et al. assessed parental personality and upbringing in terms of their links to parent-child attachment. Those with high levels of sensitivity, low drug use, and close relationships with their own mothers were more likely to form close parent child attachments with their own children. Parent’s personal characteristics are antecedents for parenting style (Sharma, 2006).
2.10.2. Family Size and Parent Child Interaction

Size of the family is influencing the child rearing practices. In small families, more emphasis is placed on the individual development of the children. In small families, there is more democratic participation by the children than in larger families. In larger families, more emphasis is on the group than on the individual. The number of children reduces the intimate, one to one contact between the parent and any individual child (Wong et al., 2006).

Berk (1996) found that a smaller family size has positive effects on parent child interaction. Parents who have fewer children are more patient and use less punishment. They also have more time to devote to each child’s activities, school work and other special needs. Together these findings may account for the fact that children who grow up in smaller families have somewhat higher intelligence test scores, do better in school and have a higher sense of self-esteem. Children’s behaviour problems also vary with family size. Parents of only one or two children sometimes pressure their youngsters too much. As a result, anxiety is more common in small families. In contrast, coercive discipline and reduced supervision probably contribute to higher rates of antisocial behaviour and delinquency in families with many children.

2.10.3. Gender Difference

At the beginning of civilization, the mother used to be the leader of the tribe and she led the tribe in food gathering. This matriarchal set up inherited from the predecessor species. Fathers start socializing with children only when they are relatively independent. Traditionally a father’s responsibility has been limited to
financing. Men behave as they understand the father’s role towards children in predominantly patriarchal society. Now a day this trend is changing. Male and female have equal participation in household activities. The increase in level of education and job opportunities change the scenario (Kumari, 2005).

Parenting roles differ by gender, so do the relationship between mothers and daughters, mothers and sons, and fathers and sons. There are gender differences in parental approaches to discipline. The disciplinary approaches of fathers tend toward firmness, relying on rules and principles. The approaches of mothers tend toward more responsiveness, involving more bargaining, more adjustment toward the child's mood and context and is more often based on an intuitive understanding of the child's needs and emotions of the moment. Gilligan (1982) concluded that the differences between paternal and maternal approaches to discipline are rooted in the fundamental differences between men and women in their moral senses. Men stress justice, fairness and duty based on rules, while women stress understanding, sympathy, care and helping based on relationships.

2.10.4. Social Class Variations in Child Rearing

According to Maccoby and MacLoyd (1990) compared with middle and upper class parents, economically disadvantaged and working class parents tend to:

1. Stress obedience and respect for authority more and place somewhat less emphasis on fostering independence, curiosity and creativity;

2. Be more restrictive and authoritarian, more frequently using power – assertive discipline:
3. Talk to and reason with their children less frequently; and
4. Show less warmth and affection

Some middle class parents are highly restrictive, power assertive and aloof in their approach to child rearing.

Lack of financial resources can make it harder for mothers and fathers to support each other in parenting. In many of the poor families, parents worked several fatiguing jobs to make ends meet. These parents were less optimistic and more depressed than parents in better off families. They found it harder to communicate and cooperate with each other and often fought over child raising. These contradictory parental messages led to behavioural and scholastic problems in children.

Research examining parenting in over 180 societies reveals that a style that is responsive but moderately demanding is the most common pattern around the world. Many cultures seem to have discovered for themselves the link between authoritative parenting and healthy psychological development (Rohner and Rohner, 1981).

Parents who work in skilled and semiskilled manual occupations would like to encourage their children, the values on external characteristics such as obedience, neatness and cleanliness. In contrast, parents in white-collar and professional occupations tend to emphasize inner psychological traits, such as curiosity, happiness, and self-control. These differences in values are reflected in parenting behaviours. Low-income parents tend to be more coercive, whereas middle-income parents use more explanations and inductive discipline.
Education also contributes to social class differences in child rearing. Middle class parents’ interest in verbal stimulation and in fostering the development of children’s inner characteristics is supported by years of schooling, during which they observed models of adult-child verbal instruction, acquired advanced verbal skills, and learned to think about abstract, subjective ideas. In a study carried out in Mexico where female school enrollment has recently increased, the more years of education a mother had, the more she stimulated her young child through face to face conversation (Richman, Miller, LeVine, 1992).

Families in the various social classes differ in the ways they rear their children (Duvall, 1971). Middle class occupations are likely to involve considerable task complexity and flexibility. Parents from the middle class generally train their children to be achievement oriented. Self-discipline, initiative, responsibility, academic achievement, and restraint of aggression are encouraged (Berns, 2007).

### 2.11. DIMENSIONS OF CHILD REARING

Child rearing can be explained from different dimensions like overprotection, rejection and harsh child rearing practices.

Over protective parents -When a child is born it seems so fragile, feeble and tiny that it is only natural for parents to feel fiercely protective. Parents want to shield their children from all conceivable harm, but normally they cannot do that for a long time and a far extent. Parents need to remember that children do grow up. They cannot expect their children to depend their parents forever as they make their way through life. Children do not tiptoe through life, they romp, they run, they jump, and they
explore. Given this scenario parents should accept that falls and bruises are all a part of childhood (Pathak, 2007). Parents who constantly interfere to the problems of childhood are actually doing more harm than good.

The overprotected child - The overprotected child receives excessive maternal care, treats him like a baby and will not let him grow up. Overprotection prevents the development of independent behaviour. Overprotective parents spend an enormous amount of time with their children and give them prolonged nursing care. The child’s maturity is also blocked by limiting the child’s social contacts; his friendships with other children are discouraged or prevented.

The rejected child - Parental rejection of children exists only in disguised forms. The rejecting mother may dress her child very well, look after his physical comfort and appear to be very good parent. Yet, she may deny her child what he needs most – acceptance and affection. Overprotection may stem from guilt feelings because of this unconscious rejection.

Rejection appears in several ways; excessive physical or verbal punishment, of the child may result from parent’s underlying hostility. The child is never good enough for the rejecting parent no matter how hard he tries. Since the healthy development of a child depends on parents accepting his real accomplishment, the personality of the rejected child suffers severe damage. Many of the first born children become selfish and later on spoiled. Many of them are over protected (Devi, 1998). The psychoanalysts report that accepted children are emotionally stable, well socialized, calm and deliberate, enthusiastic and interested, and have personalities possessing admirable qualities. Rejected children on the other hand, show much emotional instability, an
excess of activity and restlessness, are generally antagonistic towards society and its institutions and show apathy and indifference.

Harsh referred to punishment that was more severe than that used by other parents in the same community. Harshly punished children might be temporarily obedient; their parents sometimes conclude that harsh punishment is good. Children store up frustration at this punishment and they ventilate it in later years in the form of violence. In a review of studies, Berclay Martin found that (Berger, 1988), children who were harshly punished in childhood were more likely to become antisocial delinquents in adolescence.

2.12. PARENTING STYLE

Child development is influenced by the specific child rearing practices and these practices are selected on the basis of parenting style of the family. Parenting practices are the specific behaviours that parents use to socialize their children and parenting style is the emotional climate in which parents raise their children. Parenting styles have been characterized by dimensions of parental responsiveness and demandingness. Therefore, by understanding the parenting style we can draw information on the particular child rearing practices of the family. Darling and Steinberg (1993) defined parenting style as overall climate of parent child interactions. It is an affective context of sorts that sets the tone for the parent's interactions with the child. Parenting style is a determinant factor in child development. It affects psychological and social functioning of the children. We can understand the good parenting by understanding which parenting styles is adopted in a family to prepare the children to meet the society.
2.12.1. Patterns of parenting styles

In 1930’s, John Watson argued that parents are too affectionate with their children. In the 1950’s, a distinction was made between physical and psychological discipline. Psychological discipline, especially reasoning was emphasized as the best way to rear their child. Since the 1970’s, developmentalists have constructed more precise dimensions of competent parenting. We can understand the effectiveness of parenting style by considering two dimensions of parenting. Parental acceptance/responsiveness and parental demandingness or control. Parental acceptance/responsiveness (also referred to as parental warmth or supportiveness) refers to “the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality, self-regulation, and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children’s special needs and demands” (Baumrind, 1991). Parental demandingness (also referred to as behavioural 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, 1991). Baumrinds conceptual model of parenting prototypes deals with four main styles of parenting i.e authoritarian, authoritative, permissive and neglecting (Baumrind, 1991). Maccoby and Martin (1983) indicate that these parenting styles capture two important dimensions of parenting (a) parental acceptance (also know as parental warmth or supportiveness) and (b) parental control (also known as parental demandingness or behavioural control). Parental acceptance refers to the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality, self regulation and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive and acquiescent to children’s special needs and demands. Parental control refers to the claims parents makes on children to become integrated into the family by
their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child who disobeys (Sinha and Mishra, 2007). Authoritative parents display high levels of both responsiveness and demandingness. They are warm, nurturing, and sensitive to their child’s needs and consistently consider the child’s age and maturity when forming behavioural expectations. Authoritarian parents display low responsiveness and high demandingness. They are often cold, unsupportive, insensitive to the child’s needs, and demanding in their control. Indulgent parents use high responsiveness but low demandingness; they believe that fewer rules and expectations for appropriate behaviour benefits to children’s development. Finally, uninvolved parents display low levels of both responsiveness and demandingness. The authoritarian, authoritative and permissive parenting styles were originally identified and defined by Baumrind (1991) in a pioneering longitudinal study (Sigelman, 1999).

Maccoby and Martin later added a fourth parenting style, termed neglectful (uninvolved). Each style reflects different patterns in values, practice and parental behaviour, with a distinct balance of responsiveness and demandingness.

The four styles are: Indulgent (permissive). These parents are more responsive than demanding. They are nontraditional and lenient, do not require mature behaviour and set few demands for their children. They allow for self-regulation and avoid confrontation.

Authoritarian: These parents are very demanding and directive, but not responsive. They expect their orders to be carried out without explanation and provide structured environments with clear rules.
**Authoritative:** These parents are both demanding and responsive. They are assertive but not intrusive or restrictive. Their methods of discipline are supportive not punitive. They outline clear expectations for a child’s conduct and expect social responsibility and cooperation.

**Neglectful:** (uninvolved) This parenting style is low in responsiveness and demandingness In extreme cases, this style might encompass rejecting-neglecting and neglectful parents (Enten and Golan, 2008).

As children move into school, peer and community contexts, the parent-child relationship change. Recent changes in the family – such as high rates of divorce, maternal employment – can have positive as well as negative effects on children. In middle childhood, the amount of time children spend with parents declines dramatically. The child’s growing independence means that parents must deal with new issues like misuse of the facilities like internet access, mobile phones, substance abuse, teenage pregnancy, problems between peer groups, emotional problems, all forms of child abuse and exploitations, lack of social responsibility, etc. The common thinking is that authoritative pattern of parenting style is best for child development. However, it may vary according to culture and societal changes (Myers-Walls et al., 2006). From one point of view, there are many parenting styles as there are parents. One helpful grouping is provided in LeMasters’ listing of five parenting styles: the martyr, the pal, the police officer, the teacher-counsellor, and the athletic coach (Lamanna and Riedman, 1988). Individual parents probably combine elements of two or more of these styles in their own personal parenting styles.
Each of these parenting styles has its own advantages and disadvantages. The parent as martyr face some problems like, the goals the martyring parents set are impossible to carry out and the parent always feel guilty. The parent as pal style points out that there are some relationship risks. If things do not go well, parents may want to retract to a more formal, authoritarian style of parenting. However, once they have established a buddy relationship, it is difficult to regain authority. Children are more likely to be influenced by their parents’ knowledge and expertise or wish to identify with parent’s values than by the parents authority. The key is respect and a close relationship; habitual punishment and the policing of adolescents are far less effective modes of socialization. The style of parent as teacher counselor put the needs of the child above the parent’s needs. It may be difficult for most parents to always be there to stimulate the children. Children also have inherited intellectual capacities and needs. Instead of this parenting style, an interactive perspective regards the influence between parent and child as mutual and reciprocal. The athletic coach style recognizes that parents, like coaches have their own personalities and needs. Once individual become parents, they remain in this role the rest of their lives. As we explore parenting over the course of life, we will apply principles and suggestions from the interactive and athletic coach perspectives on parenting.

2.12.2. Advantages and Disadvantages of Different Parenting Styles

The outcomes of any given parenting style on any given child depends on many factors that interact with each other, including the child’s age, sex, and temperament.; the parents’ personality characteristics, personal history, economic circumstances, and
the like; the needs of all the family members; and the values of the culture. The following generalizations are drawn from the study conducted by Baumrind (1968).

Authoritarian parenting styles generally lead to children who are obedient and proficient, but they rank lower in happiness, social competence and self-esteem. They lack social competence as the parent generally predicts what the child should do instead of allowing the child to choose by him or herself. The children also rarely take initiatives. They are socially withdrawn and look to others to decide what’s right. These children tend to be low in self-confidence and lack social and academic competence. These children lack spontaneity and curiosity. These children were often characterized by lacking spontaneity and intellectual curiosity (Cole, 2005).

Authoritative parenting styles tend to result in children who are happy, capable and successful. Authoritative parenting without physical punishment produces the most positive results and the fewest problems for children in today’s world. Children who have been raised in authoritative homes score higher on a variety of measures of competence, social development, self-perceptions, and mental health than those raised in authoritarian, permissive, or neglectful homes. This is true not only in childhood, but also during adolescence, as evidenced by higher academic achievement and psychosocial development, and fewer behavioural problems (Ballantine, 2001).

Permissive parenting often results in children who rank low in happiness and self-regulation. These children are more likely to experience problems with authority and tend to perform poorly in school. Permissive style of child rearing is nurturant and accepting, but it avoids making demands or imposing controls of any kind. Permissive parents allow children to make many of their own decisions at an age when they are not
yet capable of doing so. Children with permissive parents tend to have high self-esteem and good social skills but are more prone to problem behaviour. Uninvolved parenting styles rank lowest across all life domains. These children tend to lack self-control, have low self-esteem and are less competent than their peers.

Children develop best when they have love and limits. If they are indulged or neglected and given little guidance, they won’t learn self control and may become quite selfish, unruly and lacking in direction. In addition, if they receive too much guidance, as the children of authoritarian parents do, they will have few opportunities to learn self-reliance and may lack confidence in their own decision-making abilities. In today’s complex world, men and women are not ascertaining about how to rear children as they were in previous generations. Clarifying parenting values and implementing them in warm, supportive and appropriately demanding ways are crucial for the welfare of the next generation and society (Sharma, 2006).

2.13. MARITAL RELATIONSHIP AND CHILD REARING

Marriage is one of the most fundamental and enduring social institutions. Marriage is a long term process rather than a static entity. The individuals in a marital dyad must cope with the changes in structure and function that occur in the relationship as it endures a continuous evolution in their physical, emotional, and social environments. Marital satisfaction is important factors in every marriage. Marital satisfaction is defined as a situation that husband and wife have the feeling of satisfaction and prosperity toward each other most of the time. Satisfactory relations between husband and wife can be judged by the amount of love, care, acceptance and
understanding between them (Sinha and Muckerjec, 1990; Ahmadi and Hossein-abadi, 2009).

The problem of adjustment is the vital problem of the modern world. Modern life seems to produce maladjusted behaviours at a faster rate among individuals. Marital adjustment is the state in which there is an overall feeling in husband and wife of happiness and satisfaction with their marriage and with each other (Rani and Asthana, 2008). Marital adjustment, happiness, satisfaction, or a number of variables that attest to the quality of a marriage may be the most frequently studied dimension in the marriage and family field.

2.13.1. Dimensions of Marital Adjustment

Jessie Bernard states that the major dimensions of any human adjustment problem are: (1) the degree or extent or nature of the differences between or among the parties involved, (2) the degree or extent or nature of the communication between or among the parties and (3) the quality of the relationship between or among them, that is, its positive or negative affectivity, friendliness, or hostility (Eshleman, 1985).

2.13.2. Factors Related To Marital Quality

**Personal characteristics**

The factors relating to the individual and marital or relationship quality are gender, personality factors, mental health, physical health, socio-economic status and employment, previous relationships, attitudes towards marriage and divorce. The relationship factors are duration of marriage, pre-marital cohabitation, presence of
children, division of labour, homogamy and partner’s marital quality. Factors external to the relationship are parents’ characteristics, significant others and stressful events. Amato et al. (2003) reporting that marital happiness and divorce proneness changed little between 1980 and 2000, but marital interaction declined significantly. Increase in marital heterogamy, premarital cohabitation, wives’ extended hours of employment, and wives’ job demands were associated with declines in multiple dimensions of marital quality. In contrast, increase in economic resources, decision-making quality, nontraditional attitudes toward gender and support for the norm of lifelong marriage were associated with improvements in multiple dimensions of marital quality. Increase in husbands’ share of housework appeared to depress marital quality among husbands but to improve marital quality among wives. Gottman and Levenson (1999) report that there were statistically significant levels of stability in overall emotionality and in positive and negative affect, particularly for wives. Women were more stable than men in overall negative and positive affect.

2.13.3. Effects of Marital Quality on Child Rearing

Women find that work outside the home give them worth, identity and a measure of economic independence. To carry out effectively the double burden of work at home and at the work place, the urban middle class working woman often faces unavoidable physical and psychological stress. She has in fact to carry out two full time jobs with little time for rest, leisure or self-care. (Aleem and Danish, 2008). Fathers who felt support from their wives had a high sense of parental competence. Bandura and Walters (1959) observed that mothers inclined to nag and scold their sons felt less warmth and affection toward their husbands. Sears et al. (1957) indicating that mothers
professed esteem for their husbands was systematically related to the praise they directed at their preschool children. The quality of the emotional relationship between spouses influences mothers’ negativism toward their adolescent sons. Mother’s employment status influences both the quality and quantity of her own and her spouses parenting behaviour. “Belsky’s notion that a positive marital relationship is a major support of competent parenting”. (Belsky, 2005).

Marital quality contributes to children’s development in that the parents form a co-parenting alliance, cooperating with and supporting each other (Berns, 2007). Overall children perform best when couples co-parent— that is mutually supporting each others parenting efforts and function as a cooperative team. Effective co-parenting is difficult when couples have marital discord and other family problems. Both mothers and fathers can influence their children indirectly through their interactions with their spouses (Bhatt, 2007).

It is important to remember that parents have a relationship with each other as well as with their children. Parents serve as sources of mutual emotional and physical support and comfort. Happily married couples foster desirable characteristics in their children. They provide a congenial and stimulating environment enabling the child to use to the maximum his abilities, they have better adjustment, better peer relationships and better development.

In cases of marital discord where the spouses are unsatisfied, critical and frustrated, the home in constant emotional turmoil. In such families, parents are fighting, communicating irrationally and children get entangled in the parent’s
emotional conflicts. All these things can make the development of the children faulty and children may find it difficult to establish intimate relationships.

Cox and Paley (2003) explain that marital relations, parenting, and infant/child behaviour can have both direct and indirect effects on one another. The link between marital relationship and parenting has recently received increased attention. The most consistent findings are that compared with unhappily married parents, happily married parents are more sensitive, responsive, warm, and affectionate toward their children. When parents report more intimacy and better communication in their marriage, they are more affectionate to their children (Grych, 2002). Thus, marriage-enhancement programs may end up improving parenting and helping children. Programs that focus on parenting skills might also benefit from including attention to the participants’ marriages (Santrock, 2007).

Low marital quality can also have significant impact on an array of the child’s social interactions. Belsky (1984) described marital quality as a first-order support for parenting and argued that discord in the marriage may adversely affect parenting practices. Marital tension can lead to inconsistencies in parenting behaviours, such as rules and discipline strategies (Fauber et al., 1990). Marital quality was negatively correlated only with family cohesion (Peleg-Popko and Dar, 2001).

2.14. FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND ITS IMPORTANCE IN CHILD REARING

Family environment is an important factor for the psychosocial development of the child. Many family theorists have pointed out that a healthy family environment is
an essential prerequisite for personality development of children (Philip, 2002). Every family is a system—a complex whole made up of interrelated and interacting parts. The relationships never go in just one direction (Santrock, 2007).

The early environment is limited to the home, family, relationship, plays a dominant role in determining the future patterns of a child’s overall personality development. If global character of the home is favorable, there are changes for developing favorable social attitudes with the child. On the other hand, if the home atmosphere is with constant tension and friction, this will act as an unfavorable atmosphere to the child and the attitudes developed with child will be greatly influenced by this. This will also have greater after effect in the life of the child. The factors like social economic status of the family, methods adopted for child rearing, the family background, and discipline etc. influence the social growth of the child (Devi 1998).

2.14.1. Basic Family Functions

The family performs certain basic functions that enable society to survive and continue generation after generation. Family functioning can be seen as a continuum, with “healthy” or functional, at one end and “unhealthy” or dysfunctional at the other. Economic, health, and social stresses can upset the basic family functions of reproduction, socialization/education, assignment of social roles, economic support and nurturance/emotional support (Berns, 2007).

Friedman, (2003) described the family functions as affective, socialization, reproductive, economic, and health care functions. The affective function is one of the
most vital and focuses on meeting family members’ needs for affection and understanding. The socialization function refers to the learning experiences provided within the family to teach children their culture and how to function and assume adult roles. This is a lifelong process. The reproductive function ensures family continuity over the generations and the survival of society. Economic functions involve the family’s provision and allocation of sufficient resources. Health care functions are met by the provision of such physical necessities as food, clothing shelter, and health care.

Home influences probably outweigh the effects of all other environmental impacts combined in determining the fundamental organization of a child’s behaviour. Mother’s role - in terms of time spent with the child, the mother has more opportunities than the father to influence her offspring’s psychological growth and behaviour, since child rearing in our culture is generally recognized as primarily the mother’s privilege and responsibility. It is surprising to note that mother-child interactions are not the same on all occasions since mothers’ behaviour patterns are conditioned by number of variables. Personal factors like health and pregnancy, age of the child, social class of the family and a host of other factors.

Father role - The father influences child’s behaviour in a variety of direct and indirect ways. He determines to a large degree, the personal social values on which the family is based. He influences the mother’s attitudes towards the home and child management. Even during his absence the mother may involve his authoritative opinions and decisions saying your father would not approve of that or ‘I will tell your dad when he comes home’ etc. During the phase of early childhood the child being to
have a feeling of autonomy of self-direction and imitation. At this period parental ‘discipline’ becomes very important.

2.14.2. Family Functioning

Family functioning is the interrelatedness of the structural and interpersonal dynamics of the family to stresses, support, resources and coping styles. Family functioning refers to the patterns of relationship connecting members of a family system. There are patterns for showing affection, for solving problems, for accomplishing tasks and so forth. Family functioning is a multidimensional construct because many different aspects of family functioning can be considered such as cohesion, flexibility, communication, and behavioural control. Different theories of family functioning (e.g. Systems theory, development theory, communication theory, role theory, stress theory and so on.) emphasize different dimensions of family functioning. The Family environment is an important source of nurturing and individual care for children and provides the setting in which a child’s needs can be met. The welfare and wellbeing of children to a large degree depends on the stability and quality of family life and the environments in which they grow (Iwaniec and Sneddon, 2002).

2.14.3. Family Dynamics

Families work cooperatively to accomplish family functions. Through family dynamics (interactions and communication), family members assume appropriate social roles. Social roles in the family are learned in pairs (e.g; mother-father, parent-child, and brother-sister). Role pairing enables social interactions to take place in an orderly, predictable manner; the roles are said to be complementary. Some families maintain a
traditional pairing of roles, whereas other families change behaviour patterns to suit a change in family lifestyle. Through everyday interactions, the family develops and uses its own patterns of verbal and nonverbal communication. These patterns give insight into the emotional exchange within a family and act as reliable indicators of interpersonnel functions (Wong et al., 2006).

2.14.4. Family Organization and Structure

The urban institute recognizes four categories of families: the two parent family, the single parent family, blended families, and no parent families. (Staveteig and Wigton, 2000) A broader view of contemporary family is as a group of two or more persons related by blood, marriage, adoption, or emotional commitment who have a permanent relationship and who work together to meet life goals and needs. When members are gained or lost through events, the family composition is altered and roles must be redefined or redistributed. Children may belong to several different family groups during their lifetimes.

2.14.5. Family Roles

Family roles involve the expectations and behaviours associated with a member’s position in the family (e.g., mother, father, grandparent). Social class and cultural norms also affect these roles, with distinct expectations for men and women clearly determined by social norms (Wong et al, 2006).

There are many roles within a family; Researchers have identified the following five roles as being essential for a healthy family.
1. Provision of Resources - Providing resources, such as money, food, clothing, and shelter, for all family members is one of the most basic, yet important, roles within a family. This is primarily an instrumental role.

2. Nurturance and Support - Nurturing and supporting other family members is primarily an affective role and includes providing comfort, warmth, and reassurance for family members. Examples of this role are a parent comforting a child after he/she has a bad day at school, or family members supporting one another after the death of a loved one.

3. Life Skills Development - The life skills development role includes the physical emotional, educational, and social development of children and adults. Examples of this role are a parent helping a child makes it through school, or a parent helping a young adult child decides on a career path.

4. Maintenance and Management of the Family System - This fourth role involves many tasks, including leadership, decision making, handling family finances, and maintaining appropriate roles with respect to extended family, friends and neighbors. Other responsibilities of this role include maintaining discipline and enforcing behavioural standards.

5. Sexual Gratification of Marital Partners - A satisfying sexual relationship is one of the keys to a quality marital relationship. This role involves meeting sexual needs in a manner that is satisfying to both spouses.

Communication - Effective communication is an important characteristic of strong, healthy families. Research identifies communication as an essential building block of strong marital, parent-child, and sibling relationships. Warm and sensitive
parents who often talk to their children and try to stimulate their curiosity contribute in a positive way to the establishment of secure emotional attachments (Bhatt, 2007).

Effective and right type of communication brings family members together emotionally and makes family functioning more meaningful and sound. It is through communication that members in the family transmit their concern, feelings, ideas, reactions and other human transactions. It facilitates task accomplishment, goal achievement and promotes personality development of family members (Khasgiwala, 1993).

2.14.6. Family as a System

A system consists of interacting parts. In order to understand the operation of the whole system, one must study the parts, the transactions between the parts, and the relationships between the parts and the environment. To understand a system as complex as a family, one must examine the individual family members, their interactions with one another, and their interactions with others outside the family.

Systems are rule governed. They have organized repetitive patterns that are initiated, modified and maintained by the members of the system. All families follow rules that direct members to act in predictable ways. These rules govern the roles, division of labor, power, and patterns of interaction in a family. They keep the systems operating smoothly. Roles are expected behaviours of family members; for example, mom is the caretaker, dad is the bread winner. Patterns of interaction are redundant sequences of behaviour. Each role fits into a position which an individual has. Each role has its complement and it cannot be performed in isolation unless there is a
counterpart to receive it and respond. Thus, a mother’s role can be thought unless there is a child role or husband’s role with wife’s role etc. (Khasgiwala, 1993).

Boundaries define who and what ideas and things are included in a family, and at what level of intimacy. The children form a subgroup that interacts with the parents both as individuals and as a parental subgroup. Relatives and friends are included but at a less intimate level. The permeability of a boundary refers to the ease or difficulty of exchanging information across that boundary. The rules of the system maintain a dynamic equilibrium or steady state. This steady state or homeostasis makes the system predictable and comfortable and requires less energy than change requires. If the equilibrium is threatened, the systems rules operate to restore that equilibrium.

In order for a system to change, the rules must be modified. Outdated rules must be modified. Outdated rules must be updated to allow the system to meet the needs of the individuals involved. Another property of a family system is openness. As stated above, openness is related to the permeability of the boundaries. An open system exchanges information with others outside the system and between members within the system. All living systems are open, but there are degrees of openness depending on the amount of information the system assimilates (Hoopes et al., 1984).

2.14.7. Relationships within the Family and Its Effects on Children

Within the family, there are variety of people of different ages, personality and aims in life. There may be just the parents and children. Sometimes there is a grant parent. Other relatives like uncles, aunts and cousins usually come and go, though most of them will arrive for special occasions. Relationships between these people are not
always easy, though they may be better with some members of family than with others. Members of a family are also faced with the problem of the many different roles they are expected to play. Each of these roles requires a different sort of relationship, and if the people involved are all living together, constant changes of roles will be necessary. The happiness of a family with young children depends very much on how children get on with another. Family size and spacing of children are important in this regard (Sydney, 1978).

2.14.7.1. Dynamic Changes in Family Relationships

Relationships change as time passes. The type of relationships a family has may change as its members grow older. These changes can affect every one in the family. The study conducted by Lewi, Beavers, Gossett, and Phillips (1976) indicates healthy families have the following qualities:

1. Strong parental coalition
2. An affiliative attitude toward encounters
3. Respect for the subjectivity of others
4. Open and direct communication
5. An understanding of varied and complex human needs and motivations
6. Spontaneity
7. High levels of initiative
8. Enjoyment of the unique characteristics of each individual

According to Fisher et al. (1982) (in Hoopes et al., 1984) the family members identified the following aspects as most important to healthy family functioning:
1. A sense of belonging to the family
2. Good communication that includes attending to affect and content of a message, listening attentively, and expressing feelings and thoughts openly
3. Enjoyment of one another, feeling good about each other
4. Acceptance of and support for each other’s emotional needs
5. A feeling of security, safety, and trust with one another
6. Ability to depend on one another to honor agreements and commitments
7. Protection of individual members against outside threats
8. Doing things together that are rewarding, fun, and enjoyable

The family’s emotional climate is an important context characteristic that determines the effects of parental control (Chen et al., 2000; Darling and Steinberg, 1993). On the one hand, children that perceive high emotional support are more likely to regard parental control as legitimate and to perceive this control has a result of parental involvement and care. On the other hand, high parental control in the context of a poor emotional climate may be perceived by the child as an attempt by the parents to restrain personal autonomy and to retain power in the relationship, which may increase the child’s resistance to parental authority and attempt to control.

2.15. HUMAN RIGHTS IN THE FAMILY

The human rights need to be applied to the family for inspiring family life. Family responsibilities are as important as family rights to guarantee happiness. Desai (1994) has applied human rights instruments to family and added family responsibilities at three levels. They are - The individual’s right to have a family, every
child has the right to be raised by his or her natural family, and parents have the primary responsibility to rear their children.

2.16. CHILD REARING PRACTICES IN INDIA AND IN KERALA

The institution of family occupies a central place in the lives of Indian people. The joint family is identified as the traditional form of family in India. Nuclear and extended families emerged in due course. The Indian family is giving more importance to relationships that binds its members together. The culture in which a child is born plays an important role in child rearing practices. Kerala stands out as a unique state in India especially with respect to health and educational status. Parental goals for children are different in different cultures. Traditionally, parents in Kerala had strong contextual support. As the nuclear families increase this support is diminishing. Sachdeva (2005) observes that ideas on how to bring up children undergo transformation.

2.17. FAMILY WELFARE SCHEMES

India has family policy in the form of Family Welfare Programme of the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare. National policy for children lies down that the State shall provide adequate services towards children, before and after birth and during the growing stages for their full physical, mental and social development. As far as the family is concerned, it states that ‘in organizing services for children, efforts would be directed to strengthen family ties so that full potentialities of growth of children are realized within the normal family, neighbourhood and community environment.
The National Policy for Child Labour (1987), the National Youth Policy (1988), the National Policy Education (1986) and the National Health Policy (1985) aim at specific services for select groups of individuals and implications for the family are implicit. (Desai, 1990, 1994)

Some of the National Policies and Programs for family welfare are:

National family welfare Programme - India launched the National Family Welfare Programme in 1951 with the objective of reducing the birth rate to the extent necessary to stabilise the population at a level consistent with the requirement of the National economy. The Family Welfare Programme in India is recognised as a priority area, and is being implemented as a 100% centrally sponsored programme.

- National Nutrition Policy – adopted by the government in 1993 identified a series of actions for different departments in the area for food production and distribution, health and family welfare, education, rural and urban development, women and child development etc.

- National Population Policy - The National Population Policy, 2000 affirms the commitment of government towards voluntary and informed choice and consent of citizens while availing of reproductive health care services and continuation of the target free approach in administering family planning services.

- Urban Family Welfare Schemes - The main focus was to provide services through setting up of Health Posts mainly in slum areas. The services provided are mainly outreach of RCH services, preventive services, First Aid and referral services including distribution of contraceptives.
• Reproductive and child health programme - The Reproductive and Child Health Programme was launched in October 1997 incorporating new approach to population and development issues, as exposed in the International Conference in Population and Development held at Cairo in 1994. The programme integrated and strengthened in services/interventions under the Child Survival and Safe Motherhood Programme and Family Planning Services and added to the basket of services, new areas on Reproductive Tract/Sexually Transmitted infections (RTI/STI).

• Child protection policy - The child protection policy is aimed to provide a commitment to safeguard children involved with an NGO from harm. Welfare of the child is paramount; all children have the right to protection from abuse regardless of gender, ethnicity, disability, sexuality or beliefs; the policy is approved and endorsed by the management and staff, volunteers, parents or guardians. It allows children’s referral services and in emergencies it utilizes the service of police and the press.

On November 20, 1989, the UN General Assembly adopted the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). On January 26, 1990, the opening day of the session, 61 countries signed it. The CRC covers all children under the age of 18 years, regardless of sex, colour, language, religion or race. India ratified the CRC in 1992. A National charter for children, 2003 emphasizes Government of India’s commitment to children’s right to survival, health and nutrition, standard of living, play and leisure, early childhood care, education, protection of the girl child, equality, life and liberty, freedom of expression, the right to a family and right to be protected from economic exploitation. The National Plan of Action for Children 2005 introduced in the
parliament to achieve the targets set by the constitution of India and UN General Assembly.

Eleventh Five-Year Plan (2007-2012) prepared by the Planning Commission emphatically stated that ‘Development of the child is at the centre of the Eleventh Plan’. While continuing with the rights-based approach to child development, the plan recognises the importance of a holistic approach, focusing both on outcomes and indicators for child development as well as macro-perspective trends and governance issues.

The Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection) Act 2000 was amended in 2006 and the Central Model Rules in this regard are being formulated.

The government schemes that affect/ benefit families and their members are divided among different ministries. Bureau of Nutrition and child development under the department of women and child development of Ministry of Human Resources Development runs the schemes like Integrated Child Development Services for Children, A Scheme of Crèches/ Day care centers for children of Poor, Working and ailing women and Early Childhood Education Programme.

The Central Social Welfare Board offers family Counseling Centers, Welfare Extension Project and Scheme of Balika Mandals for adolescent Girls. The Ministry of Urban Development implementing Social Housing Schemes like Housing Scheme for economically weaker sections, low income groups, middle income groups, and Rural housing sites cum construction assistance scheme for landless workers.
2.18. REVIEW OF STUDIES RELATED TO CHILD REARING PRACTICES

The following literature highlights the variables of this present study and they are presented as follows:

- Studies on child rearing practices in India as well as in other countries.
- Studies on parenting styles
- Studies on the role of marital quality in child rearing practices
- Studies on family functioning and child rearing

2.18.1. Studies on Child Rearing Practices in India as well as in Other Countries

Kunwar et al. (2006) conducted a study on the relationship between parenting behaviour and income and education of parents. In this study, the children analyzed the parental behaviour and it reported that socioeconomic status of parents influence parenting behaviour. Majority of the children’s parents who were from low education and low income families, had received high parenting scores against the high income families i.e. boys as well as girls from low income families perceived their parent’s behaviour as accepting toward them.

The study by Ashok (2008) explored the difference between Hindu, Christian and Muslim religions in parent child interaction. The sample consisted of parents of 254 students belonging to one school in Chennai. The study revealed that children
belonging to Hindu, Christian and Muslim do not differ significantly in parent child interaction

Sachdeva and Misra (2008) investigated the aspects of cultural construction of parenting in the Indian context. Parents and grant parents from Bengali, Punjabi and Marwari communities were studied to see the differential pattern of parenting and the intergenerational differences in parenting. The results show that there is greater degree of continuity in the socio cultural facets of parenting across generations in Marwari and Punjabi communities. However, the parents from Bengali community evinced considerable amount of shift from sociocultural facet to biological and psychological facets of parenting when compared with the grandparents.

Sinha and Mishra (2007) examined gender differences in parent-child relationship during the early and late adolescence. Studies report differential treatment of boys and girls by father at least in some aspects, although no convincing evidence for gender-specific parenting. Findings revealed significant differences between boys and girls. As compared to boys, girls reported to receive greater acceptance, admiration and lesser rejection form their fathers.

Child rearing practices of both parents is equally important for development of children. Kendler et al. (1997) reported that the two sexes differ in protectiveness and warmth towards their children. Results indicated that mothers are warmer than fathers. But regarding protectiveness, there is no significant difference between father and mother. Parental age is one of the variables which had a significant main effect on Warmth. Increasing parental age predicted low Warmth. The family characteristics like church attendance, financial difficulties, marital quality and religious fundamentalism
were significantly related to parenting. Within a family, the parent who reported attending church more frequently had higher levels of Warmth. Parental Warmth was strongly predicted by marital quality. The average marital quality reported by the parents was strongly and positively related to Warmth.

Ahmadi and Hossein-abadi (2009) examined the relationship between an individual’s performance of religious duties and its impact upon children supervision. The results showed that heterosexual couples who observe religious beliefs and perform religious duties have suitable children supervision and they have good relationship with their family. Gender difference in child rearing has also been found to be correlated with family structure and socio economic status.

Kurrien and Vo (2004) aimed at understanding the relationship between family structure and role of parents in care giving, in contemporary urban and rural Indian families. The sample comprised of three subgroups of 15 Hindu mothers (lived in an urban socioeconomically disadvantaged, upper-middle class neighborhoods and poor rural area) each with a pre-school-age child. The findings revealed that, across the patterns of family structure and living circumstance mothers assumed the role of primary caregiver of their pre-school age children. In both urban and rural residences, fathers in nuclear families were more engaged in care giving activities than those in joint families. Multiple comparisons indicated that in middle-class urban families, regardless of whether family structure was nuclear or joint fathers were more involved in care giving than were fathers in urban and rural disadvantaged families. Across nuclear families, fathers in upper-middle class families were more engaged in care giving activities than fathers from urban socioeconomically disadvantaged families.
Like gender of parents, gender of child is also a determinant factor in child rearing. The study by Bhogle (1991) explored the differential child rearing practices of male and female children in Indian society. It was found that there was significant discrimination in feeding, weaning and toilet training practices as well as in the parental attitudes toward the girl child. But the major discrimination was in the areas of age of sending to school, choice of school and future aspirations of the girl child.

Lugo-Gil and Monda (2008) investigated the reciprocal associations among measures of family resources (maternal education, maternal reading habits and father’s residency) and parenting quality. The results present the associations between family resources and parenting quality scores. At all ages the largest effect on parenting quality from a family resource variable was obtained for mothers years of education with higher maternal education being associated with higher parenting quality. Higher income per capita in the family is also related to higher parenting quality.

Kang and Singh, 1996 conducted a study to understand the relationship of selected socio personal factors with the disciplinary techniques used by parents as perceived by urban adolescents. It was found that urban parents used same disciplinary techniques in case of boys and girls with regard to different socio economic status of the family, birth order of the child, family type and parents’ education.

Cain and Orme (2005) examined the parenting of infants by African American mothers and found that mother’s family configuration did not affect parenting practices. It seems that economic status and parenting perceptions of mother’s contributed more to parenting stress than family structure (whether living with grand parents or not).
current study reveals that the quality of parenting experienced by mothers influenced parenting more than family structure.

Simons et al. (2006) investigated the differences in parenting practices and child outcomes by type of household. They include five types of families: intact nuclear, stepparent, mother-grandmother, mother, relative and single- mother households. They investigate the extent to which the parenting provided by mothers and secondary caregivers differs across these various types of families. Results indicate that mothers provide similar levels of parenting regardless of family structure. Secondary caregivers, show a great deal of variation in quality of parenting. Fathers and grandmothers engage in the highest quality parenting, stepfathers the poorest, with other relatives falling in between. These differences in parenting do not explain family structure differences in child behaviour problems. Results suggest that children do best when there are two caregivers in the household, they also found that child behaviour problems were no greater in either mother-grandmother or mother-relative families than in those in intact nuclear families.

Gill and Kapoor (1989) attempted to explore and compare the effect of parental acceptance and rejection on dependency of 8 -12 year old socially advantaged and disadvantaged children. Results indicated that parentally accepted children were independent while parentally rejected were dependent within the socially advantaged group. In socially disadvantaged category parentally accepted as well as rejected children were found to be dependent.

Amato and Fowler (2002) used data from national survey of families and households to test the generality of the links between parenting practices and child
outcomes. Parents report of support, monitoring and harsh punishment were associated with parents reports of children’s adjustment and self-esteem.

Cain (2007) found that private worship and intrinsic religiousness (i.e., spirituality) positively influence parenting practices, but that attendance at religious services was not related to parenting.

2.18.2. Studies on Parenting Styles

McKinney and Renk’s (2008) study examined the relationship between late adolescents’ perceptions of their mothers and fathers parenting styles and their own emotional adjustment. Findings of this study suggest that mothers and fathers use different parenting styles for their sons and daughters and mothers exhibiting more authoritative and permissive parenting and fathers exhibiting more authoritarian parenting, as perceived by their late adolescents.

Gunnoe and Reiss (1999) conducted a study with the hypothesis that parental religiosity would predict authoritative parenting. Hierarchical regression analyses indicated that religiosity was associated positively with authoritative parenting for both parents. Mothers religiosity was associated negatively with authoritarian parenting; religiosity was unrelated to fathers’ authoritarian parenting.

The purpose of Mupinga et al. (2002) study was to examine the relationships between family functioning and parenting styles. Based on the findings, the researchers concluded that balanced family types were positively related to authoritative parenting and negatively related to authoritarian parenting.
Stright et al. (2008) conducted a study by observing mothers’ parenting style made at six different times from infancy to first grade. The findings revealed that parenting style at 6 months was not significantly correlated with the change in parenting across time.

Rai (2008) designed a study to examine the effect of perceived parental rearing style on drug use among Mizo adolescent a rare tribe of North East India. Over protection from mother and favoring subject from father have been found the factors of drug addiction.

2.18.3. Studies on the Role of Marital Quality in Child Rearing Practices

Rani and Asthana (2008) found that there is statistically significant impact of job status on marital adjustment of working women. They found that marital adjustment of doctors and teachers is of better marital adjustment.

Aleem and Danish (2008) observe that the housewives and working women have almost similar level of satisfaction which is not significantly different. Both of their marital satisfaction was above average, which indicated that load of career had no significant effect on the level of their marital satisfaction.

In a study conducted by Gupta (2008) among the husbands and wives of 200 dual career families studied the gender difference in the perception of marital quality. The results have revealed that there is not significant difference between husband and wives for marital quality. This study also have the results of no significant differences
were found in the perception of marital quality of couples who integrate work and family in different ways.

Prasanthi and Devi (2008) found that respondents of three municipalities (both husband and wife) fell into higher satisfaction levels in their marital relationship. As semi urban life is simple and does not encounter conflicting situations whereas urban life is competitive and faces many problem situations. Marital satisfaction levels were high as the lifestyle in semi urban areas was simple and less complicated.

Regarding the perception about family environment, a two third of the respondents scored high in the sample studied. A comparison between the couples shows that 9 per cent of husbands dominated their wives in awareness of family environment in which they are living.

Husbands’ perceptions of cohesion, expression, conflict, acceptance, independence, active relational orientation were positively related and organization was negatively related with marital satisfaction levels of husbands.

Belsky and Fearon (2004) revealed that the correlations between marriage and parenting were significant. Marital and parenting quality appeared to be generally positively correlated across 75 per cent of the sample but negatively correlated across the remaining 25 per cent.

explained part of the association between marital conflict and children’s maladjustment. Marital conflict was associated positively with parents’ use of harsh discipline and inversely with parental involvement in families.

Rogers and White (1998) found that parenting satisfaction is significantly higher for married parents with high marital quality. Parenting satisfaction is stable for over four-year period but it is positively related to increase in marital quality and it is similar for mothers and fathers.

Lindahl and Malik (1999) reported marital functioning and its relationship with parenting in a family setting. Behavioural observations of marital conflict and balance of power in the marital dyad were compared with observations of rejecting, coercive, withdrawn, and supportive parental behaviours. Results indicated relations between destructive forms of marital conflict and fathers’ negative parental behaviours.

Cain and Orme (2005) examined the parenting of infants by African American mothers and found that mother’s marital status did not affect parenting practices. It seems that economic status and parenting perceptions of mother’s contributed more to parenting stress than did marital status. The current study reveals that the quality of parenting experienced by mothers influenced parenting more than marital status.

In a study of Simons et al. (2006) results suggest that grandmothers and other relatives can serve as effective substitutes when a father is not present. Findings indicate that mothers provide similar quality of parenting regardless of family structure. This result is contrary to the marriage perspective’s contention that married mothers
engage in higher quality parenting than unmarried mothers do because of the emotional and instrumental support they receive from spouses.

Ahmadi and Hossein-abadi (2009) examined the relationship between an individual’s performance of religious duties and its impact upon his or her level of marital satisfaction. The results showed that heterosexual couples who observe religious beliefs and perform religious duties (like participation in religious rituals and ceremonies) have a higher rate of marital satisfaction. Thus, there is a significant correlation between performing religious duties and marital satisfaction. With the increase in religiosity and performance of religious duties, marital satisfaction rate will increase, and vice versa. Religiosity develops the grounds for marital commitment.

Sun (2001) study about the effects of marital disruption on children and in family environment. This study demonstrates that even before the marital disruption, the families with marital conflicts creating academic, psychological and behavioural problems in children. Families with severe marital conflict have differences in family environment and it in turn influencing children.

2.18.4. Studies on Family Environment and Child Rearing

Kapil and Sonawat (2002) conducted a study to find out the amount of time spend with the child by the parents and its impact on socialization. The results revealed that mothers regardless of their working status are the most involved in child care. The environment of the family or the home environment is determined by the kind of interaction among its members. This interaction is further influenced by the lifestyle of the parents.
The study by Devi and Mayuri (2001) investigated the perceptions of the couple on family environment. Results of the study revealed that majority of the sample possessed average perception levels for various dimensions of family environment. Wives surpassed husbands in independence, organization and control dimension, significant difference was noticed only in independence dimension. Both husband and wife did not differ significantly with each other in perceiving cohesiveness of their family. In relationship dimension, both husband and wife did not differ significantly and they fell in average category in majority in majority of the case.

Tung and Dhillon (2006) study examines the gender differences and the family environment correlates of emotional autonomy amongst males and females of middle and late adolescence. Females report more cohesive environment and find higher moral religious emphasis in the family.

Shalini and Raguram (2005) found that marital relationship of the parents is one of the key aspects of family functioning, which affects other dimensions of family interactions. High levels of marital conflict indirectly affect couples in compromising the quality of parenting, including discipline and parent-child aggression.

**Conclusion of the survey of literature**

From the literature review, it can be seen that child rearing practices have an important role in general development of children. Its relation to different socio demographic variables and other variables like parenting style, marital quality and family environment is mentioned. This point to the need for giving importance to child rearing practices in family. One of the major features of modern society is that families
are caring for children more often and for longer periods of time than ever before. There is considerable individual variability in how care giving is handled and experienced, but it is typically stressful for the primary caregivers. The many dimensions involved in the family’s responses and the dimensions of child rearing have been observed. The challenge for the future is to find ways to support families so that they can provide high quality, personalized care without excessive strain on themselves. The responsibility for care cannot fall exclusively either on families, it’s too on society. In the complex socio economic order of society of today, parental care of children is not just a matter of maternal instinct. In order that the child of today who is to be a citizen of tomorrow, and has to occupy its rightful place in our welfare state, it is the responsibility of the welfare state to organize and strengthen services which cater towards promoting the parental care of children. The conceptual framework giving an overview about the need for studying the relation between child rearing practices and the variables like parenting style, marital quality and family environment.