CHAPTER - 1

INTRODUCTION

‘Parenting’ may be defined as *purposive activities aimed at ensuring the survival and development of children*. It derives from the Latin verb ‘parere’- ‘to bring forth, develop or educate’. The word ‘parenting’, from its root, is more concerned with the *activity* of developing and educating than *who* does it (Clarke & Stewart) \(^1\). The connotation of the word is, the parenting is a positive, nurturing activity. Thus, parenting is an activity that normally involves the children, parents and other family members in lifelong interaction.

Home influence probably outweighs the effects of all other environmental impacts combined in determining the fundamental organization of children’s behavior. According to psychoanalytic theory, social values and controls are largely interiorized made an integral part of the child’s superego on the basis of early parent child interactions. The foundations of children’s social attitude and skills are obviously laid in the home. Patterns of dependence-independence, ascendance-submission, cooperation-competition, and conservatism-liberalism have their genesis in early parent-child interactions within the home. Warm or affectionate tendencies which are so important to psychological adjustment in adult life are dependent on the nature of parent-child relationships.

Researchers agree that genetics and environment interact to influence intelligence, Gottlieb et al\(^2\). For most people, this means that modifications in environment can change their IQ scores considerably. Although genetic endowment may always influence a person’s intellectual ability, the environmental influences and opportunities we provide children and adults do make a difference, Ramey \(^3\), Sternberg\(^4\).

Child rearing is not a technical term with precise significance. It refers generally to all the interactions between parents and their children. These interactions include the parental interest, expression of attitudes, values, and beliefs as well as their care and training behaviour. Child rearing is a continuous process. Each moment of a child’s life that he spends in contact with his parents has some effect on both of his present behaviour and his potentialities for future action. This process of child rearing is generally influenced by the
characteristic ways of thinking, feeling and acting, prevalent in the cultural group to which the family belongs.

Few parents ever verbalize doubt as to their competence to guide the psychological growth of their children. Most parents cannot afford to doubt their abilities to rear their children in the best possible manner. Self-doubts are too painful when one has such an emotionalized attitude toward his problems. However, it is clear that child rearing is fraught with self-doubt, insecurity, and psychological pain for the average parent (George\(^5\)). Many parents often express a wish or desire that they would ideally like to attend some sort of classes, where parenting is taught, or where they can undergo some kind of training in bringing up children. Though one does come across advertisements for parenting workshops, and books and magazines devoted to selling parenting techniques, it must be said that fortunately or unfortunately, there is no one shoe that fits every foot. Parents have to learn by trial and error, and what may be good for one child may not hold true for another. The only thing that parents can do, when such is the case, is to try and tune in to their child, try to know and understand his or her strengths, weaknesses, likes, dislikes, behaviour patterns, personality and aptitudes, so that they can be ready to do the needful, both in terms of picking up problems early on, and in respect to being a beacon, which can guide their maximum potentials. Children do not come out of assembly lines, and no two children, including twins are identical. One has to be aware and alert, to one child’s individuality, in order to see that he or she grows up and flows into something beautiful. Parenthood is a big responsibility, which comes naturally to some, but is not so easy for the rest of us. One must constantly try and see that one does one’s best, at this job. A parent must strive to be a guide, mentor, caretaker, friend, philosopher, and a role model, to his or her child. A child at birth is like a lump of clay. How he or she will eventually turn out, is in the hands of parents. (Vidyanathan\(^6\)).

Broadly speaking, the role of parents, as far as their children are concerned are many, but mainly involves caring and protection, providing basic amenities of food, clothing, shelter, education and love, being around to support their children emotionally, to act as a shock absorber or spring when their children need a cushioning, and to see that the inherent potential of the child is realized. But not many parents are aware of all these duties. Even
today, for most parents, child rearing involves satisfying the child’s basic needs, and to help whenever the child ask for aid. Otherwise, most parents go through life, expecting their children to take care of themselves, and to take care of the parents, when they grow old. For many, children tend to be investments for their future retired life, and it is often with this in mind, that these parents groom them. But children being what they are, and each child being unique and different in his or her physical, mental and creative assets, often fail to live up to their parent’s expectations, leaving their parents deeply dissatisfied and disillusioned, in many aspects of life. Many parents internalize these dissatisfactions and frustrations, but when they come under pressure they often crack, and tend to lash out at the child, verbally or even physically

Plato (427-327 B.C) recognized that to some extent, individual differences in ability are inborn but he also claimed that early childhood training and teaching help in determining the lateral vocational voice and adjustment. The early socializing process starts from family and the home. The family acts as a socializing agent for the child. It is within a family, the basic unit of society, that a child learns the fundamentals of social interactions and acquires the behaviour pattern and basic personality structure. The family also functions as a system in which each component part acts on the others, so that circular reactions such as the following occur.

Influences that parents have on their children are many and various. Some will be positive, others less so. However, any study of human life shows that there is never only one single, direct cause of a child’s woes. There is always some interaction, often complex, between the parent, the child, the family and their environment. Parental influence thus has to encompass a ‘filter’ to shield children from too much adversity as well as helping them to face the difficulties that they will necessarily confront, as they develop towards independence (Hoghughi).
In an early investigation, (Ayer and Bernreuter\textsuperscript{8}) found some interesting relationships between child behavior (as measured by the Merrill-Palmer Personality Rating Scale) and parental practices of child discipline. They found that physical punishment tends to orient the child away from reality and to make him more dependent upon adult affection and attention. When children are permitted to profit from their own mistakes with a minimum adult interference and punishment, they tend to have more attractive personalities, i.e. are more sociable, less dependent on adults, better able to face reality. Extreme parental punitiveness appears to bind the child to the parent in an abnormally dependent and emotional way. Although some parents may prefer this kind of parent-child relationship, clinical evidence indicates that their children will have greater difficulty in adjusting to school and community life. Trapp and Kausler\textsuperscript{9} found that either high or low parental dominance produced more avoidance behavior among nursery school children than did a moderate amount. Probably high dominance generates resentment and withdrawal while low amounts may be interpreted as a lack of parental concern. Watson\textsuperscript{10} found that greater freedom provided by parents tended to be associated with more child initiative, less hostility, and higher levels of spontaneity and originality.

Harris and associate\textsuperscript{11} have shown in a very definitive fashion that responsibility in children is fostered when they perceive their parents as being constructively oriented towards them. Responsibility in children is definitely not associated with the assignment of home duties. It would appear that responsibility in children is a by-product of favorable personal and emotional relationships between parent and children. Adolescents coped more effectively with stress when they had a close affective relationship with their mothers, Wagner et al\textsuperscript{12}.
CHILD REARING PRACTICES AND ITS EFFECTS ON CHILD’S PERSONALITY

The emotional climate of the home directly influences the person’s characteristics pattern of behavior and his characteristics adjustment to life. If the home climate is favorable, the individual will react to personal problems and frustrations in a calm, philosophical manner and to people in a tolerant, cheerful and cooperative way. If the home climate is frictional, he will develop the habit of reacting to family members and outsiders as well in a hostile or antagonistic way.

Indirectly, the home climate influences the person by the effect it has on his attitudes towards people. If the child perceives his mother as showing favoritism toward a sibling, he develops an attitude of resentment toward people in positions of authority. Many who become radical nonconformists do so because their resentment of parental authority has developed into resentment against all in authority.

The extent and form of bidirectionality in parent-child interactions are affected by children’s developmental level (Maccoby\textsuperscript{13}), including physical growth, language development, decreasing impulsivity with increasing age, the development of conceptions of others, conception of self, cognitive executive process and autonomy. He also acknowledged the role parents play in bringing about developmental change but also suggested “that within large limits these changes are surprisingly independent of the way parents treat their children”.

Securely attached children are more likely to be confident both in the exploration of the environment and will elicit desired reactions (Ainsworth et al\textsuperscript{14}; Bowlby\textsuperscript{15}). Insecurely attached children are more clingy, demanding, resistive and whiny than securely attached children. Their parents are more irritable, which in turn causes the children’s behavior to worsen. Such phenomena illustrate the bidirectional and transactional nature of parent-child attachment relations (Ainsworth et al\textsuperscript{14}). When parents do not provide a secure relationship environment for children (e.g. attachment), children may respond by becoming more proactive than would otherwise be expected, in efforts to create such characteristics in their relationship with parents, Kuczynski\textsuperscript{16}.
The Role of Parental Support in the Development of Personality.

In association with early theories of socialization that emphasized the role of parents in shaping their children’s personalities, recent empirical evidence suggests a positive relationship between adolescent personality traits and the quality of the parent – adolescent relationship. Parental Support is a combination of commitment and active participation on the part of the parent to the student (William\textsuperscript{17}).

Evidence from the literature on personality development supports the notion of temperament (Rothbart & Bates\textsuperscript{18}), consisting of core traits (asendorpf & Van Aken\textsuperscript{19}) or basic dispersions (McCrae & Costa\textsuperscript{20}) that are present from birth and have links to adult personality (Caspi et al\textsuperscript{21}). This is not to say, however, that personality is set from birth. There are several mechanisms by which individual characteristics transact with the environment, including interpersonal relationships (Shiner & Caspi\textsuperscript{22}). One of the most important relationships for personality development is the parent relationships. Here evidence supports a bidirectional influence between the temperament or personality and the parent-child relationship. Negative inappropriate or unskilled parenting behaviors appear to play a particularly important role in the development of externalizing to act as protective factors (Bates et al\textsuperscript{23}; Belsky\textsuperscript{24} et al; Rubin\textsuperscript{25}; Stoolmiller\textsuperscript{26}).

Shiner and Caspin\textsuperscript{22} delineated six environmental processes that work to shape the development of personality through adolescence into adulthood; learning processes, environmental elicitation, environment construal, social and temporal comparisons, environmental selection, and environmental manipulation. Theoretically, all of these processes could play a part in the emerging relationship between adolescent personality traits and relationships with parents. There is little empirical evidence for the operation of some (e.g. social comparisons, environmental selection and manipulation) but greater support for the ways in which personality traits may shape the elicitation and construal of behavior from others (Shiner & Caspi\textsuperscript{22}). Particularly as children mature into adolescence, individual differences in personality evoke different responses from parents and selection of different types of frequencies of interactions with parents. It is most likely this process of person-environment transaction that contributes to the increasing stability and consistency of personality during adolescence (Roberts & DelVecchio\textsuperscript{27}).
Although there are a greater number of studies connecting personality to other forms of interpersonal relationships (e.g., peers and romantic partners), accumulating empirical evidence supports an evocative relationships between adolescent personality and parent behaviors. Branje et al\textsuperscript{28}, found a positive, cross-sectional link between adolescent’s agreeableness and perceived support from parents. In a later study, Branje\textsuperscript{29} examined the relationship between agreeableness and perceived support across all possible combinations of family relationships for parents and adolescents. They found no general link across family members between self-reported agreeableness and perceived support; however, they did find significant agreeableness – support correlations within most of the possible family dyads (i.e., mother-father, father-oldest child) except for the mother –younger adolescent relationships. Consistent findings for a link between personality and perceived parental support in older siblings suggest that this association becomes stronger over the course of adolescence.

**CHILD ORIENTED PARENTAL ATTITUDES AND RESULTING BEHAVIOUR IN CHILDREN**

Modern dynamic psychology lays heavy emphasis on the socialization process, the process, by which an individual grows from a dependent infant into an independent and dependable adult. There is accumulating evidence that all manner of behaviour deviations can be often accounted for subtitles of home relationships. Much of the phenomenology of behaviour disorder and personality deviations can be linked directly with motivation’s resulting from parents’ attitude towards their children. It is also important for parents, teachers, mentors, and other responsible adults to effectively monitor adolescents” behavior, Dahl\textsuperscript{30}. When adolescents are in tempting and dangerous situations with minimal adult supervision, their inclination to engage in risk-taking behavior combined with their lack of self-regulatory skills can make them vulnerable to a host of negative outcomes.

Studies of authoritarian, democratic and permissive child training methods have revealed what different effects they have on the child’s developing personality pattern. Studies show that authoritarian training method produce a child who is quiet, well behaved, nonresistant, socially unaggressive and restricted in curiosity, originality and fancifulness. These methods are characterized by the use of strict rules and regulations to enforce the
desired behaviour. In these methods parent foster control through external force in the form of punishment.

Many studies have found that authoritarian parents tend to adopt highly conventional goals for their children and look at the child’s behaviour in terms of their own needs, rather than in terms of needs of the child. Such type of strict treatment and demands for rigid conformity in the early years of life often lead to the development of an ‘authoritarian or dominant personality syndrome’.

*Over strictness* can make the child so submissive that he is less competitive and socially successful than other children. It may make him compulsively obedient but inwardly definite. In addition, it undermines his confidence in his ability to make decisions and be independent. *Restrictive parents* impose many rules in children, insist on supervising their children closely and have quite definite standards of behaviour to which their children are expected to conform but they do not necessarily punish often or severely. A successive restrictive parent has a child who usually complies with rules and does not require frequent punishment.

*Democratic child rearing* practices result in greater independence in thinking, acting and in a healthy, positive confident self-concept. This leads to better personal and social adjustments and to more outgoing active and spontaneous behaviour. Children from democratic home are more active in their relation with peers, show more outgoing active and spontaneous behaviour. Children from democratic homes are more active in their relations with peers, show more initiative, produce creative ideas and tend to be more enterprising freer to express their feelings and less conforming.

In the homes where parents are *permissive* the children learn more trials and errors than by guidance. They mould their personality pattern without the guidance and help from the others. Permissive parents have few rules and made few demands on their children, for mature behaviour they tend to view aggression as natural, they allow their children considerable freedom to play without adult supervision or intervention.
When too little control is exercised on the child he becomes insecure and confused. He feels unprepared to meet life’s problems. These children become selfish and self-centered and show little compassion towards others. Children brought up by permissive parents, who indulge them and permit to do much as they please develop feelings of inadequacy about their abilities and tend to become inactive and to withdraw from social situations. Also these children become dependent on adults, Shalini\textsuperscript{31}.

Baumrind\textsuperscript{32,33} has investigated the critical issues of child management in its social and developmental context. Most parents are seen to use variety of styles, depending on their perception of the child’s needs, age and gravity of circumstances. Broadly speaking, authoritative parenting, which clarifies and enforces boundaries in an emotionally warm atmosphere through appropriate negotiation and reciprocity, is shown to be effective, Gray and Steinberg\textsuperscript{34}. Finally Rutter had drowned attention into the vulnerability and resilience as major factors that are both affected by and affect the outcome of parenting practices. That would mean the child’s susceptibility to hurt and their ability to withstand, Rutter\textsuperscript{35, 36}. Sensitive children are a blend of a number of temperament traits, some Highly Sensitive Children are fairly difficult--active, emotionally intense, demanding, and persistent--while others are calm, turned inward, and almost too easy to raise except when they are expected to join a group of children they do not know. But outspoken and fussy or reserved and obedient, all HSCs are sensitive to their emotional and physical environment. For all of that to blossom, they absolutely must be raised with understanding. Otherwise, as adults they are prone to depression, anxiety, and shyness, Elaine\textsuperscript{37}. Adolescents have a strong need for their parents to care about them; adolescents whose parents are neglectful develop the sense that other aspects of the parents’ lives are more important than they are. Adolescents whose parents are neglectful are socially incompetent; they show poor self-control and do not handle independence well. In one study parental monitoring of adolescents was linked with higher grades, lower sexual activity and less depression in adolescents, Jacobson & Crockett\textsuperscript{38}. 

Winnicot\textsuperscript{39} introduced the human and necessary concept of good enough parenting as a desirable goal of what parents do. Realistically, the most and the best parents can do for their children is to give them a core of unconditional love and reliable care, providing a safe setting of children’s own resilience and developmental potential to unfold as demonstrated by the larger part of humanity. Ainesworth\textsuperscript{40} established the secure attachment as a crucial outcome of good parenting.

Parents can play important roles as managers of adolescents’ opportunities, as monitors of adolescents’ social relationships, and as social initiators and arrangers Parke & Buriel\textsuperscript{41}. An important development task in adolescence is to develop the ability to make competent decisions in an increasingly independent manner (Mortimer & Larson)\textsuperscript{42}. To help adolescents reach their full potential, an important parental role is to be an effective manager, one who finds information, makes contacts, helps structure choices, and provides guidance (Gauvain & Perez\textsuperscript{43}; Youniss & Ruth)\textsuperscript{44}. Parents who fulfill this important managerial role help adolescents to avoid pitfalls and to work their way through a myriad of choices and decisions they face (Furstenberg et al\textsuperscript{45}; Mounts\textsuperscript{46}).

**Family Size and The Personality Development.**

The size of the family influences the personality pattern both directly and indirectly. Directly, it determines what role the person will play in the family constellation, what kind of relationship he will have with other family members, and to a large extent, what opportunities he will have to make the most of his native abilities. Indirectly, family size influences the personality pattern through the kind of home climate fostered by families of different sizes and by the attitudes of the most significant members of the family toward the person. Another aspect of the connection between family size and personality is the amount of understanding and empathy found in families of different sizes. In a small family, parents have time to empathize with their children and to communicate with them. In a large family, there is less time, and also, as the number of children increases, the gap between the generations grows wider. This combination of conditions tends to lead to less warmth and less understanding in the large family. According to Freitas et al\textsuperscript{47} only marginally significant differences were obtained in maternal and paternal child-rearing practices in respect of the only child. Results indicated there were no significant differences
on any of the outcome variables (age at coming out to first parent, parental trust, parental solidarity, and influence of parental expectations) between only children and non-only children. However, some differences were found in the order in which family members were told. Only children tended to tell a parent before any other family member significantly more often than did non-only children. (Dittrich, Maria L) 48.

**Personality Characteristics of an Only Child:**

_Only children_ develop a different personality pattern from those who spend the formative years of their lives in a family with one of two siblings, and they differ from children who are members of large families, including relatives who are permanent fixture in the family constellation.

Santrock John W 49, in his book, “A Topical Approach to Life-Span Development – 3E, writes about only child saying, “The only child is self-centered ‘spoiled brat’ with such undesirable characteristics as dependency and lack of control. On the other a more positive portrayal of the only child is achievement oriented and displays a desirable personality especially in comparison with later born and children from large families.” On the contrary his view is that sibling relationships also have many pleasant caring moments: Children’s sibling relationship include helping, sharing, reaching, fighting and playing. Sibling can act as emotional supports, rivals and communication partners. Also positive sibling relationships in adolescence contributed to a sense of emotional and school related support.

Susan Newman 50, in her book “Parenting and Only Child” explored that only children often better verbal skills and excel in school because they are read to more often than children with siblings. She also pointed out that only children also tend to have higher IQs, which researcher say may be because their parents have higher expectations for them and more time and money to give. On the other hand talking about sibling advantages, she writes, children from larger families also enjoy some advantages, which include having playmates and tormenters, team-mates and rivals. Siblings define each other and teach other conflict resolution, which is a skill people bring to their workplace, marriages and other relationships. She pointed out that no doubt, having two children triples the work load because parents have to spend time with both children and with each child individually. She suggested that if a couple decides to have an only child, they should make sure the child has sibling substitutes from whom to learn sharing, empathy and conflict resolution.
Susan Newman, “A Lonely Child? Not in Today’s World Singletons ‘The world of only children’s Magazine, explores the reason why only children are not lonely children. Technology’s Role Today’s advanced technologies allow only children to be more connected to other children than ever before, and that connection gives them a social life that extends beyond school hours and after school too.

Adler's theory stressed the social aspect of personality development and therefore proposed the possibility of birth order and its significance in the interpersonal relationships of family life. He felt that each position in the order, whether first or last, had distinct characteristics. For example, he hypothesized that firstborns are problem children and that only children are likely to be spoiled due to parental overindulgence (Weiten).

**Parents and their Onlies:**
The only child is the apple of his parents. Only children benefit from the undivided attention of their parents. It’s just not that self-worth is affirmed by positive parental notice. The only child becomes very aware of his character and capacities from the feedback parents constantly provide. In addition, their ever readiness to pay him attention creates an open stage for showing off what he can do. By performing for this untiring parental audience, he develops a lot self-confidence. On the problematic side, however, the attention fosters a number of characteristics that can adversely affect his relationships with others now and later – such as undue self-importance, self-concealment, self-consciousness, self-centeredness, and the “only attitude”. Not only is he given what he wants but he is subjected to a less rigid discipline than is essential in a home with several children. This encourages him to be selfish and self-centered personality characteristics that militate against good social adjustments outside the home. “The emotional investment of parents in an only child is 100 percent”, Tolchin. Consequently they are willing to make financial investments to give the child every possible advantage and opportunity, but they expect more in return than they would of any other child, even a firstborn.
Personality Characteristics of a Child with Siblings:

Adolescent sibling relations include helping, sharing, teaching, fighting, and playing, and adolescent siblings can act as emotional supports, rivals, and communication partners (Pomery et al\textsuperscript{54}; Zukow-Goldring\textsuperscript{55}).

Judy Dunn\textsuperscript{56}, a leading expert on sibling relationships, recently described three important characteristics of sibling relationships:

- \textit{Emotional quality of the relationship}. Both intensive positive and negative emotions are often expressed by siblings toward each other. Many children and adolescents have mixed feelings toward their siblings.

- \textit{Familiarity and intimacy of the relationship}. Siblings typically know each other very well, and this intimacy suggests that they can either provide support or tease and undermine each other, depending on the situation.

- \textit{Variation in siblings relationships}. Some siblings describe their relationships more positively than others. Thus, there is considerable variation in sibling relationships. We’ve indicated that many siblings have mixed feelings about each other, but some adolescents mainly describe their sibling in warm, affectionate ways, whereas others primarily talk about how irritating and mean a sibling is.

In some instances, siblings can be stronger socializing influences on the adolescent than parents or peers are Dunn\textsuperscript{56}; Teti\textsuperscript{57}. In spite of the unfavorable traits customarily develop in children who grow up in a small than they do in the case of the only child. As a result, the personality pattern molded by a small-family environment will, typically, favor better personal and social adjustments. The child who grows up in a medium-sized family never has a reason to feel lonely because he always has siblings around. Having enough siblings for constant companionship provides learning experiences which will help him make good social adjustments outside the home.
Parents and the chosen ones:

“Small Family” is one that has two or three children. Most small families are “planned” families insofar as the number of children. Since the children are wanted, the parent child relationship is usually warm and wholesome. This contributes to a healthy home climate.

In a small family, parents can devote enough time to the care and guidance of each other to ensure that failures will be kept to a minimum. This builds up self-confidence and self-assurance and eliminates the feelings of inadequacy that come when a child is left to meet his problems alone. And even though his relationships with his siblings may be frictional, he learns to compete as well as to cooperate with age-mates. This helps him to adjust to social situations outside the home and leads to a self-confidence which the only child lacks.

In spite of the many conditions that favor the development of desirable personality characteristics in the small family, the child must “pay the price for in the form of problem-creating circumstances”, Bossard. Perhaps the chief to these is the competition for parental attention, affection and approval. This leads to jealousy and envy, especially against the firstborn, who is usually perceived to be the parents’ favorite.

Parental Behavior

Parents do many things for and about their children in a multitude of contexts throughout their common lifespan aimed at promoting children’s welfare. But important is to find out the core activities that are necessary and sufficient for ‘good enough parenting’. These falls into three groups: care, control and development. Each of these has two faces 1) the prevention of adversity and anything that might harm the child and 2) the promotion of the positive and anything that might help the child. These are usually are and culture appropriate.

Care

Care comprises of a cluster of activities aimed at meeting the survival needs of children. These encompass not only the physical or ‘tissue deficit’ needs, such as food, warmth and shelter, but also emotional and social needs at different developmental stages. Thus ‘care’ can best be seen as being concerned with factors that increase the child’s resilience in the face of adversity and promote positive development. Physical care includes all activities
aimed at ensuring a child’s survival by providing such basic necessities as food, warmth, cleanliness, sleep and satisfactory elimination of bodily wastes. The emotional care involves ensuring that the child is not unhappy through anxiety, fear or preventable trauma and also entails giving the child respect as an individual, a sense of being unconditionally loved and opportunities for managed risk taking and exercising choice. It aims is to create stable and consistent positive interactions with the environment. The social care is aimed at ensuring that the child isolated from peers or significant adults in the growth towards adolescence and beyond. Positive social care focuses on helping children to become well integrated at home and school, and accept increasing responsibility for self-management. This enables them to recognize the worth of others and seek self-development and enhancement through positive dealings with others and successful task performance. However, in the newer and more coherent parenting support programmes, such as Sure Start (Department of Education and Employment 1998), increasing attention is being paid to children’s emotional and social care. The outcome of good care is healthy and thriving child, attachment by the child to the parenting figure(s), and the development of a firm and positive sense of self. This is the core foundation of self-esteem. A well-cared-for child will be, within genetic and constitutional limitations, healthy, emotionally resilient and socially competent, with the capacity to explore, Hoghughí⁷.

Control

Control comprises the range of activities concerned with *setting and enforcing boundaries* for the child, in an age- and culturally appropriate manner. The central importance of the need for control becomes clearer as children grow older and interact with ‘authority’ figures, and as they become stronger, more mobile and prone to getting into trouble. Their increasing physical and social maturity, greater sense of self and increasing autonomy renders them more problematic to control when peer influence are at peak. The term control has been differently used as monitoring or disciplining (Hoghughí⁷).  

Development

Developmental activities are driven by parent’s wishes for children to fulfill their potential in all areas of functioning. It is implicit in every act of encouragement or creation of
opportunities by parents. The development task also involves inculcation of values, tolerance, wisdom, courage, fairness, inquisitiveness and respect for the equal worth of others irrespective of their differences. Good developmental opportunities for children result in their capacities being fully explored through experiences and expression.

**Prerequisites of Parenting**

Depending on the quality of family relationships, parenting can be a lifelong activity. Parents require extensive and varied resources to carry out their complex tasks, which change according to context. It is not so possible to give an elaborative and exhaustive inventory. So the irreducible and indispensable prerequisites of parenting include (a) knowledge and understanding (b) motivation (c) resource provision and (d) opportunity.

**Knowledge and understanding** are the essential starting point of active parenting. Parents do not come to their task devoid of knowledge; they bring to it a rage of beliefs and competencies which are the result of their own socialization, Smetana\(^{59}\) and facts about the children in their functional areas. It involves meeting needs like food and warmth, assessment of impact, or risk assessment. **Understanding** implies a reasonably accurate and comprehensive interaction of the child’s state. **Motivation** concerns parent’s wishes and commitment to do whatever is necessary to maintain or improve their children’s state. To act on the knowledge requires motivation. Motivation for parenting entails elements of the biological urge to have children. Cultural pressures, personal and social support for parenting and constraints on it. Eggebeen and Knoester\(^{60}\).

**Resources Provision**

Resources denote everything that parents need, want or desire to deploy in raising their children. It includes finances, psychological and social competencies above all core resources include qualities, social network, skills and materials.

**Qualities:** Qualities are the parental behavior tendencies that arise from fundamental personality characteristics. In parenting the total personality is included and the quality ranges from ‘low’ through ‘average’ to ‘high’. The main qualities highlighted in parenting include warmth, intelligent, stability and communicative ability as well as freedom from serious physical and mental health problems.
**Skills:** The ability to parent effectively is not inborn, as is evident in much parental incompetence across ages, cultures and psychosocial conditions. There are no universal inborn response patterns or competencies readily available to parents of new children. These therefore need to be acquired and that is called in this context as skills. They are acquired both formally and informally through parent’s own experiences, trial and error with their children, observing other parents or through media. The skills are required to meet the physical emotional and social care needs of the child, to set and enforce behavioral boundaries, and to communicate with the child; persuasive ability is needed to gain resources, and management skills to make best use of them.

**Social network:** The personal qualities and skills of parents are often augmented by the presence, involvement and responsiveness of other people, in the form of a network of relatives and friends. Supportive people surrounding the parents are the significant source of empowerment. Parents who are visible to and integrated with benevolent child outcomes than those who are not, as happens in ‘socially excluded’ families, Hoghughi3.

**Material resources:** Material resources may be interpreted as money, goods, and services necessary for raising children. They include food, clothing, housing, medicines, toys, educational materials and a multitude of services dictated by the single most powerful predictor of subsequent disadvantages and vulnerability in health, education, family stability, antisocial behavior and mental health of children. Variations in quality and content of parenting within the same band of economic adversity have different outcomes for children, McLloyd61.

**Opportunity:** Parents need time to do their parenting. In the western cultures, it has been an issue nowadays. Until quite recent times, most mothers worked in the house, where children also stayed and interacted with them continuously. Now there are multiple reasons - financial, social and personal - which push or pull women to outside work. The barest minimum consequence is that they now have less time with their children. Other things being equal, inevitably they are not as physically close to their children as if they spent all their time with them. They are also frequently so fatigued or distracted that they are unable to give their children the ‘quality time’ they desire. The time they spend at work cannot be spent with their children, Hoghughi7.
Dimensions of father involvement

The major dimensions of fathers were in terms of accessibility, a father’s presence and availability to the child, regardless of the actual interaction between father and child, father’s emotional involvement in, attachment to, and provision of resources for their children are all associated with the well-being, cognitive development and social competence of young children even after the effects of such potentially significant confounds as family income, neonatal health, maternal involvement and parental age are taken into account, Amato & Rivera. In addition, fathers have been found to be important players in the development of children’s emotional regulation and control. In adolescence, stronger and closer attachments to biological fathers are associated with more desirable educational, behavioral and emotional outcomes. High involvement and closeness between fathers and adolescents protect adolescents from engaging in delinquent behavior and experiencing emotional distress. Thus both quantity and quality of father involvement combined into the concept of positive paternal involvement results in positive child outcomes, Harris, Furstenberg & Marmer. Block has noted that restrictive fathers tend to be submissive, suggestible individuals with little self-assurance, while permissive fathers are more self-reliant and ascendant.

The meaning and practices of fatherhood are related to gender identity and to men’s experiences with their own fathers and other kin. For example men whose fathers were involved in raising them have been found to be more involved with their own children, to take more responsibility for them to show more warmth, and to more closely monitor their behavior and activities Hofferth. The fathers play many roles within the family and each of these roles is associated with a set of ideas, competencies and action patterns. But almost nothing is known about how and under what circumstances these competencies integrated and enacted over the life course, Turiel.

Parenting Adolescence:

Many parents now anticipate their child’s adolescence with apprehension, so ingrained are the stereotypes in the media of alienated ‘changelings’ or horror stories about the approaching rebellious stage of development, Hoghughie. Teenagers are developing human
beings, experiencing one of the most exciting times of their lives, but a time that is also perhaps one of the most difficult. Parents expect them to be mature and when they aren’t, they say, “You are old enough to know better”. On the other hand, parents still have to supervise them, make some decisions for them, and disciplining them. Therefore they see themselves as young adults and others see them adults as well, yet in many ways they are treated like children. The teenagers fall in the age group of 12 to 19, UNFPA. It’s the time when teenagers question their parents, seek more freedom, develop concern for their appearance and interest in the opinions of their peers, and it’s the time when they want more responsibility and they develop their own ways of thinking. The parent’s job is not to stifle these normal and desirable behaviors and thought processes, but rather to help the emerging adult to harness, channel, and polish them. Preparing teens for the adult world requires providing them with responsibilities, allowing them to make their own decisions, and even letting them fail – all under the parent’s supervision. When the child was just learning to walk, parents walked along behind her/him with their hands just inches from her/his sides in case they had to risk falls, banged knees or scrapped elbows. In adolescence metaphorically, parent’s do the same thing. They allow their teens to walk on their own, but are never too far away to catch them if they start to fall or to help redirect them if they unknowingly approach hazards in their way. Yet they must walk on their own if them ever to master self-sufficiency. In a sense, adolescence is an apprenticeship for adulthood and the parent is the mentor, Moffat.

Parents and adolescents interact less frequently than in earlier life periods Larson & Richards. This occurs both in early as well as middle adolescence.

Adolescence improve in their to think and solve problems. They begin to doubt some of the truths once they believed. They develop ability to think about concepts that cannot be seen. But their abilities are still limited. During adolescents the teens are exposed to some life issues – sexuality, love, religion, social interaction, money management, and driving. Yet their understanding is shallow and do not have the slightest notion that how much they do not know. Often the parents get frustrated and they think 'if only they would listen to me'. The more a parent tries to force the teens to accept his or her point of view, the more the teen digs in his or her heels and refuses to listen. Even though you can expect the child to
doubt your words, teachings and your beliefs, don’t lose your heart. Doubt is necessary part of growth. This is also the time of emotional, moral and religious development. Emotions are confusing. Parents need to identify these by context and experience. An understanding about what generally adolescence is will make much the parenting much easier for parents. The areas include Thinking, Feeling, and Doing; Parents need to recognize that this is the age which marks one of the most dramatic changes in the way children think. Most significant is the ability to think in abstract terms, but adolescents also improves in their ability to solve problems and use deductive logic. As they expand their worldviews, they begin to doubt some of the truths that they once believed, Moffat⁶⁸.

Adolescence is a ‘normal developmental crisis’. The physiological changes going on in the adolescent body, including significant brain growth and hormonal changes, in themselves present a developmental challenge. Add in the changes in the social environment—the sudden importance of peers, the increased demands for attention and organization at school, the expectation of increased independence (especially in our society), along with contradictory expectation of continued dependency—and the making of a crisis for parents, too, by the way—especially with the first child. Neither you nor your child has been here before, and neither one of you quite knows what to do with the other. That’s typical. Anxiety—provoking, but typical.

Moffat⁶⁸ opines that parents are lucky if they have a child who sails through this developmental phase. But if parents fall more in the middle if the bell-shaped curve where most of us live, parents will find themselves stretched to the maximum by some of their teens’ and preteens’ antics. Such situations demand certain skills parents to possess to have a balanced healthy relationship with the teenager.

**Guidelines for Parents** (Hoghughī⁷)

1. **Foster bonds of respect and affection:** Such bonds tend to facilitate teaching endeavours. The more affection there is as a foundation for disciplinary tactics, the more attention will be given as the child is’ on the same side’ as the care-giver.

2. **Make firm social and moral demands (Set limits):** This means establishing and conveying a reasonably coherent idea of the aims and objectives that lie behind the training
and supervision of young people. Children whose parents set firm limits for them grow up with more self-esteem and confidence than those who are allowed to behave in any way they like it. It is important to give children a reasonable amount of freedom of choice within those limits, Baumrind⁷⁰.

3. **Prepare children for life by developing family routines:** Most routines are useful shortcuts to living. Routines help a child master and carry out on daily tasks as feeding, washing dressing, going to bed, and helping him or her achieve more with less effort.

4. **Teach children the family rules:** Everyone needs some self-discipline or rules of conduct in order to adjust his or her needs and desired to those of others. Children need the affection and approval of people around; being self-centered and egotistical will alienate others and lose this approval.

5. **Choose rules carefully:** Rules and limits are most effective when they are relatively uncomplicated, fair. Understandable and applied justly and consistently so that they can anticipate what will happen if they transgress them.

6. **Be consistent:** When teaching a child to distinguish between right and wrong, or between appropriate and inappropriate social actions, it is important to be consistent.

7. **Be persistent:** Parents often stand out against rebellious, non-compliant behaviour for some time, only to give in eventually. The child soon learns that the meaning of parents’ word is ambiguous and that if he or she uses ‘coercive’ strategies, the parent will give way. The intermittent reinforcement of defiant behaviour will entrench it very strongly.

8. **Give explanations/ reasons:** Children are more likely to be internalizing standards if those standards are justified in terms of their intrinsic value and when given reasons that indicate their meaning, rather than in terms of the punishment that follows from their violation. The former encourages children to ‘tell themselves’ what they can or should not do. While the latter simply teachers them what they must not do when observed.

9. **Tell children what they should do, not only what they should do not do:** Explain clearly to children what is required of them. Emphasize the positive, not only the negative.

10. **Give responsibility:** Giving young people responsibility provides them with the opportunity provides them with the opportunity to practice and to be responsible. It is an essential element of healthy psychological growth.
11. **Listen Carefully to what the child says:** Parents need to be empathetic, hearing, not just listening, to what their children are saying, using what has been called ‘the third ear’- an ear tuned to the subtext, the hidden messages.

Evidence (e.g. Lidz\(^\text{71}\), Herbert \(^\text{72}\), Patterson\(^\text{73}\), Mason et al \(^\text{74}\)) suggests that in parenting across the life-span, the following attributes are associated with the well-being of family group members:

1. Time spent in shared activity
2. Minimal social withdrawal, avoidance and segregated activity
3. A high rate of warm interactions, and a low rate of critical or hostile interactions among members
4. Full and accurate communication between members
5. Favourable evaluation of other members; low levels of criticism of other members
6. Favourable meta-perceptions, that is, members likely to assume that other members have a favourable view of them
7. High levels of perceived affection between members
8. High levels of satisfaction and morale, and much optimism about the future stability of the family group
9. Frequent mutual enhancement of self-confidence
10. Minimal coercive interactions

Families that lack the characteristics listed above make their members vulnerable to psychological distress. A coalition between the parents is advantageous not only to give unity of direction to their children, but also to provide each of them with the emotional support essential for carrying out with his or her cardinal functions.
REFERENCES:


