CHAPTER – 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter deals with the review of the literature. It is an attempt to discover relevant material published earlier in the problem of study. This covers the empirical research studies done previously in the problem area. The studies conducted during the last few decades in the field of personality and parental support that are more relevant and pertinent to the present investigation are discussed in this chapter.

Good, Barr and Scates (1941) analysed the purpose of review of related literature as given under.

• To show whether the available evidence material solves the problem adequately without further investigation.
• To provide ideas, theories, explanations (or) hypotheses valuable in formulating the present study.
• To suggest the research methods to the problem.
• To locate comparative data useful in interpretation of the results.
• To contribute to the general scholarship of the investigator.
• It helps the research worker to find what is already known, what others have attempted to find out, what methods of attack have been promising (or) disappointing and what problems remain to be solved.
• It furnishes him with indispensable suggestions about comparative data, good procedure, likely method and tried techniques.
• It makes him alert to research possibilities that have been over looked and research approaches that have proved to be sterile and also It prevents pointless repetition of research.
Parenting: An Introduction

Society has a long history of concern over how its children are being reared. Plato in his Republic and Rousseau in Emile, both describe the duties of parents (Scholssman\textsuperscript{75}). In the American colonies in the late 17\textsuperscript{th} century, under the supervision of government and the church, ‘tithing men’ conducted home visits to supervise parents’ moral education of their young (Schlossman\textsuperscript{76}). The late 19\textsuperscript{th} century ‘Settlement House’ movement included parent education as a part of their programmes which were intended to address the needs of the poor, particularly poor immigrants (Erickson and Kurtz-Reimer\textsuperscript{77}). Parents themselves also sought information. As early as 1815 there were groups of parents meeting to discuss child rearing. In 1888, a group of women started meeting in New York to discuss how they could become better parents. Magazines such as Ladies Home journal and Woman’s Home Companion carried articles on child rearing. By the end of 19\textsuperscript{th} century, such information was reaching large numbers of parents (Brim\textsuperscript{78}). The early 20\textsuperscript{th} century was a period of great activity in the field of parenting. Many universities and colleges started parenting programmes. With the advent of World War II social concerns moved away from parenting education.

The current renewed interest in parenting education stems from many sources such as changes in the structures of the family, the lack of stability in family units, both parents working outside, lots of research of parenting, parent’s realization of child rearing issues, difficulties in protecting child from AIDS, Violence, war etc., (Carter\textsuperscript{79}). The society’s interests in bettering the lives of children, has also contributed to the parent education movement. Today’s parents are deluged with information from multiple sources about what they should and should not do with their children. The number of parenting magazines, books and newsletters has increased steadily in recent years the electronic media offer new sources of information such as videos, talk shows, interviews and internet sites (Simpson\textsuperscript{80}).

The contemporary approach to parenting research can be traced from the studies on heredity v/s environment on the individual’s growth and development to the different research designed used in the field. Due to which, the efforts to understand the role of parents in socialization are constrained severely by the traditional behaviors genetic model.
The efforts to disentangle heredity and measures of environment influences have become difficult as the genetic and environmental factors are correlated (Collins). The research by Dumn and Plomin report that the parents’ genotypes as well as children’s genotypes contribute to the contrasting patterns in parenting. The lines of research in parenting though adopt the behavior genetic model, but augment it with direct measures of potential environmental effects. Another line of research is to distinguish children with different genetic pre dispositions on a characteristic to see whether they respond differently to different environmental conditions. The third line of research is to examine the effect of parental practice after controlling for any initial dispositional characteristics of children. Evidences of these come from the research designs like longitudinal studies in which the child characteristics are controlled statistically. Interventions studies have resulted in marked changes in parenting experiences by assigning different treatment programmes designed to improve parenting with resulting changes in child behavior (Collins). The research is the field of parenting thus covers areas concerning the parenting behavior, family environment parent child relationship and other specific interventions.

**PARENTING ACROSS THE LIFESPAN:**

Individuals experience their life – cycle and cope with various life tasks in the context of the life – cycle of their families. An important area is generational and intra familial relationships in family life, parental roles and associated parenting practices, their contributions for good citizenship and good behaviour in children and adolescents. The parents have their role in socializing their children across lifespan. The term lifespan refers not only to parents’ concerns for their children’s developmental needs as they grow up, but their own parenting tasks at different stages of family cycle (Herbert).

Lifespan needs and tasks of children are in terms of physical care and protections, affection and approval, stimulation and teaching, discipline and controls that are consistent and appropriate to the child’s age and development and opportunity and encouragement to acquire gradual autonomy, so the child takes gradual control of him or her own life.
PARENTING THE TEENAGERS

The events that make adolescents stand out from the rest of childhood is the radical nature of the growth that takes place around the age 12 years in girls and 14 years in boys. The changes due to the action of hormones are quite dramatic that transform children into young adults. Many parents 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. They may construe the teenage years as something to be confronted rather than shared, endured rather than enjoyed a recipe for a self-fulfilling prophesy (Herbert\textsuperscript{84}). Their anxieties may be about the possible loss of closeness, affection and parental authority they see as important in their relationship with their children. Although in western societies it may be a common parental attribution that adolescence is marked by challenges to adult authority, conflict between parents and offspring is not so generally anticipated in societies where filial piety and respect are encouraged, indeed insisted on.

Adolescence can be traumatic for some individuals, but it is by no means necessarily or even largely so. Nevertheless, many of the physical and psychological changes that are features of adolescence, notably as young people establish their sense of identity are dramatic enough. An understanding of these processes can be benefit to young people in transition from childhood to adulthood and to their parents (Herbert\textsuperscript{85}).

Notwithstanding variations in family patterns and style of parenting, all societies seem to be broadly successful in the task of transforming helpless, self-centered infants into more or less self-supporting, responsible members of their communities. Indeed, there is a basic preparedness on the part of most infants to be trained to behave appropriately. This involves teaching them to conduct themselves in a socially normal manner. Despite extensive research, there is much doubt as to how different qualitative methods of child rearing for example breast feeding versus bottle feeding, or fixed interval feeding versus on demand feeding influence the development of the child’s personality (Becker\textsuperscript{86})
These generalizations can be put more specifically as guidelines for use by parents through the lifespan as below (Herbert\textsuperscript{83})

1. Foster bonds of respect and affection
2. Make a firm social and moral demand
3. Prepare children for life by developing family routine.
4. Teach children the family routine.
5. Choose rules carefully
6. Be consistent
7. Be persistent
8. Give explanation/ reason
9. Tell children what they should do
10. Give responsibility
11. Listen carefully to what the child says

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 his or her cardinal functions. So the parenting practices across different stages of a child are different and parents should have the ability to practice their parenting accordingly.

**Personality Development and Parental Support**

Parental support is an important antecedent in the development of positive attitude of children towards themselves and their circumstances. (Barber et al\textsuperscript{87}; Barber & Thomas\textsuperscript{88}; Felson & Zielinski\textsuperscript{89}).

Felson & Zielinski\textsuperscript{89} in their study on reciprocal relationship between parental support and self- esteem among 5\textsuperscript{th} and 8\textsuperscript{th} grade students found that parents supportive behaviour affect
the self-esteem of children. In addition parents have a greater effect on self-esteem of girls than boys. Mothers and fathers were found to have similar effect for both the sexes. The quality of parental care received (as measured by parental bonding instrument) has been shown to correlate positively and strongly with several measures of broad social support and satisfaction level with social support.

A study exploring the effect of parental support on adolescents’ life satisfaction done by young et al\textsuperscript{90} showed the following results. 640 US adolescents aged between 12 and 16 years were drawn from the National Survey of children. The data was analyzed on 3 Facets of parental support-intrinsic, extrinsic and closeness and compared with their life satisfaction. Intrinsic support emerged as the strongest predictor of life satisfaction. No difference was found based on the gender of the child or the parent. Both maternal as well as paternal supports were found to be equally important.

Radziszewska, Richardson, Dent & Flay\textsuperscript{91} found that authoritative parenting was associated with fewer depressive symptoms, less smoking and higher academic achievement among adolescent irrespective of race or ethnicity.

Glasner\textsuperscript{92} states that ‘Personality is formed in the first instance within the womb of family relationships’. It is from these early experiences that the child acquires his attitudes, values, and patterns of social behavior. Warnath\textsuperscript{93} remarks that “home thus appears indeed to be a seat of learning for the development of social skills, and perhaps of the desire to participate in activities with other individuals. Since the child’s early social experiences are mainly with the parents, it is they who play the dominant role in molding his personality pattern, (Bishop\textsuperscript{94}). The persistence of these early foundations can be observed in the personality patterns of college students. When parents are rejecting, their adolescent children are reported to be glum, suspicious, timid, insecure, anxious, introverted and tense. When they love, their children become extroverted, warm, conscientious, composed, and happy. When they are neglectful, their children become serious, retiring, aloof, and anxious (Siegelman\textsuperscript{95}). One recent study revealed that Chinese American adolescents’ perception of the warmth of an ideal parent exceeded their perception of their own parents’ warmth more than non-Latino White American adolescents did, and this greater discrepancy was linked
to less effective psychological adjustment in the Chinese American adolescents (Wu & Chao⁹⁶)

According to Rainwater⁹⁷ Personality formed from the interaction of significant figures (first the mother, later the father and siblings, later extra familial figures) with the child. The child brings to this interaction a certain biological constitution, certain needs and drives, and certain intellectual capacities which determine his reaction to the way in which he is acted upon by these significant figures. Watson⁹⁸ also has the same opinion; he claims that a tiny, malleable creature, like a newborn infant, could be molded into anything the significant people in his environment desired. In the molding of the personality, the attitudes, feelings, and behavior patterns of the young are shaped first in the home and later reinforced or changed in the school, the peer group, and the community at large. As Baumrind⁹⁹ states, “with varying degrees of consciousness and conscientiousness, parents create their children psychologically as well as physically”.

The family, as the child’s first social environment and as the social group with which he has the most frequent and closest contacts, is the most important source of personality molding. This has been stressed by Peck and Havighurst¹⁰⁰, Each adolescent is just about the kind of person that would be predicted from the knowledge of the way his parents treated him. Indeed, it seems reasonable to say that, to an almost startling degree, each child learns to feel and act, psychologically and morally, as just the kind of person his father and mother have been in their relationship with him. Within the home, the mother plays the central role in the molding process because she has more and closer contacts with the child than any other family member. However, the father, siblings, and other relatives contribute to the molding in proportion to the quantity and quality of their relationships with the child. Fathers who are regarded as permissive tend to be well-adjusted individuals who show marked flexibility, self-reliance, stability and self-confidence (Block¹⁰¹).

Spock¹⁰² has emphasized that early vulnerability of the child: If the child is regularly shamed for his accidents, accidents in the general and in sanitary sense, he acquires a sense of shame and unworthiness. If he is excessively dominated he becomes defiant or submissive. If he is constantly warned that the parent will no longer love him unless he behaves differently, his whole personality will be poisoned with uneasiness and
antagonism. Baumrind\textsuperscript{99} says (the child’s) energy level, willingness to explore and will to master the environment, and his self-control, sociability and buoyancy are set not only by genetic structure but by the regimen, stimulation and kind of contact provided by his parents.

Middle-class children are subjected to strong pressures to live up to parental expectations and to frustrate any opposing desires. Fearing that they will fall below parental expectations, they develop feelings of inadequacy, anxiety, and insecurity. These feelings are often accompanied by guilt and shame (Alper\textsuperscript{103}, Eyseck\textsuperscript{104}, Rainwater\textsuperscript{97}).

Democratic child training results in greater independence in thinking and acting and in a healthy, positive, confident self-concept. This leads to better personal and social adjustments and to more outgoing, active, and spontaneous behavior. The highest achievement and lowest anxiety are found among children from families of equalitarian control (Straus\textsuperscript{105}). At the time when the foundations of the personality pattern are being laid, the child’s primary social experiences take place in the home.

The powerful influence parents have in shaping the personality patterns of their children has been recognized by college students who, in retrospective reports of the training they received during their childhood and early adolescence claimed that they felt their parents were largely responsible for their dominant personality characteristics. Strict, demanding, punitive, and inhibiting parents, for example, encourage their children to depend on external controls to guide their behavior. As a result, when the children are outside the orbit of direct parental influence, they tend to be impulsive (Heilbrun\textsuperscript{106}, Kent\textsuperscript{107}, Koch\textsuperscript{108}, Slater\textsuperscript{109}). Studies reveal that both children and young adolescents acquire patterns of behavior similar to those family members. Living with parents who are nervous, anxious, and lacking in a sense of humor makes children highly nervous and subject to frequent outbursts of temper (Cobliner\textsuperscript{110}, Mussen\textsuperscript{111}, Slater\textsuperscript{109}). By contrast, children with warm, affectionate, interested parents usually become social and gregarious people, showing an interest in and affection for persons outside the home as well as in it (Finney\textsuperscript{112}, Peck\textsuperscript{100}).
Schofield et al\textsuperscript{113} in their study reported that, Parent personality and observed positive parenting both predicted 12th graders personality. Additionally, we found evidence for an indirect link between parent personality and later adolescent personality through positive parenting. The results suggest that parents may play a significant role in the development of adolescent personality traits that promote competence and personal well-being across the life course. Johnson et al\textsuperscript{114} says beneficial maternal and paternal child-rearing behaviours may promote the development of adaptive offspring personality traits that endure into adulthood, and they may be prospectively associated with reduced levels of maladaptive offspring traits. These associations may not be attributable to childhood behaviour problems or parental psychiatric disorders, and they may be equally evident during early and middle adulthood (Brand et al\textsuperscript{115}). Adverse parenting styles were highly correlated with low sleep quality, negative mood, increased daytime sleepiness, and with increased symptoms of anxiety and depression. Adolescents with low positive and high negative parenting styles displayed the most unfavorable sleep-related personality traits.

Fu\textsuperscript{116} believes that Gene plays an important role in children personality. However, it should not be ignored that the family environmental, such as mother's mental health, father's rearing style, and general function of family also play a role in children personality.

Bares\textsuperscript{117} reports reveal that rule-breaking and aggressive behaviors were both associated with greater levels of adolescent drive but lower levels of parental monitoring and positive parenting by both parents. Adolescents who reported more attention problems were more likely to exhibit driven behavior and more behavioral inhibition and to report lower levels of parental monitoring and positive parenting by mother and father. Results of interactions revealed that the influences of positive parenting and parental monitoring on adolescent aggressive behaviors varied as a function of the gender of the adolescent. Helping parents build on their parenting skills may result in important reductions in adolescent problem behaviors among U.S. and international adolescent.
Jieqiong\textsuperscript{118} investigation indicated that both parenting styles and Students' personality were correlated to students' thinking styles and students' personality mediated the influence of parenting styles on students' thinking styles. Linke, Zheng\textsuperscript{119}, their research results show that the influence of positive parenting noticeably comes first “parents share warm emotion, democracy, consolation, and tolerance; especially mothers tend to participate by actions whereas fathers tend to praise and encourage children. Negative parenting refers to exceeding protection, reprobation, indulgence and despotism, in which mothers tend to use rejection and imputation and fathers deprivation and interference with children.

Various personality domains of children are also very depended on the way their Parents Support them. The various ways it is directly influenced are reviewed below,

Intelligence as problem-solving skills and the ability to learn from and adapt to life’s everyday experience. Researchers have found that most high-achieving students are self – regulatory learners (Schunk & Zimmerman\textsuperscript{120}). Robert J Sternberg\textsuperscript{121,122,123,124,125} developed the \textbf{triarchic theory of intelligence}, which states that intelligence comes in three forms: (1) analytical intelligence, which refers to the ability to analyze, judge, evaluate, compare, and contrast; (2) creative intelligence, which consists of the ability to create, design, invent, originate, and imagine , and (3) practical intelligence, which involves the ability to use, apply to use, apply, implement and put ideas into practice.

However Gardner\textsuperscript{126, 127,128} suggests there are eight types of intelligence, or “frames of mind”. These are described here with examples of the types of vocations in which they are reflected as strengths (Campbell, Campbell & Dickinson\textsuperscript{129})

Verbal: The ability to think in words and use language to express meaning (occupation: authors, journalists, speakers)

Mathematical: The ability to carry out mathematical operations (Occupation: scientists, engineers, accountants)

Spatial: The ability to think three-dimensionally (occupation: architects, artists, sailors)
Bodily-kinesthetic: The ability to manipulate objects and be physically adept. (Occupations: surgeons, craftspeople, dancers, athletes)

Musical: A sensitivity to pitch, melody, rhythm, and tone (occupation: composers, musicians, and sensitive listeners).

Interpersonal: The ability to understand and effectively interact with others (occupation: successful teachers, mental health professional)

Intrapersonal: The ability to understand oneself. (Occupation: theologians, psychologists)

Naturalist: The ability to observe patterns in nature and understand natural and human – made systems (occupations: farmers, botanists, ecologists, landscapers).

A committee of respected researchers convened by the American Psychologist Association concluded that by late adolescence, research studies reveal a strong influence of heredity on intelligence (Neisser & Others\textsuperscript{130}). Many studies of heredity, environment, and intelligence show environment to be a fairly weak influence on intelligence (Fraser\textsuperscript{131}). Most researchers agree that genetics and environment interact to influence intelligence (Gottlieb, Wahlsten, & Lickliter\textsuperscript{132}; Ramey, & Lanzi\textsuperscript{133}; Sternberg & Grigorenko\textsuperscript{134}). 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, Ramey, & Lanzi\textsuperscript{133}; Sternberg\textsuperscript{124}).

In the last decade, developmentalists have begun to explore the role of secure attachment and related concepts, such as connectedness to parents, in adolescence (Allen\textsuperscript{135}; Allen, Kuperminc, & Moore\textsuperscript{136}; Collins & Steinberg\textsuperscript{137}; Furman\textsuperscript{138}; Zimmerman\textsuperscript{139}). They note that secure attachment to parents in adolescence can facilitate the adolescent’s social competence and well-being, as reflected in such characteristics as self-esteem, emotional adjustment and physical health (Egeland & Carlson\textsuperscript{140}; Hilburn-Cobb\textsuperscript{141}).

Emotion as feelings, or affect, that occurs when a person is in a state or an interaction that is important to the individual, especially to his or her well-being (Campos, Frankel, & Camras\textsuperscript{142}). Emotion is characterized by behavior that reflects (express) the pleasantness or
unpleasantness of the state the individual is in, or the transactions he or she is experiencing (Barrett & others\textsuperscript{143}; Leary\textsuperscript{144}). Adolescence has long been described as a time of emotional turmoil (Hall\textsuperscript{145}).

Early adolescence is a time when emotional highs and lows occur more frequently (Rosenblum & Lewis\textsuperscript{146}). In many instances, the intensity of their emotions seems out of proportion to the events that elicit them (Steinberg & Levine\textsuperscript{147}). Young adolescents may sulk a lot, not knowing how to express their feelings adequately. With little or no provocation, they may blow up at their parents or siblings, projecting their unpleasant feelings onto another person. The emotional fluctuations of early adolescence may be related to variability in hormones levels during this period. As adolescents move into adulthood, their moods become less extreme, perhaps due to their adaptation to hormone levels over time (Rosenblum & Lewis\textsuperscript{146}).

Reed Larson and Maryse Richards\textsuperscript{148} found that adolescents reported more extreme emotions and more fleeting emotions than their parents. In adolescence, individuals are more likely to become aware of their emotional cycles, such as feeling guilty about being angry. This new awareness may improve their ability to cope with their emotions.

Although the increased cognitive abilities and awareness of adolescents prepare them to cope more effectively with stress and emotional fluctuations, many adolescents do not effectively manage their emotions. As a result, they may become prone to depression, anger, and poor emotional regulation, which in turn can trigger problems such as academic difficulties, drug abuse, juvenile delinquency, or eating disorders. For example, one study illustrated the importance of emotion regulation and mood in academic success (Gumora & Arsenio\textsuperscript{149})

The emotional competencies that are important for adolescents to develop include the following (Saarni\textsuperscript{150}).

Adolescents who were characterized by openness, consciousness, and emotional stability were less likely to have a pattern of school absences (Lounsbury\textsuperscript{151}). The temperament category of positive emotionality is related to the personality trait of extraversion, negative
emotionality maps onto neurotism (emotional stability), and effortful control is linked to conscientiousness (Putnam, Sanson & Rothbart\textsuperscript{152}).

The ability to regulate emotion is linked to successful peer relations (Eisenberg, Fabes, & Spinrad\textsuperscript{153}; Underwood\textsuperscript{154}). Moody and emotionally negative individuals experience greater rejection by peers, whereas emotionally effective self-regulatory skills can modulate their emotional expressiveness in contexts that evoke intense emotions, as when a peer says something negative.

A recent research review and conceptualization of attachment by leading experts Mario Mikulincer\textsuperscript{155} and Philip Shaver\textsuperscript{156}) concluded the following about the benefits of secure attachment. Individuals who are securely attached have a well- integrated sense of self-acceptance, self-esteem, and self-efficacy. They have the ability to control their emotions, are optimistic and are resilient.

Psychologists and non-psychologists alike have noted that children tend to take after their parents. Freud attached the name “identification” to this tendency and described it as a process by means of which the child, “internalize” his parents code of behavior, their prohibitions, punishment and praises so that their reaction now become his own reactions. When this occurs, acquires a “conscience” or “superego”, in Freud’s terms, by means of which he no longer needs to depend upon his parents for further reward and punishments with which to guide his behavior, but is capable of rewarding and punishing himself, (Levin, and Sears,\textsuperscript{157}, Freud,\textsuperscript{158}).

Thomas Berndt\textsuperscript{159} studied 273 third-grades through twelfth –grade students. Some interesting developmental patterns were found in this investigation. In the third grade, parent and peer influences often directly contradicted each other. Since parent conformity is much greater for third-grade children, children of this age are probably still closely tied to and dependent on their parents. However, by the sixth grade, parent and peer influences were found to be no longer in direct opposition. Peer conformity had increased, but parent and peer influences were operating in different situations-parents had more impact in some situations while peers had more clout in others. By the ninth grade, parent and peer influences were once again in strong opposition to each other, probably because the
conformity of adolescents to the social behavior of peers is much stronger at this grade level than at any other. Researchers have also found that the adolescent’s attempt to gain independence meets with more parental opposition around the ninth grade than at any other time (Douvan & Andelson\textsuperscript{160}).

Berndt\textsuperscript{161} found that adolescent conformity to antisocial, peer – endorsed behavior decreases in the late high school years, and agreement between parents and peers begins to increase in some areas. In addition, by the eleventh and twelfth grades, students show signs of developing a decision – making style more independent of peer and parental influence.

Peer pressure is a pervasive theme of adolescent’s lives. Its power can be observed in almost every dimension of adolescents’ behavior – their choice of dress, music, language, values, leisure activities, and so on. Parents, teachers, and other adults can help adolescents to deal with peer pressure (Clasen & Brown\textsuperscript{162}). Researchers have found that popular children give out reinforcements, listens carefully, maintain open lines of communication with peers, are happy, control and their negative emotions, act like themselves, show enthusiasm and concern for others, and are self – confident without being conceited (Hartup\textsuperscript{163}; Rubin, Bukowski, & Parker\textsuperscript{164}).

Quality of friendship varies (Cillessen & Others\textsuperscript{165}). Qualities of friendships have important influences on adolescents but the friend’s character, interests, and attitudes also matter (Brown\textsuperscript{166}). For friends, and they reinforce each other’s delinquent behavior (Dishion, Andrews, & Crosby\textsuperscript{167}).

Children who were more dependent on their parents showed more guilt behavior than children who were not so dependent, confirming Whiting and Child’s reasoning that dependency favored the development of identification and therefore of proneness to guilt (Sears et al\textsuperscript{168}, Whiting and Child\textsuperscript{169}).

Diana Baumrind\textsuperscript{170, 171}, who notes that parents should be neither punitive nor aloof from their adolescents, but rather should develop rules and be affectionate with them. Neglectful parenting is a style in which the parent is much uninvolved in the adolescent’s life. 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. Closely related to the concept of neglectful parenting is a lack of parenting monitoring.

Adolescents’ social development can significantly benefit from interaction with a caring, accessible, and dependable father who fosters a sense of trust and confidence (Bronstein\textsuperscript{172}; Fabricius & Luecken\textsuperscript{173}; Jones\textsuperscript{174}).

According to Jung\textsuperscript{175}, every individual possesses a tendency towards individuation, or self-development, “Individuation means becoming a single, homogenous being, and insofar as “individuality” embraces our innermost, last and incomparable uniqueness, it also implies becoming one’s own self. We would therefore translate individuation as ‘coming to selfhood’ or ‘self-realization’. Individuation is a natural process. It is what makes a tree turn in to a tree. If it is interfered with, then it becomes sick and cannot function as a tree, but left to itself, it develops in a tree. This is individuation. Consciousness is a part of it, perhaps, yes but that depends on how much consciousness there is naturally there. Consciousness can also block individuation by not allowing what is in the unconscious to develop.

Diana Baumrind\textsuperscript{170, 171}, who notes that parents should be neither punitive nor aloof from their adolescents, but rather should develop rules and be affectionate with them. She emphasizes four styles of parenting that are associated with different aspects of adolescent’s social behavior. One amongst these is Authoritarian parenting. It is a restrictive, punitive style in which the parent exhorts the adolescent to follow directions and to respect work and effort. The authoritarian parent places firm limits and controls on the adolescent and allows little verbal exchange. Adolescents of authoritarian parents often are anxious about social comparison, fail to initiate activity, and have poor communication skills.

Alan Sroufe and his colleagues (Sroufe\textsuperscript{176}; Sroufe & others\textsuperscript{177}) have found that anxiety problems in adolescence are linked with insecure resistant attachment in infancy (sometimes the infant clings to the caregiver, at other times pushes away from closeness), and that conduct problems in adolescence are related to avoidant attachment infancy (the
infant avoids the caregiver). Sroufe concludes competence helps to buffer adolescents from developing problems.

Parent adolescent conflict and low parental support were linked to adolescent depression (Sheeber & others\textsuperscript{178}). The hypotheses are derived from Sullivan’s\textsuperscript{179} general assumption that a person’s modes of relating to others are functional in that they enable him to maintain anxiety at a minimum. Interpersonal situation that permit, or encourage, the use of a salient interpersonal technique such as dominance or submission, give rise to less anxiety than situations that do not.

According to Diana Baumrind\textsuperscript{170, 171} Authoritative parenting is associated with adolescents’ socially competent behavior. The adolescents of authoritative parents are self-reliant and socially responsible. She says that adolescents whose parents are neglectful are socially incompetent: they show poor self-control and do not handle independence well.

Defining adolescent autonomy is more complex and elusive than it might at first seem (Collins & Steinberg\textsuperscript{137}; Rothbaum & Trommsdorf\textsuperscript{180}; Soenens & Others\textsuperscript{181}). One aspect of autonomy that is especially important is emotional autonomy, the capacity to relinquish childlike dependencies on parents. In developing emotional autonomy, adolescents increasingly de-idealize their parents, perceive them as people rather than simply as parenting figures, and become less dependent on them for immediate emotional support.

As the adolescent pushes for autonomy, the wise adult relinquishes control in those areas in which the adolescent can make reasonable decisions and continue to guide the adolescent in areas where the adolescent’s knowledge is more limited. Gradually, adolescents acquire the ability to make mature decisions on their own (Collins & Steinberg\textsuperscript{137}; Harold, Colarossi, & Mercier\textsuperscript{182}).

Allen and his colleagues\textsuperscript{183} revealed that secure attachment in early adolescence was linked to successful autonomy and good peer relations. The study also found that insecure attachment was related to an increase in externalized behavior and depression.
Across all environments, parental responses to adolescent autonomy strivings require balancing the need to set limit on behavior and the need to provide adolescents with sufficient freedom to try out new behaviors and learn from mistakes, (Allen et al.\textsuperscript{184}; Holmbeck, Paikoff & Brooks-Gunn\textsuperscript{185}). The appropriate balance, however between limit setting and encouragement of exploration depends on the level of encouragement of exploration depends on the level of complexity, challenge and danger in the adolescents environment (Bradley\textsuperscript{186}). Thus the same parental behaviors may be more or less appropriate depending on the environmental context in which they occur. Parental inhibition of autonomy whether it is defined in behavioral terms (e.g strict rules and consequences) or in cognitive terms (e.g. discouragement of individual expression) may be pose multiple threats to adolescent well-being (Dubrow & Garbarino\textsuperscript{187}, Furstenberg\textsuperscript{188}). In less risky contexts, however these same autonomy-maladaptive parental reluctance to allow normative autonomy development to proceed (Baldwin, Baldwin & Cole\textsuperscript{189}).

Research focusing on behavioral approaches to autonomy confirms that in high-risk contexts parents are more likely to use strategies emphasizing conformity and obedience rather than those that promote independence and autonomy (Dubrow & Garbarino\textsuperscript{187}; Harkness & Super\textsuperscript{190}; Kelly, Sanchez Hucles & Walker\textsuperscript{191}).

Self-regulatory learning is the self-generation and self-monitoring of one’s thoughts, feelings, and behaviors in order to reach a goal. Self-regulatory learners (Winnie\textsuperscript{192, 193}; Winnie & Perry\textsuperscript{194}) do the following:

- Set goals for extending their knowledge and sustaining their motivation.
- Are aware of their emotional makeup and follow strategies for managing their emotions.
- Periodically monitor their progress toward a goal.
- Fine-tune or revise their strategies based on the progress they have made.
- Evaluate obstacles that arise and make the necessary adaptations.

Researchers have found that most high-achieving students are self-regulatory learners (Schunk & Zimmerman\textsuperscript{120}).
James Cote argues that because of this freedom, developing a positive identity in emerging adulthood requires considerable self-discipline and planning. Without this self-discipline and planning, emerging adults are likely to drift and not follow any particular direction. Diana Baumrind indulgent parenting is a style in which parents are highly involved with their adolescents but place few demands or controls on them. Indulgent parents allow their adolescents to do what they want, and the result is that the adolescents never learn to control their own behavior and always expect to get their way. To maintain a self-control program over time, it is important to be able to forego immediate satisfaction (Mischel).

Adolescents coped more effectively with stress when they had a close affective relationship with their mothers. Although G. Stanley Hall and others over dramatized the extent of storm and stress in adolescence, many adolescents and emerging adults today experience stressful circumstances that can affect their development. Stress is the response of individuals to stressors, which are circumstances and events that threaten them and tax their coping abilities. Researchers consistently have found that social support helps adolescents and emerging adults cope with stress. (Arnold; Janisse & others).

FAMILY SIZE AND ITS INFLUENCE ON PERSONALITY

Only Children VS Children with Sibling

G. Stanley Hall wrote in 1907: Being an only child is a disease in itself. The only child is greatly handicapped. He cannot be expected to go through life with the same capacity for adjustment that the child reared in the family with other children has. More recent studies agree that the only child develops a distinctive personality pattern. This is often called the “only-child syndrome”. However, there is ample evidence that the kind of personality pattern the only child develops, even though “distinctive” has many characteristics that lead to good personal and social adjustment, Aldous; Burke; Tuckman.

Among the favorable characteristics of the only-child syndrome is maturity of behavior, especially control over the emotions. This is due to constant contact with adults and imitation of adult behavior patterns. Since only children are spared the rivalries, name
calling, and conflicts so characteristics of families with several children, they do not
develop jealousies and envies, nor are they made to feel inadequate by constant comparison
with siblings, Aldous\textsuperscript{201}; Adams\textsuperscript{204}; Becker\textsuperscript{205}.

Like the favorable personality characteristics the only child develops, his unfavorable
characteristics are a product of the home environment. Many only children are lonely in the
sense that they lack companionship with their peers and the opportunity to play with other
children. Under exposure to peers encourages them to feel cheated of what their peers have,
with the result that they become envious and jealous of those who have siblings. Messer\textsuperscript{206}
quouted that the only child is at a decided disadvantage with children who are growing up in
the rough and tumble atmosphere of large families. And so he prefers to be with older
people whom he knows how to manipulate. He can ingratiate himself with adults, but his
tactics don’t work with children.

On the positive side researcher Falbo, Toni, Polit\textsuperscript{207} found that compared to offspring from
other configurations, only-children scored significantly higher on intelligence and
achievement measures. Samples from medium-sized and large families, only-children
scored better on a variety of character outcomes such as locus of control, autonomy,
leadership, and maturity. No significant intergroup differences were found in the areas of
adjustment and sociability. Also, only children scored significantly better than other groups
in achievement motivation and personal adjustment. The achievement motivation finding
was especially reliable, persisting across several comparison groups. Overall, however, the
review indicated that only children were comparable in most respects to their siblinged
counterparts.

In China, perceived behavioral problems in only children has been called the Little
Emperor Syndrome\textsuperscript{208} and the lack of siblings has been blamed for a number of social ills
such as materialism and crime. However, recent studies do not support these claims, and
show no significant differences in personality between only children and children in larger
families.\textsuperscript{209} It is suggested that many feel that their parents place extra pressure and
expectations on the only child, and that often, only children are perfectionists.\textsuperscript{210} Only
children are noted to have a tendency to mature faster. A 1987 quantitative review of 161 studies on 16 different personality traits contradicts the opinion, held by theorists including Alfred Adler, that only children feel maladjusted due to pampering. The study found no evidence of any maladjustment in only children. The most important finding was that only children are not very different from children with siblings. The main exception to this was the finding that only children are higher in achievement motivation, largely because their greater share of parental attention translates into increased parental scrutiny:

This scrutiny, especially as compounded by only children's access to a greater share of parental resources, exposes them to greater absolute quantities of both reward when they exceed parental expectations and punishment when they fall short. A second analysis revealed that only children, first-borns, and children with only one sibling score higher on tests of verbal ability than later-borns and children with multiple siblings.

The advantage of only children in test scores and achievement motivation may be due to the greater amount of parental attention they receive. According to the Resource Dilution Model, parental resources (e.g. time to read to the child) are important in development. Because these resources are finite, children with many siblings receive fewer resources. In his book Maybe One, Bill McKibben argues in favor of a one child policy based on this research. He argues that most cultural stereotypes are false, that there are not many differences between only children and other children, and where there are differences; they are favorable to the only child. Aside from scoring significantly better in achievement motivation, only children score significantly better in personal adjustment to new situations. Only children are also more likely to make outside friends, whereas children with siblings tend to be "more parochial and limited in their understanding of a variety of social roles" but it is usually more difficult for them to do so, even in early life. The latest research by Cameron et al controls for endogeneity associated with being only children. Parents that choose to have only one child could differ systematically in their characteristics from parents who choose to have more than one child. The paper concludes that "those who grew up as only children as a consequence of the (one-child) policy (in China) are found to be less trusting, less trustworthy, less likely to take risks, and less
competitive than if they had had siblings. They are also less optimistic, less conscientious, and more prone to neuroticism\textsuperscript{219}.

In his book \textit{Born to Rebel}, Frank Sulloway provides evidence that birth order influences the development of Big Five personality traits. Sulloway suggests that firstborns and only children are more conscientious, more socially dominant, less agreeable, and less open to new ideas compared to laterborns\textsuperscript{220}. However, his conclusions have been challenged by other researchers\textsuperscript{221}.

Lu, Hui Jing Chang, Lei\textsuperscript{222} says that the parenting of only children in urban China was predominantly authoritative rather than authoritarian. The parenting strategies and beliefs were child-centered, egalitarian, and warmth-oriented rather than control-oriented. Chinese parents encouraged pro-social assertiveness and discouraged behavioral constraint and modesty. The parenting of only children was also gender egalitarian in that there were few gender differences in child social behaviors and little gender differential parenting and socialization of these only children.

Dittrich, Maria L\textsuperscript{223} research 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. Men reported higher levels of maternal trust and solidarity than did women, as well as greater influence of parental expectations on the decision to come out.

Wu, De Tang, Jiulai\textsuperscript{224} study results show that in the morality assessment, parents of a single child scored their children lower than parents of siblings did; however, there was no significant difference when assessed by teachers. In the personality assessment, school-aged single children showed more extroversion than non-single children in random samples, but there were no such differences in the matched samples; and the single children presented unstable mood more than the non-single children did in random samples. In the
temperament assessment, the single child showed more to be choleric “sanguine and choleric “depressive types. The study concludes that the single child has unstable mood and more morality problems at home than in school.

Doh et al\textsuperscript{225} opines that the three factors of social competence considered in this study were: popularity, sociability, and brattiness. Only children were found to score similarly to others on popularity and sociability, but scored worse than others on the brattiness scale. Maternal attentiveness was found to be correlated significantly with all three social competence scores, indicating that mothers who evaluate themselves as more attentive to their children had children who were evaluated as being more popular, sociable, and less bratty. However, mothers of only children were not found to score differently than other mothers on attentiveness or overprotectiveness.

According to Richards, Hilary Goodman, Robert\textsuperscript{226}, a higher proportion of only children had problems which did not warrant a psychiatric diagnosis, and their parents were more often rated as being over-protective. Findings suggest, however, that the parents of only children differ from other parents not in being more overprotective, but in being more willing or able to seek medical advice.

Studies done by Tseng et al\textsuperscript{227}, The behavior problem profiles of children who were their parents' only children and those who had siblings were compared, revealing a significant difference between girls who were only children and those who had siblings. Girls who were only children tended to have slightly higher scores on the factors of Depression, Moody, and Temper. This finding supports the speculation that the traditional preference among Chinese parents for boys over girls still applies.

Falbo, Toni\textsuperscript{228} Compared to Samples from medium-sized and large families, only-children scored better on a variety of character outcomes such as locus of control, autonomy, leadership, and maturity. Also Falbo, Toni Polit, Denise F\textsuperscript{229} meta-analyses focused on achievement, adjustment, character, intelligence, parent child relationships, and sociability. Findings indicate that Only Children were found to surpass all others except firstborns and
people from 2-child families on achievement and intelligence. They also surpassed all non-Only Children, especially people from families with 3 or more children, in character and they surpassed all non-Only Children, especially those from large families, in the positivity of the parent child relationship. Across all developmental outcomes, Only Children were indistinguishable from firstborns and people from small families. The meta-analyses supported parent child relationships as an important factor in producing the developmental outcomes attained by Only Children, firstborns, and people from 2-child families. Falbo, TonyPoston, Dudley L. Only children (OC) with those of firstborn and later-born children. Three types of outcomes were considered. In terms of academics, differences between Only Children and others were found in 3 of the 4 provincial samples, with Only Children being most likely to outscore others in verbal tests. In terms of personality evaluations, very few only-child effects were found. In 2 of the 4 provinces, Only Children were found to be taller or to weigh more than others.

Byrd et al studied 60 female and 60 male undergraduate and graduate students (aged 18 and 45 years) were categorized by sex, age, and birth order (only child, firstborn, lastborn) to assess differences by birth order in autonomous characteristics and in cohesiveness in family interaction. Analysis of the responses on a biographical data sheet, the California Psychological Inventory, and the Family Adaptability Cohesion Evaluation Scales III shows that main effects for birth order and sex were significant in the process of separation-individuation and that the only child was less autonomous than the oldest child.

Chen researched 498 2nd and 4th graders without siblings and 67 2nd and 4th graders with siblings from Shanghai were administered a peer assessment measure of social behavior and a socio-metric nomination measure of peer acceptance. Teachers completed a behavioral rating scale for each S. Data concerning children's academic achievement, normative school behavior, and level of excellent scholarship were obtained from school administrative records. Unlike the results of previous studies (e.g., S. Jiao et al; see record 1986-21663-001) in urban China, differences between Samples with and without siblings in social behavior, peer relationships, school-related social competence, and academic achievement were non-significant.
Clarfield, Lesie Elizabeth\textsuperscript{233}, their focus on the present study was the parent-child relationship in families where there is just one child. Investigators typically attribute observed differences to a "unique" relationship between only children and their parents but this relationship has rarely been directly assessed. Such studies also lack a sound theoretical basis. Analyses were run separately for each gender with socio economic status as a covariate, and only intact families were used. Principles derived from evolutionary psychology were applied, generating the hypotheses that parents of only children would demonstrate higher levels of parental investment than parents of two children and that in those families; parents would invest more heavily in first-born than second-born children. It was expected that this would be reflected in measures of parental involvement, behavioral control, and granting of psychological autonomy. Corresponding outcome differences on measures of scholastic achievement, deviance, and psychological and somatic symptoms were also predicted. MANCOVA's were conducted and statistically significant differences were observed between older and younger children (both boys and girls) in families of two on measures of behavioral control and parental involvement. Older children reported higher levels. However, these differences were miniscule and only slightly associated with differences among the outcome variables. Only children were not dissimilar from first-born children on any of the measures. These findings were discussed in terms of their implications for parental investment theory and the state of our knowledge of only children.

According to Downey, Douglas B\textsuperscript{234}, the resource dilution model posits that parental resources are finite and that as the number of children in the family increases, the resources accrued by any one child necessarily decline. Siblings are competitors for parents' time, energy, and financial resources and so the fewer the better. Even one sibling is too many. The author describes the general elements of the dilution position and assesses its merits for explaining the effect of siblings on one component of the educational process tests of intellectual development. The author identifies critical flaws in recent critiques of the dilution position and concludes that dilution continues to provide the most promising explanation for why children with few siblings score higher on tests of cognitive skills than children with many siblings.
Deutsch, Francine M\textsuperscript{235}, examined the effects of China's one-child policy on two traditional aspects of Chinese family life: filial piety and patrilineality. Eighty-four graduating university seniors, who were part of the first cohort born under the one-child policy, were interviewed about their life plans. Comparisons between only children and those with siblings showed that only children were as likely to plan on helping their parents as were those with siblings and were more likely to intend to reside in the same city. The only children seemed to feel especially responsible for their parents' happiness because of their singleton status.

Vatan\textsuperscript{236} in his study of 330 Turkish undergraduate students, only children scored higher on measures of hopelessness and suicidality and seemed more concerned with interpersonal relationships.

**Children with Siblings**

Dailey, Ren M\textsuperscript{237}, his Twin studies examined the relationship between confirmation (i.e., validation, acceptance) by family members and adolescent psychosocial adjustment (i.e., self-esteem, strength of self-concept, and autonomy). Study 1 showed confirmation by parents was positively related to mid-adolescents psychosocial adjustment. Study 2 showed that although late-adolescents perceived mothers as exhibiting greater confirmation than both fathers and siblings, a simultaneous assessment of mother, father, and sibling confirmation revealed that confirmation from both mothers and siblings significantly predicted psychosocial adjustment. Further, specific results from study 2 revealed that individual family member confirmation may be related to different dimensions of adolescents’ psychosocial adjustment.

Rosario\textsuperscript{238} opines about procrastination is that it is a common behavior, mainly in school settings. Only a few studies have analyzed the associations of academic procrastination with students' personal and family variables. In the present work, we analyzed the impact of socio-personal variables (e.g., parents' education, number of siblings, school grade level, and underachievement) on students' academic procrastination profiles. Two independent samples of 580 and 809 seventh to ninth graders, students attending the last three years of
Portuguese Compulsory Education, have been taken. The findings, similar in both studies, reveal that procrastination decreases when the parents’ education is higher, but it increases along with the number of siblings, the grade level, and the underachievement.

According to Lee, Catharine Helen\textsuperscript{239}, a sample of 96 families with at least two children between 6 and 12 years of age participated. The participating parents completed measures of parenting attributes, child personality, and child's ability to regulate emotions for each participating child. Preliminary analyses revealed that parental report of emotion regulation ability was not significantly correlated with emotion understanding scores for either younger or older siblings. A primary goal was to compare sibling's performance on measures associated with emotional competence. Consistent with previous research, siblings were similar in language ability, and differed in scores on measures of personality. Parents reported similarity in parenting attributes directed toward each sibling. Sibling scores on both measures associated with emotional competence (emotion regulation and emotion understanding) were similar. A second goal was to evaluate the contribution of parent and child characteristics to emotional competence between families. Although many of the predictor variables were correlated with emotion regulation, only three aspects of personality (i.e., agreeableness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism) made a unique contribution to the variance associated with the emotion regulation scores. Age was the only variable identified as making a unique contribution to the variance between emotion understanding scores. A third goal was to evaluate the extent to which differential familial characteristics explained variance in emotional competence. The variables that made unique contributions toward predicting differences between siblings in positive emotion regulation were parental autonomy, plus child agreeableness and conscientiousness. Further analyses revealed that siblings who differed the most on personality variables (agreeableness or conscientiousness), and differed the most in parental autonomy accorded to them, also differed the most in emotion regulation ability. Siblings who were most similar in emotion regulation ability were also most similar in personality but were only moderately similar in autonomy accorded to them.
Kramer, Laurie Kowal, Amanda K\textsuperscript{240} says that the purpose of the present study was to examine continuity in sibling relationships across childhood and to evaluate the degree to which children's experiences with their friends and mothers prior to their sibling's birth predict the quality of the relationship they establish with their siblings in adolescence. Twenty-eight firstborn children, who were 48 months old at the time of their sibling's birth, were observed interacting with their siblings and friends at multiple time points. The level of positive social behaviors demonstrated in their early relationships with friends continued to predict sibling relationship quality in adolescence. Firstborn children who had more positive interactions with friends prior to their sibling's birth demonstrated more pro-social interactions with both their siblings and friends in adolescence and exhibited fewer externalizing behaviors.

Branje et al\textsuperscript{241} concluded that supportive sibling relationships have been linked to the development of psychosocial competence of children. In the present longitudinal study, we will focus on the development of perceived support in sibling dyads and on the influence of sibling support and sibling problem behavior on psychosocial adjustment in adolescence. In a three-wave longitudinal sample of 285 Dutch families with two adolescent children (11-to 15-year-olds), these two siblings judged the support perceived from each other. In addition, they themselves and their parents judged their internalizing and externalizing problem behaviors. The relation of sibling support and sibling problem behavior with internalizing and externalizing problem behaviors was examined while controlling for support from parents and friends and, over time, controlling for the autoregressive effects of problem behavior. Support perceived from a sibling is mostly negatively related to externalizing problems; sibling problem behavior is strongly related to internalizing problems. Differential developmental trajectories of adolescents' adjustment are associated with siblings' support and problem behavior. The results indicate that adolescents' relationships with both older and younger siblings are characterized by modeling processes.

According to Ballew, Allison Coleman\textsuperscript{242}, Late adolescent sibling relationships are relatively understudied. A model of perceived sibling relationship quality was hypothesized based on adolescents' perceptions of family process variables. How adolescents achieve
individuation and the degree to which they retain a sense of family relates to parental relationships and potentially, the sibling ones. Correlations revealed that perceptions of more positive parent-child relationships are associated with stronger sibling ones. Perceived differential treatment was associated with status inequity among siblings. Separation-individuation was strongly related to sibling relationship quality. Adolescents perceiving higher levels of sibling warmth achieved healthier separation. Warmth, conflict, power, and attachment yielded different predictors. The sample was divided into brother/brother, sister/sister, and brother/sister pairs and different predictors of sibling relationship quality emerged for each group.

Feinberg, Mark Hetherington, E Mavis, says that nonshared environmental influences have been found to be important for adolescent development. This study of 516 families investigated whether differential parental negativity or warmth is linked to adolescent adjustment apart from the effect of the level of parenting toward each child separately. After accounting for level of parental treatment to the adolescent, the authors found that differential parenting to the siblings contributed unique variance in adjustment. Significant interactions were found between level of parenting and differential parenting. In each case, differential parenting was more strongly linked to adjustment when the level of parenting was low in warmth or high in negativity. These results are indirect evidence that differential parenting can be considered a within-family influence on sibling adjustment and as direct evidence that nonshared environmental factors may systematically vary in strength between families.

Bukowski concluded that the Associations among (1) self-disclosures between early adolescent siblings, (2) emotional understanding, and (3) relationship warmth were investigated. Hierarchical multiple regressions indicated self-disclosure was positively associated with feeling good about sharing and negatively associated with reports of not trusting or not receiving emotional support from their sibling. Sibling relationship warmth was a key characteristic associated with both emotional understanding and self-disclosure; female target children demonstrated greater emotional understanding than male children. Warmth, but not emotional understanding, was associated with self-disclosure. Findings are
discussed in light of the importance of links between affective relationships and children's social-emotional understanding.

Downey, Douglas B\textsuperscript{245} has one explanation for the inverse relationship between the number of siblings and children's educational performance, resource dilution, posits that parents have finite levels of resources (time, energy, money, etc.) and that these resources are diluted among children as Sibship size increases. This study tested the dilution model with a sample of 24,599 8th graders from the 1988 National Education Longitudinal Study. Results support the resource dilution model in 3 ways. First, the availability of parental resources decreases as the number of siblings increases. Second, parental resources explain most or all of the inverse relationship between sibship size and educational outcomes. Finally, interactions between sibship size and parental resources support the dilution model as children benefit less from certain parental resources when they have many vs few siblings.

Baham, Melinda Erin\textsuperscript{246} says, Sibling relationships can have an important effect on a child's development, and siblings impact each other in a variety of ways. Although prior research has examined the ways in which sibling relationship quality impacts various outcomes, few studies have examined older adolescents, ethnic minorities, and positive outcomes. Thus, the goals of this research were to investigate the influence of sibling relationship quality on both positive and negative outcomes, to examine these influences in middle adolescence, to investigate the ways in which sibling relationship quality and adolescent outcomes are related in both European- and Mexican-American adolescents, and to explore the possibility that strong family values, as captured by familism, might moderate the relationship between sibling relationship quality and adolescent outcomes. Consistent with the hypotheses, sibling conflict was positively related to risky sexual behaviors, substance use, and internalizing and externalizing behavior problems, and sibling support was negatively related to risky sexual behaviors and externalizing problems. However, although sibling relationship quality was not consistently related to positive outcomes, familism was importantly related to positive outcomes. Additionally, there were no significant differences between European- and
Mexican-American adolescents in the way in which sibling relationship quality was related to outcomes. Furthermore, this study found that familism had a main effect on positive outcomes, but a moderating impact on negative outcomes. Also, this study has helped to identify the ways in which sibling relationship quality impacts both positive and negative adolescent outcomes, and has discovered a promising new area of research involving the impact that family type has on the quality of the sibling relationship and adolescent outcomes.

Kavi, Tina, Zupani, Maja concluded that Parental differential treatment is an important feature of non-shared family environment which contributes to the development of behavioral differences between siblings growing up in the same family. However, the mothers reported on somewhat higher levels of differential control and (only in wave 1) affection than the fathers. Nearly half of the families were characterized by a congruent pattern of parental differential treatment indicating that both parents showed more affection and control towards the older of the two siblings. A complementary family pattern reflecting an opposite direction of maternal and paternal differential treatment emerged in approximately a quarter of the participating families.

Stocker, Clare M research samples were 77 families who were participating in a longitudinal perspective study of children's normal development. Children who received more maternal control and less maternal affection than their siblings had more behavior problems than other children. The magnitude of difference between siblings in behavior problems was correlated with the extent of maternal differential treatment but was not significantly associated with age or gender differences between siblings.

Family is a group that is something different from the sum of its members: it has its own structure, peculiar aims and particular relationships with other groups. Its essence is not constituted by similarity or dissimilarity found between its members, but by their interdependence (Lewin). Each member of the family exists in reciprocal relationship with others, influences them and is influenced by them (Levine & Moreland).
For years it has been thought that the parent–child relationship is the most fundamental of all familial subsystems (Lamb\textsuperscript{251}). However in recent years, the siblings bond has received a great deal of attention as one of the primary relationships of the family unit (J.V.Caffaro & A. Con. Caffaro\textsuperscript{252}). Relationship between brothers and sisters have often been called life’s most influential and longest lasting relationships – lasting longer than ties to parents, spouses, or children (Bank & Kahn\textsuperscript{253}). It has been suggested that Siblings employ one another as hallmarks in the search for intellectual development and a personal identity (Bank & Kahn\textsuperscript{254}; Cicirelli\textsuperscript{255}).

The relationship between siblings can be marked with rivalry and conflict, but can also be one of the closest and intimate relationships a person has in childhood, adolescence and adulthood (Buhrmester & Furman\textsuperscript{256}, volling\textsuperscript{257}).

Warm, nurturing and close sibling relationships play an important role in the development of children’s social competence with peers, their ability to resolve conflicts in a constructive manner, understanding (Dunn & Munn\textsuperscript{258}; Howe\textsuperscript{259}; Herrera & Dunn\textsuperscript{260}).

A brief account of important research trends in western societies on siblings has three directions. First direction comprises of studies that were prompted by Adler\textsuperscript{261} which dealt with effect of sibling status on personality development. In the 1970’s and 1980’s, there was a shift from effect to processes (Lamb\textsuperscript{251}) that involved observation of interactions between siblings. In order to determine how developmental processes affect the outcome (personality and intellectual attributes). A second genre of studies emerged in the 1980’s that considered siblings across the life span. Cicirelli\textsuperscript{262} noted that taking a lifespan perspective enables one to see implications of early events for later relationships and to appreciate the natural cycle of change in the sibling relationship.
In a study by Bank. S, unpublished data suggested that siblings spend more than twice as much time alone with each other than with parents in a sample of middle class families.

Several investigators have now identified four dimensions of children’s sibling relationships that appear to emerge reliably across studies: (1) Warmth/Closeness, (2) Conflict, (3) Rivalry, and (4) Status/Power. These dimensions have been reported consistently in studies rising self-reports of sibling relationship quality from children and adolescents (Furman & Buhrmester; Hetherington & Clingempeel; Stocker & Mettal).

In a sample of 7th graders (Conger K.J, Conger R.D & Scaramella) reported that manipulative behavior and excessive control by a sibling were detrimental to the child’s self-confidence and predicted increases in both externalizing and internalizing behavior problems 2 years later.

Boys with sisters score higher on expressiveness than boys with brothers and girls with brothers score higher on competitiveness and assertiveness (Sulloway).

Siblings serve many functions for one another some of these include serving as a “testing ground” for one another when experimenting with new behaviors or ideas before exposing them to parents or peers; serving as teachers; practicing negotiation skills; and learning the consequences of cooperation and conflict and the benefit of commitment and loyalty. Older siblings may serve a protective function and translate parental and peer meanings for younger brothers and sisters and act as path breakers when new ideas or behaviors are introduced in to the family. Lastly, it is within the sibling group that children first experience feelings of fairness and justice. Siblings compete for resources within the family and if resources (such as affection, time, attention from parents, space or maternal goods) are scarce children watch closely to ensure that they are getting their fair share (Ihinger).
Most notable in this regard are the links between the quality of sibling relationship and the child’s social competence or ability to manage and sustain relationships with peers. Herrera and Dunn\textsuperscript{260} for instance reported that young children using constructive conflict-resolution strategies such as mitigating a conflict or conciliating were more likely to use similar conflict resolution strategies with a friend several years later.

In a study of 6 to 8 years old aggressive children Stormshak et al\textsuperscript{280} found that those children with warm and close sibling relationships received higher scores on emotional control and those children reporting high levels of sibling conflict at home were actually more aggressive and less socially competent at school. More importantly however, those children who were experiencing both higher warmth and a moderate degree of conflict with their siblings were also found to be more socially competent with their peers, more emotionally controlled and more attentive at school. Children with sibling relationship characterized by high conflict and low warmth tended to use more peer aggression.

The important point to be gleaned from the Stormshak et al\textsuperscript{280} work is that both the supportive and conflictual dimensions of sibling relationship quality need to be considered together in order to understand the full effect of sibling relationship for children’s social development.

Widmer and Weiss\textsuperscript{281} examined whether a caring and supportive sibling relationship with an older brother or sister would protect a younger sibling from the deleterious effects of living in a high risk neighborhood and experiencing adjustment problems. When the younger sibling perceived their older adolescent sibling as successful and supportive these children had fewer depressive symptoms, lower delinquent attitudes and reported more school engagement. Moreover 9-11 years old African – American children were more self-regulated if their sibling relationship were described as harmonious involving little conflict (Brody, Stoneman, Smith & Gibson\textsuperscript{282}).

A line of research indicates that a warm, intimate relationship with One’s sibling is related to children’s social and emotional understanding both in early childhood, (Dunn Brown &
Beard Sall\textsuperscript{283}, Younblade & Dunn\textsuperscript{284} and middle childhood (Howe, Aquan-Assee, Bukow Ski, Lehoux & Rinaldi\textsuperscript{285}).

Similarly Howe et al\textsuperscript{285} found that sibling relationship warmth was related to 5\textsuperscript{th} and 6\textsuperscript{th} grade children’s emotional understanding and self-disclosure with their siblings. The fact that sibling relationship is one of the extraordinary longevity means that it is important to study their relationship not only in early childhood but through all life stages across lifespan. Children become more egalitarian during the middle childhood years. When fifth and sixth grade children were asked about the relationship with their siblings the quality noted most was companionship. This was followed by antagonism admiration of sibling & quarrelling (Furman et al\textsuperscript{286}).

Conflict between siblings is a common occurrence and co-exists both with periods of positive sibling interactions and with periods of relative calms (Newman J\textsuperscript{287}). But it is the level of conflict balanced with the level of warmth or support in relationships between siblings that seems to determine the effect siblings conflict has on children. Children in sibling relationships marked by moderate conflict along with moderate warmth were rated by teachers as move socially competent and having more emotional control than children in sibling relationships marked by high conflict and low levels of warmth. The latter groups had poorer school adjustment and were more disliked by their peers. Home environments where brothers and sisters experience moderate levels of conflict along with moderate levels of warmth and support may help children develop important pre-social skills of conflict negotiation (Stormshak et al\textsuperscript{280}).

Samalin\textsuperscript{288} believes rivalry fulfills valuable role by allowing sibling to test limits, to assert themselves and to learn how to negotiate their wants and needs all within the safe confines of their home.

According to Heidi Riggio\textsuperscript{289}, “Personality and social skill differences between adults with or without siblings,” tried to put an end to some of the only child misconceptions and negativism in her work on the importance of family structure for personality development.
She looked at core personality traits and social skills including the ability to express feelings, to interpret verbal and nonverbal communication, to control emotions and social sensitivity, among other traits generally thought to benefit children who have siblings. Riggio explained that the common thinking is only children “may experience social-skill deficits because of a lack of sibling relationships during key developmental periods.” Riggio found that adult only children are quite the opposite of the lonely stereotype: They did not differ in social skills from those children with siblings. In fact, the two groups were “remarkably” similar. In other words, singletons turn out as socially competent as children with siblings—they make friends as easily as their peers with siblings.

Only children, being firstborn themselves, tend to exhibit traits more similar to those of other firstborn children. However, only children seem to have better self-esteem and are higher achievers than children who have siblings (Brophy). Children who have siblings must also contend with something that does not affect only children, namely sibling rivalry. Children who have siblings must compete for parental attention and familial resources. Only children do not have to deal with this kind of competition. Not having siblings allows for greater variance of personality types among only children; however, lack of siblings has repercussions for the only child's later social interactions (Koontz).

According to Skinner's behaviorist theory of operant conditioning, only children would undergo conditioning to affect their behavior in social situations. Operant conditioning involves the conditioning of behavior according to the consequences it produces (Mischel). In this way, only children would be conditioned to behave in an outgoing manner, if they are to win friends, because they have no guaranteed familial playmates. "Only children don't easily assimilate into large groups, and when they do they tend to dominate" (Brophy). This conditioning would take place regardless of a child's natural inclinations toward extraversion or introversion if the child wishes to make friends.
Perhaps because the emotional difficulties that only children are prone to have such as excessive sensitivity, hypochondria, or trouble expressing anger (Brophy) are results of environmental influence but not in the way most commonly assumed. Rather than solely the effects of sibling-free socialization, these emotional difficulties could be attributed to an almost Freudian struggle between opposing forces: the natural tendency toward extraversion or introversion versus the environmental pressures to subdue those tendencies in order to function.

One of the greatest argued losses to only children is their lack of social interaction within the family structure as a consequence of the absence of potential sibling playmates. A study conducted by Mueller and Vandell found that children with older siblings offering an outlet for interaction were more responsive socially to other children their own age.

**FAMILY ENVIRONMENT OF ADOLESCENTS**

The literature on family functioning has focused much on cohesion and adaptability. Cohesion is defined as the emotional bonding that family members have towards one another. This includes variables like, emotional bonding, boundaries, coalitions, time space, friends, decision making and interest and recreation (Olson). According to this perspective, cohesion represents a positive side of family interaction and is linearly related to individual and family functioning (Cox et al). Research by (Gavazzi) has shown that optimally a family with adolescent will sustain both a high cohesion and a low enmeshment level, qualities considered to represent a high level of family differentiation. (Cohen, Vasey & Gavazzi).

Children’s well-being depends on the quality of family relationship (Repetti). Relationships require time to give and receive support, build intimacy, or repair when conflicts arises, and this is true for both marital and parent-child relationships. Family rituals such as evening meals or weekend outings may symbolize care and togetherness, and it is clear how easily these meanings can be reassigned. Such subtle changes in family synchrony and interaction, experienced daily, could exert pervasive effects on relationships (Strazdins).
The study on parent adolescent communication and adolescent and adolescent risk behavior conducted by Ramos et al\textsuperscript{300} points out that the parent adolescent communication is a major risk for adolescent risk behavior. Some of the dimensions studied were the parent adolescent communication and perceived availability or accessibility of the parent. The study also reveals that if a parent is seen as being too busy and generally unavailable, then the adolescent will not seek out parent’s advice. Similarly if parents are too busy to spend time talking with their children, the message exposure will be low. In parenting, a part of building a relationship with one’s adolescent is being there for the child in times of need. Ramos reports that if adolescent think their parents give good advice, are trustworthy, and are not too busy for them, then adolescent may seek out parent for help and advice more often. This should result in increased opportunities for parent to talk about important issues and to convey certain points of view to adolescent. Similarly if adolescent think parents are credible and trustworthy, they may be more open to talking and problem solving with parents when parent approach them to initiate conversation. The more available are the parents the increased communication. The result also showed that there is a disparity between the perception of parents and teenagers on the communication they had. Parents report of all those communication efforts they have made but teenagers’ reports only those really have been registered in their memory. In addition, how parents define a discussion is different from how an adolescent defines a discussion. What is more important in prediction of behavior is from the communication what adolescent reported.

Strazdins et al\textsuperscript{299}, in their study on the family functioning and children’s (children and pre-adolescent) wellbeing in relation to the parents’ work schedule describes that, there have been several lines of research which suggest a link between the timing of parents’ work and their parenting. Strazdins, who studied the family using the McMaster Family Assessment Device, shows a significant relationship between nonstandard work schedule and poor family functioning.

McFarlane\textsuperscript{301} studied the association between parental style, family functioning and adolescent wellbeing, contrasting intact families with those of changed configuration. Eight hundred teenagers in 11 high schools of a single educational system were the subjects. Results indicate that the configuration of the family was not the key determinant of
effectiveness of family functioning. Instead the style of parenting turned out to be the main determinant of both family functioning and wellbeing of the adolescent. While both” parents” were judged to have contributed to these outcomes cross gender effects were found.

Nuller in his book on Explaining family interactions focus on what as the important functions of communications in families with adolescents/discuss 5 such functions: (a) enabling the negotiation of role, rules and relationships: (b) providing an appropriate climate for identity exploration (c) enhancing rather than diminishing self-esteem (d) providing appropriate modeling and teaching of problem solving: and (e) enabling adolescents to make the important decisions that affect their lives at the need for parents of adolescents to provide the type of family environment in which adolescents are most likely to be healthy and well-adjusted .The stressfulness of nonstandard schedules may alter parents’ mood and energy, leading to more irritable interactions with children(Repetti).

CHILD’S PERCEPTION ON PARENTING:

Gaylord on the study of adolescents’ class room performance and perception of parenting revealed that the teenagers reported parents to be less supportive against what parents considered themselves to be. Parents’ self-perceptions of parenting and children’s perceptions of parenting were predictive of different measures of child psychosocial adjustment. The results of this study support the assumption that parents’ self-perceptions and children’s perceptions of parenting provide unique views of the family and unique relations to children’s psychosocial adjustment.

Miller investigated the degree to which children’s perception of the amount and type of activities parents use to facilitate their children’s peer interactions influence the child’s peer support network and social competence in school. These types of parent facilitation activities were examined; arranging and enrolling, monitoring and supervising, and providing guidance and encouragement. The relationship of demographic variables to social competence and peer support were also analyzed. The results indicate that children who reported more parent facilitation activities also reported receiving more support from friends.
Aguilar\textsuperscript{306} described that adolescence, individuation becomes important and other environments are actively selected. Additionally, the correlational analysis indicated that authoritative and authoritarian parenting was commonly associated with extraversion, according to children’s perceptions. In contrast, parents’ perceptions indicated that such parenting related to children’s introversion. Such contradictory results imply that parents’ and children’s perception differences of parenting or traits that impact the socialization process. Longitudinal analyses of children’s perceptions provided support for reciprocal socialization as both were found to affect one another as shown in separate analyses, however, children’s effect were of greater magnitude. Longitudinal analyses revealed that children’s emotional stability predicted authoritarian parenting. However, according parents’ perceptions, children’s instability predicted such parenting. Together, this set of results is suggestive of the possible effects dispositional attributions of children’s traits have on the socialization process. In sum, children’s perceptions of parenting may be more critical to their personality development that what parents say they do.

Punamakhi\textsuperscript{307} confirms the hypotheses that traumatic events negatively affect the way in which children perceive their mother’s and father’s behavior, attitudes and emotional expression toward them, and that poor parenting is indeed harmful to children’s wellbeing. The more the children had experienced traumatic events, the more punishing, rejecting and controlling they perceived their parents to be. Moreover, the poorer parenting they experienced, the more they suffered from high neuroticism and low self-esteem.

Smetana\textsuperscript{308} in her study on parenting styles conducted among the parents and adolescents revealed that, parents judged the legitimacy of parental authority and rate family conflict and rules regarding moral, conventional, personal, multifaceted, prudential, and friendship issues. Adolescents viewed their parents as more permissive and more authoritarian than parents viewed themselves, whereas parents’ viewed themselves as more authoritative than did adolescents. The conceptions of parental authority and parental styles both contributed significantly to emotional autonomy and adolescent-parent conflict.
ROLE OF PARENTS

Parenthood presents important developmental challenges to adults and may prompt them to develop commitments to caring activities designed to benefit the next generation. A child encourages men to reevaluate their priorities in life, their values and the type of father they wish to be. Fathers who become more generative may choose to become less self-absorbed and more focused on the welfare of the children (Knoester & Eggebeen). The role occupancy perspectives include number of roles (role accumulation), types of roles (role status), and combinations of roles (role combination) one occupies. This perspective also asserts that the effect of fatherhood for men’s lives are more likely to depend on the extent to which men occupy fathering roles as opposed to simply the role status of being a father.

Developmental psychologists have long recognized that parental involvement with children varies by a child’s age, gender as well as by the parent’s life course stage. Among the most consistent findings in the literature is the lower level of paternal involvement in absolute terms with older children (Barnett). Researchers also reveal how much time parents spend with daughters (Lamb et al). It is also important to see the age of the fathers as it differ in case of younger fathers in their energy, levels, health status, life styles, occupation and education (Tinsley and Parke). The education of parents often is used as an indicator of the quality of time children spend with their parents. It has been hypothesized that better educated parents are more concerned with their children’s academic development; consequently they spend more time with their children especially in achievement related activities. Better educated fathers also seen to be more involved because they are knowledgeable, about children’s developmental need for paternal involvement (Blair).

The study did by Heard, on the role of both fathers and mothers on the school engagement of adolescents, show more grades and attendance in the school and colleges. In the review the author has also made brought out many earlier researches like Bianchi, who talked about father’s and mother’s roles in parenting as father’s time with children has increased over the past several years, but mothers are still more directly involved than fathers in basic child care duties. In terms of the time spent by fathers in school related activities, teaching, achievement activities and other social activities are less than mothers. Father involvement does benefit children’s educational outcomes, although it is not as
influential as mother’s involvement (Flouri & Buchanan). The father’s involvement was found to be more indirect and as supporter of the mother, as well as playmate, and provider, resulting in mothers investing more time in personal care and in managing children’s lives whereas fathers role being expected to prioritize play, interaction and economic contributions (yeung).

Knoester has studied about the role of parents in deciding the friend network in the adolescents. The major roles he talks about are in terms of parental supervision, monitoring and the more time spent with the teenager. The author also points out the indirect roles of parental influence by modeling the desirable behaviors, disapproving delinquencies, and embracing the conventional values. One of the parents’ key roles in parenting is monitoring. The parental monitoring has been looked at by the earlier researchers as something which impacts on the lowering the norm breaking in adolescents. But the study by Stattin and Kerr on parental monitoring reports that ‘monitoring’ is not what the term implies as a parental activity. It is more a child’s activity. Because the adolescent spends so much of their free time in places where parents are not present that parents cannot control their children’s behavior directly. They have challenged the common assumption of what parental monitoring is. It reveals that parent’s direct control over children’s behavior is not as important as the youngsters’ own voluntary disclosure of information about their lives. Thus their study takes to a bidirectional model of parent child interactions.

Fatherhood carries a culturally prescribed behavioral requirements and some consensus regarding role expectations for fathers. After having a child, men are expected to establish paternity, provide emotional and physical care for their children. Offer financial support; men are expected to be engaged, accessible and responsible fathers. More generally fathers are expected to be good role models for their children not only in their parenting behaviors, but also through their activities (Pleck). Fulfilling these role expectations may lead to increase father’s feelings of wellbeing, but being unable to fulfill parenting responsibilities may have the opposite effect. The review made by reports that more positive attitudes about fathering may be positively associated with the extent to which fathers embrace the roles and responsibilities of parenting. So the socio psychological commitments to fathering are likely to influence both parenting behaviors and the consequences of
fatherhood foe men’s wellbeing and social participation (Fox\textsuperscript{321}). Since the late 1800’s fatherhood has been of interest to some psychologists and it has been the focus of considerable research, theory and speculation since the late 1860’s. The role of father changed from the moral teacher or guide or the bread winner to a sex role model or a new nurturing father. Fathers also are involved in helping the mothers in their role, and household activities. The paternal involvement, engagement and his responsibility and paternal influences on child development are also the focus of research (Strier&Strier\textsuperscript{322}).

Jodl\textsuperscript{323} in her study with a sample of 1498 families of adolescents which included both parents and adolescents on the parents’ role in the adolescent’s occupational aspirations describe that the parents are the role models, sources of reinforcement and providers of information resources and opportunities for their adolescents. The result shows that the role of parents during adolescence is more like an interpreter of reality for the children. The father’s behavioral investments aimed at developing their child’s athletic abilities were found to partially mediate the link between parent’ and youths ‘values and beliefs about sports. The reason is being the father providing instrumental support. Fathers socialize the adolescent’s achievement related values and beliefs and vocational goals beyond the realm of academics. The results also highlights processes by which parents might shape their children’s career-aspirations.

Ginsberg\textsuperscript{324} reports that Fathers are important in the lives of their adolescent sons, whether they are actively involved with them, distant, or absent. The meaning of father in a man’s life profoundly affects how he views himself as a person, how he relates to others, how he finds intimacy, and how he achieves satisfaction from his personhood as a man. Too often men would relate stories of how it was only when their fathers were close to death that they were able to resolve the issues that had been left unexpressed. Adolescence is a time which provides a dramatic opportunity for fathers and sons to get closer, learn more about each other, and establish a positive intimate relationship which can be meaningful for the rest of their lives. A man’s closeness with his son solidifies that sense of his being. Only recently have we acknowledged the importance of fathers in the lives of their children, and made attempts to understand the value of that role. Even now the emphasis seems to be more on the effect of father absence, psychological or physical, rather than father’s presence in the
family. It is interesting how the role of father and the father’s involvement with his children seem to have changed dramatically in recent years.

Fathers are important to their children’s gender differentiation and intellectual development. Regardless of the child’s gender, however, positive involvement by fathers is associated with increased intellectual competence in children (Clarke-Stewart\textsuperscript{325}). In addition, fathers who express warmth, closeness and involvement tend to have competent and achievement oriented children. In summary, although fathers differ from mothers in their caretaking roles and in how they are perceived by their children, the emotional and physical involvement of fathers a parents can have a positive impact on their children’s development (Kiselica et al\textsuperscript{326}).

**PARENTING AS A SKILL**

Being a parent does not suddenly occur at the point of birth: it involves a complex set of skills that have to be learned and practiced over time. The relationship between parents and their teen age children has been one where clashed and differences in opinion are commonplace since time is immemorial. The generation gap makes it difficult for both sides to appreciate each other’s’ point of view. Parents report that freedom and friends are the main issue of discussion between parents and teenagers. Dewan\textsuperscript{327} points out that the familiar ego clashes and the verbal skirmishes will continue to spice up a parent and teenager relationship generation after generation. But perhaps, if a little window of communication were opened in that dark room of egos, the light of understanding would strengthen one of the most beautiful and caring relationships in the world.

The term “parent training” is extensively used in the literature but it is unfortunate that it potentially conjures up an image of a way of working which is one-way, mechanistic and prescriptive. A more accurate picture is one that is concerned with collaboration, partnership, assessing individual need and valuing therapeutically parental strengths and experiences. On the positive side, the term accurately depicts the educational aspects of parenting. Being a parent does not come naturally or “out of thin air!” it involves a complex set of skills and like any other new skills, they need to be learnt and practiced. Such a view challenged social myths and stereotypes which emphasised parental
independence and privacy linked to an image whereby parents (particularly mothers) instinctively know, without outside interference, how to deal with such behaviors as non-compliance and temper tantrums (Gill328)

Parent training program according to Kaminiski329 is an intervention in which parents actively acquire parenting skills and may or may not have included other educational methods. Programs with the sole internet of providing parents with information (e.g. parent education programs, parenting newsletter) that presumes to change parents’ behavior. Many, if not most, parent training programs also employ didactic or passive educational strategies, in addition to skills training. Thus programs containing any active skills training components can be included. The decision to focus on programs containing an active acquisition component was based on decades of research which showed that active learning approaches are superior to passive approaches (Joyce and Showers330, Salas and Cannon-Bowers331, Swanson and Hoskyn332).

HISTORY OF PARENT EDUCATION

The late 1960’s saw a shift in addressing children’s problematic behaviors from child therapy, adolescent institutionalization, or juvenile adjudication focused exclusively on changing the child’s undesirable behaviors to interventions focused on changing parents’ behavior. This shift resulted from (a) the realization that parents, not just highly trained therapists, could act as agents of children’s behavior change; and (b) the growing understanding of how parents contribute to their children’s desirable and undesirable behaviors (e.g.Bandura333). Parenting programs have since proliferated, with different programs emphasizing different content (e.g. Knowledge of typical child development, parenting self-efficacy, communication skills, discipline or behavior management strategies), delivery setting (e.g. clinic-based therapy, community- based group sessions, individual home visits), delivery techniques used to engage parents and teach relevant content (e.g. group discussions, homework assignments, role playing), and types of families served (e.g. Children with identified behavior problems, low-income adolescent parents, primiparous mothers) while still being considered parent training programs. Formal education for home and family life began to evolve around the provision of food, shelter and clothing. These historically had been in the women’s realm, and typically
women had been socialized to attend first to the well-being of others, particularly children (Thompson\textsuperscript{334}). In the late 1700’s, Benjamin Thompson, an internationally renowned physicist, had called for application of science to problems experienced by families in their homes (Quigley\textsuperscript{335}). Before 1800 there had been exchanges of information on child care between female leaders in Europe and the United States (Brim\textsuperscript{336}). As early as 1815, informal groups of parents met in Portland, Maine, to discuss methods of child rearing, especially mother study groups, called “maternal association” (Sunley\textsuperscript{337}). Mother’s magazines, founded in 1832 and mothers’ Assistant, printed in 1841, were among the first known periodicals dealing with family life (Arcus\textsuperscript{338}).

Over the years, the objectives of parent training programs have also extended well beyond the original intent of ameliorating identified child behavior problems. Other intended outcomes of parent training programs have included children’s cognitive development (Cicchetti et al\textsuperscript{339}), anxiety (Barrett et al\textsuperscript{340}) and physical health (Reifsnider\textsuperscript{341}). In addition, parenting programs are widely used by child welfare services for improving parenting practices among families at risk for child maltreatment, with over 80,000 families referred to parenting programs each year (Barth et al\textsuperscript{342}). Not surprisingly, a number of meta-analyses have been published on parent training programs, including studies focusing exclusively on the effects of one or two specific programs (Thomas and zimmer-Gembeck\textsuperscript{343}), the effects associated with a specific delivery setting (Sweet and Appelbaum\textsuperscript{344}), and the effects associated with programs using different theoretical orientation or approaches, such as behavioral parent training (e.g. Lundahl et al\textsuperscript{345,346}, Maughan et al\textsuperscript{347}). Three meta-analyses have also attempted to tease apart important elements of parent training programs by examining moderators of effect sizes, such as the characteristics of participating families (Lundahl et al\textsuperscript{345,346} Reyno and McGrath\textsuperscript{348}). It is now generally accepted that parent training approaches can be effective. However, none of these meta-analyses examined specific program component, such as differences in content or delivery methods.

Initial adolescent parenting programs focused almost exclusively on the important challenge of helping teenage mothers (Kiselica\textsuperscript{349} Kiselica & Sturmer\textsuperscript{350} U.S. Congress\textsuperscript{351}). Consequently, little effort was made to address the needs of teenage fathers, until several
pioneering writers (Hendricks\textsuperscript{352}) raised awareness among service providers regarding teenage parenthood from the father’s perspective.

Parenting education has a high profile, it includes a wide range of activities, which focus on education, training skills and the development of self-awareness, and is carried out by statutory and voluntary agencies in a variety of settings. The use of groups to train and educate parents began in the 1970’s, predominantly in the USA, and has grown in the UK in the last decade (Pugh et al\textsuperscript{353}).

The evidence of their success is generally positive, with the provision that most systematic evidence relates to problem-solving programmes, (Grimshaw and Mc Guire\textsuperscript{354}, smith\textsuperscript{355}) advices that parenting programmes must be seen in the context of the relationship between couples and external stresses, but suggests that they can work in changing parents’ behavior and increasing their range of skills as well as reducing the proportion of negative parenting. A review of Barlow and Stewart Brown\textsuperscript{356} showed that parenting programmes are effective in improving emotional and behavioral problems in young children especially where the programme include behavioral component.

Learning of new skills empowered both parents and children to take more control of their environment also such programmes which take into account the broader ecological context can increase self-sufficiency (Sanders et al\textsuperscript{357}).

In the light of plans recommended in Every Child Matters (Dept of Education and Skills\textsuperscript{358}) and the 2004 Children Act for social support for families to be based in school.

**SUPPORT FOR PARENTS OF ADOLESCENTS**

Support for parents of adolescents has received much less attention than for parents of younger children, yet this is an issue of considerable importance to most societies. Many of the services that currently exist for adolescents are therapeutic in nature and occur after the child is in trouble. Patterson et al\textsuperscript{359} at the Oregon social learning Centre have undertaken some of the best evaluated parenting programmes with parents of children of a variety of ages. However their success rates for children under the age of 10 years are much higher (75%) as compared with only 25% with adolescents.
A number of programmes have versions for the parents of adolescents. The version of Triple P programme for parents of teenagers is being found to be successful. The Family Caring Trust has a programme designed for the parents of teenagers: it is a flexible self-help programme run by a range of community organizations including schools and churches. Parent Network courses are for children of all ages. They provide opportunities for parents to talk to each other about the problems they are experiencing. Parent Time (Cohen and Irwin\textsuperscript{360}) is a programme for parents of adolescents who are not experiencing serious difficulties. Results showed that it gives parents and enhanced capacity to listen, to set limits and to confide on other parents. Parents who care (Hawkins & Catalano\textsuperscript{361}) is a book and video presentation with instructions and exercises for parents and families with a guidance on how to involve adolescents in family decision making. Growing up fast (Gavacci\textsuperscript{362}) was designed to help the whole family to recognize their strengths and set appropriate goals for agencies have telephone helpline for parents as ‘parent line’ most of these programmes are effectively used, but there is not evidence that these services reach those parents who b virtue of the range and severity of their problems, are in the most urgent need for help (Hoghugh\textsuperscript{363}).

**PARENT TRAINING METHODS**

Gill\textsuperscript{364} in his review on the various parenting training literature clarifies certain things which are important in the parent training programmes. The various parent training methods used are the following.

1. **TRIADIC MODEL**

The “Triadic model” is characterized by the therapist (“consultant”) and the parent(s) or carer (s) (“mediators”) working together to conduct as assessment and intervention programme within the child’s natural home environment. More often than not, the therapist will be working through the parents to bring about a change in the way they handle and respond to the “target” child. Parents then act as “change agents” who are equipped with necessary skills to improve their child’s behavior working within the child’s home setting where the behavior problems normally occur and are maintained, avoids some of the
possible problems associated with working in a “false” clinic setting where the behavior might present very differently.

2. INDIVIDUAL PROGRAMMES

The most influential parent training programme was developed by Patterson, Reid and colleagues at the Oregon Social Learning Centre (Patterson\textsuperscript{359}). Originally their parent training programme was designed for parents of pre-adolescent children (3-12) and comprised of the following elements. Taught step by step child management skills whereby each newly learned skills forms the basis for the next. The five core components:

1. Pinpointing and recording problematic child behaviors at home.
2. Using positive reinforcement techniques such as praise and points systems.
3. Applying discipline methods such as removal of privileges and time out.
4. Supervising and monitoring child behavior.
5. Negotiating and problem-solving strategies and designing individual programmes.

The above programme typically involved 20 hours of direct contact with individual families and would include home visits to encourage generalization. More recently the programme has been modified to address delinquent adolescent problem which include greater emphasis on teenager involvement, selecting target behavior which place the adolescence at risk of offending and using such punishment techniques as chores and restrictions of free time. Results have been extremely encouraging (Webster – Stratton\textsuperscript{365}).

3. GROUP WORK PROGRAMMES

Webster – Stratton\textsuperscript{366,367} developed and thoroughly evaluated a further programme for parents of younger children (3-8 year olds) that has been extensively used in a group work context, later included the parents of adolescent too. The group work programme is underpinned by the following research based principles.

\textit{Success} i.e. parents who have constantly experienced failure need to be experience early success to act as a springboard for continuation and developing new skills.
Successive Approximations i.e. explaining and modeling of skills to enable parents over time gradually demonstrate acquisition.

Sequencing i.e. child management skills are deliberately ordered and linked; each skill is achieved as a prerequisite to the next; simpler skills are taught first and then built on with more complex tasks, drawing upon previous learning and analysis.

Multiple examples i.e. provision of diverse and numerous practical examples to bring alive what is intended and to make the content applicable to each other.

Practice i.e. emphasis on the need to practice skills both within the sessions but more importantly in real life situations with their own children.

Feedback i.e. clear and precise feedback which accentuates the positive.

Mastery Criteria i.e. parents demonstrate a skill which is measured against a set criteria.

Review i.e. reflection and review of main learning points to reinforce continuity and linkage to develop wider understanding / application.

The structure of each session reflects the above principles and methods and follows a common learning process: reviewing practice records (homework), discussing previous weeks experience, defining and explaining new skills, using examples and rationales, demonstrating new skills, role-playing exercises with parents, providing feedback, completing mastery check, and assigning practice. There are 8 sessions and each meeting covers one skill area: 1. Praise and Attention, 2. Rewards and Privileges, 3. Suggestive Praise, 4. Extinction, 5. Removing Rewards and Privileges, 6. Time – out, 7. Physical Punishment, 8. Special Problems and Maintaining Change.

4. FAMILY INTERVENTION

In certain multi- distressed families a wider analysis than parent training might be justified if there is evidence to suggest that environmental influences outside of the parent-child relationship are maintaining child behavior problems. Dependent on need, intervention might be short term involving for instance, just parent training or longer term and require joint work with the child. Rather than just utilizing parent training methods, the whole
family is seen as resource for achieving change. Strengths can be built upon and deficits worked with. The emphasis is on patterns of communication and interaction and how these might be acting as barriers of problem solving.

5. MASS MEDIA MODE

Mass media was used for anonymous audiences through books, pamphlets, magazines, newspapers radio, and television. Reading is found to be the preferred method by parents for learning child rearing. (Brock\textsuperscript{368}).

COMPARISON OF METHODS

The component analysis suggests that parent training methods built on videotape modeling plus parent group discussion and support would produce more sustainable results than programmes that do not employ either of these methods (Webster – Stratton\textsuperscript{369}).

Therapeutic Process and Parent Training

There are essential therapeutic elements requirement to achieve optimum results and what needs to go on process-wise between therapist and parent. It is important to establish a relationship based on warmth, empathy, support, encouragement and humor (Sanders and Dadds\textsuperscript{370}), giving constructive feedback, acceptability (to parents) of advice and support offered by clinicians. Webster – Stratton’s (Webster – Stratton\textsuperscript{369}) research looking at over 100 hours of video which recorded parent group discussion and interaction concluded that a significant factor in the therapeutic process was collaboration and partnership. For the parent there were five recurring themes linked to helping them cope more effectively: promoting parents’ problem-solving, helping parents “cope to terms” with their child, gaining empathy for their child, parents accepting their own imperfections, and learning how to refuel. Such results concurred with findings that emphasised the importance of valuing parental skills due to the primary educational function and working together, non-judgmentally, to look at child behaviour problems. This helps parents feel better about themselves and more confident in their own skills.

Webster – Stratton (Webster – Stratton and Herbert\textsuperscript{367}) broke the therapist roles down further into sub-elements:
Building a Supportive Relationship

- Self-disclosure to create rapport and common understanding
- Using humour to reduce anxiety, anger and cynicism (break the ice)
- Being optimistic to model positive expectation for change
- Acting as an advocate for parents with other agencies

Empowering Parents

- Reinforcing and validating parental insights
- Challenging powerless thoughts
- Encouraging self-empowerment to highlight parental strengths
- Promoting family and group support systems to reduce isolation and increase mutual sharing

Teaching

- Persuading by explaining clearly the connections between ideas and principles
- Adapting concepts and skills to the individual circumstances of each parent and the temperamental attributes of the child
- Giving assignments and tasks which enable skills to be further practiced and transferred to the home setting
- Reviewing and summarising main learning points and agreed tasks to reduce confusion
- Teaching parents to apply skills and experience, not only to target behaviour, but wider situations, settings and behaviour (encouraging generalisation)
- Using videotape examples and other props to get main ideas across (must be meaningful and real to each parent)
- Evaluating each session to measure progress and satisfaction

Interpreting

- Using analogies and metaphors to practically explain theories and concepts (must be culturally relevant and sensitive)
• Reframing parental stories and explanations in order to reshape beliefs about the nature of the problems (cognitively restructuring)

**Leading and Challenging**

• Setting limits to provide a structure which facilitates group process
• Pacing the group in order that everyone understands each element prior to moving on
• Accepting and working collaboratively with parents to understand reasons for resistance.

**Prophesizing**

• Anticipating and predicting problems and setbacks to prevent disillusionment
• Predicting parental resistance to change or typing certain new strategies, to prevent feelings of inadequacy (accepting that some techniques are not acceptable or irrelevant to everyone)
• Predicting positive change and success if tasks and programme are fully completed (builds an agenda and set of expectations totally focused on change and moving forward)

Banas\(^{371}\) has described about 5 parenting skills for fathers as Patience, Sense of humor, Consistency, Real skills out of a book and Love and affection. Davis\(^{372}\) has given ten tips for parents of adolescents for having a better parent teenager relationship. They are the following 1. Give teens some leeway, 2. Choose your battle wisely 3. Invite teenager’s friends for dinner, 4. Decide rules and discipline in advances, 5. Discuss ‘checking in’ 6. Talk to teens about risks, 7. Give teens a game plan, 8. Keep the door open. 9. Let teens feel guilty when teens have done something wrong, 10. Be a role model.

Some of the parenting skills described by OSDW\(^{373}\) are: 1) **Patience.** Perhaps the greatest parenting skill of all. Patience is essential to parenting. This requires great patience as they go through the trial and error process of learning. 2) **Anger Management.** Just as patience is important in raising a child, so knows how to manage your anger. Children can be frustrating. They like to test the boundaries and they tend to make parents angry in the process. One has to know how to control one’s anger and discipline with love. 3) **Communication.** Communication skills are an essential part of life so one has to set a good role model. One also has to understand how to communicate with their child at each
stage of their development so can parent them the best way possible. 4). **Humor.** Above all else parenting required humor. Sometimes children can create the funniest situations. Every parent has experienced a moment when they know they should be punishing their child but it is just too funny not to laugh. Humor is something important that you can pass on to your children. 5). **Health Care.** Yes, as apparent you play the part of doctor. You have to know when to call the actual doctor and when you can handle something on your own. You also have to know how to handle minor problems with first aid and general health care basics. 6). **Teaching.** As mentioned you are your child’s life teacher. Parent has to know how to teach them to do almost everything. 7). **Management skills.** Parent has to know how to manage time, money and life in general. Without good management skills we are sure to have chaos, especially if one has more than one child (OSDW).

Kaminski on her meta analytic review of 18 parent training programme has come out with result showing that there has been 18 components repeated in many of the parent programmes she has reviewed. They were: child development knowledge and care, positive interactions with child, responsiveness, sensitivity and nurturing, emotional communication, disciplinary communication, positive reinforcement, time out, problem solving, consistent responding, promoting children’s social skills, promoting children’s cognitive/academic skills, curriculum or manual, modeling homework, role play, practice with own child, separate child instruction and ancillary services. The other results show that the more active and involved the parents were in the discussion and in the program, the more skills they have acquired and the changes found in their interaction with the children and teenagers. The program components given above are in the order of program effects on the parents in the parent training programmes. Parenting teenagers today can definitely be a challenge, but we believe that most kids still want to have a good relationship with their parents and want parents who are not afraid to set limits and provide guidance for them.

Rice et al in their attempt to bring out a book on parenting teenagers basically coming out with 101 of the most common questions they have received from parents who have attended their “Understanding Your Teenager” seminars and from parents who have sought help from their website (www.uyt.com), reports that the book gives tips to the parents on managing various issues related to teenagers. Interesting part of their attempt is on their
focus on the knowledge parents already have on parenting and tries to strengthen it. The work of Rice et al\textsuperscript{375} mostly is to prepare parents for potential problems.

Morford\textsuperscript{376} has reviewed the book *Pathways to Competence* by Landy\textsuperscript{377} which offers a comprehensive curriculum that allows a mental health professional to implement, from start to finish, a parenting education program designed to improve the parenting experience and developmental outcomes for children. A pathway to Competence is a fine curriculum that, will meet the needs of many basic parent training programs competently. The methodologies used are varied. The instruction includes didactic and participant interactive methods of presentation: teaching about child and parental role development; parent descriptions of their own children’s behavior and developmental stage ad their own parental behavior; participant engagement, as they fill out forms or use the structure of the exercises to discuss their child or themselves; and role play or parenting interventions. Parents are given the supportive environment and practice behaviors to learn about their own reactions and needs as well as their children’s. Unlike other inexpensive parenting programs, it introduces the concept of attributions, that is, the idea that what we think about things determines how we feel and behave. By helping parents to understand the negative thoughts or attributions they may have about their child or their own abilities, parents can gain a tremendous sense of control and flexibility in responses that they can then also teach to their children. It addresses expectations and negative thoughts that parents may unknowingly hold about their children that interfere with effective parenting. The text’s role-playing sections on reframing a child’s negative statements (you like her more than me!), reflective listening, and transforming “should” statements into “will try” are particularly helpful and will go far to prevent the negative communication patterns that becomes fixtures of some families. The interactive exercises in the sections on self-esteem and emotional regulation are nicely illustrated.

Turner\textsuperscript{378} and team tested out the indigenous parenting programme which was culturally more appropriate as they found that mainstream parenting programmes tailored to the needs of indigenous parents. The authors suggest that for parenting programmes to be successful across cultures, they need to be sensitive to the broader cultural context in which parenting takes place. The aim of the project was to assess the impact and cultural
appropriateness of a group-based parenting programme tailored for Indigenous families. The programme was an adaptation of the evidence-based Group Triple-P- Positive Parenting Program, a preventively oriented, early intervention programme incorporating consultation, print and video materials that aim to promote positive, caring relationships between parents and their children, and to help parents develop effective management strategies for dealing with a variety of common behavior problems and developmental issues. (i)The target child was preadolescent (between 11 to 13 years of age), and (ii) developmental disorder (e.g. autism); and (iii) current medication or contact with another professional for behavioral problems. While programme content was seen as appropriate, changes were made to the language and images used in programme resources, and the examples used to depict parenting strategies (e.g. a culturally tailored video and workbook and presentation aids were developed). The structure of group sessions was altered to allow more time to discuss the social and political context for parenting, develop trust, slow the pace of presentation and share personal stories.

The version of Group Triple P for Indigenous families is an *-session programme, ideally is conducted in groups of 10-12 parents. It uses an active skills training process to help parents acquire new knowledge and skills. The programme includes: one group session for the purpose of providing an overview of the programme and establishing rapport within the group (1.5-2 h); four group sessions of parent training (2-2.5 h each); two home –based consultations (30-40 min); and a final group session. This integrated home-group format offers parents two complementary learning experiences, where participants have control over the information they choose to share with the group, and the issues they reserve for individual sessions. The parent-training component involves discussing with participants 17 core child management strategies designed to help parents promote children’s competence and development ( e.g. praise, engaging activities, incidental teaching) and manage misbehavior ( e.g. setting rules, giving clear instructions, consequences, quiet-time). In addition, participants are introduced to a ‘planned activities routine’ to enhance the generalization and maintenance of parenting skills. Active training methods such as modeling, rehearsal, practice, feedback and goal setting are used to teach specific parenting skills throughout the programme, the home visits consist of support for parents in their implementation of the positive parenting strategies through practice and further refinement.
of parents’ ability to self-evaluate to solve future parenting issues independently. A final group session involves sharing of what has been gained through the programme, setting future goals and planning for these goals, and provides an opportunity for participants to celebrate their completion of the programme.

The results showed that indigenous parents attending Group Triple P reported significant decrease in rates of problem child behavior. The programme resulted in high rates of consumer satisfaction. Partially confirmed as parents receiving the intervention reported a significant decrease in reliance on some dysfunctional parenting practices. Suggestions for change primarily pointed to improving engagement and allowing more time in group sessions. Finally, intervention gains found at post-test were primarily maintained at 6-month. There were no significant decreases in intervention gains from post-intervention to follow-up.

Sanders\textsuperscript{379} have reported that the Triple P- Positive Parenting Programme is a multi-level parenting and family support strategy developed by Sanders and his colleagues. One of the programs aims is to prevent severe behavioral, emotional and developmental problems in children by enhancing the knowledge, skills and confidence of parents. It incorporates universal, selective and indicated interventions, organized across five levels, on a tiered continuum of increasing strength for parents of children from birth to age 12 years. Recently the programme has been extended to provide the same levels of information and support for parents of teenagers aged 12-16 years.

LEVEL 1 is a universal parent information strategy, provides all interested parents with access to useful information about parenting, through a coordinate promotional campaign using print and electronic media, as well as user friendly parenting tip sheets and video tapes which demonstrate specific parenting strategies. This level of intervention aims to increase community awareness of parenting resources, receptivity of parents to participating in programmes and to create a sense of optimism by depicting solutions to common behavioral and developmental concerns.
LEVEL 2 is a brief, one or two session, primary health care, selective intervention providing anticipatory developmental guidance to parents of children with mild behavior difficulties.

LEVEL 3 is a four sessions, more intensive selective intervention, targets children with mild to moderate behavior difficulties and includes active skills training for parents.

LEVEL 4 is an indicated intensive eight to ten sessions, individual or group training programme, for parents of children with more severe behavioral difficulties.

LEVEL 5 is an enhanced behavioral family intervention programme, for families where parenting difficulties are complicated by other sources of family distress (such as marital conflict, parental depression, high levels of stress or teenage relationship problems).

The different levels of the model are all supported by resources that include 14 professionally produced video tapes depicting common problems and solutions for a range of children’s ages and issues, parent workbooks for use in face to face group or self-directed intervention modes; wall charts summarizing key parenting principles; and practitioner kits and manuals to facilitate the delivery of the various levels of the programme.

The programmes for parents of teenagers known as Teen Triple P, mirror those for parents of younger children, but with a stronger emphasis on the importance of parents acknowledging and encouraging the growing autonomy and independence of teenagers relative to younger children. Recognition also given to the likelihood of teenagers engaging in risky behavior that may put their current or future health, education and general well-being in jeopardy, and providing parents with ways of assisting their teenagers to negotiate and manage these challenges effectively.

The major components in parenting teenagers, discussed by Daviz in his book on 20 questions and answers about parenting the teenagers are in terms of trust, tact and diplomacy, listening, empathy and understanding, the knowledge about when, how, and what to intervene, teaching, handling money, reinforcement, setting limits, enhancing self-
esteem, giving privileges and responsibilities, selecting friends, using potentials of the tee, helping in positive thinking, explanations and making close relationships with teenager.

This type of activity in a parenting education group (not therapy group) must be approached with great caution and only with an experienced professional present who can manage and redirect the missteps that sometimes naïve groups can make when examining personal issues. One risks losing the positive aspects of the curriculum (building on the parent’s strengths and successes) and plunging a parent into the negativity of past experiences the individual may believe they cannot escape from. There are parent training programs that are successful at this, but they focus on positive training techniques to build parenting confidence (Hembree-Kigin & McNeil381).

Ahmann382 talks about Positive parenting program which is built on respect for children and helps develop self-esteem, inner discipline, self-confidence, responsibility and resourcefulness. Positive parenting is also good for parents: parents feel good about parenting well. It builds a sense of dignity. Positive parenting can be distinguished common behaviour in a stage of development from “problems”. Central to positive parenting is developing thoughtful approaches to child guidance that can be used in place of anger, manipulation, punishment, and rewards. Support for developing creative and loving approaches to meet special parenting challenges, such as temperament disabilities, separation and loss and adoption is sometimes necessary as well.

The Mindful Parenting Program (Placone-Willey383) was proposed as a method to integrate mindfulness training into a parent-focused intervention. Specific goals are to enhance and sustain connectedness between parent and child by facilitating parents’ self-awareness, mindfulness, and intentionally in parenting. The MPP assists parents with identifying interactions that lead to disconnectedness with their children (e.g. criticizing, projecting anger, humiliating, emotionally withdrawing) and replacing those interactions with intentional connectedness-focused interactions (e.g. listening, displaying affection, responding calmly, modeling self-soothing behaviors). Parents become familiar with mindfulness practices, including breathing, body awareness, centering and medication. As parents become more mindful, they child and learn to be more intentional in their parenting to choose ways that enhance and sustain a positive emotional connections. This
intervention appears to match the needs of the populations of divorcing parents with young children in that it would improve parents’ connectedness with their children at a time when the parental bond was stressed.

Meyers describes a model for those interested in parent training by: (a) presenting a theoretical framework to organize the factors that affect parenting skills in a way that is helpful for family therapists; (b) describing a study that investigated how characteristics of parents, children, and the family context relate to mother’s parenting skills; and (c) providing family therapists with recommendations for broadening the focus of their parent training efforts. Ecological theory is one framework that can be used to predict parenting process and child outcome by analyzing the different settings within which children and their caregivers function (Bronfenbrenner). The model’s most basic unit of analysis is the microsystems, which refers to the immediate, perceived environment of the child (e.g. the child’s interactions at home or school). The next level of generalization is the mesosystem, which refers to relationships that emerge between the child’s major settings (e.g. how parent-child relationships influence the child’s behavior at school). Microsystems and mesosystems are embedded within exosystems, which are settings that the child is not directly a part of, yet influence his or her functioning (e.g. how parental work patterns affects the child’s emotional well-being). Finally, the macro system refers to the overarching economic, political, cultural and social forces that influence individuals. These four systems are nested and affect each other in a reciprocal and dynamic manner.

Ginsberg reported that the father-adolescent son relationship is often, at best, tense and conflictual, yet, their meaning to each is significant. PARD, a relationship enhancement therapy program, was created as a way to improve this important relationship. Fathers and their adolescent sons are brought together in small groups to learn communication and relationship skills. This ten-session program helps fathers and sons remain engaged, improve acknowledgment of their positive feelings towards each other, and feel better about them. The Parent-Adolescent Relationship Development program (PARD) was established as an approach that would bring adolescent and their parents together to learn more effective ways of relating to each other. The primary goal is to enable parent and child to become more open about their feelings and more accepting of each other and
themselves. Accepting and respectful behavior act helps to enhance mutual understanding. The primary goal is to enable parent and child to become more open about their feelings and more accepting of each other and themselves. Accepting and respectful behavior also act to enhance mutual understanding. The greater the acceptance, the more readily the individuals involved in a relationship is able to express their innermost feelings-positive and negative-regarding each other and themselves. As communication becomes more open and more often meets, with acceptance. Individuals in a relationship are less likely to express their feelings indirectly in destructive and antisocial ways. It is possible that, as the adolescents begin to form their own identity and make efforts to separate themselves from their parents, accepting parents can help them develop more positive feelings about themselves, facilitating the transition toward greater independence. At the same time, as parents become more accepting of, and accepted by, their adolescent children, they can more adequately fulfill and derive satisfaction from their parental role in the family. This is particularly acute in the father–adolescent son relationship.

The Parent-Adolescent Relationship Development program (PARD) is a structured, short-term intervention program based on the principles, skills and practices of relationship enhancement therapy. Relationship enhancement therapy emphasizes the importance of acknowledgement (of self and others) to development and relationships. Three basic skills are emphasized in this approach: speaking, listening, and relationship. These provide the essentials of relationship and communication: 1) expressing oneself in a constructive and interpersonally satisfying way; 2) acknowledging another which fosters relationship and intimacy; and 3) determining how one shift between these skills which dynamically helps establish the balance between intimacy and autonomy. Additional skills emphasized in this approach include generalization of these skills to everyday life, and maintenance of these skills over time. Complementary and related skills that have been developed are problem-conflict resolution skill, self-change skill, helping others change skill, and facilitative skill (teaching supervisory skill).
Webster-Stratton programmes have sessions which rely on demonstrating parent-child interactions through video vignettes. To increase the possibility of empathy and rapport the models come from different class and cultural backgrounds and are placed in everyday situations. There are 10 videoed parenting skill areas which involve 250 vignettes that each last 1-2 minutes. Each vignette is shown by the therapists to a group of parents (8-12) for discussion of observed learning points which enables problem-solving and the use of role-play and rehearsal. Deliberately good and bad examples of parenting skills are used in order to accurately reflect parental experience. Demonstrate the learning process and not reinforce an image of the perfect parent which could create feelings of inadequacy (Webster-Stratton). The same videoed programme has also videoed programme has also been given to 80 parents to self-administer without therapist feedback or group support. Results indicate a significant impact on parenting behavior. Hence the possibilities of low cost mass dissemination and its preventative value are huge (Webster-Stratton).

More recently the above programme has been developed to cover family issues as an adjunct to child behavior management skills. The ADVANCE initiative includes: anger management, coping with depression, marital communication, problem solving strategies and how to teach children to problem-solve and manage their anger more effectively. In both the programmes the children do not attend the group sessions but parents are given homework to practice with their children (Webster-Stratton). A study at the University of Washington parenting clinic showed that those parents who just attended the BASIC and ADVANCE programme did significantly better than those who just attended the BASIC programme (Webster-Stratton and Herbert). Partner support training combined with advice on child management, positively impacted on outcomes for those experiencing marital difficulties.

**Nurturing for adolescents** (Bavlock and Bavlock) is the abusive parents referred by courts. But content is applicable for others too. This programme targets on inappropriate parental expectations, reducing high use of physical punishment, Empathic awareness to teenager’s needs, and Reversal of parent child/adolescent roles.
Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP) by Dinkmeyer and McKey\textsuperscript{387}: This programme help parents to handle adolescent behaviour, examine the goal of child/adolescent behavior and helping parents to change their behavior. Popkin\textsuperscript{388} developed a video format for training parents of adolescents, which was known as Active Parenting Video format. This format used more metaphors and stories. They analyzed parent child/teenager dynamics. The parenting skills were modeled and motivated parents for change. The other skills trained include empathy skills and family enrichment. Parent child relationship enhancement (Coufal and Brock\textsuperscript{389}) programme included play and games, aiming to bring change in interaction of parent and child. The sessions directly focus directly on behavior but with empathy warmth, and setting limits on acceptable behavior. Behavior modification program (Brock\textsuperscript{368}) is for Management of behavior through antecedent consequence. They emphasize on consistency, Parental behavioral expectation, Sensitivity to child’s adolescent’s needs and stages of development.

One of such parenting pioneer programmes which were popular was Oregon Social Learning Centre (Patterson\textsuperscript{390}). The methodologies used were reading, teaching text, and being tested on material, home visits, and takes 20 hours. The five core components were; Pinpointing and recording problematic child behaviors at home. Using positive reinforcement techniques such as praise and points systems. Applying discipline methods such as removal of privileges and time-out, Supervising and monitoring child behaviour, and Negotiating and problem-solving strategies and designing individual programmes. The same programmes have been modified for adolescents with greater emphasis on teenager involvement, selecting target behaviours which place the adolescent at risk of offending using such punishment techniques as chores and restriction of free time. Results have been extremely encouraging (Patterson\textsuperscript{359}, Webster-Stratton\textsuperscript{365}). The major components were 1. Praise and Attention, 2. Rewards and Privileges, 3. Suggestive Praise, 4. Extinction, 5. Removing and Privileges. 6. Time –out, 7. Physical Punishment and 8. Special Problems and Maintaining Change.

Parent Effectiveness Training (PET) by Gordon\textsuperscript{391}. The basic components in this training programmes were; problem ownership, flexibility, conflict resolution openness to negotiate and empathic communication. Parenting skills training (Guerney\textsuperscript{392}) was for foster
parents. The components included teaching about child development, Structuring the environment-anticipating difficulties and planning to circumvent, Learning to see problems from child/teenager’s point of view, how to provide safety of the teenager/child, and showing the child/teenager what is exactly expected from. **Parent adolescent relationship development** (Guerney 393) targeted at improving family communication, Problem solving, Responsibility building, Developing self-concept, Developing self-esteem, Communicating personal beliefs, and Parenting styles.

**LITERATURE IN INDIAN CONTEXT**

**Parenting practices in India**

Promotion of physical and psychological development of children is the ideal and implicit aim of child rearing practices in any culture. To provide optimal physical and psychological nurturing and stimulation to enable them achieve competencies and to prevent emergence of psychopathology are the cherished goals. However, the specifics of what needs to be promoted, how it is to be consciously and effectively achieved through child rearing practices remains unclear. Child rearing practices in the traditional societies in India have been handed down through generations, with each generation and each family introducing minor changes, which are appropriate to their current cultural contexts. Studies in child rearing practices in India have been drawn from two sources. One is based on theoretical speculations, on child rearing practices within the framework of ancient Indian through or folk practices and the other in the empirical studies carried out mostly using western theoretical models and tools of assessment.

**Traditional child rearing practices**

According to Krishnan 394, traditional child rearing practices in the Indian context are less varied than western approaches. However, there is no single theory about ideal parental attitudes to nurture the ideal child. The child is considered divine and goes through prescribed developmental stages. The major aspects of samskaras (rites), gunas (temperament) and ashrama dharma (developmental phases) are well described. The mother is the primary socializer while the father is viewed as a provider and disciplinarian.
Gender discrimination in favor of boys has been reported in a large number of texts, as the above aspects of child rearing apply mostly to boys.

Several pioneer workers have highlighted cultural perspectives. Khatri\textsuperscript{395} characterized a form of child rearing which emphasizes dependency and submission. According to Ramanujam\textsuperscript{396}, child rearing in India is characterized by adult considerations and values. Nandi \textsuperscript{397} dealt with the theme of absence of individuation and separation. The children rearing practices handed down from ancient times to the present day are highly protective that promote dependency. A premium is placed on conformity and obedience. However, the term dependency may well describe attachment that is a far more positive term.

Krishnan\textsuperscript{394}, a pioneer worker in the area of child rearing practices in India highlights the following points. She states that child rearing practices and socialization are often treated as synonyms. According to her, parenting practices in India has more similarities across subcultures than reported in the west. She has noted several components of in the child rearing practices including the parent child interactions and the home environment. The nature of interaction is complex, involving proximal and distal child rearing factors, mediating factors such a temperament, two way interaction between the child and the caregivers, and outcome in terms of physical and psychological development. The transaction is a two way process and a complex one.

According to a study by Kapur\textsuperscript{398}, the rural children had advantage in terms of bladder training, sleeping, bathing practices and discipline. Urban children had protective mothers with whom they had more verbal interaction. Temperamental traits of attention and persistence and adapting to new situations were better in urban children- indicating that urban rearing may modify temperamental traits to some extent.

**Family Environment of Adolescents**

Parenting by implication, aims at primary the best type of family climate for a congenial socialization of the child, as well as a health development of his personality and self. Every one’s personality is the creation of family. It is in the family that the child first experiences the meaning of love. The family provides a frame work within which the child may find
roots continuity and a sense of belonging parents serve as the first socializing agents. The parent child relationship significantly affects the makeup of child’s personality. Parenting is the ‘roleship’ of the institution of family, relates to upbringing of the child. (Sirohi\textsuperscript{399}).

The results of the study on adaptation and cohesion in families of adolescents with problem behaviour, conducted by Pinto\textsuperscript{400} to 125 boys and 148 girls in Bangalore, shows that, higher emotional bonding in the family would lead to more problems in adolescents. Similar findings were seen with regard family boundaries, which had inverse relationship with that of the adolescent problem behaviour coalition (each member doing things on their own) in the family lead to lesser problem behaviour in the adolescent. Avoiding others at home or members not being able to gather in the same room lead to higher problem behaviour. Approval of each other’s friends in the family too lead to lesser problem in the adolescent behaviour. Surprisingly Democratic decision making was found to have a direct relationship with adolescent behaviour. The more the family felt that they can do things as a family, and shared this interests and hobbies with each other, the lesser were the problem behaviour. On the adaptability dimension, higher the assertiveness and the higher the ability of the family members to negotiate during problems, the lesser are the problem behaviour. The role complementarily was also found to be associated with lesser problem behaviour.

Lewis\textsuperscript{401}, in her study on the parental aspiration on adolescents, conducted in Bangalore, reports that, parental aspirations on adolescents mostly moderate to high (91%). Majority of the parents reported that they wanted their children to do post-graduation, hold jobs and also to get high marks in class. Both father and mother have similar aspirations for the children and there was no difference in the aspirations they felt for male or female children. The study also revealed that there is no relation between parental aspiration and adolescent distress, suggesting that the high level of distress felt by the adolescents is not in any way related to parental aspiration.

**Role of the Parents**

The Associated Chambers of Commerce and Industry of India (ASSOCHASM\textsuperscript{402}) in their survey on the role of father and mother in parenting conducted in the major cities and
metros of India brought the results that fathers play a minimal role in child rearing. The survey, in which 4700 couples from cities across India were interviewed, showed that only 4% working fathers spend time with their children or take responsibilities like supervising home work. The remaining 96% etc professional pressures and other reasons to play a minimal role in the upbringing of their children. Of these, 7% fathers reported that they help only when their children ask for it while 65% do not help at all. The trend obviously means that more and more children are being sent to coaching centers. The study also revealed that 65% of working mothers help children in their homework, read with them and play with. The gender roles which have not changed at all in this survey which reports that, fathers take part in active physical sports with children and the fathers involvement in the child’s school and has a distinct, independent and positive influence on the child’s performance and more participation in extracurricular activities. The benefits of children, who have fathers involved in their upbringing, include better relationship in adolescence and less behavioral problems.

Chopra tried to examine the concept of father love to address the issue of differing figure of the nurturing father within the gendered discourse of child care. Through addressing issues of fathering and father care developed through visual media and child care practices. He attempts to reinscribe the father while simultaneously reflecting upon masculinity. He argues that it is through such re-inscription that phallocentric masculinity is challenged by an emergent alternative, and the relation between women and mothering is sought to be redrawn. He also shows that the shift is not one that seeks to reestablish “paternity” as a legalist right, but rather to claim an entitlement to parenting and in the process create a nurturing masculinity and retrieve the father.

Historical development parent education in India

The Hindu Scriptures have written about how to raise the children. Ramayana talks about the good qualities to be taught to the children such as brotherly love, value of promise, and love for parents. The medium used to impart parent education earlier in India was print media through balsevikas (Chandini). Several literatures are available on how to properly rear children and adolescents, to understand the child and to avoid punitiveness.
Parents were advised not to make a teenager dependent not to over protect and parents should be role model (Dutta). The safety of the child and health issues were more prominent during the 1950’s and 60’s (Social Welfare, 1967). Central Social Welfare Board established Creche program during 1970 for the construction workers for taking care of the children while their parents are working (Oberoi). Need for parent involvement, disciplining (Bhimsain, Dastur), techniques to discipline (Garewal), parents to be friendly with teenagers, and to give them responsibility (Shewak) were also emphasized. Literature also talked about gender discrimination in parenting that boys are favored more than girls (Bector and Katya). Helping adolescents in developing their personality by parents were focused in the ICDS programs (Sivakumar).

Soundar, a Paediatric counselor opines that there is as yet no perfect method of parenting everyone, professionals and lay persons alike, feel daunted when asked about it. Everyone has his/her version of what good parenting is. Step in to a bookstore and one finds shelves and shelves of books on parenting where authors have tried to make it easier for those parents. The most important lesson to learn is that we are not infallible and to learn from the mistakes. How does one know that one has done something wrong? Why did it not work when somebody did exactly what the expert has advised and finally, what does or rather what will work?. These are some of the queries parents carry on their interactions with their children especially teenagers. A major part of parenting is by instinct. Parents need to see their children unique, participating in their joys and pains. And if only parents can empathize with their children, they can realize what is right for the child. There are no universal rules. The parent child relationship should be one of participation and exchange parents also learn a lot from their children. Certain skills parents quickly will have to equip with like engaging and living life with children. Through these children will signal to parents they are going too fast or too slow. Too much delegation too early can lead to rebelliousness and too much continued management or oppression can lead to dullness or overt defiance. Ability is not judging the child by looking at their peers. These comparisons, not only hurt the child’s pride, but also lower their self-esteem. Allow the child to blossom within his / her personality.
PARENTAL SUPPORT

Chowdhury Aparajita & Munni, Anita Kumari in their study about their study about ‘Role of Parental Support in children need satisfaction and academic achievement’ found that need satisfied by parents was more than need satisfied by outside family members. With regard to academic it was found that from the academic marks of the children that the average ranging (40-60) students were getting more parental support.

ONLY CHILDREN

The students of Ganesh Shankar Vidyarthi Memorial (GSVM) 416 Medical College carried out a research survey and found that a single child faces more psychological and psychosocial problems as compared to those having siblings.

The GSVM students conducted the survey in 10 government and private schools of the city and covered 120 children with no siblings under their study.

Studying the traits of children under various age groups, they found that students under the age group of 17-19 years showed signs of psycho-social problems and psychological disorders like aggressiveness, loneliness and depression. "Single children face social behavioural problems because they do not grow up with their siblings. As they miss out daily interaction, they prefer to remain lonely. Therefore, these children are generally termed as spoilt and selfish kids," said Dr R P Singh, head, department of Paediatrics, GSVM Medical College.

As per the study, around 38% children, having no siblings, were found to be suffering from psycho-social problems, while 54% had psycho-somatic problems like depression.

"In such students of age group 17-19 years, aggressiveness, loneliness and depression are the most common problems. Due to less social interaction, these children face problems in expressing themselves and have an introvert nature. Ultimately, such children have a propensity to act against natural tendencies to fit socially. This leads to an uncomfortable situation for the child emotionally and psychologically," said Singh.
Though hundreds of research studies have shown that only children are no different from their peers, the question whether the single child syndrome is a myth or a reality continues to be debated world over.

It is generally assumed that parents lavish attention on their only child, which renders the child self-centered, highly dependent on parents and lacking discipline and inter-personal skills. Research however shows that 'onlies' become extremely independent and take on responsibilities very soon in life. They take on more than they can handle and rarely or never ask for help. Pleasing parents and devoting almost an entire lifetime trying to live up to expectations, is known to weigh them down heavily, but in most cases the expectations are usually theirs and not imposed.

The desire to succeed, mainly for self-fulfillment, is predominant in a single child. Studies also show that single children are rarely dreamy, like things straight forward, tend to get one thing done at a time and generally like their lives uncluttered—everything tied in neat parcels with no loose ends. A landmark 20-year study shows that an increased one-on-one parenting produces higher education levels and higher achievement motivation.

CHILDRREN WITH SIBLINGS

RESEARCH IN INDIA

The research on sibling relationships in India is not as well focused as it has been in the west. This area of family life has been greatly neglected by researchers (Ramu G.N\textsuperscript{418}).

Lewis\textsuperscript{419,420}, demonstrated that families came to be located on a continuum of family competence, a measure of how well the family functions both as a facilitator of the children’s developing autonomy and as an effective support system to the parents. He gave a typology of competent families which demonstrate high levels of both interpersonal closeness and individuality.

A sibling relationship can become more intense when parental care is emotionally unfulfilling or unavailable, the intensifed bond can either be helpful or harmful to the
children’s relationship, depending on the attitudes and behaviors of the parents and the personalities of the children (Bank & Kahn\textsuperscript{421}; Boer & Dunn\textsuperscript{422}).

Adolescence is characterized by need for marked boundaries increased control and dominance over each other among siblings, and demand for more positive parenting style, need for lesser intimacy and conflicts are frequent at the family level (Victor Cicirelli\textsuperscript{255}).

Siblings compete for resources within the family, and if resources (such as affection, time, and attention from parents, space or maternal goods) are scarce children watch closely to ensure that they are getting their fair share (Ihinger\textsuperscript{279}).

Siblings are much more spontaneous when we see them separately from older generation: they are more direct with each other, less competitive and “tuned in” to each other’s ways that are strikingly empathic (Bank\textsuperscript{263}).

As the size of the family increases the importance of sibling sub structure seems to increase (Bossard & Boll\textsuperscript{423}).
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