

# **Effects of Parenting Practices on Youth Behaviour in Pakistan: A Sociological Case Study of Lahore**



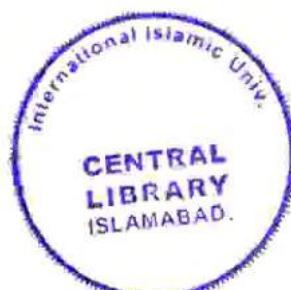
**By**

**Hassan Raza**

**17-FSS/PHDSOC/F14**

**DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY  
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES  
INTERNATIONAL ISLAMIC UNIVERSITY ISLAMABAD**

**2021**



Accession No. THA5161

phD  
306-8743  
HAE  
yL

# **Effects of Parenting Practices on Youth Behaviour in Pakistan: A Sociological Case Study of Lahore**



**Researcher**

**Hassan Raza**

**Reg. No. 17-FSS/PHDSOC/F14**

**SUPERVISOR**

**Prof. Dr. Saif-Ur-Rehman Saif Abbasi**

**DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY**  
**FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**  
**INTERNATIONAL ISLAMIC UNIVERSITY ISLAMABAD**

# **Effects of Parenting Practices on Youth Behaviour in Pakistan: A Sociological Case Study of Lahore**



By

**Hassan Raza**

**17-FSS/PHDSOC/F14**

**A dissertation  
For the partial fulfilment of the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy in Sociology**

**Submitted to  
Department of Sociology  
Faculty of Social Sciences  
International Islamic University,  
Islamabad 2021**

**INTERNATIONAL ISLAMIC UNIVERSIT ISLAMABAD**  
**FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**  
**DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY**

This is certified that the contents and formats of the thesis titled "*Effects of Parenting Practices on Youth Behaviour in Pakistan: A Sociological Case Study of Lahore*" Submitted by Mr. Hassan Raza Registration No. 17-FSS/PHDSOC/F14 in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the award of Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Sociology have been evaluated and approved by the examiners and viva-voce Committee after successful Public Defense.

**VIVA-VOCE COMMITTEE**

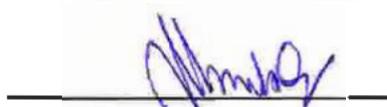
**Supervisor:**

**Prof.Dr.Saif ur Rehman Saif Abbasi**



**External Examiner-1:**

**Prof. Dr.Muhammad Iqbal Zafar**



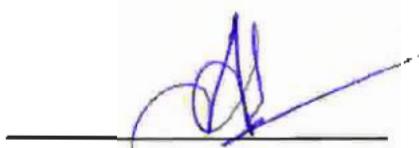
**External Examiner-2:**

**Dr. Aneela Sultana**



**Internal Examiner:**

**Dr. Muhammad Babar Akram**



**Dr. Muhammad Babar Akram**

**Chairman,**

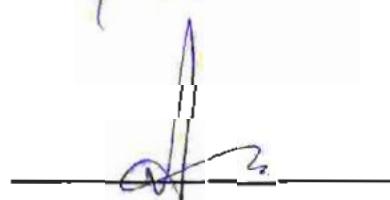
**Department of Sociology**



**Prof. Dr. Amna Mahmood**

**Dean,**

**Faculty of Social Science**

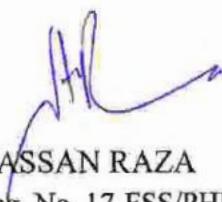


**Prof. Dr. Saif-Ur-Rehman Saif Abbasi,  
Department of Sociology,  
International Islamic University, Islamabad.**

**Subject: INCORPORATION OF THE RECOMMENDATIONS OF  
FOREIGN AND INTERNAL EVALUATORS IN PHD  
DISSERTATION OF MR. HASSAN RAZA TITLED "EFFECTS OF  
PARENTING PRACTICES ON YOUTH BEHAVIOUR IN  
PAKISTAN: A SOCIOLOGICAL CASE STUDY OF LAHORE."**

Sir,

The undersigned pertaining registration no. 17-FSS/PHDSOC/F14, Department of Sociology, International Islamic University, Islamabad, has completed his Ph.D. dissertation titled "Effects of Parenting Practices on Youth Behaviour in Pakistan: A Sociological Case Study of Lahore", under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Saif-Ur-Rehman Saif Abbasi, Department of Sociology, International Islamic University, Islamabad. It is hereby stated that, in compliance of the recommendations of the foreign and internal evaluators, the undersigned has incorporated all the recommendations in the abovementioned Ph.D. dissertation.



HASSAN RAZA  
Reg. No. 17-FSS/PHDSOC/F14  
Ph.D. Scholar (Sociology)  
Department of Sociology  
International Islamic University,  
Islamabad.

## FORWARDING SHEET

This thesis titled "Effects of Parenting Practices on Youth Behaviour in Pakistan: A Sociological Case Study of Lahore" submitted by Hassan Razain partial fulfilment of the requirement of Ph.D. degree in Sociology has been completed under my supervision. I am satisfied with the quality and originality of the research work. I allow the researcher to submit the dissertation to concerned authorities for further process as per ruled and regulations.

Date: 30/1/2020

Supervisor: 

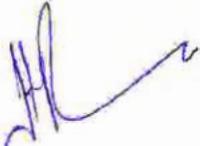
**Prof. Dr. Saif ur Rehman Saif Abbasi**

### STATEMENT OF UNDERSTANDING

I, Hassan Raza Reg. No. 17-FSS/PHDSOC/F14 , student of Ph.D. Sociology, Department of Sociology, International Islamic University, Islamabad hereby declare that the thesis entitled, ““Effects of Parenting Practices on Youth Behaviour in Pakistan: A Sociological Case Study of Lahore”, submitted in partial fulfilment for the requirement of Ph.D. degree is my original work, except where otherwise acknowledged in the text.

Date: 30 - 01 - 2020

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

  
HASSAN RAZA

## Acknowledgements

I am highly indebted to a number of people who helped me to bring this study into reality. I would like to extend profound gratitude to the following people, without their all out help, it would not have been easy to accomplish this research work. I am highly grateful to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Saif ur Rehman Saif Abbasi for his supervision, consistent guidance and advices through this period to accomplish this research. Without his special support, it would not have been possible for me to complete this research.

I would like to express my gratitude to Dr. Muhammad Babar Akram for the keen interest in the research in the development and completion of this project. I also wanted to acknowledge Dr. Qaisar Khalid Mehmood for his support and assistance which has been valuable to me. I would like to express the deepest love and affection of all my friends particularly Abu Bakar Amin, Shahid Qayyum, Zaheer Bugti, Tasleem Waseer, Ahsan Shah, and Malik Kamran for their well wishes and moral support.

I am grateful to Director (Colleges), Lahore Division, Lahore for providing me access to official records of the number of enrolled students in the public sector colleges. I am grateful to Higher Education Commission of Pakistan being a Ph.D. Indigenous Scholar under Indigenous Scholarship Programme for the financial support to conduct this research and Thematic Grant Research Programme for the support as well in the collection of data with excessive relatedness of the research area through a project awarded to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Saif Abbasi. I am also grateful to the parents who shared their stories during the qualitative phase of the research and students who had spared their time during class timings for filling the questionnaires in quantitative phase of research.

I would like to thank Deputy Director (Parole), Mr. Mian Shabbir for the enormous support throughout the project including all the faculty staff and officers of Probation & Parole Service especially Rawalpindi Divisional office especially Mr. Shahid Iqbal, Sadaqat Abbas, Arshad Mehmood, Zahoor and Basharat.

Thank you to my beloved mother, lovely brothers and dear sister for your unwavering support over the years and during this process. Your love and support made this work possible. Special love for my maternal grandparents for their unrelenting prayers. Last, and never least, I thank my wife for her support. I am indebted to all those from whose work I benefited directly or indirectly to complete this study. However, all the errors and omissions belong to me.

## Abstract

*Parenting refers to the behavioral practices of the parent figures to rear or socialize their children. However, parenting practices vary across the societies as western and eastern societies have entirely different kind of approach towards parenting. In Asian culture, parents who adhere to child rearing practices are relatively restrictive, controlling, and at the same time, protective for children as compared to the western culture. Contemporary sociological researches indicated parenting practices as a major contributor in the development of youth behavioural outcome, either positive or negative. Keeping in view the significance of parenting practices on the basis of underpinnings within the distinctive cultural vacuum, an in-depth scientific enquiry is needed to understand the nature of relationships between parenting practices and behavioural outcomes among youth in a Pakistani context. A cross-sectional mixed methods study was designed to conduct this research project. The researcher employed sequential exploratory research strategy within mixed methodological design. The study was conducted in Lahore; an educational hub, socio-economically diverse, and the second largest city of Pakistan. In qualitative phase, the respondents of the study were the parents to understand the kinds of approved parenting practices among parents, while for assessing the more reliable quantitative tool for the youth (students of public sector colleges) were the respondents of the study. The calculated sample size (By implying proportional random sampling technique) was 797 male students from boys colleges of Lahore, Pakistan. In order to address the non-response rate in the field, the researcher made 20% increase in the sample size. Therefore, the estimation with the increase of 20% sample size for the study was calculated as 956 students. The results indicated that negative reinforcements account for 40.3% ( $R^2 = 0.403$ ) of the variations in the violent behavioural outcomes, negative reinforcements and life satisfaction was ( $R^2 = 0.299$ ), warmth dimension of parenting accounts for 48.2% ( $R^2 = 0.482$ ) of the variations in the self-confidence, and parental warmth accounts for 7.2% variations in the self-discipline of the college students. On the basis of these findings, the study concluded that the robust predictive effects of parenting practices lend support to the moderating effects of youth behavioural outcomes (either positive or negative). Implication of the findings for parenting and youth behavioural practices and future research recommendations are also discussed.*

## Table of Contents

<b>Acknowledgements</b>	vii
<b>Abstract</b>	viii
<b>Chapter 1</b> <b>Introduction</b>	
<b>1.1</b> Introduction	1
<b>1.2</b> Parenting in Pakistan	2
<b>1.3</b> Statement of the Problem	4
<b>1.4</b> Study Objectives	7
<b>1.5</b> Research Questions	7
<b>1.6</b> Major Study Hypotheses	8
<b>1.7</b> Major Statistical Hypotheses	8
<b>1.8</b> Significance of the Study	9
<b>1.9</b> Thesis Outline	10
<b>Chapter 2</b> <b>Review of Literature</b>	
<b>2.1</b> Nature Vs Nurture	12
<b>2.2</b> Behaviourism and Human Behaviour	13
<b>2.3</b> Socio-Psychological Explanation of Human Behaviour	16
<b>2.4</b> Family as an Institution of Socialization	17
<b>2.4.1</b> Functions of Family Institutions	18
<b>2.5</b> Parenting and Child Development	19
<b>2.6</b> The Difference between Parenting Styles and Parenting Practices	20
<b>2.6.1</b> Typologies of Parenting Styles	21

2.6.2 Parenting Practices: Dimensions & Typologies	22
2.7 Determinants Influencing Parenting Practices	28
2.7.1 Cultural Factors	29
2.7.2 Socio-Economic Status (SES) Factors	31
2.7.3 Neighbourhood & Community Factor	33
2.8 Intersection between Parenting Practices and Youth Behaviour	34
2.8.1 Parenting and Pro-social Behaviour	34
2.8.2 Parenting and Risk Behaviour	37
2.9 Parenting Practices and Violence as Risk Behaviour	40
2.10 Theoretical Framework	44
2.10.1 Social Learning Theory	44
2.10.2 Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory	46
2.11 Conceptual Model	47

**Chapter 3**  
**Methodology**

3.1 Research Paradigms	50
3.2 Research Design	51
3.3 Study Setting	53
3.4 Selection of the respondents	54
3.5 Sample Size	54
3.6 Calculation of Sample Size by using Formula	55
3.7 Sampling Procedure	56
3.8 Data Collection Process	57
3.9 Research Team	58
3.10 Research Instrument	59
3.10.1 Socio-demographic variables	60
3.10.2 Information regarding independent and dependent variables	60

3.11	Pretesting of Data Collection Tool Questionnaire	61
3.12	Ethical Considerations	61
3.13	Analysis Plan	61
	3.13.1 Descriptive Analysis	61
	3.13.2 Bivariate Analysis	62
	3.13.3 Multivariate Analysis	63
	<b>Chapter 4</b>	
	<b>Results and Findings</b>	
4.1	Parent Interviews	64
4.2	Introduction	65
	4.2.1 Background	65
4.3	Results	66
	4.3.1 Overview of Themes & Subthemes	67
	4.3.2 Theme 1: Culture and Family	68
	4.3.3 Theme 2: Parenting/Rearing Experiences of Parents	70
	4.3.4 Theme 3: Challenges Encountered in Parenting Practices	80
4.4	Univariate Analysis	86
4.5	Bivariate Analysis	131
4.6	Multivariate Analysis	155
	<b>Chapter 5</b>	
	<b>Discussion, Summary &amp; Conclusion</b>	
5.1	Summary	162
5.2	Discussion	163
	5.2.1 Summary of Discussion	168
5.3	Conclusion	171
5.4	Limitations of the Study	171
5.5	Policy Recommendations	172

<b>5.6 Recommendations for Future Research</b>	<b>172</b>
<b>References</b>	<b>174</b>
<b>Appendices</b>	
<b>Appendix A- Questionnaire</b>	<b>206</b>
<b>Appendix B- Information of Data Collection Team</b>	<b>211</b>
<b>Appendix C- License to use PARQ Tool</b>	<b>212</b>
<b>Appendix C- Reliability Analysis of scales used in Study</b>	<b>213</b>

## List of Tables

Table	Title	Page
3.1	Summary of Male Students' Enrolment at Public Colleges at Lahore	55
4.1	Distribution of the respondents on the basis of age, area of residence, and type of family	86
4.2	Distribution of the respondents on the basis of average family income, & No. of children studying in family	88
4.3	Distribution of the respondents on the basis of major subject group, & year of study at college	90
4.4	Distribution of respondents on the basis of parental educational attainment	91
4.5	Distribution of the respondents on the basis of parental occupation	93
4.6	Distribution of the respondents on the basis of life status of grandparents	94
4.7	Distribution of the respondents on the basis of facilities of cell phone, Computer or Laptop, Internet and Motorbike	95
4.8	Distribution of the respondents on the basis of daily usage of mobile phone	96
4.9	Distribution of the respondents on the basis of sharing of worries and joys	98
4.10	Distribution of the respondents on the basis of leisure activities in free time	102
4.11	Frequency Distribution of Warmth/Affection Behaviour of the respondent	104
4.12	Frequency Distribution of Hostility/Aggression Behaviour of the Respondent	108
4.13	Frequency Distribution of Indifference Neglect Behaviour of the Respondent	111
4.14	Frequency Distribution of Undifferentiated Rejection Behaviour of the Respondent	114
4.15	Frequency Distribution of Violent Behaviour Behaviour of the respondent	116
4.16	Frequency Distribution of Self Confidence Behaviour of the respondent	120
4.17	Frequency Distribution of Self-discipline Behaviour of the respondent	124

4.18	Frequency Distribution of Life Satisfaction Scale	128
4.19	Differences in Perceived Parenting Practices on the basis of residential patterns	131
4.20	Differences in Behavioural Outcome of college students on the basis of residential pattern	133
4.21	Differences in Behavioural Outcome of college students on the basis of family type	134
4.22	Differences in Perceived Parenting Practices on the basis of family type	135
4.23	Differences in Perceived Parenting Practices on the basis of Life Status of Grandmother	136
4.24	Differences in Behavioural Outcome of college students on the basis of Life Status of Grandmother	138
4.25	Differences in Perceived Parenting Practices on the basis of Life Status of Grandfather	140
4.26	Differences in Behavioural Outcome of college students on the basis of Life Status of Grandfather	142
4.27	Differences in Perceived Parenting Practices on the basis of Mothers' Occupation	144
4.28	Differences in Behavioural Outcome of college students on the basis of Mothers' Occupation	146
4.29	Differences in Perceived Parenting Practices on the basis of Fathers' Education and Occupation	147
4.30	Differences in Behavioural Outcome of college students on the basis of Fathers' Education and Occupation	148
4.31	Relationship between Positive Parental Enforcements and Positive Behavioural Outcome	150
4.32	Relationship between negative parental enforcements and violent behaviour	151
4.33	Predicting Perceived Parental Acceptance (+ve enforcements) on violent behaviour among college students	152

4.34	Predicting Perceived Parenting Rejection (-ve enforcements) on violent behavioural outcome among college students	154
4.35	Results of Hypotheses using PLS-SEM Model Results	159
4.36	Cronbach's, rho-A, Composite Reliability, and AVE of the PLS-SEM Model	160

## List of Figures

Figure	Title	Page
2.1	Conceptualization of Parental Support and Control Dimension of Parenting Practices	24
2.2	Conceptual Model	49
3.1	Framework for Research Design: The interconnectedness between Paradigm, Design, and Strategy of Inquiry	52
3.2	Pakistan Map and Study Area	53
4.1	Overview of Themes and Sub-Themes	68
4.2	PLS-SEM Model to see the effect of parenting practices and Youth Behaviour among college student	156

## Chapter 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Introduction

Family as a social institution is considered as a significant and primary socialization agent through which normative behaviours are learned by the children to conform with the societal rules and regulations (Tomasello, 2015). The socialization process significantly links the debate of preparing children by the parental figures for creating conformity with the societal rules (LeVine, 1977). The growing body of knowledge has increased the interest of researchers to understand the mechanism of shaping parenting practices and how that practices affect the child outcomes. The literature has unequivocally established that parenting practices are classified in to parental acceptance and parental rejection that seek to explain the major causes and correlates of developmental behavioural outcomes (i.e. positive or negative) in the children (Rohner, 1980; Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2004, 2005, 2012; Rohner & Khaleque, 2010). The positive parenting practices (i.e. parental acceptance) have been significantly linked with the positive behavioural outcomes (such as self-confidence, self-discipline) of the children (Pedilla-Walker *et al.*, 2008; Nelson *et al.*, 2011). However, the negative enforcements in the parenting practices are more associated with the eternalizing behavioural outcomes/problems (such as violence) in the children (Acar, Uçus, and Yıldız, 2017; Manzoni and Schwarzenegger, 2018).

The current study examines the linkages between parenting practices and its effects on the behavioural outcome of youth members (*the emerging adults who gets*

*enrolled in college right after their school education of matriculation level i.e. 10<sup>th</sup> grade or secondary school level) of the society. A plethora of cross-cultural researches on parenting practices and youth behavioural outcome have been conducted on Western, American and Asian cultures. However, there are less known about prevalent norms, values, and cultural ethos that underlie the parenting practices among youth members within South Asian context especially Pakistan.*

## **1.2 Parenting in Pakistan**

Despite the number of available definitions of parenting practices, there is still no consensus on the most suitable definition by numerous researchers. Nevertheless, the most concise elaborations to describe the concept of parenting practices as specific behaviours that parents do while rearing/raising their children (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Spera, 2005). The child rearing practices include imposition and use of rules, expectations, rewards and punishments by the parents which have a significant effect on the developmental process of their children (Smokowski *et al.*, 2015; Luster & Okagaki, 2006). The same expectations are prevalent within the Pakistani context, where parents have such kinds of responsibilities and obligations to perform the practices for the upbringing of their children.

Parents are considered as one of the significant figures for the development of children, where they have been observed as the primary caregiver that regulates the behaviours i.e., social or anti-social behaviours (Rivas-Drake & Witherspoon, 2013). In Pakistan, Islam provides the core cultural ethos for the parenting norms in the individuals

of the country. In Pakistan, the culture and its constructions are shaped both by the traditional South Asian heritage and the most prevalent religious ethos e.g. Islamic ethos. The traditional heritage of South Asia and prevalence of Muslim values among the members emphasise the major responsibility of parents to rear or socialize their children (Stewart *et al.*, 2000). The reference of Quran verses are commonly used for the obligations of parents towards their children as moral injunctions especially with respect to mothers. In Pakistani society, where one generation of parents are expected to take the responsibility for rearing or socializing their children, the other generation of children are expected to obey the parents and the old ones in the society. In short, both the generations are expected to deal with each other in very affectionate and gentle manner (Chao, 1994; Obeid, 1988).

In Pakistan, (Mann, 1994, p.149): “The role of supervisor is taken very seriously by women, who view it as part of their duty in training children for the future. They organize . . . and most importantly ensure that children do their homework in the evening. . . . It may even be that her earnings (if she is salaried) allow the child to attend better schools and receive extra coaching”.

Honour as a central value in any Islamic society serves as a guideline to maintain family *Izzat*<sup>1</sup> that is a significant contributor in motivating the behaviours of the individual (Wilson, 1978; Mann, 1994; Feghali, 1997). The same values are prevalent in Pakistani society that regulates behaviour in pursuance of the concept of honour and the feeling of

---

<sup>1</sup> *Izzat* translated as pride, honour, self-respect in Pakistani societal context

shame in the child-rearing processes. The religious and social taboos are considered as very strong in Pakistani society which ultimately produce the feeling of guilt and shame among the members of the family. The family *Izzat* is believed to be in real threat when the children, especially girls show inappropriate and unacceptable normative behaviour or even if they do not behave as per the will of the elders and observe adequate modesty in the family (Mann, 1994; Wilson, 1978).

Despite the dominance of Islamic culture, the culture of Pakistan is also in a state of flux due to the globalization forces as observed in many of its neighbouring nations (Prasad & Prasad, 2007). The technological change and the major shifting from rural to urban areas of members have made enormous change in the parents as well as children's obligations to sustain the bond; cohesive and weak type of bond, between parents and their children. This change has created the generational conflict between parental figure and their children in a very faced-paced time (Glass, 2007). The impact of change in the existent notions of parenting and its effects on the behaviours of their children, positive (social) and negative (anti-social), is believed to be a promising area for further research in the Pakistani context.

### **1.3 Statement of the Problem**

Family, as fundamental social institution and a primary agent of socialization, has been considered as the most influential social group for the rearing of children. Though, various essential functions have been performed within family institution but child-rearing is viewed as one of the basic functions of family institution. The individuals who

perform this primary function are called as primary caregivers who are normally expected to be parents and grandparents. Therefore, it becomes important to examine the dimensions and nature of parenting practices and its effects on the developmental outcomes (either positive or negative) of the children.

Previously, parenting practices were mainly related with private or domestic affairs within the family context. However, it has now increasingly become a public and policy issues debate (Furedi, 2011; Rake, 2011). In this scenario, this may be considered as a good thing that it highlights the importance of parents' behaviours to deal with the children and how parental roles and responsibilities attached with them to perform such duties (Bornstein, 2002; Holder, 2009). Over the years, researches within the socio-psychological context have been conducted to explore the prevalent parenting practices by focussing on the various factors that shape parenting behaviours or practices. Personality dispositions of the children were widely studied with most being focused towards parenting practices. The associations between parenting practices and deviance, psychological health, and educational performance have been explored in detail, yet the developmental outcome as positive (self-confidence, self-discipline, life satisfaction) and negative (violence as the risk behaviour) are less understood. The purpose of present study was to investigate the parenting practices and developmental outcome behaviours of the young children. Though, pioneer researches have examined the relationship between parenting practices and youth behaviour in some countries but their results need more cross-cultural explanations especially within the Pakistani cultural standpoints.

Parenting is considered a universal phenomenon but parenting practices vary across cultures (Ijaz & Mahmood, 2009). A large number of western models on parenting styles and practices has been developed as a logical place to start the studies in the non-western world. However, functional equivalence in the parenting conceptual measures is the significant concern for applying the parenting constructs in cross-cultural context (Berry *et al.*, 1992; Stewart *et al.*, 2000). This may guide the researchers to get the functional equivalence of the measures within the indigenous culture as compared to studies conducted across cultures. Functional equivalence could be attained by ensuring the contractual validity within the culture of the participants to be observed. For instance, parental strictness may be viewed as negative parenting in Western context while such strictness might be equated with more involvement and concern of socialization for the parents in Asian culture. Additionally, parental monitoring may be interpreted as the breach in children's autonomy within some cultures while such monitoring might be considered as the more parental concern in Pakistani culture.

Keeping in view the cultural diversities in parenting conceptions, Pakistani culture is rooted within the context of Islamic teachings which may guide the parents to perform their roles and responsibilities for socializing or rearing their children. In order to understand the Pakistani indigenous cultural values, an in-depth scientific enquiry of prevalent parenting practices is required that majorly contribute in manifesting developmental behavioural outcome in children. The country has a large chunk of young population where it seems important to observe the developmental behavioural outcomes with regards to parenting practices. This study particularly addressed youth studying at

college due to abrupt change in level of parental monitoring and administration at this stage of children's life (i.e. college life) in Pakistani context. The main agenda of research is to investigate that how parenting practices are linked with the developmental behavioural outcomes of the college students (i.e. Higher Secondary level students).

#### **1.4 Study Objectives**

1. To investigate the patterns of positive and negative parenting practices in Pakistani society.
2. To analyze the nature of relationship between parenting practices and the development of positive behavior among youth.
3. To investigate the nature of relationship between parenting practices and the development of risk (violent) behavior among youth.

#### **1.5 Research Questions**

1. What kinds of parenting practices are approved as positive enforcements in Pakistani Society?
2. What kinds of parenting practices are approved as negative enforcements in Pakistani Society?
3. What is the relationship between parenting practices and the development of positive behavior among youth?

4. What is nature of the relationship between parenting practices and the development of violent behavior among youth?

#### **1.6 Major Study Hypotheses**

1. Parental Acceptance (+VE Enforcements) manifests positive self-regulatory behaviours among youth.
2. Parental Rejection (-VE Enforcements) cause violent behavioural outcome among youth.

#### **1.7 Major Statistical Hypotheses**

1. There is a relationship between warmth parenting practices and self-confidence of the college students.
2. There is a relationship between warmth parenting practices and self-discipline of the college students.
3. There is a relationship between warmth parenting practices and life satisfaction of the students.
4. There is a relationship between negative reinforcements and violent behavior of the students.
5. There is a relationship between negative reinforcements and life satisfaction of the students.

### **1.8 Significance of the Study**

The current research explains how parenting practices affect the youth behavioural outcome within the social and institutional context. In this regard, Pakistan is undergoing numerous socio-cultural changes within the family institution especially rearing practices of the children that needs to be examined in detail. This study contributes to enhance the body of knowledge of prevalent parenting practices and youth behaviours research in Pakistan.

There is a dearth of scientific research in the area of parenting practices and youth behaviour and also the research gap between planning and implications of policies in Pakistan at school, college or university level about positive and negative behavioural outcome of the students. The current investigation helps to sensitize the policy making institutions of the state to encourage the cross-cultural research in the area so that it could enhance the parental involvement by employing positive parenting reinforcements in the process of socialization and training of their children. This ultimately supports to make the more effective and comprehensive policies to cope the externalizing behaviours among youth.

The study is considered to be the fascinating field of research enquiry which addresses the foundations of conceptual notions in the field of social sciences. However, the disintegration in the society as well as the antisocial behavioural outcome of the members of society especially the youth have been blamed on poor parenting (Shakla, 2011; Rake, 2011). This has intensified the need to review family policy reviews and

public discourses within the Sociology of Family and Child Development with special reference to parenting practices. Moreover, the interdisciplinary questions were asked to understand the construction of parenting practices in Pakistani context. Ultimately, the present research was conducted to find out how child rearing or socialization process positively or negatively contributes to the development of the children and how positive and negative parenting practices are linked to the positive and negative developmental outcome among the youth (i.e. college students).

### **1.9 Thesis Outline**

The study comprises five chapters. In first chapter, the researcher gives an introduction of the research study, problem statement, study objectives and research questions of the study, hypotheses, significance of the study, and thesis outline.

The second chapter presents the literature review of parenting practices and how it effects the youth behavioural outcome. The researcher discusses the contemporary work of family and child development research by the scholars. This section provides the explanations of defining the concept and further operationalizing the concepts of parenting practices and developmental outcome of youth (i.e. college students). Moreover, the chapter includes the theoretical underpinnings of the parenting practices and youth behavioural outcome and ends with the researcher's conceptions regarding parenting practices within the Pakistani context.

In chapter three, the researcher elaborates the study methodology. The author discusses about the research paradigm, research design, study population, sampling, data

collection process and adoption and modification of the scales used in the research. At the end of this chapter, ethical considerations and study analysis plan is presented. Chapter four consists of two sections i.e. qualitative and quantitative analysis. The qualitative findings are discussed regarding the major themes developed and quantitative results are presented by using univariate, bivariate, and multivariate analyses. The last chapter consists on the summary of the results section, discussion on the significant findings of the study, conclusion and major recommendations of the current research study.

## Chapter 2

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Over the years, human behaviour remains an area of concern for the social scientists. This chapter explains on divergent sources for the development of human behaviours, particularly within the context of family and development. However, the problems/issues have emerged quite recently as a result of differentiations between the parental socialization messages to their children and the variations in level of acceptance and internalization of such socialization messages by their children (Grusec *et al.*, 2000). This chapter enunciates an overview of the descriptions related to youth i.e. college students where they transform themselves from the dependent and explicitly controlled environment in their childhood (i.e. up to level of matriculation) to the period (i.e. right after the matriculation level, college) marked of increasing self-exploration and autonomy (Wentzel & Battle, 2001).

#### 2.1 Nature Vs Nurture

Traditionally, scholars linked human behaviour as an outcome of biological or genetic contributions (Bargh & Morsella, 2008; Gastil, 1961). The scientific literature on the idea of biological contributions of human behaviour emphasized that human behaviour has greater concordance with genetics (Baker *et al.*, 2006). Numerous studies highlighted that human genetics or hereditary has a significant contribution for the development of anti-social behaviours (Christiansen, 1977; Walters, 1992). This notion has ended the devoid of responsibility and human's free will for their actions, having internal and

external control remain constant (Pereboom, 2001). However, the limited empirical evidences are available to support the perspective of shaping human behaviour through physiological factors.

Though biological or genetic differentiation approach articulates the explanations of human development through biological or genetic differences, research evidences indicates that social isolation could seriously impaired the process of human development, especially when the individuals are children or adolescents (Davis, 1940, 1947; Curtiss, 1978). One could realize the significance of nurturing from three renowned studies on isolated children namely; Anna, Isabelle and Genie that indicate the rejection of biological determinism approach. The evidences were purely based on the deprivation caused due to minimal or absence of social experiences by isolating the children from other family members. These tragic but experimental cases signify the process of socialization for human development, where human offspring require day to day guidelines from their parents and other family members to learn the way of life. Such guidelines are considered nurturing procedures that are socio-culturally embedded in each society (Macionis, 2005).

## **2.2 Behaviorism and Human Behaviour**

Behaviorism is considered as one of the major theoretical approaches to explain the process of socialization. The foundation of 'Behaviorism' and 'Behavioural learning theory' lies in the work *Behaviourism* (1924) by John B. Watson (1878-1953). Watson holds a view that human behaviour is an outcome of social context (Zastrow & Krist-

Ashman, 2006) that provides empirically validated behavioural principles to learn the ways of living within social environment (Hart & Kritsonis, 2006).

In 1913, Watson published his commonly known work, "*Behaviorist Manifesto*". The ground breaking work viewed shaping and reshaping of human behaviour as an outcome of social environment (Watson, 1919). The article "*Psychology as the Behaviorist Views It*" extracted the conception of "habit formation" that emphasized the inter-relatedness of social environment and nurturing human behaviour (Rakos, 2013). Watson explained the concept of habits as the repetitions of human behaviours developed to create the automated responses in consistent settings (Verplanken, 2006; Wood & Neal, 2007). While Pierre Bourdieu (1977) and Paul Connerton (1989), sociological theorists, described the conception of habits as outcome of culturally embodied history and knowledge. In simple words, habits are defined as the daily routine behaviours that involve minimum efforts of cognition by the individuals (Jager, 2003).

The principles of habit formation are highly dependent on the environment in which people live (Whitebread & Bingham, 2013). The theory of habit formation elaborates the human learning in two significant factors, named as frequency and recency (Sheeran, 2002; Ajzen, 2002). The persistent behaviours performed in everyday life depend on the basis of frequent and recent actions (habit formation) and the rest will be facing decay (habit decay). Habit formation and habit decay rely on how frequent and recent the actions have been performed by the individuals. Nevertheless, these two concepts do not simply explain the human learning behaviour through the habit formation process (Ajzen & Sexton, 1928). For instance, early age children (when they are growing

up) are supposed to be unaware in establishing habits at this stage (Zhang & Ikeda, 2013). This is the time period when parents are considered as one of the significant figures for developing life habit formation in their children. On the other end of the continuum, adolescents and adults retrospectively re-evaluate the rearing practices of their parents by using realized preferences developed as their habits in everyday life.

Burrhus Frederic Skinner (1904-1990), a significant figure in behaviourist school, highlighted much of his scholarships on Watson's former studies. His work interlinked the mental processes with behavioural interpretations (Skinner, 1974; Weegar & Pacis, 2012). The narrative picture of "*Walden Two*" (1948), a renowned contribution, elaborates the building of ideal society on the basis of behaviourist principles. He explained external forces have significant contribution for shaping and reshaping the human behaviours, even controlled and affected (Skinner, 1974). These external forces and stimuli are the outcome of social environment which enormously lead towards the debate of reinforcements (positive and negative) in human everyday life. The trajectory of human behaviours has been changed due to positive and negative reinforcements. For example, when parents reward (tangibly or intangibly) their children, their behaviours are expected to be changed on the basis of these rewards. Despite the positive and negative reinforcements in socializing the children, social situations considered to shape and reshape the behaviours of the children (Teale, 1981).

### 2.3 Socio-Psychological Explanations of Human Behaviour

The socio-psychological theories propounded the discourse of developing human behaviour based on social environment. George Herbert Mead (1863-1931) is considered as one of the significant figure in socio-psychological approach (McPhail & Rexroat, 1979). He proposed social behaviourism theory that elaborates the formation of individual's self and identity on the basis of human interaction and communication between members of the society. He contended the explanations regarding emergence of personality by the outcome of social experiences (Mead, 1934).

This notion has greater concordance with the former discussion of behaviourism by Watson and Skinner, which described human behaviour as the by-product of social environment. For Mead, the self comes out of social experiences in everyday life (Stryker, 1980; Stets, 2003). Moreover, the conception of "generalized other" is highly aligned with arguments that individual develops the behaviours with reference to the attached expectation from the particular group(s) they occupy (Mead & Mind, 1934).

Charles Horton Cooley (1864-1929) formulated the significant metaphor of interactionist paradigm in the discipline of sociology. His work related to theory of "*Looking Glass Self*" delineates the discourse of socialization. He stated self as a social product which could be developed by social interaction and communication with others (Cooley, 1902). Moreover, the individual's self is interlinked with the subjective feelings of the individuals, whereas labelling of self-constructs stronger emotions in comparison with non-self (Epstein, 1973). For the development of self concept, family remains a

primary institution to nurture the self in the children (Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986). The idea later articulated as “Social Learning Theory” proposed by Albert Bandura (1977).

According to Social Learning Theory, behaviours could be acquired through observation and direct experiences within the social context (Bandura, 1977). In addition, the theory proposed that learning occurs on the basis of positive (rewards) and negative (punishments) reinforcements. The theory posited that socialization process would not be able to complete without the response guidance of numerous influential models. Children were surrounded by these influential models (such as parents etc.) that provide them opportunity for the observation of human behaviour and imitation. Consequently, children will establish their behaviours as the society deems appropriate for them.

#### **2.4 Family as an Institution of Socialization**

Above discussed theoretical approaches and underpinnings, in majority, emphasized that learning depends on the surroundings and social experiences of the individuals (Macionis, 2005). Socialization is referred as a lifelong learning process which produces social order in the society. Though, learning process starts right after the birth of child but it's very dynamic in nature. There are various agents of socialization, categorized as primary and secondary socializing agents, which guide the human behaviour throughout their life course. The present study elaborates primary agents of socialization on the basis of immediate relationship or contact between individuals (LaRossa & Reitzes, 1993). In every society, Family as a social institution is considered the fundamental and significant institution that can nurture the behaviours of the children through the socialization

process (Erikson, 1950). In addition, the theory of primary socialization focussed the divergent sources of primary socializing sources i.e. including family, peers and school that could determine the developed patterns of normative practices of the individuals (Oetting and Donnermeyer, 1998). The theory articulates the discussion on the strength of bond between primary socializing agents and children/adolescents (Nurco & Lerner, 1999). Wherein, the weak bonds may have higher probability to predict deviation from the normative behaviours among children (Oetting & Donnermeyer, 1998).

Human history has observed the evidences, i.e. large and small scale, on the existence of human societies across time and space (Johnson & Earle, 2000). In every society, Family, as an oldest social institution, remains present regardless of any form (Downey, 1995). Around the world, the researches could significantly examine diversity in the family institution (Zinn, Eitzen, and Wells, 1990). Despite the prevalence of diversity in family as a social unit, it is still considered as one of the significant social institutions through which children learn behaviours to make conformity with the societal rules, obligations and regulations (Tomasello, 2015).

#### **2.4.1 Functions of Family as Social Institution**

Family, an outstanding primary group, performs various functions for the benefits of the members in every society. In structural functionalism approach, the sociologists view the relationship between members of the family and how well the variety of the social functions performed in the society (Bowden & Greenberg, 2010). Numerous sociologists have observed different functions of the family as an institution.

For instance, Parsons (1970) has classified two significant functions of the family which include socialization of the primary group members and stabilization of personalities among the adult members of the family. Ogburn and Nimkoff (1955) has articulated six functions of family institution, in *Technology and the Changing Family*, that include affectional, educational (socialization of children), economic, protective, recreational and religious functions. Subsequently, Goode (1963) emphasized five functions that include; procreation, socio-economic security of the members, status determination, social control and socialization as functions of family institution. Another sociologist, MacIver (1970) proposed two categories of functions in family institution that include essential (primary) and non-essential (secondary) functions. Essential or primary functions comprised sexual needs, reproduction, and rearing while non-essential or secondary functions include health functions, economic, recreational, educational (socialization or child-rearing), and religious. Among the existing proposed functions of family institution by various sociologists, child-rearing or socialization is a primary function performed by the parental figure to make conformity of their children with the provided societal rules and regulations.

## **2.5 Parenting and Child Development**

The conception of parents is referred as the individuals who provide the primary caregiving responsibility to their children (Rohner, Khaleque, and Coumoyer, 2005). However, the concept of "parenting" has been considered complex to define due to its relevance with multiple disciplines. The basic notion of parenting as a concept refers to the practices undertaken or performed by the parental figure towards the nourishment or

development of their children (Hoghughi & Speight, 1998). In the literature of family and child development, parenting defined as a “complex set of parents’ behaviours, duties, roles, expectations, cognitions and emotions related to caring, raising and educating their child” (Sadeh, Tikotzy, and Scher, 2010, p. 89). In Urdu language, the concept of “*Tarbiat*” is similar to the concept of child-rearing or socialization which considerably described the parental role in the development of their children. The parenting delineates as skill-based behaviours or practices that may establish the home environments to support the children’s learning (Blanchard, 1998; Stormshak *et al.*, 2000).

The scholarship on sociology of family and child development has acknowledged parenting as a major contributor in the development of children (Kotchick & Forehand, 2002). In children socialization, parents have been designated to play a decisive role for the development of values and behaviours among the children (Rivas-Drake & Witherspoon, 2013). Literature has pronounced the relationship between parenting and behavioural outcomes (i.e. positive and negative) among the children (Aneshensel, 2005). Through this child-rearing and socialization process, parental figures are preparing the children to adapt with the socio-economic and ecological societal conditions (LeVine, 1977).

## **2.6 The Difference between Parenting Style and Parenting Practices**

Despite the concepts of parenting styles and parenting practices have been used by researchers interchangeably (Maccoby & Martin, 1983), it is significant to distinct the terminologies to make a good understanding about the child-rearing process. Darling and

Steinberg (1993) articulated the concept of parenting styles as the 'emotional climate' within which parents raise their children, while parenting practices as the behaviours or practices performed to socialize the children. Subsequently, they interchangeably use the word for parenting styles as 'parental attitudes' and parenting practices as 'parental behaviours'. This had made the understanding more clear that behaviour is a manifestation of the attitude. Nevertheless, it seems very difficult to study the later without measuring the former. This study is more concerned with the practices/behaviours performed by the parents as compared to the debate of parenting styles/attitudes which actually have in their emotional climate, to elucidate the child-rearing process.

#### **2.6.1 Typologies of Parenting Styles**

Baumrind (1967) has classified the parenting styles on the basis of authority that provides the guidelines in understanding the parental attitudes or emotional climate regarding socialization or rearing of their children. The identification on the typologies of parenting styles has been made as; authoritative, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. Authoritative parenting style relates with the parental warmth, responsiveness, control and maturity demands (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Authoritative parents socialize their children and adolescents by developing instrumental competence and help to extract positive outcomes such as academic achievements, behavioural modifications and adjustments (Lamborn *et al.*, 1991; Stewart *et al.*, 2000).

Authoritarian parenting style constitutes the parental strictness and harsh behaviour towards their children for making conformity with the societal rules and obligations (Ingram, 2011). Authoritative parents are expected to make their children obedient as per their own demands by employing strictness and harshness (Baumrind, 1971; Schickedanz *et al.*, 2000). Parents have been deemed to be high in demands and responsiveness to the actions of the children (Baumrind, 1968). Furthermore, permissive parenting style explained fewer parental restrictions or demands from the children in socialization process (Baumrind, 1971). Permissive parents are expected to have fewer demands, restrictions, control and communication between parents and their children (Baumrind, 1968; Johnson & Kelley, 2011). Maccoby and Martin (1983) have extended the work of Baumrind (1968) by adding neglectful parenting style. Neglectful parents have been considered as neither responsive nor demanding. In neglectful parenting, parents have non-controlling attitude for their children and do not encourage their children's self-regulations (Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Baumrind, 1991).

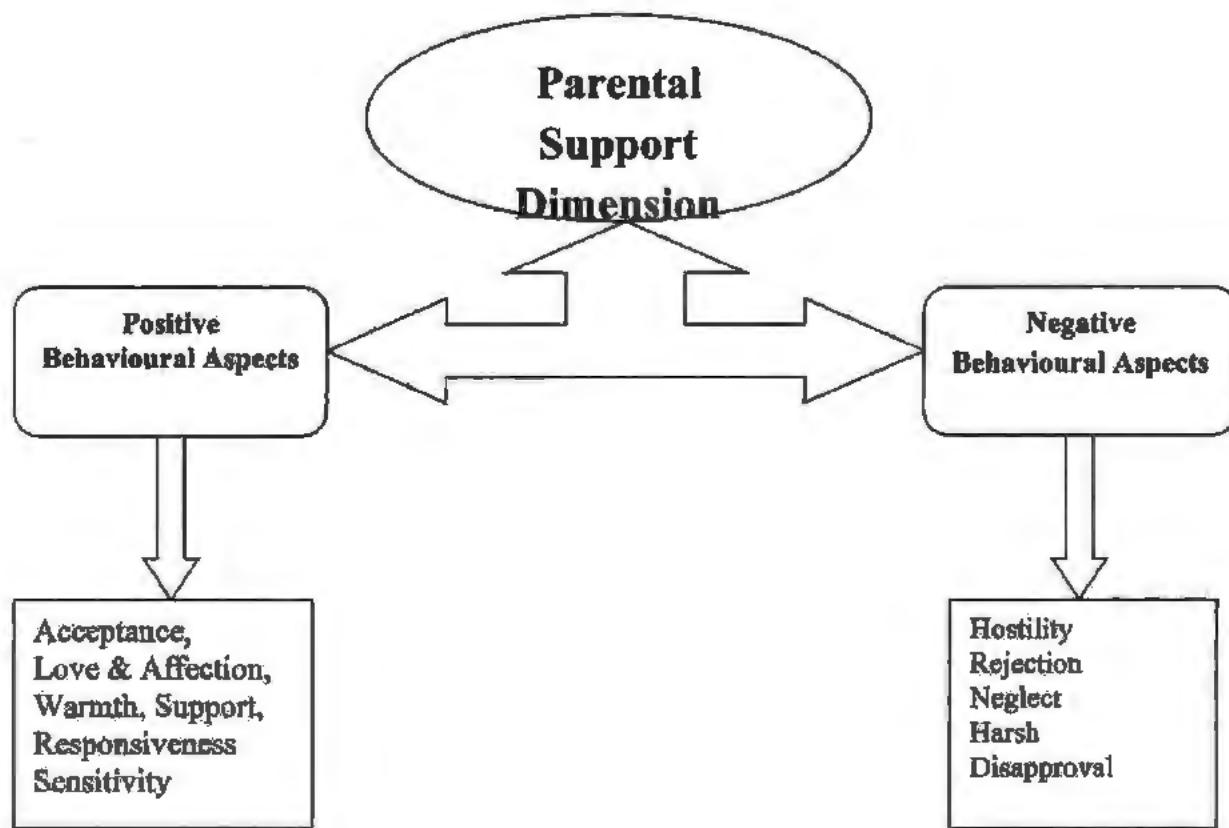
### **2.6.2 Parenting Practices: Dimensions and Typologies**

Researchers have recognized that parenting practices are considerably significant for socialization and expected to influence the developmental outcomes of the children (Peterson & Hann, 1999). Parents across cultures have unique socialization goals (Keller & Otto, 2009) that may be adaptive in one cultural context, while maladaptive for another culture (Bamhart *et al.*, 2013). For instance, researchers have elucidated that authoritative parenting practices (i.e. including warmth dimension of parenting practices) have been linked with adaptive outcome while authoritarian parenting practices (for example, harsh

parenting) have been related with the maladaptive outcomes among children in European and American families (Darling & Steinberg 1993; Lamborn *et al.*, 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). In contrast, researchers argued that authoritarian parenting practices are linked with positive developmental outcome of behaviour in Asian families while authoritative parenting practices were associated with risk behaviour among children (Leung *et al.*, 1998; Chao, 2000; Rudy & Grusec, 2006).

To understand the conceptual notion of parenting, two important discourses namely; dimensions of parenting and typologies of parenting need to be discussed in detail (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). There are number of core dimensions that have been identified and proposed by the numerous researchers (Skinner, Johnson, & Snyder, 2005). However, parenting practices have included a set of dynamic dimensions, including parental support and control as key dimensions, in assessing the quality of relationship between parents and their children (Dishion & McMahon, 1998). Parental support dimension enunciates the parenting behaviours towards their children in the process of socialization that makes them feel comfortable and accepted (Barnes & Farrel, 1992). Parental support dimension allows the children to make their own choices independently, or setting their own goals and preferences (Skinner, Johnson, & Snyder, 2005). Parental support dimension is bifurcated on the basis of positive and negative parental behavioural aspects (Rohner, 2004). Where, at one side, positive parental behavioural aspects constitute feeling of acceptance, love and affection, warmth, support, responsiveness, and sensitivity while, at the other end, negative parental behavioural aspects include the hostile, rejected and neglected feelings towards their children.

(Metsäpelto, Pulkkinen, and Pikkarainen, 2001). On the opposite conceptual notion of parental support, the concept of parental coercion referred as the restrictive parenting practices in which strict obedience and conformity are required to address the internalizing as well as externalizing behavioural problems among the children (Farkas & Grodnick, 2010).



*Figure 2.1: Conceptualization of Parental Support and Control Dimension of Parenting Practices (Skinner, Johnson, & Snyder, 2005)*

Warmth and affectionate parenting dimension defines as the “expression of affection, love, appreciation, kindness and regards” (Skinner, Johnson, & Snyder, 2005, p. 185) which may significantly relate with the developmental behavioural outcomes of the children (Izzo *et al.*, 2000). Parental warmth and support dimension of parenting is strongly associated with the pro-social or adaptive or positive responses of the children to examine the parenting measurement regarding the parental relationship towards their children (Hellmer, 1962; Rohner, 1976). Domitrovich & Bierman (2001), conducted research on parenting practices and its influences on the children’s social behaviours, relied on the constructs of Social Learning Theory. The major findings of the study highlighted that parental warmth and support are more likely to develop more frequent prosocial behaviour and more likely to utilize the problem solving strategies by the parents for the development of adaptive social behaviours among the children (Domitrovich & Bierman, 2001). On the conceptual dialectal notion of parental warmth dimension, there is a conception of parental rejection which is measured in two subcomponents as “parental hostility and aggression” and “parental indifference and neglect” (Rohner, 1975, 1980). Parental hostility and indifference is described as the parental attitude and the emotional climate of parents regarding their internal feelings towards their children while parental aggression and neglect is related to the observable behaviours and practices of the parents towards their children (Rohner & Rohner, 1981).

In parenting dimension of structure and chaos, the literature explained two concepts of control and discipline. Parental structure dimension allows the children to develop and plan their behaviours which are considerably important for different adaptive

outcomes (Farkas & Grolnick, 2010). In other words, structure facilitates the development of perceived control and discipline among the children (Skinner, Wellborn, & Connell, 1990). Opposite of parental structure dimension is chaos which elaborates the lack of parental control and discipline (Skinner & Wellborn, 1990). The conception of chaos enunciated the parenting practices or behaviours that are unpredictable, unplanned, non-contingent, inconsistent, and arbitrary (Izzo *et al.*, 2000).

In measuring parental control, Baumrind (1968, 1971) bifurcate the parental control dimension in authoritative control and authoritarian control. Her work illustrated parental authoritative control within the positive control domain involves techniques used to reward and ensuring inductive discipline by the parental figures towards their children while authoritarian control as the negative aspects of parenting control that include punishment, restrictiveness, coercion, and firm discipline techniques. The researches on the family and child care interchangeably used the concepts of behavioural and psychological control instead of Baumrind work as authoritative and authoritarian control (Parker, Tupling, & Brown, 1979). Behavioural control considers intrusions into the behavioural development of the child (Halgunseth, Ispa, & Rudy, 2006), while psychological control relates to the internalizing issues i.e. psychological development of the children (Hoeve *et al.*, 2009). However, the researchers have strongly linked the behavioural control with externalizing issues and problems and psychological control with internalizing issues and problems of the children (Sanders *et al.* 1994).

The Social Interaction Learning (SIL) model emphasized the direct effect of the parenting practices on the behaviours of their children (Holtrop, Smith, & Scott, 2014).

The model describes the everyday interaction between the members of the family and how the patterns of behaviours are being shaped and reshaped between parent-child relationships (Forgatch & DeGarmo, 2002; DeGramo & Forgatch, 2005). The model endorsed major parenting practices typologies namely; monitoring & discipline, skills encouragement, positive involvement and problem solving.

Monitoring refers to the activities where parental figures make themselves aware regarding children's activities (DeGramo & Forgatch, 2005) and discipline includes the settlements of appropriate limits and sanctions to abstain from unpredicted and maladaptive behavioural outcomes among the children (Forgatch & DeGarmo, 2002). The parental use of monitoring and discipline is a reflection of strategic parental orientation that might be viewed as the parental control, discipline and regulations practices to make conformity with the prescribed cultural expectations (Pettit *et al.*, 2001).

Parental involvement constitutes the parental feelings of warmth, love and affection towards their children (Forgatch & Patterson, 2010). The studies, in various dimensions, have evidences that parental involvement significantly influences the developmental outcomes of their children (Georgiou, 1999; Crozier, 2001; Gustafson & Rhodes, 2006; Sarkadi *et al.*, 2008; Pleck, 2010). The skill encouragement parents use verbal praising or compliments and positive reinforcements to guide the positive developmental outcomes among children (DeGramo & Forgatch, 2005). Lastly, problem solving parenting domain relates with the decision taking by parents and children

together regarding the relevant goals to solve the problems efficiently (Forgatch & Patterson, 2010).

## **2.7 Determinants of Parenting Practices**

A plethora of scientific literature on the linkages between parenting and developmental outcomes have been so well established, however little attention is devoted towards the identification and understanding of the determinants or factors that influence the parenting practices. There is an existence of considerable variations in parenting practices. For instance, the prevalence of parenting varies across distinct cultural groups and even exists inter and intra-group variability within the specific social and cultural niches (Kelly, Power, and Wimbush, 1992; Forehand & Kotchick, 1996).

There are numerous factors that could influence the parenting skills for the child development. Belsky (1984) proposed the model of parenting based on the scientific literature on child maltreatment. Studies have evidenced characteristics of parents, characteristics of child, and family environment to influence the parenting practices as per said model (Bowlby, 1973; Elder, Liker, & Cross, 1984; Rodgers, 1993; Vondra & Belsky, 1993; Cummings & Davies, 1994; McLoyd, Jayaratne, Ceballo, & Borquez, 1994; Armistead, Klien, & Forehand, 1995; Burchinal, Foller, & Bryant, 1996; Klien et al., 2000). The Belsky (1984) model of parenting was unable to address the broader context which includes culture, socio-economic status and neighbourhood factors that could influence the parenting practices in rearing of their children.

### 2.7.1 Cultural Factors

The widespread understanding on the conception of parenting practices has already been developed by various researchers that parenting is considered as an activity based on culture (Lamm, & Keller, 2007). The simple definition with regard to parenting concept refers culture as the essential component of the context or “a system of meaning” (Smircich, 1983), shared by the members of an identifiable group (Schulze *et al.*, 2002), within which parents socialize their children and accounts wide variations in parenting practices across the world (Suizzo, 2002). Le Vine (1988) articulates that “*each culture, drawing on its own symbolic traditions, supplies models for parental behavior that, when implemented under local conditions, become culture specific styles of parental commitment*” (p.8). Ogbu (1981) model proposed that parenting behaviour is driven on the basis of characteristics of culturally determined children. However, it is considerably significant that experiences of children within a particular cultural context with the family members especially parents make them culturally competent individuals in society.

Cross-cultural scientific scholarship illustrated that normative practice in the individuals belonging to the members of the one group may not be necessarily the same who belong to other cultural group (Bornstein, 2012). Researchers have acknowledged the significance of culture as a determinant in influencing or affecting parenting practices (Jacobson & Crockett, 2000; Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Steinberg *et al.*, 1991).

Numerous cross-cultural scientific researchers have compared parenting practices among distinct cultural groups. For instance, Chinese parenting practices have been

TH25/61

considered to be “restrictive, controlling or authoritarian” as compared to West parenting practices (Lin & Fu, 1990; Stevenson & Lee, 1990; Kelly & Tseng, 1992; Chao, 2000). A study compared the rearing practices among children between West African and Northern German women, and found that West African mothers are more likely to address primary care and body contact or stimulation with their children as compared to the Northern German mothers who considerably focuses more on the prevalence of exclusive attention and face-to-face interaction or communication (Keller, Völker and Yovsi, 2005). Wu *et al.*, (2002) articulated in their research on preschoolers in China and the United States, Chinese mothers scored lower as compared to US mothers on the parental warmth or acceptance but higher at the physical coercion parenting construct. In addition, Vinden (2001) on the research of Korean American mothers and Anglo-American mothers stated that Korean-American mothers were considered authoritarian and scored higher on the mind tasks of their children as compared to Anglo-American mothers.

In recent times, more attention has been given to the study the parenting within cultural niches to assess the in-group variations (Smetana, Abernathy and Harris, 2000). For instance, Brody *et al.*, (2002) have explained the prevalent parenting practices in rural African families, where the presence of involved and supportive nature of relationship between mother and child, and active monitoring of activities but not harsh discipline strategies relate to the positive developmental outcomes among the children. Moreover, researches have noted the standards of good parenting strategies as non-beneficial for the youth in ethnic minority families (Steinberg *et al.*, 1994; Chao, 1994). Whereas, Lamborn, Dornbusch, & Steinberg (1996) elaborated in their study that

authoritarian parenting is more likely to have positive effects for the Afro-American Youth, while authoritative parenting practices have been found effective for the developmental outcomes of Asian-American youth members (Chao, 1996).

### **2.7.2 Socio-Economic Status (SES) Factors**

Socio-economic status (SES) as a factor to influence the parenting practices remains an area of interest for researchers in the field of Sociology of Family and Child Development. There is an existence of wide variability among the rearing practices on the basis of socio-economic differences. Brooks & Duncan (1997) have long been acknowledged the developmental benefits of the children, provided by parents, on the basis of having high SES family, as compared with the developmental risk of the children on accounts of having low SES family.

Numerous studies have articulated the associations between Socio-economic status of the families and increased mal-adaptations or maltreatments among the children (Hampton & Newburger, 1985; Drake & Pandey, 1996; Sedlek & Beoadhurst, 1996; Ards, Chung, & Myers, 1998). For instance, SES measures in terms of unemployment and limited access to socio-economic resources that is significantly associated with the negative or disruptive behaviour among the children (Aber, 1994; Paxson & Waldfogel, 2003). Moreover, an extensive literature suggested that improvement in the economic conditions of the family significantly affects the parents as well as children (Leventhal, Fauth, & Brooks-Gunn, 2005; Morris, Duncan, & Clark-Kauffman, 2005). Similar

findings have been reported by Costello *et al.*, (2003), where increase in family income of the members decreases the behavioural problems for their children.

In recent researches on Socio-economic status of family and developmental outcomes among the children, there are two prevalent theoretical approaches (Conger & Donnellan, 2007; Gershoff *et al.*, 2007; Yeung, Linver, & Brooks-Gunn, 2002). The first theoretical approach is extracted as the *family stress model* that involves the parental relationship with their children and how that relationship may be affected by financial constraints in the family (Conger & Conger, 2002). The second theoretical approach is the *investment model* (IM) that illustrates the increase in investments or economic resources may likely to predict positive developmental outcomes (such as promoting the academic and social competencies) in the children (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002).

Researchers have highlighted the association between low socio-economic status (SES) and practices outcomes of the parents, i.e. including harsh discipline (Berger, 2004; Berger & Brooks-Gun, 2005), poor environment at home and the level of parental involvement (Berger, 2004; Klebanov, Brooks-Gun, & Duncan, 1994), including the significant debate on the parental knowledge towards their children for the socialization process (Garbarino, 1977; Belsky, 1993). Such knowledge elaborates the associations regarding parental role and developmental outcomes of their children (Goodnow & Collins, 1990). Aspects of parenting practices outcomes influences, either direct or indirect, the parent-child relationship within the context of family and development (Bornstein, 2002; Collins *et al.*, 2000; Holden & Buck, 2002).

### 2.7.3 Neighbourhood and Community Factors

Parents are considered to perform a role as gatekeepers for controlling the activities of their children regarding exposure to the neighbourhood (Kim, Hatherington, & Reis, 1999). Neighbourhood and community as important determinants influencing developmental outcomes among children are believed to operate through divergent family processes such as home environment and parenting practices (Klebanov, Brooks-Gunn, & Duncan, 1994). Neighbourhood and community (contextual) factors have been ignored by the researchers for shaping and reshaping of the family processes and developmental behaviour among their children (Simons *et al.*, 2002).

Neighbourhood as an indicator to determine the parenting practices assesses for managing the risk and opportunities towards the children (Furstenberg & Hughes, 1997). Numerous researches have elucidated harsh control and verbal aggression in the disadvantaged neighbourhood significantly associated with the inadequacy of coping skills and lower efficacy among children (Klebanov, Brooks-Gunn, and Duncan, 1994; Leventhal & Brooks-Gunn, 2000; Earls & Barnes, 1997).

The researchers have bifurcated two hypotheses, on the basis of types, to understand the effect of neighbourhood and community on the behavioural conduct problem (Simons *et al.*, 2002). One is parenting buffering hypothesis while others named as parenting evaporation hypothesis. High risk or disadvantages of neighbourhood may become more critical and effective regarding perceived parenting practices among the children in parenting buffering hypothesis. On the other end of the continuum, parenting

evaporation hypothesis claims that parental practices may become less critical and effective while having prevalence of deviant behaviour in the neighbourhood and community.

## **2.8 Intersection between Parenting Practices and Youth Behaviour**

The current study examines the linkages between parenting practices and its effect on youth behaviour (*the emerging adults who get enrolled right after their school education of matriculation level*). There are many studies which examine the linkages between parenting practices and younger and adolescent children. However, there are few available studies to find the linkages between parenting practices and the behavioural outcome of youth members, especially an emerging phase of adulthood right after the matriculation level. The study explores both the directions of parenting practices and youth behaviours including parenting practices and positive (pro-social) youth behaviour as well as parenting practices and negative (risk) youth behaviour.

### **2.8.1 Parenting and Pro-social Behaviour**

The growing body of literature has described the relatedness of parenting behaviours with the debate of pro/positive behavioural outcomes of the children. For instance, the positive aspects of parenting, including warmth, involved and supportive parenting practices have been significantly linked with the positive or pro-social behaviour and less likely to be linked with negative or risk behaviours among the children (Pedilla-Walker *et al.*, 2008; Nelson *et al.*, 2011). Pro-social behaviour is

considered to be a protective factor against the developmental outcomes of the negative (anti-social) behaviour among the children (Crick, 1996; Laible *et al.*, 2014). Carlo *et al.* (2014) illustrated the linkage between pro-social and anti-social (positive and negative) behaviours and found that positive developmental outcomes of the behaviours protect the children from the development of negative behaviours.

**Good Sleeping Habits as a Pro-social Behaviour among Children:** Spilsbury and colleagues have elaborated the effects of home environment on the sleeping habits of the children (Spilsbury *et al.*, 2005). The findings of the study suggested that parents who promote or develop the act of responsibility among their children in daily routine is associated with positive sleeping habits and outcomes. Moreover, Owens-Stively *et al.* (1997) study on the sleep disorder and parenting discipline revealed that ineffective parenting practices were more likely to be associated with sleep disorder in children. Another study was conducted by Meijer, Habekothé and Van Den Wittenboer (2001) on the relationship between parental rules and time in bed. Various researches have also developed the linkages of sleep hygiene with the nature of practices/behaviours performed by the parental figures, where positive parenting contributes to good sleep hygiene while negative parenting ensures the poor sleep hygiene among the children (Fletcher *et al.*, 2004; Adam *et al.*, 2007; Kelly & El-Sheikh, 2011). Vazsonyi *et al.* (2015) elaborated in their research on the two countries, Georgian and Swiss, data set. The study revealed the relationship between parental warmth (either positive or negative) and problem behaviours with the mediated effect by sleep time and quality.

**Parental compliance:** Wahler and Maginnis (1997) illustrated that positive parenting practices are linked with the strengthened child compliance behaviours. The study findings reported that the maternal responsiveness as one of the important positive parenting practices is likely to be associated with the child compliance behaviours. Crockenberg and Litman (1990) elaborated the associations between the mother's control strategy and the compliance behaviour of the children. The findings asserted that less use of mother's control on their children has marked with compliance behaviour while the defiant i.e. non-compliance of children behaviour was associated with the more powerful mode of control strategy. Numerous studies have been aligned with the findings of the former study that the level of compliance is dependent on the degree of parental control, where high degree of control and discipline strategies relate with the lower level of compliance among the children and lower degree of control and discipline strategies mark higher level of compliance (Maccoby & Levin, 1957; Lytton, 1977; Smith, Landry & Swank, 2000).

**Less use of Media and Technology:** Paucity of researches exists on association between parental regulations to monitor the technological use among children (Kotler, 1999). However, the researches on parents who actively regulate the activities of their children regarding use of media and technology varied across studies (Dorr & Rabin, 1995; Stranger, 1998). Vandewater and colleagues conducted the study on the relationship between parental rules (i.e. parents with time rules and parents with program rules) and television use. Vandewater *et al.* (2005) reported their findings that parents with time rules practices were associated with children's less use of television while parents with

program rules were more likely to be related with more involvement in watching television. Another study by Lee (2013) elaborated the associations between parental restrictive practice and the degree of internet use among the children. The study findings confirmed that there is a significant association between parental restrictive mediation and online risks and time spent online. The study highlighted that more parental restrictive practices are likely to affect positively in terms of reduced time spent on internet, online risks and addictive use of internet.

### **2.8.2 Parenting and Risk Behaviour**

Researchers have recognized that parenting practices may be associated with the developmental risk of children (Kotchick & Forehand, 2002; Stormshak *et al.*, 2000). Parental behaviours are considered to socialize the children and expected to influence their developmental outcomes (Peterson & Hann, 1999). Aquilino and Supple (2001) argued that parenting practices during socialization continue to exert influence on the risk-taking behaviour among adolescents. On contrary, the quality of parent-child relationship may play as a significant preventive factor in developing risk behaviour among adolescents (Ackard *et al.*, 2006).

The concept of risk behaviour is defined as the tendencies to involve in potentially dangerous or harmful behaviours (Azmawati *et al.*, 2015; Steinberg, 2008). Researchers have significantly linked the debate of children involving in risk behaviours on the basis of behaviours/practices performed by the parental figures towards their children especially emerging adults. Parent figures socialize or rear their children to

shape or reshape the lives of the children through the child-rearing or socialization process (Smith, 2002). They are believed to be considered as the responsible agents for the risk taking (anti-social) behaviour among the children. This is why some of the countries have penalized the anti-social behaviour among the children (Hoeve *et al.*, 2009). Okorodudu (2010) has explained that risk behaviour is deeply linked with the family or home environment where the children have been brought up.

The development of risk taking behaviours has been documented at numerous levels including individual, family, school and community level. The predictors of developing risk behaviours at family level include; the history of family use of substance or crime activities, poor parenting practices, and lack of cohesive parent-child relationship (Park, 2004). The school level predictors in the development of risk-taking behaviours include less academic involvement and likely to have low commitment to school (Greenberg *et al.*, 2003). Moreover, the community level contributors in the risk behaviours include the association of community or neighbourhood (advantaged and disadvantaged) environment (Arthur *et al.*, 2002).

Risk behaviour has become a significant area of research in the area of public health issues or challenges that need special attention (Azimawati *et al.*, 2015). A substantial body of literature suggests that parents' behaviour may directly affect their children's risk behaviours (Blanton *et al.*, 1997; Brown *et al.*, 1993). Adolescents raised by the parents who are heavily involved in their lives (for instance, monitoring their behaviour) are less likely to engage in risk behaviour (Barnes *et al.*, 2000; Barnow *et al.*, 2002; Chassin *et al.*, 1998; Jackson & Henrikson, 1997; Leventhal & Brooks-Gunn, 2000;

Li, Stanton, & Figelman, 2000; Ennet *et al.*, 2001). Parents can also indirectly affect the behaviours of their children by influencing the attitudes and cognitions that they develop the risk behaviours (Brody *et al.*, 1998; Brody *et al.*, 2000; Sieving *et al.*, 2000).

Numerous parenting practices in the literature have been associated with the development of youth risk behaviour such as punitive discipline, inconsistent parenting, physical aggression and spanking (Anderson, Lytton, & Romney, 1986; Campbell, 1990; Campbell *et al.*, 1991; Capaldi, 1991; Danforth, Barkley, & Stokes, 1991; Gardner, 1986; Hart, Ladd, & Burleson, 1990; Loeber, Brinthaupt, & Green, 1990; Loeber & Lahey, 1987; Patterson, 1986; Peterson, Ewigman, & Vandiver, 1994; Patterson & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1984; Salzinger *et al.*, 1993; Strassberg *et al.*, 1994; Wahler & Dumas, 1986).

Studies have demonstrated that positive parenting practices, by using strong bonding and communication, can decrease the risk-taking behaviour among adolescents (Kosterman *et al.*, 1997; Dishion & Andrews, 1995). On contrary, negative (i.e. poor) parenting practices have been found to be associated with weak bonding and poor parent-child communication that can play a significant role in the development of anti-social behaviour or risk behaviour among youth (Anderson & Henry, 1994; Chilcoat & Anthony, 1996; Clarke & Shields, 1997; Cohen, Richardson, & La Bree, 1994; Gorman-Smith *et al.*, 1996; Steinberg, Fletcher, & Darling, 1994; Wills & Cleary, 1996). The adolescence age is considered risky to get involved in potentially harmful activities and maintained during the period of adulthood (Huang & Ida, 2004; Jackson *et al.*, 2012).

A plethora of research has documented that parenting behaviours/practices relates with the risk behavioural outcomes among the children. For instance, studies have linked parenting practices with unintentional injuries as a potentially harmful or risk behaviour among the children (Grunbaum *et al.*, 2004; Brener *et al.*, 2004; Eaton *et al.*, 2002; Brener *et al.*, 2002). However, the researches highlighted that parenting behaviours/practices could become stronger predictor for the violent behaviours among the children (Durant *et al.*, 1994; Nansel *et al.*, 2001; Krug *et al.*, 2002; Nansel *et al.*, 2003). A great number of studies have linked the debate on the nature of parenting behaviours/practices and the use of substance by the children (Newcomb, Maddahian, & Bentler, 1986; Amett, 1992; Hawkins, Catalano, & Miller, 1992; Durant *et al.*, 1999; Paglia & Room, 1999). Moreover, the researchers have predicted the outcome of unhealthy dietary behaviour and inadequacy of physical activities among the children due to the negative practices of parents (Middleman, Vacquez, & Durant, 1998; Neumark-Sztainer *et al.*, 1998; Huang *et al.*, 2003; Littleton & Ollendick, 2003; Brener, Billy, & Grady, 2003; Rey-López *et al.*, 2008).

## **2.9 Parenting Practices and Violence as Risk Behaviour**

Campaert, Annalaura, and Menesini (2018) indicate in their research findings that in late childhood and adolescent period, poor parenting practices especially harsh disciplinary and poor monitoring practices are more associated with moral disengagement which further leads to the aggressive behaviour among children. The finding of the study explicated that higher level of harsh discipline and lower level of monitoring practices was associated with the moral disengagement of their children. The theory of moral

agency proposed by Bandura was in line with the findings of the study, where moral standards have been acquired through the process of socialization and further act accordingly with those moral standards (Bandura, 1986, 2002). However, the compliance of the moral standards have been regulated by the sanctions (i.e. personal or social nature).

Acar, Uçuş, and Yıldız (2017) examined in their research that higher level of authoritarian parenting and the lower level of closeness of children with their parents appeared to demonstrate the externalizing behavior problem in the children. The findings indicate that lower level of parent-child closeness, harsh disciplinary and controlling approach towards children may lead to negative behavior such as aggressive and violent behavior among children. Another finding in the study illustrates that parent-child conflict may cause externalizing behavior problem among children. The findings were congruent with other studies as well (Chang *et al.*, 2003; Pianta & Harbers, 1996).

Manzoni and Schwarzenegger (2018) analysed that higher level of parental maltreatment among the children lead to the prevalence of violence. The study sample was collected from 6 countries and it was exhibited in the research that parental maltreatment had a strong effect on prevalence of violent behaviour among the children. Researches have demonstrated the parental maltreatment leads to children witnessing violence among their parents, which is consequently associated more with the developmental problems among the children (Gilbert *et al.*, 2009; Gershoff, 2002; Howells & Rosenbaum, 2007). The studies were in line with other studies, where

parental violence and use of physical punishment had associated with the externalizing behaviour problems among the children (Durant & Ensom, 2012; Weiss *et al.*, 2015).

Knerr, Gardner, and Cluver (2013) had done a systematic review in low and middle income focussing the improvement of positive parenting and reducing negative parenting practices. A large number of studies have reported the results for favouring the positive parenting practices interventions and reducing the negative parenting interventions for the positive development of children or lessen the probability of having child maltreatment in lower and middle income countries.

However, a study from Pakistan, Rahman *et al.*'s (2009) based on the large sample sizes, who were judged at the lower level of probability of risk bias to produce the same results. The same kind of study has been conducted in South Africa and based on the similar finding as judged in Pakistani settings (Cooper *et al.* 2009). Furthermore, the reviewed literature in the study suggests the parenting interventions may improve the parental interactions with the children and parental knowledge for the positive developmental outcome of their children.

Maas, Herrenkohl, and Sousa (2008) in their study reviewed the research on child maltreatment and the prevalence of youth violence. The review addressed the associations between the direct effect of maltreatment of children and the higher perpetration rate of youth violence among the maltreated children. However, the physical punishment by the parents had been considered as the most significant contributor for youth violence. Moreover, few of the studies have numerated the results, where lesser physical abuse or punishment also leads to later violence for some youth. The study was

in line with other research findings, where physical punishment or harsh parenting practices had been observed as consistent predictor of violence among youth (Herrenkohl *et al.*, 1997; Loeber *et al.*, 2005).

Haggerty *et al.*'s (2013) examined the role of parenting and peers to predict the violence behaviour among the students of 10<sup>th</sup> grade. Researchers have argued the relationship between negative parenting practices, including harsh parenting practices or inconsistent disciplinary practices, and developmental outcome of violent behaviour among children (Hawkins *et al.*, 1992; Henry, Tolan, & Gorman-Smith, 2001; Herrenkohl *et al.*, 2000; Petterson & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1984). Moreover, the adolescents or the young adults exposed to harsh disciplinary practices or violent forms of disciplinary practices are more likely to be involved in violent behaviour (Heimer, 1997). However, the researchers have found that parental history has been associated with the violent behaviour among the children (Herrenkohl, 2000). Positive parenting practices, including parental control and monitoring can play a shielding or protective role to involve the children in violent or negative behavioural outcome (Gorman-Smith, Henry, & Tolan, 2004, Griffin *et al.*, 2000; Herrenkohl *et al.*, 2003).

Ofoha, Ogidan, and Saidu (2018) conducted the study in Nigerian society and demonstrated in their research that use of harsh parenting practices is harmful for the development of children and community based parenting education programme helps to reduce the violent behaviour and promote learning positive parenting strategies of dealing with children. The findings revealed the empirical support for the implementation of

Parenting Education Programme which helps the parents to be more effective for the optimal development of their children.

## **2.10 Theoretical Framework**

Theories are considered to be a part of established knowledge, based on the evidences and rigorous peer reviews (Anderson *et al.*, 2005). They are useful in any research to ensure appropriate models to make harmony with the reality of the happenings in society. For instance, the theory of practice of parenting and the actual task of parenting have been unified on these principles. Theory also becomes useful in constructing frameworks for further future explorations (White and Klein, 2002).

Parenting has long attempted to differentiate between various styles of parenting practices in order to account for individual differences in parenting and its effect on child development (Rubin & Chung, 2013). Social Learning Theory and Parental Acceptance / Rejection Theory (PAR Theory) would explain the theoretical linkages between parenting practices and developmental outcomes among the youth.

### **2.10.1 Social Learning Theory**

Social Learning Theory elucidates that novel behaviours are learned through direct observations or experiences and modeling others in the social context (Bandura, 1977). Socialization process seems difficult to complete by employing selective reinforcements (positive or negative) to shape or reshape the human behaviour (Bandura, 1969). The theory posited that children have been surrounded with numerous influential models. Parents are considered as one of the significant influential models for children that

provide the opportunity to observe the behaviour and imitate. However, there are various factors that influence the parenting practices such as religion, culture, socio-economic status and neighbourhood (advantaged or disadvantaged). Bandura (1971) suggested that effective models of behavior are selected and unsuccessful models are discarded. Furthermore, children model themselves after individuals they trust and admire (Bandura, 1971). Therefore, to the extent that responsive, warm parenting inclusive of reasoning results in children's reciprocity and compliance (Grusec, 2011), it can be inferred that children turn to their parents as models and internalize their behaviors, values, and socialization goals.

From this theory, it can thus also be inferred that children who experience harsh or ineffective parenting practices may ignore or not internalize their parent's attempts at socialization during scaffolding practices, weakening the relation between the two. Conversely, children who experience supportive parenting practices may be more willing to accept their parent's scaffolding practices, resulting in a stronger relation between the two. In this regard, over time, parenting styles may modify parents' ability to socialize their children by altering the effectiveness of their practices and children's receptiveness to their guidance (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

This theory has extracted two main pathways for parent-child relationships. The first pathway is considered as positive where parents' model positive behaviours towards their children and as a consequence children observe and imitate positive behaviours/interactions. The second pathway is negative where parents' model negative

behaviours and as a result children learn and imitate negative behavioural outcomes (Whiteman *et al.*, 2011).

### **2.10.2 Parental Acceptance-rejection Theory**

Parental acceptance-rejection theory (PARTheory) is a theory of socialization and lifespan development that aims to predict and explain major causes, consequences, and correlates of parental acceptance and rejection in the USA and worldwide (Rohner, 1986, 1990, 2001, 2011). The theory postulates that parental acceptance and parental rejection have bipolar dimensions where parental warmth, with parental acceptance at the positive end of the continuum and parental rejection at the negative end (Hussain and Munaf, 2012). The theory predicts that parental acceptance has consistent positive enforcements and parental rejection constitutes negative enforcements by the parents on their children.. Parental acceptance refers to the love, affection, care, comfort, support while parental rejection refers to the absence or withdrawal of the warmth, love, or affection that parents can feel and express toward their children.

The dimension of parental acceptance refers to the parental feeling of warmth, love, care, comfort and nurturance towards their children, while parental rejection refers to the withdrawal of parental feeling of warmth, love, care, comfort and nurturance towards their children (Rohner, 2016). The theory assumes that warmth dimension of perceived parental acceptance and rejection has been interlinked with the quality of parent-child affectual relationships (Rohner and Khaleque, 2010). This dimension is based on the main conceptual notion that place all humans on one continuum where

children experienced more or less feeling of love, care, comfort and nurturance from their parents.

The theory assumes that if and when this need for positive response is not fulfilled by parents or significant others, children tend to develop the following negative personality dispositions, including: (1) hostility/aggression, (2) dependence, (3) negative self-esteem, (4) negative self-adequacy, (5) emotional instability, (6) emotional unresponsiveness, and (7) negative worldview. The theory postulates that rejected children tend to develop a negative worldview characterized by beliefs that this world is a dangerous place, where people in general are unfriendly, hostile, and not trustworthy (Batool & Najam, 2012). The theory also predicts that the experience of parental rejection in childhood often leads to the development of rejection sensitivity and psychological maladjustment that tend to extend into adulthood worldwide across culture (Rohner & Khaleque, 2010; Ibrahim et al., 2015). However, as we know, to date, only one study was conducted in the USA to test this prediction of the IPARTTheory (Ibrahim et al., 2015).

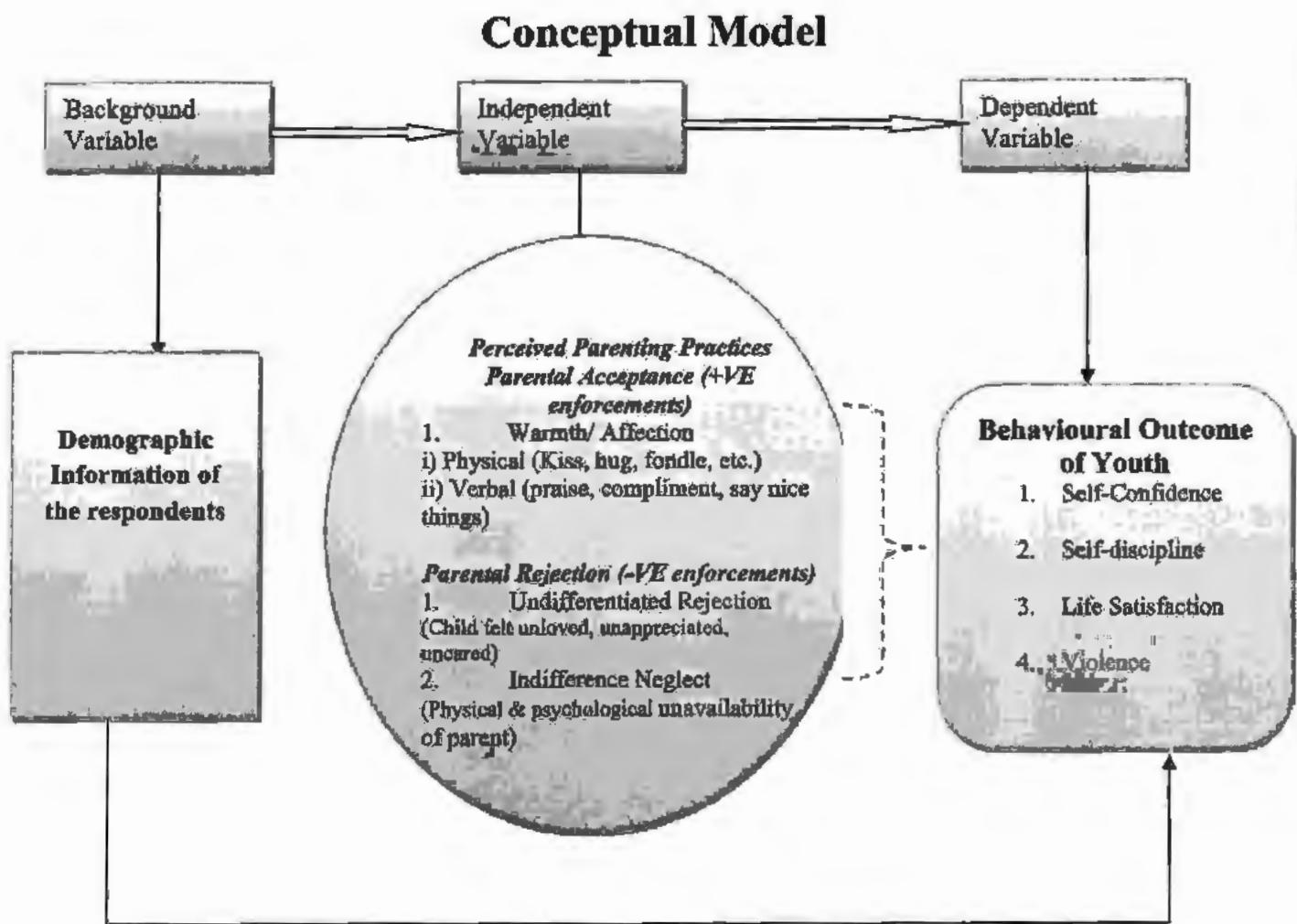
## **2.11 Conceptual Model**

This section provides a critical perspective on the nurturance of positive or risk behaviour by exploring the most prominent scientific theories of parenting practices. Following the introduction and theoretical review of the literature, this section explains the conceptual model which is illustrated in figure 2. This is the basic conceptual model of the research and gives an overview of the whole research highlighting concepts that have emerged

from the literature review. The model summarizes how these concepts are related to each other to explain the concept of parenting practices in developing risk behaviour.

Perceived parenting practices can typically be classified into two kinds namely; parental acceptance and parental rejection, based not only the etiology of the concept but on the particular focus or orientation assumed about the linkages between parenting practices and risk behaviour among individuals. Parental acceptance covers the feeling of warmth and affection (either physical or verbal) of parents towards their children while parental rejection constitutes the feeling of undifferentiated rejection, indifference neglect, and aggression of parents towards their children. There are numerous factors that influence these parenting practices such as religion, culture, socio-economic status, and neighbourhood.

The framework illustrates that where parental acceptance has been enforced by the parents, there would be more chances of affectional bond between parents and their children. This type of strong bond will make children behave positively. On the contrary, parental rejection is considered as negative enforcements of parents towards their children which consequently increases the chances of children developed risk behaviour.



**Figure 2.2: Conceptual framework for understanding the relationship of parenting practices and youth behaviour among College Students**

## Chapter 3

### Methodology

In this section, the researcher discussed the description of materials and methods used in the study. It also deals with the research paradigm, research design and strategy, study population, sampling procedure and sample size for the study, tools used in the research and ethical considerations for the research. The study used mixed methods research approach. In mixed method approach, the researcher opted sequential exploratory design. In this design, qualitative section was followed through quantitative section in a sequence. For the qualitative phase, the data were collected from the parents of the students by conducting in-depth interview. Initially, the qualitative study was conducted to have the in-depth understanding of parenting practices and how it relates to the outcomes of youth (students) behaviour. Later, the quantitative phase of the research was carried out to investigate the nature of relationships between parenting practices and youth behavioural outcome and how parenting practices affect the youth behavioural outcomes.

#### 3.1 Research Paradigm

In the research process, philosophical underpinnings remain hidden (Slife & Williams, 1995), however they could significantly influence the research practice and it needs to be identified as well. Philosophical worldview can be interchangeably used as a paradigm that refers to the underlying assumptions and intellectual structure upon which research and development in the field of inquiry is based (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Some

of the major research paradigms are positivism, constructivism, advocacy/participatory, and pragmatism that guide the researcher to use particular research methods.

The positivist philosophical notions are considered as traditional form of research that focuses more on quantitative research. Constructivism philosophical ideas are often combined with quantitative findings of the research (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). It is based on the major assumption, where subjective meanings have been developed out of the product of social experiences (Guba, 1990; Schwandt, 2007). While those who advocate the advocacy/participatory paradigm, they felt that participatory paradigm is more concerned with qualitative research approach, while foundation of the quantitative phase of research. Moreover, pragmatism comes out of the debate on actions and consequences (Cherryholmes, 1992). The pragmatic philosophical underpinnings use mixed methods to derive knowledge about the problem through different pluralistic approaches (Creswell, 2008).

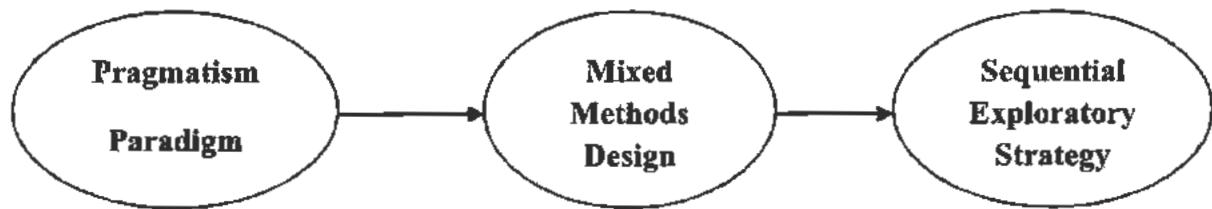
In this study, pragmatic paradigm was employed which appears most appropriate within the action and consequences debate in emphasizing research problem. Parenting practices vary from culture to culture or society to society. The phenomenon has different layers and these contextual understanding of the conceptual layers are difficult to measure or observe through only the positivist or constructivist philosophical notions.

### **3.2 Research Design**

The study has used mixed methods design that provides direction for procedures in research design to neutralize the bias inherent to integrate the quantitative and

qualitative methods of research and the selection of any method from both strands (Creswell *et al.*, 2003).

Multi-methodology research strategy is required particularly in studying the parenting that searches for the convergence of results across an array of discrete measurement and modalities and paradigms of research in a broad range of socio-cultural settings worldwide (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005).



*Figure 3.1: Framework for Research Design- The interconnectedness between Paradigm, Design, and Strategy of Inquiry*

### 3.2.1 Sequential Exploratory Design

Sequential strategy was used to shape the procedures for research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003), where researcher use the integrative approach to converge the findings of two divergent research strands (Creswell, 2008). This involve a start with any of the method either qualitative or quantitative method. The researcher employed the sequential exploratory strategy that first involves the qualitative research method to initially explore the phenomenon of parenting practices, followed by the quantitative research method to see the effect of parenting practices on positive and negative reinforcements among

college students. In this strategy, the researcher needs to contextualize the instruments which are considered as inadequate within the body of existing instruments (Creswell, 2002). Despite the available instruments on parenting practices, it is still needed to explore the phenomena in Pakistani cultural context for developing the instrument. For this purpose, mixed research design was opted by the researcher.

### 3.3 Study Setting

The study was carried out with the students studying in Lahore. The selection of Lahore was made due to heterogeneous and metropolitan character of the population and due to its cultural centrality and socio-economic diversity. Lahore, having population around 10 million (Government of Pakistan, 2006), is the second largest city of the country and renowned as educational hub of the country (Zahra, 2013).



Figure 3.2: Pakistan Map and study Area

At present, 48 public sector colleges (21 male and 27 female based colleges) are providing educational services for the graduates and undergraduates in the city. The students come from all across the district and even from other districts for their professional development. Owing to the significance due to educational capital and culturally diverse population, Lahore has been denoted as an appropriate study setting for this research.

### **3.4 Selection of the respondents**

In qualitative phase of the research, respondents were selected as students (male), parents and teachers of the public sector colleges. However, male students comprised the population of the study in the quantitative phase. According to Pakistan Education Research Network (PERN), there were 33114 male students enrolled at public sector colleges in district Lahore1. The college students are emerging adults to investigate the importance of behavioural outcomes of the students on the basis of change in the nature of parenting practices right after the S.S.C level (10th class) of education in the Pakistani society. On another end, the students usually prove significantly fruitful and purposeful in the divergent researches as enabling to collect information from the population of the diverse socio-economic backgrounds (Lohfind & Paulsen, 2005).

### **3.5 Sample Size**

Determining an accurate and precise sample size implies the actual and true representation of the study population. In quantitative phase of the study, the sample size was calculated through Taro Yamane (1967) formula.

The appropriateness could be assessed where given population in the study is known and sampling frame is available. The list for the government colleges (boys) has been obtained by approaching to the Directorate Colleges, Lahore for further selection of the sample size by using the following formula from the total population i.e. male students of the public colleges in District Lahore.

Table 3.1: *Summary of Male Students' Enrolment at Government Colleges (Boys) of Lahore*

No. of Boys colleges		Number of Boy Students	
Total	21	Enrolment	33114

### 3.6 Calculation of Sample Size by using Formula

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$$

Where; n = required sample size

N = Target Population size = 33,114

e = Margin of error (level of significance) = 3.5%

Margin of error is assumed to be at 3.5% and at confidence interval of 96.5%. Total sample was calculated by using the formula as 797 male students. In order to address the non-response rate in the field, the researcher made 20% increase in the sample size to handle the concern of non-response rate. Therefore, the estimation with the increase of 20% sample size for the study was calculated as 956 students who were studying at the public sector colleges of Lahore. However, non-response rate is discussed below in

detail. The fixation of the respondents in the qualitative phase of the research was limited to four students, four parents and two teachers in each Focus Group Discussion.

### **3.7 Sampling Procedure**

**Sampling Procedure** This section discusses the sampling process of the research study. Moreover, it also considers the information on measures taken in the sampling process for the selection of sample during the data collection. The researcher selected public sector colleges for data collection from the students. Due to time limits, budgetary and restricted research findings.

Due to the inconvenience of the limited time period and scarce funding, the researcher did not able to conduct the survey in each of the government college (boys) of Lahore. Therefore, the researcher selected eight public sector colleges out of 21 male colleges from the list with the consultation of the supervisor. Therefore, the researcher selected eight public sector colleges out of 21 male colleges from the list with the consultation of the supervisor. Sample was allocated as per size of the students due to unequal enrolments at selected public sector colleges of Lahore. Proportional sampling technique was employed for assigning the sample as per proportional allocation at

Proportional allocation formula is given below.

$$ni = n \left( \frac{Ni}{N} \right)$$

Where:

$ni$  = sample size for each college.

$n$  = total sample size.

$Ni$  = enrolment in each college.

$N$  = total enrolment in selected eight colleges.

It was presumed to take an approval from the administrative head of the each selected college i.e. principal before approaching or getting access towards students for the data collection. The researcher met with the administrations (principals or vice principals) of each college and ensured to maintain the confidentiality in terms of any official records related with the students or the attendance sheets after the data collection.

The students have been enrolled in various faculties or disciplines at each college. The research categorised the faculties in four groups for the analysis purpose. These categories were a) Arts and Humanities, b) Social Sciences, c) Natural Sciences.

### **3.8 Data Collection Process**

For data collection firstly, the researcher met with the administrations (principals or vice principals) of each college. With the consent of administration and class teachers, the researcher decided to fill up the questionnaires during class hours timing. The respective class teachers were informed prior the collection of data from students and requested to allow the researcher and his team to give 45 minutes in the class timings to collect the data from the male students at each selected college. The researcher also informed the

concerned teachers regarding permission from the administration to collect the data from the students during class hours.

Before distributing the questionnaires for the data collection, the researcher first introduced about himself and his team. After introduction, the researcher briefly explained purpose of his visit. In addition, the researcher selected every fourth student from official attendance sheets and takes consent from each selected respondent. The researcher or his team members requested to include the next student for his participation if the selected students refused or not absent in the class at the day of collecting data.

The allotted time period of 40 minutes in each session, the students were permitted to ask by the researcher and his team in case of having no or less understanding regarding any item of the questionnaire. However, the students were not allowed for any kind of interaction with other students during the process of providing responses on the close ended questionnaire. During the assigned time, the researcher or his team members were vigilant to see either students missed or skipped or did not provide the response on any item, that students was further requested to please fill the skipped or missed response on that item. The same technique was applied to ensure the good response rate after the completion of data collection during each session for thoroughly checking the questionnaires items by the researcher or his team members. However, the questionnaires with more than two missing items were treated as incomplete.

### **3.9 Research Team**

There were selected two research assistants in the team who were doing research in the same area of research or field of research. Both were postgraduates in the respective

fields of Department of Sociology. The services provided by the team members have been acknowledged and portfolio of each team members has also been attached herewith at Appendix-B. The researcher arranges two comprehensive sessions which briefly introduced about the research and especially the data collection process. Meanwhile, the researcher answered all the queries of the research assistants if they were not able to understand any point. In addition, the plan for the data collection was mutually finalized between research assistants and the researcher. However, the researcher also communicated with them regarding research ethics as well.

### **3.10 Research Instrument**

The study used the self- administered questionnaire as a research instrument which has been applied particularly for the large sample sizes and completed during the collection process by the respondents without any interference of the researcher (Wolf, 2008). Moreover, the self- administered questionnaire was more appropriated to be used for the literate populations (Babbie, 2010). The present study includes the same type of literate population i.e. college students. The final criteria for the application of self- administered questionnaire is the used of same preferred language and researcher ensure this consideration as well for using self- administered questionnaire in the current study. The researcher after due consultation with the supervisor developed the Urdu version of the self- administered questionnaire which seems more easier to understand for the higher secondary students i.e. college students.

The instrument i.e. self- administered questionnaire has three major sections that have been further divided in to sub-parts as well. The first section consists of socio-demographic information while second section measured the independent variable (I.V) and third section measured the dependent variable (D.V).

### **3.10.1 Socio-demographic variables**

The researcher measured socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the respondents' in the study. The researcher asked the questions about college, discipline, degree program they are enrolled in, monthly family income, level of education of parents (i.e. mother and father), type of family, area of residence of the respondents, nature of the job of parents, and status of grandparents (alive/dead).

### **3.10.2 Information Regarding Independent and Dependent Variables**

*Parental Acceptance and Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ)* scale license has been purchased by the Rohner Research Publications (Annexure-C). However, the details on the reliabilities of each scale as well as the means, S.D. and Skewed distributions used in the independent and dependent variable in the study have also been annexed at the end (Annexure-D)

## **3.11 Pre-testing of Data Collection Tool (Questionnaire)**

The data collection instrument was pre-tested from the non-sampling areas to assess the workability of the questionnaire. Thirty respondents were pre-tested for this purpose. However, the pre-tested respondents were not included in the research sample. After

completion of the pretesting, few questions including format of the questionnaire were modified and the measuring tool was then finalized.

### **3.12 Ethical Considerations**

Ethical considerations are the moral obligations for the researchers to follow the rules and procedures of conduct in the respective research (Pring, 2000). Prior to get the data collection in quantitative and qualitative phase of the research from the respondents, the researcher seek permission from the administration of the selected colleges and the teachers of each class teacher, from where the data had been collected. They were also assured regarding the confidentiality of the data and use of data. In addition, the students were allowed to quit at any stage in the data collection allotted time period of 40 minutes whenever they wanted.

### **3.13 Analysis Plan**

The analysis plan of the present study consists of three sections. The first section includes the descriptive analysis while the second section draws the results from bivariate analysis and third section shows the PLS-SEM modelling.

#### **3.13.1 Descriptive analysis**

Descriptive statistics are used to present the general summaries of the quantitative dataset in the presentable form. It is used to explain the basic features of the quantitative data in the research. Descriptive analysis helps the researcher for the simple interpretations of the data and further simplify the large dataset in a sensible way. Trochim and Donnelly

(2009) illustrates the descriptive analysis that reduces the huge amounts of data in a form of simple summary. The researcher calculated the frequency distribution, means and standard deviations of the respondents in the present study.

### **3.13.2 Bivariate analysis**

Bivariate analysis allows the researcher to draw inferences on determining the relationships between two variables. This type of analysis involves comparisons (e.g. Independent sample *t*-test and Analysis of Variance), relationship (e.g causal relationships such as simple linear regression) or the strength of relationships (e.g. Correlation analysis). Pearson R Correlation indicates the strength of relationships between two variables. The coefficient in correlation analysis exhibits the positive and negative type of relationship between the variables. Positive relationship indicates that low scores on one variable tend to be related with low scores on the other variable while the reverse is also true. Negative relationship between the variables suggests that low scores on one variable tend to be related with high scores on the other variable and the reverse is also true.

Independent samples *t*-test is parametric test applied for comparing mean differences of two independent groups. The test has a major assumption with dependent variable on continuous scale and independent variable with two response categories on nominal scale. Similarly, one way Analysis of Variance (one way ANOVA) is a statistical test applied to determine the statistically significant means differences of related population of three or more independent groups. Simple linear regression is

applied, where outcome variable is predicted or explained with one predictor or explanatory variable.

### **3.13.3 Multivariate analysis**

Structural Equational Modelling is applied for predicting the estimation of model for causal explanation on parenting practices and youth behavioural outcome. The path modelling were analyzed by using the SmartPLS software (<http://smartpls.com/>). The path coefficients and R-squared values were determined to provide the statistical basis for the testing of hypotheses whether the relationships between the variables were statistically significant.

## Chapter 4

### Results and Findings

#### Section 1: Qualitative Findings

##### 4.1 Parent Interviews

This section describes the qualitative findings of the Ph.D. project. The qualitative study comprised in-depth interviews with fifteen parents of male students of public sector colleges. The study was conducted to explore the parenting practices/behaviours which manifested to develop positive or negative behavioural outcome among male students in Lahore, Pakistan.

This section consisted on the brief introduction, results, and discussion of the qualitative findings. The introduction allows the researcher to briefly reflect (Section 4.1) how findings from the literature review chapter identify the gaps in the body of knowledge for leading qualitative phase. The results describe the generated themes and sub-themes, and present illustrative excerpts of the interviewees. Finally, the discussion describes the key findings aligning with the existing body of literature.

## 4.2 Introduction

### 4.2.1 Background

The chapter on literature review reported gaps in the body of knowledge related to the parenting practices/behaviours especially the contextual applicability of the concept within different cultural settings. In particular, there has been a paucity of research studies within the Pakistani cultural context which described the kinds of approved parental warmth practices and parental rejection practices.

Among the small number of available studies, Stewart along with his colleagues focussed on parenting within Islamic culture, particularly Pakistani cultural context (Stewart *et al.*, 1999, 2000). However, few studies on South Asian Muslim communities explored parenting practices especially within Pakistani, Indian and Bangladeshi culture (Irfan, 2004, 2008; Anto-Awuakye, 2009). From the contributions of other researches and especially a study conducted on "Functional Parenting in Pakistan" by Stewart *et al.* (2000) aided the researcher to identify salient features of parenting in Pakistani culture and provide the basis for the current research.

The decision to employ the qualitative research approach for the present study was based on two important logics. Firstly, the intention of the present study was to understand the kinds of approved parenting acceptance practices and parenting rejection practices among parents in Lahore, Pakistan rather than measuring parenting acceptance and rejection practices on the first step. For this major reason, a qualitative exploration was considered to be the most appropriate approach. The former argument of Watt has

contended that qualitative approach provides an essential tool for understanding the practices/behaviours of the people because "people's behaviours are enmeshed within the social, economic and environmental conditions under which they are living" (Watt, 2005).

Secondly, qualitative approach was considered to be more suitable due to little knowledge in the research area. Despite generating pre-conceived ideas in designing research methods, the purpose was to allow the parents to discuss their own rearing experiences within the acceptance-rejection domain in order to generate new ideas and themes which might be further explored in subsequent quantitative study. Newton & Bower (2005) suggested the usefulness of qualitative research methods in providing a theoretical base for the development of valid measures in the research area.

#### **4.3 Results**

Most commonly applied are inductive approaches to analyse the verbatim transcripts of the interview include grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Charmaz, 2006) and thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Due to mix-methods broader framework in this research, the aim was to identify relevant themes and sub-themes rather than developing formal theory. Therefore, transcripts of the interview were analysed with thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is one of the major approach in analysing qualitative data which provides "a method for identifying, and analysing reports patterns (themes) within data" (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Thematic analysis was conducted on the completion of verbatim transcripts of the in-depth interviews. The researcher first translated the data into English language. Significant themes were identified and coded afterwards by employing sentence by sentence approach. The researcher discussed in detail on regular basis with the supervisor and one expert in the respective area of research for the coding of the verbatim transcripts of the interviews.

Member checking was performed to ensure the further explication in the developed themes by the participated four parents. All of the four participants included in member checking thought that themes were accurately summarized on the basis of their own experiences regarding rearing process. However, one parent added that he might consider college environment factors as more important especially right after matriculation, because in these two years of education (First year & Second year of college education) children may make their future secure after getting admissions in medical, and engineering universities etc.

#### **4.3.1 Overview of themes and Sub-themes**

Three major themes were identified while keeping in mind the major research questions of the study. The first two themes were expected due to the focus of the interview questions, including justification of good (positive) and bad (negative) parenting practices and developmental behavioural outcomes of youth. However, the last theme (Role of internet and technology) was not expected, yet potentially significant and provocative for this qualitative phase of research.

## Qualitative Model

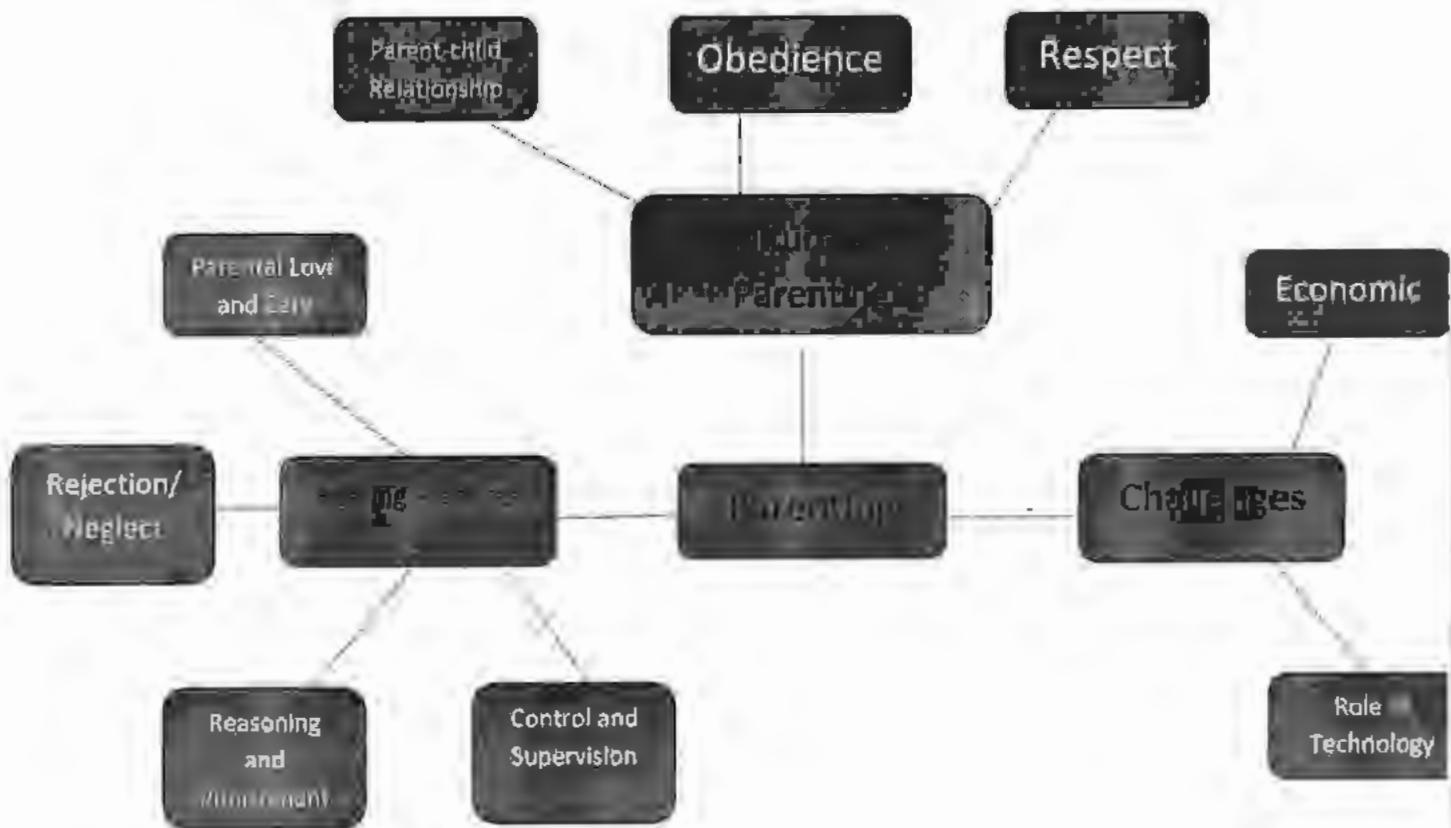


Figure 4.1: Overview of Themes and Sub-Themes

### 4.3.2 Theme-1: Culture and Family

Parents used their childhood and cultural experiences to shape good characters in their children and try to instil the certain acceptable behaviours in them. Moreover, the parents also talked about the challenges and issues in the quality of success that could restrict them in instilling acceptable and desirable behaviours in their children. Obedience, respect and giving importance to relationships are worthy characters of our Pakistani culture, where obedience means to follow the parental instructions all the time. Parents

wanted children to follow their parent's footsteps for becoming obedient. One parent elaborated the concept of obedience in such way,

*Obedience is considered to be the ultimate feature of our culture. My father is alive Mashaa Allah, and even until now, I don't remember that I did not follow the instructions of my father. This is important that you can't change this practice if you grow up like this for so many years. I am using the same practice in raising/rearing my children to follow the parents' footsteps.*

In traditional culture of Pakistan, obedience is required from every child. The children are believed to play different adult roles as expected by their parents, family or culture. One of the parent exhibits that obedience is related with the respect and care of the family members especially parents and siblings. However, the importance of teaching about respect to the children could be realized from the words of one parent,

*...I think, the good part of the respect and relationship is that when the younger one respects the older and older one gives advice to the younger one. The beautiful thing is to be obedient and listening to the older people advice that may help to avoid unwanted results in the life of children.*

This excerpt indicates the significance of respect and advice taking from the elders to avoid undesirable consequences in the life of the children. Age is considered as major

factor for being respected and being obedient to them because in our society, the younger one's is supposed to respect and being obedient to the elders. One of the parent also talked about the sharing and living communally in our society.

*For me.....The beautiful part of our culture is that we live and share communally. We visit occasionally to our relatives and same as they visit us. It is also common in our culture, where relatives come at our home and live with us.*

#### **4.3.3 Theme 2-Parenting / Rearing Experiences of Parents**

This theme relates with the child rearing practices of the parents and how they act towards their children in the socialization process. Moreover, theme was overlapped with the discussion of challenges/issues encountered by the parents in the socialization process.

The most significant and practical thing to give to the children by their parents is considered the reliable love and care (Hoghughi, 2004). The parents have a vital responsibility to ensure the functional needs of their children for the development and survival in the society. The dominant sub-theme emerged as the parental care for their children delineate the parent-child relationship within the context of nurturing and development, where absence of parental care and love adversely affects the positive development of the children. The significance of parental care and love could be evidently demonstrated by the words of one parent (Mother),

*...Care is the first ever and foremost thing needed by the children from their parents. Without parental care and attention, it seems very difficult for the children to survive. Moreover, the responsibility as a mother has increased due to take care of every family member and daily household activities as well.*

This excerpt delineates the perceived mothers care and attention towards their children as an essential constituent for the development or nurturing of the children. In this account, mother has been positioned as the significant figure who stays home to take care of every family members especially children and daily household chores as well. However, the nature of care and relationship between parents and their children may presumably change during the teenage and adulthood period. This span represents the complex transitional period for the children in which parents may need to adapt with new challenges due to changing nature of parent-child relationship. Another Parent (Father) delineates the statement regarding importance of caring for the young adults whenever they were enrolled as a college students right after the matriculation level (i.e. 10<sup>th</sup> Class),

*.....For me, it is always not easy to give them (children) freedom especially when both of my children were enrolled as an intermediate students because I can understand the dire consequences on such kind of freedom given to them. I allow them to make friends whom I approve otherwise I*

*preferably don't allow them until they don't get themselves enrolled in engineering.*

The excerpt indicated the importance of parental concern and care at the time of induction at the college level in our society, while the importance of intermediate level (F.Sc or 12<sup>th</sup> Class/Grade) for the enrollment in major program of engineering, medical or computer science students could be realized by the words of aforementioned parent. However, parents also limit the interaction of their children with other children because of undesirable outside consequences. In Pakistani society, the students up till the level of matriculation (10<sup>th</sup> Class/Grade) are considered to be very controlled at school level while right after the students are going to be enrolled at intermediate level or went outside the confines of school, they make new friends and expose themselves to the adulthood as compared to childhood or the age of adolescents. Similarly, two of the parents clearly exhibits regarding their supervising and control experiences towards the activities of their children.

*.....They (My children) are not allowed to spend time with children of neighbourhood. We don't want them to spend time outside due to many of the undisciplined and idle children in the streets of our neighbourhood. We are considered to be very respected and disciplined family in our neighbourhoods.*

The excerpt also delineates that the parents had limited the exposure of their children to avoid spending time outside home due to undesirable influences. The perspective leads to the notion that parents have strong desire for their children to act and behave in such a way that is acceptable in our society. In addition, they also want to keep their honour and respect in the community as compared to losing respect and honour due to the unacceptable acts and behaviours of their children in the community. Among the parents of one Focus Group, a parent talked about the control on the timetable of children's activities after coming back from the college,

*....My son is in 12<sup>th</sup> Grade, I always keep him busy to set the timetable for all activities Once he come back from the college, he takes his lunch and gets some rest and goes to the tuition at the academy until 8pm which is very nearer to the home. Meanwhile, he does not get enough time to mingle with the street children. When he comes back from academy, he spend some time to watch sports on Television, After having dinner, he does his homework and goes to bed for sleep. This schedule keeps him busy all the time to restrict him from any undesirable influences.*

This excerpt illustrates that parents restricted and controlled their children by making strict schedule to follow, so that he might get no spare time for other activities and spend

almost every space time staying at home. Moreover, parents did not allow to spend time outside and make them busy in following the busy schedule.

Evening curfew is considered as one of the supervision and control technique used by the parents for avoiding any undesirable consequences for their children. Parents in almost all FGD's allowed their children to stay out of home for the study purposes such as coaching from the academy or any study related activity except one parent who described that I would let my children to stay out late on evenings if he was spending time for the sports activity or went to Masjid (Mosque) for Namaz (Prayer).

*For me .....I want my children to be at home by the sunset.*

*I have communicated the possible issues and concerns they may get into while staying out late at the evenings. It is not a good habit to develop to stay out late.*

In this excerpt, the parents show their concerns regarding whereabouts of their children to supervise and control them. If parents do not allow their children to stay out late then it maybe because they restrict their exposure to form any unwanted relationships with bad children. Two of the parents showed the interest that we would prefer to form the strong relationship with our children rather than imposing strict supervision and control on them but on the other end of the continuum, we would communicate effectively with them that how they could avoid the risky behavior. One of the parent elaborated the importance of training rather than educating the children such as,

*I think, education is considered as necessary but training is the thing that should be compulsory for the children. Most of the times, parents have more focus on education as compared to the training. The training might take an ignition from the mother's lap. If we (as parents) give them good training then their growing will be as good as wanted by every parent and if there remains any flaw/loopholes in the training process from the start, it means the base/foundation was wrong.*

This excerpt focused the significance of training for the children as compared to give the formal education. However, education remains the necessary and important for the upcoming life of the children but training should be compulsory to train the children for wanting desirable and wanted behaviours in the society.

#### ***Reasoning vs. Punishment***

Parents had shared their opinions regarding the use of reasoning or the reasoning to gain desirable results in the upbringing of the children. The participants (i.e. parents) show wide variations in using reasoning or the use of physical or psychological punishments to warn their children from unacceptable behaviours. One of the parents talked about the importance of giving space to the children such as,

*One (parent) should give awareness regarding the positive and negative aspects to the children and they (parents)*

*should give enough space to children, so they might easily share everything with the parents. If he finds any outside medium to share his concerns then it is not possible that he will ever find good guidelines. There might be wrong guidelines which could divert him from the acceptable/right way.*

Another parent talked about the presence of good attitude for the upbringing in the same way such as,

*As a parent, I practiced discipline to my children. I think, frank attitude is necessary where children could share everything with you. For example, if I go home and I am feeling tired, but the child wants to discuss problem with me and I am unable to listen him due to my tiredness. The next time, maybe he will not share the problem with you. When you allow your children to discuss their issues within the frank environment, they do so.*

This excerpt shows the selection of one category, either the reasoning or the punishment, one should understand the importance the parent-child sharing regarding the positive and negative aspects. Before focusing on the reasoning or punishment practices, parents should give enough space to their children so they might share easily without hesitation regarding the important matters with their parents. One more parent focused the importance of convincing children through giving the advice.

*For me, parents might share knowledge and vision with their children. However, I don't prefer to force them regarding anything but to advise them. I do want to*

*encourage them to pursue education and even in every important aspects of their lives. All the time, I like to advice rather pushing hard to achieve desired outcomes. What I think, advise giving/reasoning is much more important rather than pushing hard to achieve the results.*

The excerpt indicates the reasoning/advice as the tool for making positive relationship between the parents and their children. It delineates the importance of advice giving rather than forcing their children in the matters to achieve the outcomes. Advice giving or reasoning might help them to produce acceptable behaviours in the society. However, one of the parent talked about pushing hard in some matters in such a way,

*....I encourage and closely follow up the learning process of my children. Unless I push hard, they may not come to the stage of learning the good things as desired or acceptable. They could experience failures, so I prefer to advise them while pushing hard as well.*

The excerpt illustrates the using of coercive measures in important circumstances especially when reasoning or advice giving was not much more effective. Parents feel that pushing hard is more effective rather than giving advises or reasoning to the children. The above excerpt focuses that children may not learn good things unless they are being push hard by their parents. This indicates the use of coercive measures in controlling the learning process of the children rather than only giving advice to their children. However,

one of the parent talked about the failures in attempting coercive measures as compared to the reasoning such as,

*I treated my children anger and nagging. Even if I am in the transformational phase where I changed my behaviour, they still hold the view and image of the angry father. I did not treat them with love and patience but at the same time, I consistently ignore the damage I did to them. They are becoming young at this stage of life and as sons they still are not able to share anything without hesitation with me.*

The excerpt indicates that how parents may cause damage to the desired results by pushing hard their children. Parents should not select the coercive measures to avoid irritability and stress in the behaviours of their children. However, the parents exhibit the opinion of changing the values that make more responsible parent to be patient and mature instead of enforcing children to behave in a desired way. Moreover, the same parent summed up the opinion when talked about the responsibility as the parent in such a way,

*.....For me, parents should be patient and mature all the time. Whatever happen, they should treat their children gracefully. Parents should patiently advise to their children that may not make them irritated or stressed. We need to be very close with our children, so that they could comfortably*

*discuss things with us. This may also help them (children) to make good choices and acceptable normative behaviours in the society. Nothing would be changed with coercion or force. We should come up with alternative solutions for making desired results but not such kind of force.*

Another parent also focused on the same thing in such a way as,

*Parents should have illustrating skills to make their children understand about the important matters of life. Whenever child wanted to communicate any issue with the parents, they show reaction immediately before listening completely to their children. We love to apply strict disciplinary practices and think that we are giving them good training but actually we are making them our puppets. The medal which my child will achieve, would be mine as I think. We (parents) do not give them breathing space to make any mistakes and if they (children) do not make mistakes then how would they learn. We always learn from our mistakes.*

The opinions and perspectives of parents indicate that most of the respondents were in the favor of applying positive approaches of developing children behaviour. Most of the parents recognized the importance of using positive relationship building between parents

and their children in avoiding undesired results or consequences. While on the other side, same parents forced or threats for making the children's behavior desired and acceptable. However, no one has questioned the value of acceptable behavior and focus the importance of having desired consequences or acceptable behavior as the virtue to instill in every child.

#### **4.3.4 Challenges Encountered in Parenting Practices**

##### ***Economic Challenges***

Parents who took the primary responsibility of rearing their children was construed to be the significant figure as the primary financial burden. Parents as participants in the current study has consistently represented the financial burden as the persistent financial battle with needs to fight for everything. It is always considered as the challenging job being a good parent. Parents are the significant actors who provide their children with support, love, guidance and encouragement for succeeding in their lives. However, some of the additional challenges that parents may face in terms of earning and fulfilling the economic needs of their children could become a source of continuous strain for the parents. One of the parent exerted the opinion on the concept in such a way as,

*...For me, economic burden is becoming a source of continuous worry that how I (as a Father) fulfill every single needs of the family. As two of my sons are studying in the college, it becomes really difficult to fulfill their expenses. I left very early (near about 7am) to open the*

*shop and come back home late in the evenings. What I think is, how I could give my child the best. But the situation is very miserable and pathetic where the pressure on being the parent to fulfill all the needs of the children has become a most challenging issue. Sometimes, I feel completely helpless and stressful due to this financial burden.*

Parents viewed economic burden as the significant part of everyday life. It is the financial burden on the parents which had consistently occupied their thoughts and make them stressful and helpless during the rearing process. In our society, parents are expected to fulfill the economic needs of the parents, even at the stage of colleges and universities education, where it becomes very difficult for the parental figure to manage the economic matters of the family as well as their studies. Three of the parent identified the concern of economic pressure for the basic necessities of life due to financial burden such as,

*We (as parents) are in the continuous ordeal (Kari Aazmaish in Urdu) that either we pay for the utility bills which are rising day by day or the expenses of the foods or the studies of our children. The situation is very alarming that we have not been able to get a rest in our lives. On the other side, government is also not able to produce the favorable situations for the parents as well.*

The excerpt indicates that financial or economic burden was associated with the basic necessities of life. The parents have been facing difficulties in providing the basic necessities to the family especially to meet the educational needs of the children. On the other end of the continuum, the government is not supporting any favorable thing for the parents in this miserable time.

### *Role of Technology*

Nowadays, the use of mobile phones among the young children is increasing is very rapidly. In this section, the researcher introduced what parents think about the prevalence of using mobile phones in their children. On the other side, one cannot neglect the significance of considerable acceptance of using smartphones with persistent access to social media via internet on the smartphones. The parents often allowed their children to use the mobile phones whenever they were around and for limiting their time period to use the mobile phones. One of the parent talked about the use of mobile phone in his children such as,

*One (parent) should allow them (children) to use the mobile phones with directions to use it for limited time and also keeping an eye while they are using the mobiles. The use of mobile phone does not spoil the children while he (child) chooses the negative way himself of using mobile phones. The children should use the mobile phones in a positive way.*

This excerpt shows that the parent may allow their children to use the mobile phones under strict monitoring and limiting their time period to use the phone as well. However, there are two ways (positive and negative) to use the mobile phones while the preference must be given to the positive ways of using the mobile phones. However, the use of technology either the internet or the mobile phones has widened the gap between parents and their children. One parent talked about the widening of the gap due to technological shift in our society.

*....For me, the use of mobile phones has created a big gap between me and my children because whenever we sit together for the dinner, they are consistently using the mobile phones. I become very much fed up sometimes because I think, we have seen the time of telephone use and mobile phone as well. We are like very confused generation but our parents trained us totally different like we are doing training of our children.*

In this excerpt, parent focuses on the parent-child gap due to technology (i.e. mobile phones). The parent blamed this gap is due to exposure of two different time periods, where telephone usage and usage of mobile phones were more prevalent. However, two of the parents have identified that the usage of mobile phones by the parents is the major reason for the creation of gap. They talked such as,

*I went to the marriage ceremony of my nephew and I found a child going towards the electric wiring. I observed that mother was busy in using mobile phone and when I told her to take her child away from wires then she assigned her maid to keep him away from wires while keeping herself busy again with her mobile. This is now a common practice, not only in upper class but also prevalent in middle class.*

Another parent exerted the frequency of using mobile phones between the parents in her own experiences such as,

*We (parents) also are frequent users of mobile phones. Sometimes, my son use to say that there should be any device to disconnect the signals of mobile phones in our home so that my parents pay attention to us (laughs).*

The parents have explicated the prevalence of addiction use of mobile phones between them (as parents) which has also been considered as the major concern for making the generational gap between parent and child. However, one of the parent has concluded the whole thing in such a way as,

*We are in the midst of unprecedented change and our circumstances are changing against time. As far as I am concerned, social media has greater implications for our*

*life in shaping and reshaping the behaviours. Besides our children spend more time on social media as compared to family, nowadays media has become a major social change and socialization agent. Once it was the prime responsibility of family especially parents.*

The use of mobile phone, internet and social media has overtaken the family system because access to it is not an uphill task. All and sundry (i.e. parents and especially their children) have become addicted to it. It is practically very difficult and impossible mostly for the parents to keep all the time an eye on the use of mobile, internet and social media of their children. However, by virtue of an integrated social control and monitoring approach at school and home, noisome imparts of social media could be reverted.

## Section 2: Quantitative Analysis

### 4.4 Univariate Analysis

Univariate analysis is considered to be the simplest approach to statistical analysis which involves single variable (either dependent or independent) instead of dealing with causation or relationships between two or more variables. Bresnan *et al.* (2007) described that univariate method allows the researchers to examine the isolated effects of every element of the targeted population in any under study phenomenon.

**Table 4.1: Distribution of the respondents on the basis of age, area of residence, and type of family**

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<b>Age of the respondents (years)</b>		
i 15	6	1
ii 16	93	11
iii 17	201	25
iv 18	287	35
v 19	131	16
vi 20	98	12
<b>Total</b>	<b>816</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Area of residence</b>		
i Urban	502	62
ii Rural	314	38
<b>Total</b>	<b>816</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Type of Family</b>		
i Nuclear Family	368	45
ii Joint Family	448	55
<b>Total</b>	<b>816</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 4.1 depicts the distribution on the basis of age, area of residence and type of family of the college students. The ages of the students, ranging from 15 to 20, were reported on continuous variable. The students in the age category of 17 and 18 years old were three fifth (60%) of the total population. However, there were 131 (16%) students who were in the category of 19 years and 98 (12%) were 20 years old.

Area of residence of the sampled population is bifurcated in two categories namely; urban and rural area of residence. There were 502 (62%) of the total sampled population who belonged to the urban category while 314 (38%) sampled college students belonged to the rural residential patterns.

Type of family is categorized in nuclear and joint family system. There were 368 (45%) students who had nuclear family system while 448 (55%) of the sampled population had joint family system.

Table 4.2: *Distribution of the respondents on the basis of monthly family income and no. of children studying in Family*

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<b>Monthly Family Income (In rupees)</b>		
i Up to 20,000	323	40
ii 20,001 to 40000	310	38
iii 40001 to 60000	113	14
iv Above 60000	70	8
<b>Total</b>	<b>816</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>No. of Children Studying in Family</b>		
i Two Children	318	39
ii Three Children	178	22
iii Four Children	162	20
iv Five Children	92	11
v More than Five Children	66	8
<b>Total</b>	<b>816</b>	<b>100</b>

The findings (Table 4.2) exhibit the distribution of the respondents on the basis of average family income and number of children studying in the family. The results indicate that two fifth of the sampled population 323 (40%) were having average family income up to Rs. 20,000 and 310 (38%) respondents were in the category of average family income of Rs. 20,001 to Rs. 40,000 while 113 (14%) of the sampled respondents

had average family income of Rs. 40,001 to Rs. 60,000. There were only 70 (8%) sampled respondents who had average family income of above Rs. 60,000.

The findings showed that almost two fifth 318 (39%) of the sampled population were having two children studying in the family and 178 (22%) respondents had three children studying in the family while one fifth 162 (20%) of the sampled respondents were having four children studying in the family. There were 92 (11%) respondents who were having five children studying in the family and 66 (8%) of the sampled population had more than five children studying in the family.

Table 4.3: Distribution of the respondents on the basis of major subject group and year of study at college

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<b>Discipline</b>		
i Pre-Medical	156	19
ii Pre-Engineering	228	28
iii Computer Science	236	29
iv General Science	54	7
v Arts and Humanities	142	17
<b>Total</b>	<b>816</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Year of Study at College (Intermediate)</b>		
i 1 <sup>st</sup> year	451	55
ii 2 <sup>nd</sup> year	365	45
<b>Total</b>	<b>816</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 4.3 illustrates the distribution of the respondents on the basis of major subject group and year of study at college. Out of the total population of 816 respondents, there were 156 (19%) of the sampled population from pre-medical group and 228 (28%) of the respondents were from pre-engineering discipline while 236 (29%) of the sample were from the discipline of computer science. There were only 54 (7%) respondents of the sampled population from subject group of General Science and 142 (17%) respondents were from Arts and Humanities subject group.

The findings showed that there were 451 (55%) of the sampled population who were in the 1<sup>st</sup> year of study at the college (intermediate level) while there were 365 (45%) of the students who were in the 2<sup>nd</sup> year of intermediate level at college.

**Table 4.4: Distribution of the respondents on the basis of parental (father and mother) educational attainment**

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<b>Educational attainment of Father</b>		
i No Education	136	17
ii Upto Primary	65	8
iii Under Matric	72	9
iv Matriculation	292	36
v Intermediate	132	16
vi Bachelor	77	9
vii Master and Above	42	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>816</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Educational attainment of Mother</b>		
i No Education	198	24
ii Upto Primary	102	13
iii Under Matric	111	14
iv Matriculation	256	31
v Intermediate	88	11
vi Bachelor	36	4
vii Master & Above	25	3
<b>Total</b>	<b>816</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 4.4 describes the distribution of the respondents on the basis of parental (father and mother) educational attainment. There were 136 (17%) of the sampled population who had reported no formal education of their fathers and 65 (8%) of the students replied up to primary level education of their fathers. There were 72 (9%) of the sample who had stated their father's education under matriculation and 292 (36%) of the population had indicated matriculation as their father's educational attainment while 132 (16%) of the students had described their father's level of education as intermediate. There were 77 (9%) respondents who had exhibited the educational attainment of their father as B.A (Bachelor of Arts) and only 42 (5%) students had reported their father's level of education as Master & Above.

There were 198 (24%) of the students who had stated with no formal education of their mothers and 102 (13%) of the students reported with up to primary level education of their mothers. There were 111 (14%) of the sampled population who had replied their mother's education as under matriculation and 256 (31%) of the population had indicated their mother's education as matriculation while 88 (11%) of the students had described their mother's level of education as intermediate. There were 36 (4%) respondents who had exhibited the educational attainment of their mother as B.A (Bachelor of Arts) and only 25 (3%) students had reported their mother's level of education as Master & Above.

Table 4.5: *Distribution of the respondents on the basis of parental (mother and father) occupational status*

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Occupational Status of Father</b>		
i Government employment	238	29
ii Private employment	115	14
iii Own Business	214	26
iv Labour	166	20
v Any other	83	10
<b>Total</b>	<b>816</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Occupational Status of Mother</b>		
i Housewife	775	95
ii Service	41	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>816</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 4.5 illustrates the distribution of the respondents on the basis of parental (father and mother) occupational status. There were 238 (29%) of the sampled population who had indicated their father's occupational status as Government employed and 115 (14%) of the students stated their fathers occupational status as private employed. There were 214 (26%) of the sampled population who reported their father as own business and 166 (20%) of the students had exhibited their father's occupational status as Labourer while 83 (10%) of the sampled students had described their father's occupational status as any other category.

There were overwhelmingly sampled population 775 (95%) who reported their mother's occupational status as housewife while there were only 41 (5%) of the students who stated occupational status of mothers as service (i.e. government or private).

*Table 4.6: Distribution of the respondents on the basis of Life Status of Grandparents*

Items	Alive	Died	Total
	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)
i Grandmother	279(34)	537(66)	816 (100)
ii Grandfather	286(35)	530(65)	816 (100)

Table 4.6 describes the distribution of the respondents on the basis of life status (i.e. alive or dead) of grandparents (i.e. grandmother and grandfather). There were 279 (43%) of the sampled population who reported their grandmother as 'alive' and 537 (66%) of the students had indicated the life status of their grandmother as 'died'. Additionally, there were 286 (35%) of the sampled respondents who opted 'alive' status of their grandfather while 530 (65%) of the respondents choose life status of their grandfather as 'died'.

*Table 4.7: Distribution of the respondents on the basis of facilities of cell phone, Computer or Laptop, Internet, and Motorbike*

Items	Yes Frequency (%)	No Frequency (%)	Total Frequency (%)
i Possession of Cell Phone	633(78)	183(22)	816 (100)
ii Possession of PC or Laptop	384(47)	432(53)	816 (100)
iii Internet Facility	359(44)	457(56)	816 (100)
iv Motorbike Facility	454(56)	362(44)	816 (100)

Table 4.7 illustrates the response of the respondents on the basis of facilities like possession of cell phone, computer or laptop, internet and motorbike provided to them. There were 633 (78%) respondents who had possession of cell phone and 183 (22%) sampled respondents had no cell phones. There were 384 (47%) students who had possession of PC or Laptop and 432 (53%) of the sampled students had no PC or Laptop. The findings reported that there were 359 (44%) respondents who had internet facility while 457 (56%) of the sampled respondents had no internet facility. There were 454 (56%) of the respondents who had motorbike facility while 362 (44%) of the respondents had no motorbike facility.

Table 4.8: *Distribution of the respondents on the basis of daily usage of mobile phone, internet and T.V*

Items	<1 Hour	1-3 Hours	>3 Hours	All the time	Total
	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)
i    Mobile Phone	367(45)	264(32)	170(21)	15(2)	816 (100)
ii    Internet	534(65)	145(18)	123(15)	14(2)	816 (100)
iii    T.V.	586(72)	184(22)	43(5)	3(1)	816 (100)

Table 4.8 describes the distribution of the respondents on the basis of daily usage of mobile phone, internet and Television. The response scale was divided in to four categories (i.e. less than one hour, one to three hours, more than three hours and all the time). The findings indicate that there were 367 (45%) of the respondents who had less than one our usage of mobile phone and 264 (32%) of the sampled respondents who had 1-3 hours usage of mobile phone. There were 170 (21%) students who had more than three hours usage of mobile phone while only 15 (2%) of the sampled respondents opted the category of 'all the time';

The findings exhibit that there were 534 (65%) respondents who had less than one hour usage of internet facility and 145 (18%) of the sample who had usage of internet for 1-3 hours while 123 (15%) of the students who had more than three hours usage of internet facility. Moreover, there were only 14 (2%) respondents who had reported to use the internet facility all the time.

The findings state that majority of the sampled population 586 (72%) who had reported to watch Television for less than one hour daily, 184 (22%) of the sampled respondents reported to watch TV for 1-3 hours daily while 43 (5%) of the students reported to watch TV for 3 hours daily. Furthermore, there were only 3 (1%) students who reported to watch the television all the time.

Table 4.9: Distribution of the respondents on the basis of sharing of worries and joys

Item	Father	Mother	Siblings	Friend	Grand-parents	Total
	f(%)	f(%)	f(%)	f(%)	f(%)	f(%)
To whom you like to talk regarding any educational worry	170(21)	313(38)	121(15)	195(24)	17(2)	816 (100)
To whom you like to talk when you lose temper	97(12)	306(38)	108(13)	280(34)	25(3)	816 (100)
To whom you like to talk when you become shocked on any event	99(12)	352(43)	108(13)	238(29)	19(2)	816 (100)
To whom you like to talk when you feel you are not healthy	150(18)	436(53)	78(10)	129(16)	23(3)	816 (100)
To whom you like to tell that you have fight with any friend	209(26)	122(15)	170(21)	291(36)	24(3)	816 (100)
With whom you have emotional attachment	116(14)	355(44)	125(15)	197(24)	23(3)	816 (100)
With whom you like to spend your free time	63(8)	233(28)	154(19)	318(39)	48(6)	816 (100)

Table 4.9 describes the distribution of respondents on the basis of sharing worries and joys with Parents, Grandparents, siblings and friends. The findings illustrate that majority of the students 313 (38%) like to talk with their mothers regarding any educational worry and 170 (21%) of the students like to talk about their educational worry with their fathers, while 121 (15%) of the sampled respondents like to talk with their siblings regarding any educational worry. There were only 17 (2%) respondents who like to talk with their grandparents in time of any educational worry and 195 (24%) would like to share their educational worry with their friends.

The findings elaborate that majority of the respondents 306 (38%) were like to share with their mothers when they lose their temper and 97 (12%) would like to talk about losing temper with their fathers. Moreover, there were 280 (34%) of the total sampled students who had liked to talk with their friends when they lose temper and there were only 19 (2%) of the respondents who would like to talk about losing temper with their grandparents.

The findings exhibit that there were 352 (43%) of the respondents who had liked to talk with their mothers when they become shocked about any events and there were 238 (29%) of the sample who had liked to share with friends when they become shocked on any events. Furthermore, there were 108 (13%) of the respondents had liked to talk with their siblings about events where they become shocked and there were only 19 (2%) of the sample who would like to talk with their grandparents regarding events where they become shocked.

The findings indicate that more than half of the respondents 436 (53%) about their unhealthy status with their mothers and 150 (18%) of the sampled respondents would like to talk about their health issues/problems with their fathers while there were 129 (16%) of the students who had liked to talk about their unhealthy feelings about themselves with their friends. Moreover, there were 78 (10%) of the sampled students who had liked to share about their unhealthy feelings with their siblings and there were only 23 (3%) of the respondents who had like to share with their grandparents whenever they feel unhealthy.

The findings state that there were 291 (36%) of the respondents who had like to told their friends about fight with any friend and 170 (21%) of the sampled respondents who had liked to share with their siblings regarding their fight with any friend while 209 (26%) of the respondents would like to share with fathers about their fights with any friend. Additionally, there were 122 (15%) of the respondents who had liked to share with mothers whenever they fight with any of the friends and there were only 24 (3%) of the students who had liked to share with grandparents regarding any fight with their friends.

The findings showed that more than two fifth 355 (44%) of the students were emotionally attached with their mothers and 116 (14%) of the sample had emotional attachment with their fathers while there were 125 (15%) students were emotionally attached with siblings. In addition, there were 197 (24%) of the sampled students had emotional attachments with their friends and there were only 23 (3%) of the respondents who were emotionally attached with their grandparents.

The findings propose that almost two fifth of the students 318 (39%) had liked to spend their free time with their friends and 233 (28%) of the sampled students were like to spend free time with their mothers while almost one fifth of the students 154 (19%) would like to spend free time with siblings. Moreover, there were 63 (8%) of the students who had liked to spend free time with their fathers and 48 (6%) of the sample had liked to spend their free time with grandparents.

Table 4.10: *Distribution of respondents on the basis of leisure activities in free time*

Items	Yes	No	Total
	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)
Spending free time on Television	362(44)	454(56)	816 (100)
Spending free time on mobile phone	444(54)	372(46)	816 (100)
Spend free time in playing games	561(69)	255(31)	816 (100)
Spending free time on reading books	528(65)	288(35)	816 (100)
Spending free time with parents	693(85)	123(15)	816 (100)
Spending free time with friends	645(79)	171(21)	816 (100)

The findings (Table 4.10) describe the distribution of respondents on the basis of leisure activities in free time. The findings showed that there were 362 (44%) of the sampled students who did spend free time on T.V while there were 454 (56%) of the students who did not spend free time on T.V. Moreover, there were more than half of the respondents 444 (54%) who had like to spend free time on mobile phone while 372 (46%) of the sample did negate spending free time on mobile phone. Additionally, there were majority

of the students 561 (69%) who had liked to spend free time in playing games and 255 (31%) of the respondents had not liked to spend free time in playing games.

Furthermore, majority of the students 528 (65%) of the sampled students who did spend free time on reading books while 288 (35%) had negated to spend free time on reading the books. In addition, there were significant majority 693 (85%) who had responded to spend free time with their parents while 123 (15%) students had negated the statement that they would like to spend free time with their parents. Moreover, the majority of the respondents 645 (79%) had liked to spend free time with their friends while 171 (21%) had not liked to spend free time with their friends.

**Table 4.11: Frequency Distribution of Warmth/Affection Behaviour of the respondent**

No	Items	Almost	Sometimes	Rarely	Almost
		Always True	True	True	Never True
		Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)
1	Says nice things about me.	625 (77)	125 (15)	47 (6)	19 (2)
2	Makes it easy for me to tell him things that are important to me	438 (54)	218 (27)	69 (8)	91 (11)
3	Is really interested in what I do	439 (54)	181 (22)	107(13)	89 (11)
4	Makes me feel wanted and needed	497 (61)	150 (18)	86 (11)	83 (10)
5	Makes me feel what I do is important	437 (54)	222 (27)	99 (12)	58 (7)
6	Cares about what I think, and likes me to talk about it	448 (55)	193 (24)	108(13)	67 (8)
7	Lets me know he loves me	443 (53)	166 (20)	115(14)	92 (12)
8	Treats me gently and with kindness	593 (72)	136 (17)	52 (6)	35 (5)

Table 4.11 states the distribution of respondents on the items of perceived warmth/affection (i.e. parental acceptance). The first items measured in perceived warmth/affection that how parents say nice things about their children. The findings illustrate that more than three fourth 625 (77%) of the respondents reported in the category of almost always true about parents say nice things regarding their children and there were 125 (15%) of the students had replied with sometimes true that parents say nice things about them. Moreover, there were only 47 (6%) students who had stated with rarely true response category regarding saying nice things of parents about their children and there were 19 (2%) of the sampled students who had reported that it was almost never true when their parents say nice things about them.

The second item in measuring perceived warmth/affection of the parenting practices was how parents make it easy for their children to tell them things that are important for them. The findings explain that more than half of the respondents 438 (54%) had reported that it was almost always true when parents make things easy for communicating with them which are important and there were more than one fourth 218 (27%) of the respondents who had replied with sometimes true regarding their parents make things easy to communicate that are important for them. There were 69 (8%) who reported with rarely true and 19 (2%) who stated with almost never true that parents make it easy for their children to tell them things that are important for them.

The findings propose that more than half of the students 439 (54%) had reported with response category of almost always true that parents seem interested in what their children want to do and there were 181 (22%) of the sampled respondents who reported

with sometimes true regarding their parents interest in what their children want to do. Moreover, there were 107 (13%) of the students with rarely true and 89 (11%) with almost never true response category believe that parents were interested in what they wanted to do.

The fourth item in measuring perceived warmth/affection was that how parents feel their children wanted and needed. The findings illustrate that slightly more than three fifth of the students 497 (61%) reported that it was almost always true when their parents feel wanted and needed for them and there were 150 (18%) of the respondents who had stated with sometimes true when parents make them feel wanted and needed. Furthermore, there were 86 (11%) of the respondents accounted rarely true and 83 (10%) of the students with almost never true when their parents make them feel wanted and needed.

The findings exhibit that more than half of the respondents 437 (54%) had reported that it was almost always true when their parents make them feel what they do is important while slightly more than one fourth 222 (27%) of the sampled students who had accounted sometimes true when parents make them feel that what they do is important. Additionally, there were 99 (12%) of the respondents who had stated with rarely true and only 58 (7%) students with almost never true when their parents make them feel what they do is important.

The sixth item measures the perceived warmth/affection regarding how parents care about what their children think and likes to talk about them. The findings explain

that more than half of the respondents 448 (55%) who stated almost always true with the statement and there were 193 (24%) of the sampled students who indicated sometimes true with how parents care what their children think and likes to talk about those things.

The seventh item was measuring the perceived warmth/affection with how parents let their children to know that they love them. The findings showed that more than half of the respondents 443 (53%) reported with almost always true with the statement and there were 166 (20%) of the sampled students who had stated with sometimes true that parents let them know they love them. In addition, there were 115 (14%) of the respondents replied with rarely true response category and 92 (12%) students with almost never true that parents let their children know they love them.

The findings showed that slightly less than three fourth of the respondents 593 (72%) who had reported with almost always true that parents treat them gently and with kindness and there were 136 (17%) of the respondents who sometimes treat their children with kindness while 52 (6%) of the students had reported with rarely true that parents treat their children with kindness. Moreover, there were only 35 (5%) of the sampled students who replied with almost never true that parents treat them with kindness.

Table 4.12: *Frequency Distribution of Hostility/Aggression Behaviour of the respondents*

No	Scale Items	Almost	Rarely	Sometimes	Almost
		Never True	True	True	True
		Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)
1	Hits me, even when I do not deserve it	554(68)	101(12)	55(7)	106(13)
2	Punishes me severely when he is angry	368(45)	233(29)	128(16)	87(10)
3	Says many unkind things to me	466(57)	144(18)	110(13)	96(12)
4	Goes out of his way to hurt my feelings	436(53)	158(19)	102(13)	120(15)
5	Frightens or threatens me when I do something wrong	199(24)	170(21)	209(26)	238(29)
6	Feels other children are better than I am no matter what I do	322(39)	122(15)	177(22)	195(24)

Table 4.12 states the distribution of respondents on the items of perceived hostility/aggression (i.e. dimension of parental rejection). The first item was measured in

perceived hostility/aggression that how parents hit them, even when they do not deserve it. The findings showed that there were 554 (68%) of the respondents reported in the category of almost never true about parents hit them, even when their children do not deserve it and 101 (12%) of the students had replied with rarely true that parents hit them, even when they do not deserve. Moreover, there were only 55 (7%) students who had stated with sometimes true response category and there were 19 (2%) of the sampled students who had reported with almost true category when their parents hit them, even when they do not deserve it.

The second item in measuring perceived hostility/aggression of the parenting practices was how parents punish their children severely when they are angry on them. The findings explain that 368 (44%) of the students had reported that it was almost never true when parents punishes their children severely when they are angry and there were 233 (29%) of the respondents who had replied with rarely true and 87 (10%) who reported with sometimes true that parents punish them severely when they are angry on them. Additionally, there were 87 (10%) of the sampled students who stated with almost true that parents punish them severely when they angry.

The findings exhibit that more than half of the respondents 466 (57%) had reported that it was almost never true when their parents say many unkind things to them while 144 (18%) of the sampled students who had accounted rarely true when parents say many unkind things to them. Additionally, there were 110 (13%) of the respondents who had stated with sometimes true and 96 (12%) students with almost true when their parents say many unkind things to them.

The fourth item was measuring the perceived hostility/aggression with how parents goes out of way to hurt feelings of their children. The findings showed that more than half of the respondents 436 (53%) reported with almost never true with the statement and there were 158 (19%) of the sampled students who had stated with rarely true that parents hurt the feelings of their children. In addition, there were 102 (13%) of the respondents replied with sometimes true response category and 120 (15%) students with almost true that parents goes out the way to hurt the feelings of their children.

The findings showed that slightly less than one fourth of the respondents 199 (24%) had replied with almost never true when parents threat them when they do something wrong and more than one fifth of the respondents 170 (21%) had reported with rarely true when parents threat or frighten their children whenever they do something wrong. Additionally, there were 209 (26%) of the sampled population was with the view of sometimes true when parents threat their children when they do something wrong and there were 238 (29%) of the students had stated with almost true when parents threat or frighten their children regarding their wrong doings.

The findings propose that slightly less than two fifth of the respondents 322 (39%) had reported with response category of almost never true that parents feel other children are better than me and there were 122 (15%) of the sampled respondents who reported with rarely true while 177 (22%) of the students with sometimes true that parents feel other children are better than me. Furthermore, there were 195 (24%) of the sampled respondents who had reported with almost true that parents feel other children are better than me, no matter what I do.

Table 4.13: *Frequency Distribution of Indifference Neglect Behaviours of the respondents*

No	Scale Items	Almost Never True	Rarely True	Sometimes True	Almost True
		Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)
1	Pays no attention to me	393(48)	171(21)	136(17)	115(14)
2	Is too busy to answer my questions	486(60)	142(17)	119(14)	69(9)
3	Pays no attention when I ask for help	510(62)	115(14)	96(12)	95(12)
4	Pays a lot of attention to me	57(7)	62(8)	146(18)	551(67)
5	Forgets important things I think he should remember	353(43)	160(20)	147(18)	156(19)
6	Pays no attention to me as long as I do nothing to bother him	414(51)	165(20)	111(14)	126(15)

Table 4.12 states the distribution of respondents on the items of perceived indifference neglect (i.e. dimension of parental rejection). The first item was measured in perceived indifference neglect that how parents no attention towards their children. The findings showed that there were 393 (48%) of the respondents reported in the category of almost never true about parents pay no attention toward them and 171 (21%) of the students had replied with rarely true that parents pay no attention to them. Moreover, there were 136 (17%) students who had stated with sometimes true response category and there were 115 (14%) of the sampled students who had reported with almost true category when their parents pay no attention toward them.

The second item in measuring perceived indifference neglect of the parenting practices was how parents were too busy to answer the questions of their children. The findings explain that three fifth of the sampled students 486 (60%) had reported that it was almost never true when parents remained busy to answer their questions and there were 142 (17%) of the respondents who had replied with rarely true and 119 (14%) who reported with sometimes true that parents were too busy to answer the questions of their children. Additionally, there were 69 (9%) of the sampled students who stated with almost true that parents remained too busy to answer their questions.

The findings exhibit that more than three fifth of the respondents 510 (62%) had reported that it was almost never true when their parents pay no attention when asked help by them while 115 (14%) of the sampled students who had accounted rarely true when parents pay attention whenever asked help by them. Additionally, there were 96

(12%) of the respondents who had stated with sometimes true and 95 (12%) students with almost never true when parents pay no attention toward them whenever asked help.

The fourth item was measuring the perceived indifference neglect with how parents pay lot of attention towards them. The findings showed that there were 551 (67%) reported with almost true with the statement and there were 146 (18%) of the sampled students who had stated with sometimes true that parents pay lot of attention toward them. In addition, there were 62 (8%) of the respondents replied with rarely true response category and 57 (7%) students with almost never true that parents pay lot of attention to them.

The findings showed that more than two fifth of the respondents 353 (43%) had replied with almost never true when parents forget important things that he/she should remember and one fifth of the respondents 160 (20%) had reported with rarely true when parents forget important things which he/she should remember. Additionally, there were 147 (18%) of the sampled population was with the view of sometimes true when parents forget important things and there were 156 (19%) of the students had stated with almost true when parents forget important things what they think that they should remember.

The findings propose that more than half of the respondents 414 (51%) had reported with response category of almost never true that parents pay no attention towards them as long as they do nothing to bother them and there were 165 (20%) of the sampled respondents who reported with rarely true while 111 (14%) of the students with

sometimes true that parents pay no attention toward them unless they do things to bother their parents.

Table 4.14: *Frequency Distribution of Undifferentiated Rejection Behaviour of the respondents*

No	Scale Items	Almost	Rarely	Sometimes	Almost
		Never True	True	True	True
		Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)
1	Sees me as a big nuisance	568(70)	73(9)	83(10)	92(11)
2	Seems to dislike me	517(63)	71(8)	110(14)	118(15)
3	Lets me know I am not wanted	452(55)	101(12)	144(18)	119(15)

The first item in measuring perceived undifferentiated rejection of the parenting practices was how parents see their children as a big nuisance. The findings (Table 4.14) explain that there were 568 (70%) had reported almost never true that parents see them as a big nuisance and there were 73 (9%) of the respondents who had replied with rarely true and 83 (10%) who reported with sometimes true that parents see them as a big nuisance. Additionally, there were 92 (11%) of the sampled students who stated with almost true that parents see them as a big nuisance.

The findings exhibit that more than three fifth of the respondents 517 (63%) had reported that it was almost never true when their parents see them as a big nuisance while 71 (8%) of the sampled students who had accounted rarely true when parents see them as a big nuisance. Additionally, there were 110 (14%) of the respondents who had stated with sometimes true and 118 (15%) students with almost true when parents see them as a big nuisance.

The third item was measuring the perceived undifferentiated rejection with how parents let them know that they are not wanted. The findings showed that there were 452 (55%) reported with almost never true with the statement and there were 101 (12%) of the sampled students who had stated with rarely true that parents let them know that they are not wanted. In addition, there were 144 (18%) of the respondents replied with sometimes true response category and 119 (15%) students with almost true that parents let them know that they are not wanted.

Table 4.15: Frequency Distribution of Violent Behaviour of the respondents

No	Scale Items	Almost	Rarely	Sometimes	Almost
		Never	True	True	True
		Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)
1	I like to fight	340(42)	280(34)	110(14)	86(11)
2	I like to hit something or someone	444(54)	154(19)	111(14)	107(13)
3	I become offend without any reason	226(28)	253(31)	143(18)	194(24)
4	I lose my control on loose temper and start breaking things	427(52)	147(18)	88(11)	154(19)
5	I become very emotional when I lose my temper	139(17)	205(25)	227(28)	245(30)
6	I consider world as the most dangerous place	209(26)	231(28)	189(23)	187(23)
7	I cannot have control on myself	212(26)	222(27)	206(25)	176(22)

Table 4.15 propose the distribution of respondents on the items of perceived violent behaviour (i.e. dimension of behavioural outcome). The first item was measured in perceived violent behaviour that how respondents reported that they like to fight. The findings showed that there were 340 (42%) of the respondents reported in the category of almost never true about they like to fight and 280 (34%) of the students had replied with rarely true that they had liked to fight. Moreover, there were only 110 (14%) students who had stated with sometimes true response category and there were 86 (11%) of the sampled students who had reported with almost true category that they had liked to fight.

The second item in measuring perceived violent behavior of the parenting practices was how children had liked to hit something or someone. The findings explain that 444 (54%) of the students had reported with almost never true that they had liked to hit something or someone and there were 154 (19%) of the respondents who had replied with rarely true and 111 (14%) who reported with sometimes true that they had like to hit something or someone. Additionally, there were 107 (13%) of the sampled students who stated with almost true that they had liked to hit something or someone.

The findings exhibit that there were 226 (28%) had reported that it was almost never true when they become offend without any reason while 253 (31%) of the sampled students who had accounted rarely true when they become offend without any reason. Additionally, there were 143 (18%) of the respondents who had stated with sometimes true and 194 (24%) students with almost true when they become offend without any reason.

The fourth item was measuring the perceived violent behaviour that how children lose their control on loose temper and start breaking things. The findings showed that more than half of the respondents 427 (52%) reported with almost never true with the statement and there were 147 (18%) of the sampled students who had stated with rarely true that they lose their control on loose temper and start breaking things. In addition, there were 88 (11%) of the respondents replied with sometimes true response category and 154 (19%) students with almost true that they lose their control on loose temper and start breaking things.

The findings showed that there were 139 (17%) had replied with almost never true when they become emotional in loosing temper and one fourth of the respondents 205 (25%) had reported with rarely true when they become emotional whenever they lose their temper. Additionally, there were 227 (28%) of the sampled population was with the view of sometimes true when they become emotional when they lose their temper and there were 245 (30%) of the students had stated with almost true whenever they lose their temper, they become emotional.

The findings showed that slightly more than one fourth of the respondents 209 (26%) had replied with almost never true when they consider world as a dangerous place and there were 231 (28%) of the sampled students had reported with rarely true when they consider world as a dangerous place. Additionally, there were 189 (23%) of the population was with the view of sometimes true and there were 187 (23%) of the students had stated with almost true when they consider world as a dangerous place.

The findings propose that slightly more than one fourth of the respondents 212 (26%) had reported with response category of almost never true that they cannot have control on themselves and there were 222 (27%) of the sampled respondents who reported with rarely true while 206 (25%) of the students with sometimes true that they cannot have control on themselves. Furthermore, there were 176 (22%) of the sampled respondents who had reported with almost true that they cannot have control on them.

Table 4.16: *Frequency Distribution of Self Confidence behavioural outcome of the respondents*

No	Scale Items	Almost	Sometimes	Rarely	Almost
		Always True	True	True	Never True
		Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)
1	I like my self	509(62)	164(20)	100(12)	43(6)
2	I feel that I can do what other can do	543(67)	164(20)	74(9)	35(5)
3	I believe life is precious	674(82)	74(9)	37(5)	31(5)
4	It is very easy for me to express love for my parents	426(52)	209(26)	98(12)	83(10)
5	I feel that can struggle hard and achieve the targets that I want get	542(66)	178(22)	68(8)	28(3)
6	It is very easy for me to tell my parents that I love them	410(50)	195(24)	125(15)	86(11)
7	I feel good about myself	434(53)	231(28)	118(15)	33(4)
8	I feel I may succeed in doing what I want to do	450(55)	207(25)	90(11)	69(9)
9	It is quite easy for me to tell my friends that I like them	395(48)	232(28)	111(14)	78(10)
10	Life is a good thing for me	476(58)	186(23)	96(12)	58(7)

Table 4.16 states the distribution of respondents on the items of perceived self-confidence (i.e. behavioural outcome of the students). The first item was measured in perceived self-confidence that I like myself. The findings illustrate that more than three fifth 509 (62%) of the respondents reported in the category of almost always true and there were 164 (20%) of the students had replied with sometimes true that they like about themselves. Moreover, there were 100 (12%) students who had stated with rarely true response category regarding liking about themselves and there were 43 (6%) of the sampled students who had reported with almost never true that they like about themselves.

The second item in measuring perceived self-confidence was related with the feelings of doing things that other can do. The findings explain that there were 543 (67%) had reported that it was almost always true with feelings of doing things that others can do as well and there were one fifth 164 (20%) of the respondents who had replied with sometimes true and 74 (9%) of the sampled respondents who reported with rarely true that life is precious. There were 37 (5%) of the students replied with rarely true and 31 (5%) of the students with almost never true who believe that life is precious.

The findings propose the overwhelmingly sample of the students 674 (82%) had reported with response category of almost always true that life is precious and there were 74 (9%) of the sampled respondents who reported with sometimes true regarding their parents interest in what their children want to do. Moreover, there were 107 (13%) of the students with rarely true and 89 (11%) with almost never true response category believe that parents were interested in what they wanted to do.

The fourth item in measuring perceived self-confidence was that how easy for the children to express love for their parents. The findings illustrate that slightly more than half of the students 426 (52%) reported that it was almost always true when it was very easy for us to express feelings of love for our children and there were slightly more than one fourth 209 (26%) of the respondents who had stated with sometimes true whenever they feel that it is easy to express my love for the parents. Furthermore, there were 98 (12%) of the respondents accounted rarely true and 83 (10%) of the students with almost never true when it becomes easy to express love for their parents.

The findings exhibit that there were 542 (66%) had reported that it was almost always true when they feel that they can struggle hard to achieve the desired targets while 178 (22%) of the sampled students who had accounted sometimes true when they feel that they could struggle hard to achieve the targets. Additionally, there were 68 (8%) of the respondents who had stated with rarely true and only 28 (3%) students with almost never true when they feel that they can struggle hard to achieve the targets.

The sixth item measures the perceived self-confidence in behavioural outcome of the students regarding ease to tell parents that they love them. The findings explain that half of the respondents 410 (50%) who stated almost always true with the statement and there were 195 (24%) of the sampled students who indicated sometimes true and 125 (15%) of the respondents replied with rarely true that it is very easy for them to tell their parents that they love them.

The seventh item was measuring the perceived self-confidence with how feel good about themselves. The findings showed that more than half of the respondents 443 (53%) reported with almost always true with the statement and there were 231 (28%) of the sampled students who had stated with sometimes true that they feel good about them. In addition, there were 118 (15%) of the respondents replied with rarely true response category and 33 (4%) students with almost never true that they feel good about them.

The findings showed that more than half of the respondents 450 (55%) who had reported with almost always true that they may succeed in doing what they want to do and there were 207 (25%) of the respondents who sometimes that they may succeed in doing things what they want to do. There were 90 (11%) of the students had reported with rarely true and 69 (9%) of the sampled students who replied with almost never true whenever they feel that they may succeed in doing things what they want to do.

The findings showed that slightly less than half of the respondents 395 (48%) had replied with almost always true regarding ease in telling the friends that I like them and there were 232 (28%) of the sampled students had reported with rarely true that it is quite easy for them to tell their friends that they like them. Additionally, there were 111 (14%) of the population was with the view of sometimes true and there were 78 (10%) of the students had stated with almost never true regarding ease in telling their friends that they like them.

The findings propose that there were majority of the students 476 (58%) had reported with response category of almost always true that life is a good thing for them

and there were 186 (23%) of the sampled respondents who reported with rarely true while 96 (12%) of the students with sometimes true that life is good thing for them. Furthermore, there were 58 (7%) of the sampled respondents who had reported with almost never true that life is a good thing for them.

**Table 4.17: Frequency Distribution of Self Discipline behavioural outcome of the respondents**

No	Scale Items	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Mostly	Always
		Frequency (%)				
1	I pray five times a day	16(2)	96(12)	308(38)	267(33)	129(16)
2	I get up timely in the morning	19(2)	35(4)	111(14)	313(38)	338(41)
3	Daily I go to sleep timely	45(6)	94(11)	166(20)	229(28)	282(35)
4	I daily go to college	5(1)	23(3)	44(5)	241(30)	503(61)
5	I regularly do my college assignments	11(1)	41(5)	127(16)	242(30)	395(48)
6	I act upon all advices given by my Parents	4(1)	15(2)	24(3)	226(28)	547(67)
7	I always do my personal best	8(1)	9(1)	32(4)	221(27)	546(67)
8	I never insist to fulfil my demand	62(8)	100(12)	112(14)	213(26)	329(40)
9	I assist my parents in home management	14(2)	44(5)	108(13)	221(27)	429(53)
10	I take care of my sisters and brothers	11(1)	21(3)	39(5)	227(28)	518(64)

The findings (Table 4.17) exhibit the distribution of respondents on the basis of perceived self-discipline (i.e. behavioural outcome of the students). In measuring self-discipline, the first item was measured as praying five times a day by the students. The findings state that almost one third of the students 267 (33%) did pray mostly five times a day and there were 129 (16%) of the respondents who always prayed five times a day. Additionally, there were 308 (38%) of the students who had reported with sometimes and there were 96 (12%) who had replied with rarely prayed five times a day.

The second item in measuring perceived self-discipline was related with the get up early in the morning. The findings propose that there were 338 (41%) who had reported that they always get up early in the morning and there were 313 (38%) of the sampled respondents who had replied with mostly and 111 (14%) of the respondents who reported with sometimes that they get up timely in the morning. There were 35 (4%) of the students replied with rarely and 16 (2%) of the students reported with never who get up early in the morning.

The findings illustrate that there were 282 (35%) had reported with response category of always that they go to sleep timely and there were 229 (28%) of the sampled respondents who reported with mostly and there were 166 (20%) of the students with sometimes that they go to sleep timely. In addition, there were 94 (11%) of the students who rarely go to sleep timely and 45 (6%) of the sampled students replied with never response category regarding go to sleep timely on daily basis.

The fourth item in measuring perceived self-discipline was related with going to the college on daily basis. The findings reported that slightly more than three fifth of the students 503 (61%) always go to college on daily basis and there were 241 (30%) of the sampled students who had reported mostly regarding go to college on daily basis. Additionally, there were only 5 (1%) sampled respondents who did never go to college on daily basis.

The findings exhibit that there were 395 (48%) had reported that it was always true when they regularly complete their college assignments while 242 (30%) of the sampled students who had accounted most of the times when they regularly complete college assignments. Additionally, there were 127 (16%) of the respondents who had sometimes complete their college assignments and 41 (5%) students with rare chances and 11 (1%) of the students had never complete their college assignments on regular basis.

The sixth item measures the perceived self-discipline in behavioural outcome of the students regarding act upon all advices given by their parents. The findings explain that 547 (67%) who stated always true with the statement and there were 226 (28%) of the sampled students who indicated most of times and 24 (3%) of the respondents replied with sometimes that they act upon all advices of their parents.

The seventh item was measuring the perceived self-discipline with how students always do their personal best. The findings showed that 546 (67%) reported with always true with the statement and there were 226 (28%) of the sampled students who had stated

with most of the times that they always do their personal best. In addition, there were 32 (4%) of the respondents replied with sometimes response category and 9 (1%) students with rarely while 8 (1%) with never response category that they always do their personal best.

The findings showed that two fifth of the respondents 329 (40%) who had reported that with always that they never insisted to fulfill their demands and there were 213 (26%) of the respondents who most of times replied that they never insisted to fulfill their demands. There were 112 (14%) of the students had reported with sometimes and 100 (12%) of the sampled students who replied with rarely that they never insisted to fulfill their demands.

The findings showed that slightly more than half of the respondents 429 (53%) had replied with always true regarding assistance to their parents in home management and there were 221 (27%) of the sampled students had reported with most of the times assisted their parents in home management. Additionally, there were 108 (13%) of the population was with the view of sometimes and there were 44 (5%) of the students had stated with rare chances regarding assistance to their parents in home management.

The findings propose that there were majority of the students 518 (64%) had reported with response category of always true that they take care of their sisters and brothers while there were 227 (28%) of the sampled respondents who reported with most of the times while 39 (5%) of the students with sometimes that they take care of their

sisters and brothers. Furthermore, there were 21 (3%) of the sampled respondents who had reported with rarely that they take care of their sisters and brothers.

**Table 4.18: Frequency Distribution of Life Satisfaction Scale**

No	Scale Items	SA	A	DK	D	SD
		Frequency (%)				
1	Are you not satisfied with your educational affairs/ performance?	241(30)	208(25)	204(25)	92(11)	71(9)
2	You have not enough time for extracurricular activities	211(26)	203(25)	103(13)	184(23)	115(14)
3	Are you not able to decide about yourself?	195(24)	151(19)	147(18)	186(23)	137(17)
4	You were not allowed to select the subjects for studies by yourself	167(21)	137(17)	88(11)	161(20)	263(32)
5	Your parents do not have confidence on you	150(18)	88(11)	113(14)	133(16)	332(41)
6	You are considered as failed person	72(9)	79(10)	177(22)	160(20)	328(40)
7	You always face criticism of others	107(13)	120(15)	141(17)	204(25)	244(30)

Table 4.18 describes the distribution of respondents on the basis of life satisfaction of the students. The findings illustrate that there were 241 (30%) of the students who strongly agree with the statement that they were not satisfied with their educational affairs/ performance and 208 (25%) of the students were agreed with the statement that

they were not satisfied with their educational performance, while 204 (25%) of the sampled respondents were don't know regarding the statement. In addition, there were 92 (11%) of the students were disagreed and 71 (9%) of the respondents were strongly disagreed that they were not satisfied with their educational affairs/ performance.

The findings elaborate that there were 211 (26%) were strongly agreed and 208 (25%) of the sampled students were agreed that they have not enough time for extracurricular activities while there were 103 (13%) of the sampled students who did not know that if they get enough time for extracurricular activities. Furthermore, there were 184 (23%) of the students who were disagreed and 115 (14%) of the students were strongly disagreed that they get enough time for extracurricular activities.

The findings exhibit that there were 195 (24%) of the respondents were strongly agreed and 151 (19%) of the sample who had not able to decide about themselves. In addition, there were 147 (18%) of the sample did not know and 186 (23%) of the students were disagreed while 137 (17%) were strongly disagreed that they are not able to decide about themselves.

The findings indicate that there were 167 (21%) of the respondents strongly agreed with the statement that they had not allowed to select the subject for studies by themselves and 137 (17%) were agreed that they were not allowed to select the study subjects as per own choice while 88 (11%) had no idea regarding the statement. In addition, 161 (20%) of the sampled students were disagreed and 263 (32%) were strongly disagreed that they had not allowed to select the study subject by themselves.

The findings showed that there were 150 (18%) were strongly agreed and 88 (11%) of the sampled students were agreed that their parents had no confidence on them while there were 113 (14%) of the sampled students who did not know regarding their parents confidence on them. Furthermore, there were 133 (16%) of the students who were disagreed and 332 (41%) of the students were strongly disagreed that their parents did not have confidence on them.

The findings propose that there were 72 (9%) were strongly agreed and 79 (10%) of the sampled students were agreed that they have considered themselves as failed persons while there were 177 (22%) of the sampled students who did not know about considering themselves as failed persons. Furthermore, there were 160 (20%) of the students who were disagreed and 328 (40%) of the students were strongly disagreed that they had considered as failed persons.

The findings illustrates that there were 107 (13%) were strongly agreed and 120 (15%) of the sampled students were agreed that they always face criticism of others while there were 141 (17%) of the sampled students who did not know that they had always faced criticism from others. Furthermore, there were 204 (25%) of the students who were disagreed and 244 (30%) of the students were strongly disagreed that they had always faced criticism of others.

#### 4.5 Bivariate Analysis

##### Analysis of Differences in Perceived Parenting Practices (+ve and -ve enforcements) and Behavioural Outcome of the college students based on Demographic Variables

Independent sample t-test and one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were applied to compare the means of the perceived parenting practices and behavioural outcomes of the college students on the basis of demographic variables. Demographic variables include residential patterns, life statuses of grandfather and grandmother, mothers' and fathers' education and occupation and family type.

##### Analysis of Differences in Perceived Parenting Practices of college students based on Demographic Variables

**Table 4.19: Differences in Perceived Parenting Practices on the basis of residential patterns**

Variable	Warmth / Affection	Hostility/ Aggression	Indifference Neglect	Undifferentiated Rejection
	M $\pm$ SD	M $\pm$ SD	M $\pm$ SD	M $\pm$ SD
<b>Residential Pattern</b>				
Urban	13.53 $\pm$ 4.55	12.19 $\pm$ 4.84	11.26 $\pm$ 4.77	8.50 $\pm$ 3.02
Rural	13.04 $\pm$ 4.73	12.08 $\pm$ 4.29	10.82 $\pm$ 4.42	8.24 $\pm$ 2.88
t-value	1.455 <sup>n.s</sup>	0.338 <sup>n.s</sup>	1.953 <sup>ns</sup>	1.242 <sup>n.s</sup>

<sup>n.s</sup>non significant, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

Table 4.19 reveals the differences in sub-variables of perceived parenting practices (including warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference neglect and undifferentiated rejection) on the basis of residential patterns of the college students. The results indicate that differences in warmth/affection parenting practices of urban ( $M=13.53$ ,  $S.D=4.55$ ) and rural ( $M=13.04$ ,  $S.D=4.73$ ) residential patterns was not statistically significant ( $t=1.455$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).

Moreover, the results reveal that differences in hostility/aggression parental practices of urban ( $M=12.19$ ,  $S.D=4.84$ ) and rural ( $M=12.08$ ,  $S.D=4.29$ ) residential patterns was also not statistically significant ( $t=0.338$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). In addition, the means of indifference neglect practices showed no statistically significant differences on the basis of residential patterns ( $t=1.953$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). Additionally, there was no statistically mean differences between undifferentiated rejection and residential patterns of the college students ( $t=1.242$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).

Table 4.20: Differences in Behavioural Outcomes of the college students on the basis of residential patterns

Variable	Self Confidence	Violent Behaviour	Self- Discipline	Life Satisfaction
	M $\pm$ SD	M $\pm$ SD	M $\pm$ SD	M $\pm$ SD
<b>Residential Pattern</b>				
Urban	16.95 $\pm$ 5.01	15.75 $\pm$ 4.92	41.44 $\pm$ 5.73	21.89 $\pm$ 6.29
Rural	15.79 $\pm$ 4.23	15.57 $\pm$ 4.96	42.10 $\pm$ 5.25	22.21 $\pm$ 6.24
t-value	3.524***	0.504ns	-1.847ns	-0.705ns

\*\*\*p<.001, ns=not significant, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

Table 4.20 depicts the differences in behavioural outcome (including Self Confidence, Violent Behaviour, Self-Discipline, and Life Satisfaction) of college students on the basis of urban and rural residential patterns. The results showed statistically significant mean differences in self-confidence behavioural outcomes ( $t=3.524$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) on the basis of residential patterns as urban students had higher means ( $M=16.95$ ,  $SD=5.01$ ) as compared to rural students ( $M=15.79$ ,  $SD=4.23$ ).

Furthermore, the result reveals that the differences in violent behavior on the basis of residential patterns was not statistically significant ( $t=0.504$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). The differences in self-discipline of urban students ( $M=41.44$ ,  $SD=5.73$ ) and rural students ( $M=42.10$ ,  $SD=5.25$ ) were also not statistically significant ( $t=-1.847$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). The result also indicate that the difference in life satisfaction between urban residents ( $M=21.89$ ,

S.D=6.29) and rural residents (M=22.21, S.D=6.24) existed and was not statistically significant ( $t=-0.705$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).

**Table 4.21: Differences in Behavioural Outcome of College Students on the basis of Family Type**

Variable	Self Confidence	Violent Behaviour	Self-Discipline	Life Satisfaction
	M $\pm$ SD	M $\pm$ SD	M $\pm$ SD	M $\pm$ SD
<b>Family Type</b>				
Nuclear	16.65 $\pm$ 4.97	15.73 $\pm$ 4.96	41.60 $\pm$ 5.34	22.20 $\pm$ 6.19
Joint	16.37 $\pm$ 4.57	15.65 $\pm$ 4.91	41.81 $\pm$ 5.73	21.86 $\pm$ 6.33
t-value	0.808 <sup>n.s</sup>	0.229 <sup>n.s</sup>	-0.550 <sup>n.s</sup>	0.771 <sup>n.s</sup>

<sup>n.s</sup>=not significant, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

The results (Table 4.21) indicate the differences in behavioural outcome (i.e. Self Confidence, Violent Behaviour, Self-Discipline, and Life Satisfaction) of college students on the basis of family type (i.e. Nuclear or Joint Family). The findings reveal that there was no statistically significant differences ( $t=0.808$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) in self-confidence between students who live in a nuclear family system (M=16.65, SD=4.97) and who live in a joint family system (M=16.37, SD=4.57). Likewise, there was also no statistically significant mean differences ( $t=0.229$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) in violent behaviour of college students on the basis of nuclear (M=15.73, SD=4.96) and joint (M=15.65, SD=4.91) family system.

Moreover, the findings propose that there was no statistically significant mean differences in self-discipline ( $t=-0.550$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) on the basis of nuclear (M=41.60,

$SD=5.34$ ) and joint ( $M=41.81$ ,  $SD=5.73$ ) family system. In addition, there was also no statistically significant differences in life satisfaction ( $t=0.771$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) in the college students of nuclear family type ( $M=22.20$ ,  $SD=6.19$ ) and joint family type ( $M=21.86$ ,  $SD=6.33$ ).

**Table 4.22: Differences in Perceived Parenting Practices of College Students on the basis of Family Type**

Variable	Warmth / Affection	Hostility/ Aggression	Indifference Neglect	Undifferentiated Rejection
	$M \pm SD$	$M \pm SD$	$M \pm SD$	$M \pm SD$
<b>Family Type</b>				
Nuclear	$13.14 \pm 4.82$	$12.41 \pm 4.62$	$11.29 \pm 4.65$	$8.34 \pm 6.19$
Joint	$13.51 \pm 4.46$	$11.83 \pm 4.63$	$10.68 \pm 4.62$	$8.54 \pm 6.33$
t-value	$-1.114^{ns}$	$-1.781^{ns}$	$0.551^{ns}$	$-0.500^{ns}$

<sup>ns</sup>= not significant, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

Table 4.22 reveals the differences in perceived parenting practices (i.e. warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect and undifferentiated rejection) of college students on the basis of family type (i.e. Nuclear or Joint Family). The findings indicate that there was no statistically significant differences ( $t=-1.114$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) in perceived parental warmth/affection of college students who live in a nuclear family system ( $M=13.14$ ,  $SD=4.82$ ) and who live in a joint family system ( $M=13.51$ ,  $SD=4.46$ ).

The findings elaborate that there was no statistically significant differences ( $t=-1.781$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) in perceived hostility/aggression of parental rejection dimension between students who live in a nuclear family system ( $M=12.41$ ,  $SD=4.62$ ) and who live in a joint family system ( $M=11.83$ ,  $SD=4.63$ ). Additionally, there was also no statistically mean differences ( $t=0.551$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) in perceived parental indifference neglect on the basis of nuclear ( $M=11.29$ ,  $SD=4.65$ ) and joint ( $M=10.68$ ,  $SD=4.62$ ) family system. Likewise, there was no statistically significant mean differences in perceived undifferentiated rejection ( $t=-0.500$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) in the college students of nuclear family type ( $M=8.34$ ,  $SD=6.19$ ) and joint family type ( $M=8.54$ ,  $SD=6.33$ ).

**Table 4.23: Differences in Perceived Parenting Practices of College Students on the basis of Life Status of Grandmother**

	Life Status of Grandmother		
		$M \pm SD$	t-value
Warmth/affection	Alive	$13.91 \pm 5.05$	$t= 2.455^{**}$
	Died	$13.04 \pm 4.36$	
Hostility/Aggression	Alive	$11.67 \pm 4.33$	$t= 3.833^{***}$
	Died	$13.02 \pm 5.04$	
Indifference Neglect	Alive	$10.43 \pm 4.28$	$t= 4.714^{***}$
	Died	$12.10 \pm 5.08$	
Undifferentiated Rejection	Alive	$8.01 \pm 2.82$	$t= 5.159^{***}$
	Died	$9.14 \pm 3.13$	

\*\*  $p<.01$ , \*\*\*  $p<.001$ ,  $t$ =t-value,  $M$ =Mean,  $SD$ =Standard Deviation

The results (Table 4.23) reveal the differences in perceived parenting practices of college students on the basis of life status of grandmother (i.e. Alive or Died). The findings indicate the statistically significant mean differences ( $t=2.455$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) in perceived parental warmth/affection, where alive status of grandmother had higher means ( $M=13.91$ ,  $SD=5.05$ ) as compared to died status of grandmother ( $M=13.04$ ,  $SD=4.36$ ). In perceived hostility/aggression dimension of parental rejection, there was also statistically significant differences ( $t=3.833$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) where died status of grandmother had higher means ( $M=13.02$ ,  $SD=5.04$ ) as compared to the alive status of grandmother ( $M=11.67$ ,  $SD=4.33$ ).

Furthermore, the findings propose that there was statistically significant differences between perceived indifference/neglect and life status of grandmother ( $t=4.714$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), where died status of grandmother had higher means ( $M=12.10$ ,  $SD=5.08$ ) as compared to alive status of grandmother ( $M=10.43$ ,  $SD=4.28$ ). In addition, there was statistically significant mean differences existed between undifferentiated rejection of parental rejection dimension on the basis of grandmother's life status alive ( $M=8.01$ ,  $SD=2.82$ ) and died ( $M=9.14$ ,  $SD=3.13$ ).

**Table 4.24: Differences in Behavioral Outcome of College Students on the basis of Life Status of Grandmother**

	Life Status of Grandmother	M $\pm$ SD		t-value
		Alive	Died	
<b>Self Confidence</b>	Alive	<b>16.56 <math>\pm</math> 4.97</b>		$t = 0.261^{n.s}$
	Died	<b>16.06 <math>\pm</math> 4.64</b>		
<b>Violent Behaviour</b>	Alive	<b>15.40 <math>\pm</math> 4.76</b>		$t = 2.230^{**}$
	Died	<b>16.23 <math>\pm</math> 5.20</b>		
<b>Indifference Neglect</b>	Alive	<b>41.65 <math>\pm</math> 6.03</b>		$t = -0.255^{n.s}$
	Died	<b>41.76 <math>\pm</math> 5.31</b>		
<b>Undifferentiated Rejection</b>	Alive	<b>20.84 <math>\pm</math> 6.08</b>		$t = -3.902^{**}$
	Died	<b>22.65 <math>\pm</math> 6.45</b>		

\*\* p<.01, \*\*\* p<.001, n.s= not significant, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

Table 4.24 depicts the differences in behavioural outcome of college students on the basis life status of grandmother. The findings reveal that mean differences between self-confidence and the life status of grandmother was not statistically significant ( $t=0.261$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). However, the results showed higher means in self-confidence on the basis of alive status of grandmother ( $M=16.56$ ,  $SD=4.97$ ) as compared to the life status as died of the grandmother ( $M=16.06$ ,  $SD=4.64$ ). Moreover, mean differences were statistically

significant between violent behavior and life status of grandmother ( $t=2.230$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), where grandmother's status of college students as died had higher means ( $M=16.23$ ,  $SD=5.20$ ) as compared to alive status ( $M=15.40$ ,  $SD=4.76$ ) of grandmother.

Furthermore, there was not statistically significant mean differences in perceived indifference neglect on the basis of life status of grandmother ( $t=-0.255$ ,  $p>0.05$ ), where means of died status of grandmother had higher means ( $M=22.65$ ,  $SD=6.45$ ) as compared to means of alive status of grandmother ( $M=20.84$ ,  $SD=6.08$ ). Additionally, the mean differences in perceived undifferentiated rejection of college students on the basis of life status of grandmother was statistically significant ( $t=-3.902$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), where grandmother's died status had higher means ( $M=22.65$ ,  $SD=6.45$ ) as compared to alive status of grandmother ( $M=20.84$ ,  $SD=6.08$ ).

**Table 4.25: Differences in Perceived Parenting Practices of College Students on the basis of life status Grandfather**

	Life Status of Grandfather	M $\pm$ SD	t-value
Warmth	Alive	13.51 $\pm$ 4.58	$t= 0.758^{ns}$
	Died	13.25 $\pm$ 4.66	
Hostility/Aggression	Alive	11.85 $\pm$ 4.49	$t= 2.447^{**}$
	Died	12.71 $\pm$ 4.86	
Indifference Neglect	Alive	10.84 $\pm$ 4.56	$t= 1.469^{ns}$
	Died	11.35 $\pm$ 4.80	
Undifferentiated Rejection	Alive	8.10 $\pm$ 2.81	$t= 3.890^{***}$
	Died	8.97 $\pm$ 3.18	

\* $p<0.05$ , \*\*  $p<0.01$ , \*\*\* $p<0.001$ , ns=not significant, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

The results (Table 4.25) showed the differences in perceived parenting practices of college students on the basis of life status of grandfather (i.e. Alive or Died). The findings reveal that there was no statistically significant mean differences ( $t=0.758$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) in perceived parental warmth/affection on the basis of life status of grandfather. In perceived hostility/aggression dimension of parental rejection, there was statistically significant mean differences ( $t=2.477$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) where died status of grandfather had

higher means ( $M=12.71$ ,  $SD=4.86$ ) as compared to the alive status of grandfather ( $M=11.85$ ,  $SD=4.49$ ).

Furthermore, the findings indicate that there was no statistically significant mean differences between perceived indifference neglect and life status of grandfather ( $t=1.469$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) on the basis of alive ( $M=10.84$ ,  $SD=4.56$ ) and died status ( $M=11.35$ ,  $SD=4.80$ ) of grandfather. Additionally, there was statistically significant mean differences existed between undifferentiated rejection ( $t=3.890$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) of parental rejection dimension, where died status of grandfather had higher means ( $M=8.10$ ,  $SD=2.81$ ) as compared to alive status ( $M=8.97$ ,  $SD=3.18$ ) of grandfather of college students.

Table 4.26: *Differences in Behavioural Outcome of College Students on the basis of Life Status of Grandfather*

	Life Status of Grandfather	M $\pm$ SD	t-value
		Alive	Died
Self Confidence	Alive	16.98 $\pm$ 5.28	t= 1.971*
	Died	16.25 $\pm$ 4.48	
Violent Behaviour	Alive	15.41 $\pm$ 4.71	t= 2.141**
	Died	16.22 $\pm$ 5.32	
Indifference Neglect	Alive	41.87 $\pm$ 5.02	t= 0.569ns
	Died	41.64 $\pm$ 5.83	
Undifferentiated Rejection	Alive	21.36 $\pm$ 6.43	t= -2.166ns
	Died	21.16 $\pm$ 6.39	

\*p<.05, \*\* p<.01, \*\*\*p<.001, ns=not significant, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

Table 4.26 propose the differences in behavioral outcome of college students on the basis of life status of grandfather. The findings depict that mean differences between self-confidence and the life status of grandfather was statistically significant (t=1.971, p<0.05), where grandfather's status of college students as alive had higher means (M=16.98, SD=5.28) as compared to alive status (M=16.25, SD=4.48) of grandfather. Moreover, mean differences were also statistically significant between violent behavior

and life status of grandfather ( $t=2.141$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), where grandfather's status of college students as died had higher means ( $M=16.22$ ,  $SD=5.32$ ) as compared to alive status ( $M=15.41$ ,  $SD=4.71$ ) of grandfather.

Furthermore, there was no statistically significant mean differences in perceived indifference neglect on the basis of life status of grandfather ( $t=0.569$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). Additionally, the mean differences in perceived undifferentiated rejection of college students on the basis of life status of grandmother was also not statistically significant ( $t=-2.166$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) on the basis of alive ( $M=21.36$ ,  $SD=6.43$ ) and died ( $M=21.16$ ,  $SD=6.39$ ) status of grandfather.

**Table 4.27: Differences in Perceived Parenting Practices of College Students on the basis of Mothers' Occupation**

	Mothers' Occupation	M $\pm$ SD	t-value
Warmth	Family Care	13.41 $\pm$ 4.65	t = 1.938*
	Service	12.12 $\pm$ 4.11	
Hostility/Aggression	Family Care	12.04 $\pm$ 4.63	t = -0.101 ns
	Service	12.22 $\pm$ 4.70	
Indifference Neglect	Family Care	10.15 $\pm$ 4.52	t = 1.266 ns
	Service	11.06 $\pm$ 4.65	
Undifferentiated Rejection	Family Care	7.80 $\pm$ 2.41	t = 1.599 ns
	Service	8.43 $\pm$ 2.99	

\*p<.05, ns=not significant, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

The results (Table 4.27) indicate the differences in perceived parenting practices of college students on the basis of mothers' occupation (i.e. Family Care or Services). The findings indicate the statistically significant mean differences (t=1.938, p<0.05) in perceived parental warmth/affection, where mothers with family care had higher means (M=13.41, SD=4.65) as compared to mothers who did services (M=12.12, SD=4.11). In perceived hostility/aggression dimension of parental rejection, there was no statistically

significant differences ( $t=-1.101$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) on the basis of mothers' occupation as family care ( $M=12.04$ ,  $SD=4.63$ ) as compared to services ( $M=12.22$ ,  $SD=4.70$ ).

Moreover, the findings reveal that there was no statistically significant mean differences between perceived indifference neglect and occupation status of the mother ( $t=1.266$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) as family care ( $M=10.15$ ,  $SD=4.52$ ) and services ( $M=11.06$ ,  $SD=4.65$ ). In addition, there was no statistically significant mean differences between undifferentiated rejection of parental rejection dimension on the basis of family care ( $M=7.80$ ,  $SD=2.41$ ) services of the mothers' occupation ( $M=8.43$ ,  $SD=2.99$ ).

**Table 4.28: Differences in Behavioural Outcome of College Students on the basis of Mothers' Occupation**

	Mothers' Occupation	M $\pm$ SD	t-value
Self Confidence	Family Care	$16.52 \pm 4.78$	$t = 0.383^{ns}$
	Service	$16.24 \pm 4.42$	
Violent Behaviour	Family Care	$15.65 \pm 4.93$	$t = -1.035^{ns}$
	Service	$16.49 \pm 5.07$	
Self-Discipline	Family Care	$41.74 \pm 5.36$	$t = 0.410^{ns}$
	Service	$41.34 \pm 6.11$	
Undifferentiated Rejection	Family Care	$21.93 \pm 6.22$	$t = -1.562^{ns}$
	Service	$23.66 \pm 6.95$	

<sup>ns</sup>=not significant, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation

Table 4.28 reveals the differences in behavioural outcome (i.e. Self Confidence, Violent Behaviour, Self-Discipline, and Life Satisfaction) of college students on the basis of mothers' occupation. The findings showed that mean differences between self-confidence and the mother status of occupation was not statistically significant ( $t=0.383$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). Moreover, there was also not statistically significant mean differences in perceived violent behavior ( $t=-1.035$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) on the basis of mother occupation as family care ( $M=16.52$ ,  $SD=4.78$ ) and services ( $M=16.24$ ,  $SD=4.42$ ).

Furthermore, there was no statistically significant mean differences in perceived indifference neglect on the basis of mothers' occupation ( $t=0.410$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). Additionally, the mean differences in perceived undifferentiated rejection of college students on the basis mothers' occupation as family care ( $M=21.93$ ,  $SD=6.22$ ) and service ( $M=23.66$ ,  $SD=6.95$ ) was also not statistically significant ( $t=-2.166$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).

Table 4.29: *Differences in Perceived Parenting Practices on the basis of Fathers' Education and Occupation*

Variable	Fathers' Occupation	Fathers' Education
	F-value	F-value
Warmth/ Affection	0.034*	0.509 <sup>n.s</sup>
Hostility/ Aggression	0.643 <sup>n.s</sup>	0.004**
Indifference Neglect	0.186 <sup>n.s</sup>	0.033*
Undifferentiated Rejection	0.246 <sup>n.s</sup>	0.880 <sup>n.s</sup>

\* $p<0.05$ , \*\*  $p<0.01$ , \*\*\* $p<0.001$ , n.s- non significant

One way Analysis of Variance was applied to see the differences in perceived parenting practices on the basis of Father's education and occupation of the respondents. The findings (Table 4.29) reveal that Warmth/Affection in perceived parenting practices was statistically significant differences on the basis of fathers' occupation ( $F=0.034$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) while there was no statistically significant differences on the fathers' education ( $F=0.509$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) of the college students. On the contrary, hostility/aggression dimension of perceived parental rejection was not statistically significant on the basis of father's

occupation ( $F=0.643$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). However, there was statistically significant differences between hostility/aggression of perceived parenting practices on the basis of fathers' education ( $F=0.004$ ,  $p<0.001$ ).

Moreover, the findings indicate that there was no statistically significant differences in perceived indifference/neglect of parenting practices and the fathers' occupation ( $F=0.186$ ,  $p>0.05$ ), while there was a statistically significant differences in perceived indifference/neglect and the father's education of the college students ( $F=0.033$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). In addition, there was no statistically significant differences between perceived undifferentiated rejection and the father's occupation of the respondents ( $F=0.246$ ,  $p>0.05$ ), while there was also not statistically significant differences in indifference/neglect and father's education of the respondents ( $F=0.880$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).

*Table 4.30: Differences in Behavioural Outcome of the college students on the basis of Fathers' Education and Occupation*

Variable	Fathers' Occupation	Fathers' Education
	F-value	F-value
Self Confidence	0.009**	0.060 <sup>n.s</sup>
Violent Behaviour	0.049*	0.004**
Self-Discipline	0.487 <sup>n.s</sup>	0.190 <sup>n.s</sup>
Life Satisfaction	0.182 <sup>n.s</sup>	1.455 <sup>n.s</sup>

\* $p<.05$ , \*\*  $p<.01$ , \*\*\* $p<.001$ , n.s = not significant

Table 4.30 showed the differences in behavioural outcome (i.e. Self Confidence, Violent Behaviour, Self-Discipline, and Life Satisfaction) of college students on the basis of fathers' occupation and fathers' level of education of the college students. The findings illustrate that differences between self-confidence and the father status of occupation was statistically significant ( $t=0.009$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) while there was no statistically significant differences between self-confidence and fathers' education of the respondents ( $F=0.060$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).

Moreover, there was statistically significant differences in perceived violent behavior and fathers' occupation of the college students ( $F=0.049$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), while there was also statistically significant differences between violent behavior and fathers' level of education of the respondents ( $F=0.004$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). Additionally, perceived self-discipline of the college students as the behavioural outcome was not statistically significant on the basis of fathers' status of occupation ( $F=0.487$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) while there was also no statistically significant differences on the basis of fathers' level of education of the respondents ( $F=0.190$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). Furthermore, there was no statistically significant differences in perceived life satisfaction of the college students on the basis of fathers' occupation ( $F=0.182$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) while the differences in perceived life satisfaction of the respondents on the basis of fathers' level of education was also not statistically significant ( $F=1.455$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).

Table No. 4.31: *Relationship between positive enforcements and positive behavioural outcome*

Positive Behaviours	Warmth / Affection (+ve enforcement)
Self Confidence	0.447**
Self-Discipline	-0.138**
Life Satisfaction	-0.165**

Correlation significant at 0.01\*\*

Table 4.31 exhibits the relationship between warmth dimension of perceived parenting practices and positive behavioral outcomes of the college students. The findings indicate that warmth/affection as perceived parenting practices was statistically correlated with self-confidence of the students ( $r=0.447$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). The relationship was positive and correlation coefficient reveals the strong relationship among warmth/affection and self-confidence of the students.

Furthermore, the relationship between self-discipline and warmth dimension of parenting practices was statistically correlated ( $r=-0.138$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). The nature of relationship was negative and correlation coefficient indicates the weak relationship among the variables. Additionally, there was a statistically correlation between life satisfaction and perceived warmth/affection ( $t=-0.165$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), where the relationship was negative and weak in nature among the variables.

Table No. 4.32: *Relationship between -ve parental enforcements and violent behaviour*

	Violent Behaviour
Hostility/Aggression	0.459**
Indifference Neglect	0.470**
Undifferentiated Rejection	0.457**

Correlation significant at 0.01\*

Table 4.32 showed the relationship between violent behavior of perceived behavioural outcome variable and perceived parental rejection (-ve parental enforcements) of the students. The findings propose that violent behavior was statistically correlated with hostility/aggression ( $r=0.459$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). The relationship was positive and correlation coefficient indicates the strong relationship among the variables.

Furthermore, the relationship between perceived indifference neglect and violent behavior was statistically correlated ( $r=0.470$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). The nature of relationship was positive and correlation coefficient exhibits the strong relationship among the variables. Additionally, violent behavior was statistically correlated with the perceived undifferentiated rejection ( $r=0.457$   $p<0.01$ ), where the relationship was positive and strong in nature among the variables.

Table 4.33: *Predicting Perceived Parental Acceptance (+ve enforcements) on Positive Behaviour among college students*

Independent Variable	B	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	Constant	F-Value	Sig. Value
Self Confidence (Model 1)						
	0.447	0.200	0.199	10.365	203.750	0.001***
Self-Discipline (Model 2)						
Warmth Dimension of Parenting	0.138	0.027	0.026	43.927	15.702	0.001***
Life Satisfaction (Model 3)						
	0.165	0.039	0.038	24.999	22.807	0.001***

Note \*\*\*=p<.001

For the prediction of perceived parental acceptance (+ve enforcements), simple linear regression (entry method) with independent variables of perceived parental warmth/affection was applied to explain the dependent variable (i.e. perceived behavioural outcome). The findings indicate that self-confidence of students was statistically significant related with perceived warmth/affection ( $F=203.750$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). Moreover, the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) revealed that perceived warmth/affection as an independent variable accounts for 20% for the variations in self-confidence (dependent variable) among the students.

Model 2 illustrates that there was statistically significant linear relationship between self-discipline and perceived parental warmth/affection of the students ( $F=15.702$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). However, the value of ( $R^2$ ) determined that perceived warmth/affection accounts for 2.6% for variations in self-discipline of the students. Additionally, there was also statistically significant linear relationship between life satisfaction and perceived parental warmth/affection of the students ( $F=22.807$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). Model 3 exhibits that perceived warmth/affection of parenting practices (+ve enforcement) accounts for 3.8% for variations in life satisfaction of the students.

Table 4.34: *Predicting Perceived Parenting Rejection (-ve enforcements) on Violent Behaviour among college students*

Variables	Beta (Standardized)	Sig. Value
Hostility/Aggression	0.230	0.001***
Indifference Neglect	0.138	0.001***
Undifferentiated Rejection	0.199	0.007***
F-Value	8.322	
R <sup>2</sup>	0.262	
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.260	

Note \*\*\*=p<.001

For the prediction of perceived parental rejection (-ve enforcements), simple linear regression (entry method) with independent variables of perceived parental rejection (-ve enforcements) was applied to explain the dependent variable (i.e. perceived violent behaviour). The findings indicate that violent behaviour of students was statistically significant related ( $F=8.322$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) with perceived hostility/aggression ( $\beta=0.230$ ), indifference neglect ( $\beta =0.138$ ) and undifferentiated rejection ( $\beta=0.199$ ). Moreover, the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) revealed that perceived parental rejection (i.e. hostility/aggression, indifference neglect and undifferentiated rejection) as an independent variable accounts for 26.2% for the variations in violent behaviour (dependent variable) among the students.

#### **4.6 Multivariate Analysis**

PLS-SEM is applied for predicting the estimation of models to provide the causal explanations (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2017). PLS-SEM appeals solutions with small sample sizes with models comprised of many constructs and large number of items (Willaby *et al.*, 2015; Hair *et al.*, 2017; Hair *et al.*, 2019). By opting PLS-SEM modelling technique, the researcher constructed the model that predict the causal relationship between parenting practices and behavioural outcomes of the youth (college students).

The path modelling were analyzed by using the SmartPLS software (<http://smartpls.com/>). The path coefficients and R-squared values were determined to provide the statistical basis for the testing of hypotheses whether the relationships between the variables were statistically significant. The path coefficients indicates the strength of relationship between the variables and R-squared values reflect the predictive power between the independent and dependent variables.

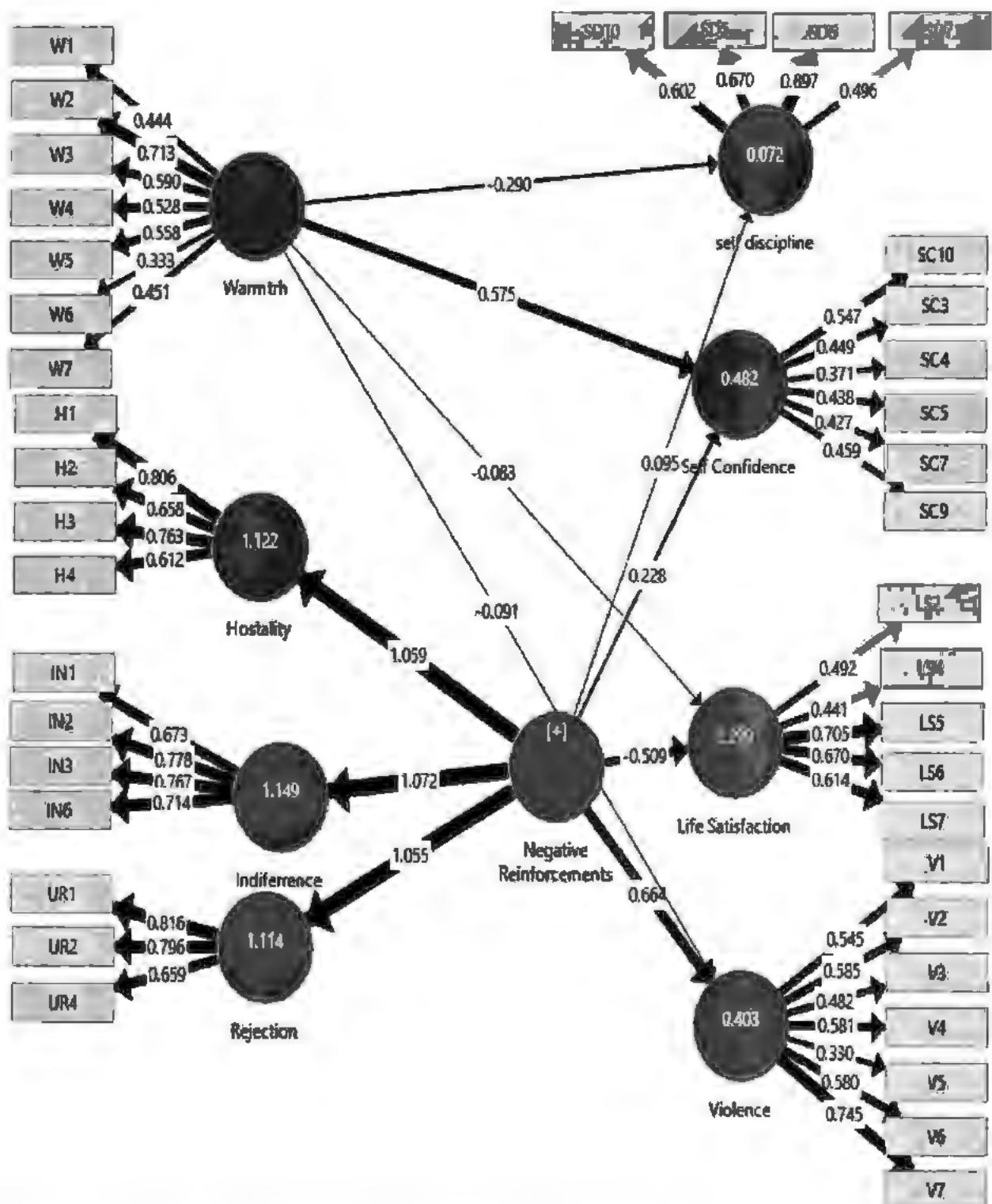


Figure 4.2: PLS-SEM model to see the effect of parenting practices on youth behavior among college students

The results in Figure 4.1 indicates that direct paths, Negative Reinforcements to Violence, Negative Reinforcements to Life Satisfaction, Warmth to Self Confidence, and Warmth to Self-discipline were statistically significant. The explained variable (R-squared) revealed that negative reinforcements accounts for 40.3% ( $R^2 = 0.403$ ) of the variations in the violent behavioural outcomes of the college students. Moreover, the value of path coefficient was 0.664 which indicated the strong positive strength between negative reinforcements and violence as behavioural outcome of the students. The path coefficient between negative reinforcement and life satisfaction of the college students was reported as -0.509 which indicated the strong negative relationship between the variables. However, the explained variable (R-squared) between negative reinforcements and life satisfaction was ( $R^2 = 0.299$ ).

The results further extracts that warmth dimension of parenting accounts for 48.2% ( $R^2 = 0.482$ ) of the variations in the self-confidence behavioural outcome of the students and path coefficient value ( $PC= 0.575$ ) stated that there was a strong positive relationship between warmth and self-confidence of the college students. Nevertheless, there was negative relationship between warmth and self-discipline of the college students, where the value of path coefficient was reported as -0.290. However, the explained variable (R-squared) value was 0.072 which accounts for 7.2% variations in the self-discipline of the college students by predictive power of the warmth dimension of parenting.

The model examines the predictive relationship between the variables. The results depicted that all the paths in the structural model were statistically significant ( $p<0.05$ ). The coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) determines that how variance in variables are being explained through latent variables. The figure shows the value of coefficient of determination ( $R^2=0.403$ ) for “violence as behavioural outcome” among youth which indicated negative parental reinforcements (i.e. parental rejection) moderately explain 40.3% of the variance in violent behavioural outcome.

Numbers within the arrows are called as path coefficients, represented how strong or weak the effect of one variable on another variable. However, the researchers rank the variables as per their statistical importance through the weights of each path coefficients. The results asserted that inner model explained the value of path coefficient was 0.664 between negative reinforcements (NR) and violence as behavioural outcome of the students, indicated positive and strong strength between the variables. The path coefficient between negative reinforcement and life satisfaction of the college students were asserted as -0.509 which indicated the strong and negative effect between the variables. In positive reinforcements (i.e. warmth/affection) and self-confidence, the path coefficient was 0.575 that indicate the strongly positive effect between the variables while path coefficient of warmth dimension and self-discipline was -0.290, shows weak negative effect.

The hypothesized path relationships between the variables show statistically significant due to value of all standard path coefficients remain higher than 0.1.

Consequently, parenting acceptance and rejection dimensions are considered moderately strong predictors of self-confidence, life satisfaction and violent behavioural outcomes among youth.

*4.35: Results of Hypotheses testing using the PLS-SEM Model results*

Hypothesis	Relationship			Path Coefficient	R-squared
H1	N.R	to	V	0.664	0.403
H2	N.R	to	LS	-0.509	0.299
H3	W	to	SC	0.575	0.482
H4	W	to	SD	-0.290	0.072

N.R= Negative Reinforcements, V=Violence, LS=Life Satisfaction, SC=Self-confidence, SD=Self-discipline

Table 4.35 shows the results of supported hypotheses H1, H2, H3 and H4, as evidenced by the path coefficient and R-squared value between the variables. Table illustrates that there is a significant relationship between negative reinforcements and violence behavioural outcome of the college students, negative reinforcements and life satisfaction of the students, warmth and self-confidence, warmth and self-discipline of the college students. In addition, all the hypotheses were supported with the empirical conclusions.

4.36: Cronbach's Alpha, rho-A, Composite Reliability and AVE of the PLS-SEM Model

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Hostility	0.799	0.814	0.804	0.510
Indifference Neg.	0.823	0.826	0.824	0.539
Life Satisfaction	0.720	0.743	0.725	0.352
Rejection	0.796	0.811	0.803	0.578
Self Confidence	0.606	0.609	0.603	0.204
Violence	0.765	0.777	0.756	0.316
Warmth	0.736	0.745	0.722	0.280
Self-discipline	0.772	0.808	0.769	0.465

Table 4.36 illustrates the scale reliability values (Cronbach's Alpha), composite reliability and average variance extracted of the scales. The values of Cronbach Alpha for the hostility was 0.799, indifference neglect was 0.823, life satisfaction was 0.720, rejection was 0.796, self-confidence was 0.606, violence was 0.765, warmth was 0.736 and self-discipline was 0.772. However, the value of composite reliability for the hostility was 0.804, indifference neglect was 0.824, life satisfaction was 0.725, rejection was 0.803, self-confidence was 0.603, violence was 0.756, warmth was 0.722, and self-

discipline was 0.769. Moreover, the AVE (Average variance extracted) for the hostility was 0.510, indifference neglect was 0.539, LS was 0.352, rejection was 0.578, self-confidence was 0.204, violence was 0.316, warmth was 0.280 and self-discipline was 0.465.

## Chapter 5

### DISCUSSION, SUMMARY, & CONCLUSION

#### 5.1 Summary

The current study examined four behavioural outcomes among the college students; self-confidence, self-discipline, life satisfaction and violent behaviour. Correlational analysis exhibited a significant and positive correlation between parental warmth (+ve parental enforcements) and self-confidence of the students while significant and negative relationship between positive parental enforcements and self-discipline and life satisfaction among the college students. Additionally, violence as the negative behavioural outcome of the students was also significantly and positively correlated with the negative parental enforcements.

The study found the positive and negative enforcements as the predictors of the youth behavioural outcomes among college students in Lahore, Pakistan. The simple regression analysis revealed that perceived parental warmth dimension of parenting practices accounts for the 20% variations in self-confidence and 2.6% in self-discipline and 3.8% in life satisfaction of the students. In addition, perceived parental rejection accounts for 26.2% variations in the violent behaviour of the college students.

On the basis of fathers' occupation, it was found that there were significant mean differences in parental warmth dimension of parenting and youth behavioural outcome dimension of self-confidence and violent behaviour. However, the mean difference were statistically significant between level of fathers' education and parental rejection

dimensions of hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect while behavioural outcome as violent behaviour. Moreover, there were also found significant mean differences between mothers' occupation (i.e. family care and services category) and parental warmth dimension of parenting.

The path modelling in PLS-SEM indicated that direct paths, negative reinforcements to Violence, Negative reinforcements to life satisfaction, and Warmth to Self-discipline were statistically significant. The explained variable (R-squared) revealed that negative reinforcements accounts for 40.3% ( $R^2 = 0.403$ ) of the variations in the violent behavioural outcomes of the college students. However, the explained variable (R-squared) between negative reinforcements and life satisfaction was ( $R^2 = 0.299$ ). The results further extracts that warmth dimension of parenting accounts for 48.2% ( $R^2 = 0.482$ ) of the variations in the self-confidence. However, the explained variable (R-squared) value was 0.072 which accounts for 7.2% variations in the self-discipline of the college students.

## 5.2 Discussion

In this section, various findings have been thoroughly discussed. The study was related with the parenting practices and how it effects the behavioural outcome of the youth (i.e. college students of 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> grades). The researcher wanted to explore the prevalent parenting practices in view of parental acceptance (+ve parental enforcements) and parental rejection (-ve parental enforcements). The study objectives investigate the patterns of positive and negative parenting practices in Pakistani society and how the

nature of behavioural outcome of the youth change with the perceived parenting practices.

The study examines empirical findings in the international literature of parenting practices and behavioural outcomes in Pakistani youth. However, the studies have been increasing in non-western cultures, where in these studies, underrepresentation of South Asian cultures and overrepresentation of East Asian cultures (Bond & Smith, 1996). It is pertinent to mention here that even some of the Asian cultures are quite dissimilar to each other on important variables, such as values (Schwartz, 1994), that would be expected to influence socialization patterns. The studies demonstrated the Asian parents are less warm and accepting as compared to western parents (Greenberger & Chen, 1996; Lin & Fu, 1990). The study conducted by Stewart et al. (2000) represents Pakistan to be a 'warm' culture; this finding increases the range of information available about Asian societies in view of warm parenting practices. The findings of this study were aligned to the notion of presence of parental warmth and care in Pakistani parents. The results indicated that parental warmth dimension as predictors of self-confidence, self-discipline and life satisfaction. The effects that has been found in the West would be expected to be exaggerated in Pakistan because self-discipline was attained due to harsh or controlled parenting practices in Pakistani culture.

Interestingly, the perceived parenting practices, has no statistically significant relationship with problem behavior among the youth in Pakistani society. The study was aligned with the findings of the same nature of research by Kim *et al.* (2011), in the

Korean perspectives, where the findings indicate that negative practices employed by the parental figures may increase in developing risk behaviour among the youth members in Korean settings. Therefore, it is important to develop educational interventions to reduce rejection or restrictive parenting practices attribution tendencies for both parents in the family system, while encouraging their positive parenting practice.

The findings also revealed that parental rejection dimension of parenting was associated with the violence as the behavioural outcome of the youth. The findings were aligned with the number of studies where parental maltreatment was more associated with the behavioural problem of the young or the adolescents especially in terms of violence (Gilbert *et al.*, 2009; Gershoff, 2002; Howells & Rosenbaum, 2007). Maas, Herrenkohl, and Sousa (2008) in their study also reviewed the same findings on child maltreatment and the prevalence of youth violence. The review addressed the associations between the direct effect of maltreatment of children and the higher perpetration rate of youth violence among the maltreated children especially youth. Some of the studies suggested that parents with externalizing behavioural problems had more harsh, hostile and physically punitive disciplinary encounters with their children (Baker & Heller ,1996; DeKlyen *et al.*, 1998). , and the fathers' parenting attributions appear to be more strongly associated with adolescent externalizing behaviour than were the mothers' parenting practices (Aunola & Nurmi, 2005; Phares *et al.*, 2005; Elgar *et al.*, 2007; Nelson & Coyne, 2009).

The primary focus of current study was on the parenting practices and its relationship with the development of self-regulatory behavioral practices among children. Though parenting may affect child behavior and the reverse is also reported in studies as true (Bell and Chapman, 1986, Lytton, 1990). Nevertheless, there is an existence of unbalanced mutual influences between parents and their children, with parental figures having much more impact as compared to the children (Dodge, 1990). The discussion here involves from the socialization perspective, i.e. from seniors members (parents) to the younger members (children) of the society (Triandis, 1995). As exhibited in the correlational analysis between parental warmth dimension of perceived parenting practices and self-regulatory behavioural practices among the college students. The findings revealed that parental warmth/affection was positively correlated with self-confidence and life satisfaction of the college students while self-discipline was negatively weak correlated. The results suggested that warmth parenting practices may be helpful in increasing or boosting self-confidence and life satisfaction among the children while warmth dimension of parenting practices may diminish self-discipline among children. These results were consistent with the western literature (Lin & Fu, 1990; Stevenson & Lee, 1990; Kelly & Tseng, 1992) up to the extent of self-confidence and life satisfaction among the children while there was a reversal of results in the outcome of relationship between warmth parenting and self-discipline within the western context (Steinberg *et al.*, 1994; Chaos, 1994). Whereas, Lamborn, Dornbush, & Steinberg (1996).

The regression analysis indicated warmth/affection parenting practices had significant and direct contributions to the prediction of self-confidence, self-discipline

and life satisfaction. However, parental warmth dimension accounts more in predicting self-confidence as compared to the self-discipline and life satisfaction. Similar findings have been reported in previous studies concerning the role of parental warmth dimension in the development of self-regulatory behaviour in the adolescence and young children (Aber, 1994; Paxson & Waldfogel, 2003).

On the contrary, parental rejection dimension have significant direct contributions in predicting risk behavioural outcome (i.e. violent behaviour) among the children. The findings reported parenting rejection practices as an independent variable accounts significantly in predicting violent behavioural outcome among young ones. The findings were aligned with the earlier studies (Loeber, 1990; Nansel *et al.*, 2001, 2003; Krug *et al.*, 2002).

The study has initial contribution in the body of knowledge to understand the exploration of the diversity of parenting practices which can contribute to the self-regulatory behavioural outcome among the male children. This has helped the researcher to arrive at new conceptual understanding of parenting phenomena. For instance, in addition to numerous definitions proposed by researchers examined in the present research, the debate summed up the matter of contextualization as the newer understanding in the body of knowledge. In the qualitative exploration of the parenting practices concepts, I have come to the view that parenting practices have been overlapped with the admists complex challenges with the ever increasing role of technology (i.e. Use of mobile phones, internet and social media etc.) which might be another major domain to explore in further studies.

In addition, the original and creative aspects of the current study comes out as the practical indication of parenting practices as “*tiger parenting*” where positive and negative parenting practices simultaneously affect the behavioural outcome among the children. The findings illustrated the warmth parenting practices have negative relationship or effect on the self-discipline among the children, where self-discipline may be attained by using harsh and rejecting parenting practices that are purely within the context of Asian culture. The findings were consistent with the study explored in Chinese context (Want and Kleitman, 2006), while there might be other direction in the nature of relationship existed where parenting warmth practices have direct relationships with the self-discipline of the children (Romagnoli and Wall, 2012). This will open up different pathways in the research area of parenting practices with reference to the development of various categories of behavioural outcomes among the children.

### **5.2.1 Summary of Discussion**

In current study, an attempt was made to investigate the empirical relationships between perceived parenting acceptance-rejection and positive and negative behavioural outcome among children. A model was developed and tested by using PLS-SEM for the assessment of proposed theoretical model between the variables.

The discussion involves from the socialization perspective, i.e. from seniors members (parents) to the younger members (children) of the society (Triandis, 1995). Findings articulated that parental rejection dimension (i.e. negative reinforcements) with violent behavioural outcome while warmth dimension of parenting with self-confidence

of the children have stronger positive weights. This means that where children face perceived negative reinforcements they have more chances to be involved in violent behaviour while perceived warmth/affectionate parenting reinforcements may enhance the self-confidence among the youth members. Furthermore, perceived warmth/affection parenting practice has negative path coefficients with self-discipline of the students which indicate that perceived feeling of warmth, love, affection and care could diminish the self-discipline. The results suggested that warmth parenting practices may be helpful in increasing or boosting self-confidence and life satisfaction among the children while warmth dimension of parenting practices may diminish self-discipline among children. These results were consistent with the western literature (Lin & Fu, 1990; Stevenson & Lee, 1990) up to the extent of self-confidence and life satisfaction among the children while there was a reversal of results in the outcome of relationship between warmth parenting and self-discipline within the western context (Steinberg *et al.*, 1994).

The analysis indicated that warmth/affection parenting practices had a significant and direct contribution to the prediction of self-confidence, self-discipline and life satisfaction. However, parental warmth dimension accounts more in predicting self-confidence as compared to the self-discipline and life satisfaction. Similar findings have been reported in previous studies concerning the role of parental warmth dimension in the development of self-regulatory behaviour in the adolescence and young children (Paxson & Waldfogel, 2002).

On the contrary, parental rejection dimension has a significant direct contribution in predicting risk behavioural outcome (i.e. violent behaviour) among the children. The

findings reported parenting rejection practices as an independent variable accounts significantly in predicting violent behavioural outcome among young ones. These findings were aligned with the earlier studies on parenting rejection and violent behavioural outcome among youth (Durant *et al.*, 1994; Nansel *et al.*, 2001; Nansel *et al.*, 2003).

In addition, the original and creative aspects of the current study comes out as the practical indication of parenting practices as "*tiger parenting*" where positive and negative parenting practices simultaneously affect the behavioural outcome among the children. The findings illustrated the warmth parenting practices have negative relationship or effect on the self-discipline among the children, where self-discipline may be attained by using harsh and rejecting parenting practices that are purely within the context of Asian culture. The findings were consistent with the study explored in Chinese context (Want & Kleitman, 2006), while there might be other direction in the nature of relationship existed where parenting warmth practices have direct relationships with the self-discipline of the children (Romagnoli & Wall, 2012). This is further expressed with the different pathways of parenting in the development of various categories of behavioural outcomes among the children. Likewise the utilisation of PARQ was to determine quantitatively the parenting practices (i.e. parenting acceptance and rejection) in an original use of this tool, providing a twist to the use of an old approach.

### **5.3 Conclusion**

Parents have been considered as the significant development figures for attaining the best for their children, while parenting practices in every culture should be examined for deeper understanding in the respective cultural norm. To make the more feasible and acceptable policies within the domains of parenting framework, it would be an eminent need to develop understanding with the framework of cultural contextualization. This would ultimately address the issue of being behaviour/practice performed as competent parents and either adequate for the developmental process of their children (Hoghughi, 2004).

The present findings are of interest that they suggest that certain types of parenting behavior, such as lack of parental affection, control, monitoring and supervision may be associated with the behavioural outcome of the children. The findings may have important public health implication because it may be possible to promote reductions in the problematic behavioural outcome by providing parents and families with information and services that promote improved parenting practices. The present findings of the study suggest that focus on parental acceptance or the positive reinforcements of the parents may consider to be more effective in reducing the negative behavioural outcome of the youth (i.e. college students).

### **5.4 Limitations of the Study**

The study considers numbers of limitations. First and foremost, the study used a sample from male students and small number of participants. Thus it is not possible to

make generalizations of the findings. However, the findings describe the suitability and applicability with the concerned segment i.e. male students of public colleges. Likewise, the current research was done with students' sample and did not represent school children, university teenagers and uneducated young children of the country.

### **5.5 Policy Recommendation**

The study will help the policy makers to develop the community based positive parenting programs at the national or local level for the improvement of skills and education in the parental figures in order to avoid unacceptable behavioural patterns among children. This would ultimately increase the level of interaction and relationship between parental figures and their children for the development of positive traits among the children. Moreover, the study will also help the family counsellors to develop the more comprehensive plan within the contextual notions of Pakistani cultural settings to imply the appropriate parenting practices/behaviours performed for fostering durable and positive relationships and interactions with children.

### **5.6 Recommendations for Future Researchers**

The author recommends that the further studies should be conducted with more qualitative elaborations including children in the respondents with the parents to validate the results of this study. A longitudinal analysis would be a good option to locate the impact of parenting practices on youth behavioural outcome of the students. However, the further research should be conducted with a bigger sample from different urban as well as rural centers to locate socio-cultural difference in parenting practices and youth

behavioural outcome. The researcher also recommends to conduct studies with school children and teenagers from university students as well as with less educated youth for the generalisation of the results of this study. In this study, the parenting behaviours was studies with reference to parental acceptance-rejection theory and social learning theoretical notions. In order to view the more elaborative approach, the other dimensions of parenting positive and negative reinforcements must be added by the future researchers to explain the more comprehensive elaborations of the concerned area of research in parenting and youth behaviour.

## References

Aber, J.L. (1994). Poverty, Violence, and Child Development: Untangling Family and Community Level Effects. 229-72 in *Threats to Optimal Development: Integrating Biological, Psychological, and Social Risk Factors*, edited by Charles A. Nelson. Vol. 27 in the Minnesota Symposia on Child Psychology. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Ackard, D. M., Neumark-Sztainer, D., Story, M., & Perry, C. (2006). Parent-child connectedness and behavioral and emotional health among adolescents. *American journal of preventive medicine*, 30(1), 59-66.

Ajzen, I. (2002). Residual effects of past on later behavior: Habituation and reasoned action perspectives. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 6, 107-122.

Ajzen, I., & Sexton, J. (1999). Depth of processing, belief congruence, and attitude behavior correspondence. In S. Chaiken & Y. Trope (Eds.), *Dual-process theories in social psychology* (pp. 117-138). New York: Guilford.

Anderson, A.R., & Henry, C.S. (1994). Family system characteristics and parental behaviors as predictors of adolescent substance use. *Adolescence*, 29, 405-420.

Anderson, K. E., Lytton, H., & Romney, D. M. (1986). Mothers' interactions with normal and conduct-disordered boys: Who affects whom?. *Developmental Psychology*, 22(5), 604.

Aneshensel, C.S. (2005). Research in mental health: Social etiology versus social consequences. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 46(3), 221-228.

Aquilino, W. S., & Supple, A. J. (2001). Long-term effects of parenting practices during adolescence on well-being outcomes in young adulthood. *Journal of Family Issues*, 22(3), 289-308.

Ards, S., Chung, C., & Myers, S.L. (1998). The Effects of Sample Selection Bias on Racial Differences in Child Abuse Reporting. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 22(2): 103-15.

Arnett, J. (1992). Reckless behavior in adolescence: A developmental perspective. *Developmental review*, 12(4), 339-373.

Arthur, M. W., Hawkins, J. D., Pollard, J. A., Catalano, R. F., & Baglioni, A. J. J. (2002). Measuring risk and protective factors for use, delinquency, and other adolescent problem behaviors the communities that care youth survey. *Evaluation Review*, 26(6), 575-601.

Azinawati, M.N., Hazariah, A. H. S., Shamsul, A. S., Norfazilah, A., Azimatun, N. A., & Rozita, H. (2015). Risk taking behaviour among urban and rural adolescents in two selected districts in Malaysia. *South African Family Practice*, 1-6.

Baier, C. J., & Wright, B. R. (2001). If you love me, keep my commandments: A meta analysis of the effect of religion on crime. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 38, 3-21.

Baker, L.A., Bezdjian, S., & Raine, A. (2006). Behavioral genetics: The science of antisocial behavior. *Law and contemporary problems*, 69(1-2), 7

Bandura, A. (1969). Social-learning theory of identificatory processes. *Handbook of socialization theory and research*, 213, 262.

Bargh, J.A., & Morsella, E. (2008). The unconscious mind. *Perspectives on psychological science*, 3(1), 73-79.

Barnes, G. M., & Farrell, M. P. (1992). Parental support and control as predictors of adolescent drinking, delinquency, and related problem behaviors. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 763-776.

Barnes, G. M., Reifman, A. S., Farrell, M. P., & Dintcheff, B. A. (2000). The effects of parenting on the development of adolescent alcohol misuse: a Six-Wave latent growth model. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 62(1), 175-186.

Barnhart, C. M., Raval, V. V., Jansari, A., & Raval, P. H. (2013). Perceptions of parenting style among college students in India and the United States. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 22(5), 684-693.

Barnhart, C. M., Raval, V. V., Jansari, A., & Raval, P. H. (2013). Perceptions of parenting style among college students in India and the United States. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 22(5), 684-693.

Barnow, S., Schuckit, M. A., Lucht, M., John, U., & Freyberger, H. J. (2002). The importance of a positive family history of alcoholism, parental rejection and emotional warmth, behavioral problems and peer substance use for alcohol problems in teenagers: a path analysis. *Journal of studies on alcohol*, 63(3), 305-315.

Baumrind, D. (1967). Child care practices anteceding three patterns of preschool behavior. *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 75, 43-88

Baumrind, D. (1968). Authoritarian vs. authoritative parental control. *Adolescence*, 3(11), 255–272.

Baumrind, D. (1971). Current patterns of parental authority. *Developmental Psychology*, 4(1), 1–103.

Baumrind, D. (1978). Parental disciplinary patterns and social competence in children. *Youth Soc.* 9, 239–276.

Baumrind, D. (1991). The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and substance use. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 11, 56-95.

Belsky, J. (1993). Etiology of Child Maltreatment: A Developmental-Ecological Analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 114 (3): 413–34.

Bénabou, R., & Tirole, J. (2002). Self-confidence and personal motivation. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 117(3), 871-915.

Benasich, A.A., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (1996). Maternal Attitudes and Knowledge of Child-Rearing: Associations with Family and Child Outcomes. *Child Development*, 67(3): 1186–1205.

Berger, L. M., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (2005). Socioeconomic Status, Parenting Knowledge and Behaviors, and Perceived Maltreatment of Young Low-Birth-Weight Children. *Social Service Review*, 79(2), 237-267.

Berger, L.M. (2004). Income, Family Structure, and Child Maltreatment Risk. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 26(8): 725–48.

Bianchi, S.M., & Robinson, J. (1997). What did you do today? Children's use of time, family composition, and the acquisition of social capital. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 332-344.

Blake, J. (1989). *Family size and achievement* (Vol. 3). Univ of California Press.

Blake-Snider, J., Clements, A., & Vazsonyi, A. T. (2004). Late adolescent perceptions of parent religiosity and parenting processes. *Family Process*, 43(4), 489-502.

Blanchard, J. (1998). The Family-School Connection and Technology.

Blanton, H., Gibbons, F. X., Gerrard, M., Conger, K. J., & Smith, G. E. (1997). Development of health risk prototypes during adolescence: Family and peer influence. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 11, 271-288.

Bornstein, M.H. (2001). Parenting: Science and practice. *Parenting*, 1(1-2), 1-4.

Bornstein, M.H. (2012). Cultural approaches to parenting. *Parenting*, 12(2-3), 212-221.

Bourdieu, P. (1977). *Outline of a Theory of practice*. trans. R. Nice, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bowden, V.R., & Greenberg, C.S. (2010). *Children and their families: The continuum of care*. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.

Brener, N.D., Billy, J.O., & Grady, W.R. (2003). Assessment of factors affecting the validity of self-reported health-risk behavior among adolescents: evidence from the scientific literature. *Journal of adolescent health*, 33(6), 436-457.

Brener, N.D., Kann, L., McManus, T., Kinchen, S.A., Sundberg, E. C., & Ross, J. G. (2002). Reliability of the 1999 youth risk behavior survey questionnaire. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 31(4), 336-342.

Brener, Nancy D., Laura Kann, Steven A. Kinchen, Jo Anne Grunbaum, Laura Whalen, Danice Eaton, Joseph Hawkins, and James G. Ross. "Methodology of the youth risk behavior surveillance system." *MMWR. Recommendations and reports: Morbidity and mortality weekly report. Recommendations and reports/Centers for Disease Control* 53, no. RR-12 (2004): 1-13.

Bresnan, I., Cueni, A., Nikifina, T., & Baayen, R. H. (2007). Cognitive Foundations of Interpretation. *Royal Netherlands Academy of Science, Amsterdam*, pp. 69-94.

Brewster, K. L., & Rindfuss, R. R. (2000). Fertility and women's employment in industrialized nations. *Annual review of sociology*, 271-296.

Brody, G. H., Flor, D. L., Hollett-Wright, N., & McCoy, J. K. (1998). Children's development of alcohol use norms: Contributions of parent and sibling norms, children's temperaments, and parent-child discussions. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 12(2), 209.

Brody, G. H., Ge, X., Katz, J., & Arias, I. (2000). A longitudinal analysis of internalization of parental alcohol-use norms and adolescent alcohol use. *Applied Developmental Science*, 4(2), 71-79.

Brown, B. B., Mounts, N., Lamborn, S. D., & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting practices and peer group affiliation in adolescence. *Child development*, 64(2), 467-482.

Campbell, S. (1990). *Behavior problems in preschool children: Clinical and developmental issues*. New York: Guilford.

Campbell, S. B., Pierce, E. W., March, C. L., & Ewing, L. J. (1991). Noncompliant behavior, overactivity, and family stress as predictors of negative maternal control with preschool children. *Development and Psychopathology, 3*, 175-190.

Capaldi, D. M. (1991). Co-occurrence of conduct problems and depressive symptoms in early adolescent boys: I. Familial factors and general adjustment at Grade 6. *Development and Psychopathology, 3*, 277-300.

Chao, R. K. (1994). Beyond parental control and authoritarian parenting style: Understanding Chinese parenting through the cultural notion of training. *Child Development, 65*, 1111-1119.

Chao, R. K. (2000). The parenting of immigrant Chinese and European American mothers: Relations between parenting styles, socialization goals, and parental practices. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 21*(2), 233-248.

Chassin, L., Presson, C. C., Todd, M., Rose, J. S., & Sherman, S. I. (1998). Maternal socialization of adolescent smoking: the intergenerational transmission of parenting and smoking. *Developmental psychology, 34*(6), 1189.

Cherryholmes, C. H. (1992). Notes on pragmatism and scientific realism. *Educational Researcher, 13*-17.

Chilcoat, H.D., & Anthony, J.C. (1996). Impact of parental monitoring on initiation of drug use through late childhood. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry, 35*, 91-100.

Christiansen, K.O. (1977). A review of studies of criminality among twins. In: Mednick SA, Christiansen KO, eds. *Biosocial bases of criminal behavior*. New York: Gardner Press, 45-88.

Cicchetti, D., Lynch, M. L., Shonk, S., & Manly, J. T. (1992). An organizational perspective on peer relations in maltreated children. In R. D. Parke, & G. W. Ladd (Eds.), *Family-peer relationships: Modes of linkage* (pp. 345-383). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc

Clark, R.D., & Shields, G. (1997). Family communication and delinquency *Adolescence*, 32, 81-92.

Cohen, D.A., Richardson, J., & La Bree, L. (1994). Parenting behaviors and the onset of smoking and alcohol use: A longitudinal study. *Pediatrics*, 94, 368-375

Collier, R. & Sheldon, S. (2008). Fragmenting Fatherhood. A Socio-Legal Study. Oxford: Hart.

Connerton, P. (1989). *How Societies Remember*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cooley, C.H. (1902). *Human Nature and the Social Order*. New York: Schocken Books.

Cowan, P. A., Cohn, D. A., Cowan, C. P., & Pearson, J. L. (1996). Parents' attachment histories and children's externalizing and internalizing behaviors: Exploring family systems models of linkages. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 64, 53-63.

Creswell, J. W. (2008). Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.

Creswell, J. W., Clark, V., Gutmann, M., & Hanson, W. (2003). Advanced mixed methods designs. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed method research in the social and behavioral sciences* (pp. 209--240). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Curtiss, S. (1978). *Genie: A Psycholinguistic Study of a Modern-day "wild Child"*.

Danforth, J. S., Barkley, R. A., & Stokes, T. F. (1991). Observations of parent-child interactions with hyperactive children: Research and clinical implications. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 11, 703-727.

Darling, N., & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting style as context: An integrative model. *Psychological bulletin*, 113(3), 487.

Davis, K. (1940). Extreme social isolation of a child. *American Journal of Sociology*, 554 565.

Davis, K. (1947). Final note on a case of extreme isolation. *American journal of Sociology*, 432-437.

DeGarmo, D. S., & Forgatch, M. S. (2005). Early development of delinquency within divorced families: Evaluating a randomized preventive intervention trial. *Developmental science*, 8(3), 229-239.

Dishion, T. J., & McMahon, R. J. (1998). Parental monitoring and the prevention of child and adolescent problem behavior: A conceptual and empirical formulation. *Clinical child and family psychology review*, 1(1), 61-75.

Dishion, T.J., & Andrews, D.W. (1995). Preventing escalation in problem behaviors with high risk young adolescents: Immediate and 1-year outcomes. *Journal of Consulting & Clinical Psychology*, 63, 538-548.

Dodge, K. A., Pettit, G. S., & Bates, J. E. (1990). Mechanisms in the cycle of violence. *Science*, 250, 1678-1683

Downey, D. B. (1995). When bigger is not better: Family size, parental resources, and children's educational performance. *American Sociological Review*, 746-761.

Drake, B., & Pandey, S. (1996). Understanding the Relationship between Neighborhood Poverty and Specific Types of Child Maltreatment. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 20(11):1003-18.

DuRant, R. H., Cadenhead, C., Pendergrast, R. A., Slavens, G., & Linder, C. W. (1994). Factors associated with the use of violence among urban black adolescents. *American journal of public health*, 84(4), 612-617.

DuRant, R. H., Smith, J. A., Kreiter, S. R., & Krowchuk, D. P. (1999). The relationship between early age of onset of initial substance use and engaging in multiple health risk behaviors among young adolescents. *Archives of pediatrics & adolescent medicine*, 153(3), 286-291.

Earls, F., & Barnes, J. (1997). Understanding and preventing child abuse in urban settings. *Violence and childhood in the inner city*, 207-255.

Eaton, Danice K., Laura Kann, Steve Kinchen, Shari Shanklin, James Ross, Joseph Hawkins, William A. Harris et al. "Youth risk behavior surveillance--United

States, 2007." *Morbidity and mortality weekly report. Surveillance summaries (Washington, DC: 2002)* 57, no. 4 (2008): 1-131.

Ellison, C.G., & Sherkat, D.E. (1993). Obedience and autonomy: Religion and parental values reconsidered. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, 32, 313-329.

Ellison, C.G., Bartkowski, J.P., & Segal, M.L. (1996). Do conservative Protestant parents spank more often? Further evidence from the national survey of families and households. *Social Science Quarterly*, 77, 663-673.

Ennett, S. T., Bauman, K. E., Foshee, V. A., Pemberton, M., & Hicks, K. A. (2001). Parent-Child Communication About Adolescent Tobacco and Alcohol Use: What Do Parents Say and Does It Affect Youth Behavior?. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 63(1), 48-62.

Epstein, S. (1973). The self-concept revisited: Or a theory of a theory. *American Psychologist*, 28(5), 404.

Erikson, E.H. (1950). *Childhood and Society*. New York: Norton.

Farkas, M. S., & Grolnick, W. S. (2010). Examining the components and concomitants of parental structure in the academic domain. *Motivation and Emotion*, 34(3), 266-279.

Feghali, E. (1997). Arab cultural communication patterns. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 21, 345-378.

Finkelhor, D., & Browne, A. (1985). The traumatic impact of child sexual abuse: A conceptualization. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 55, 530-541.

Forgatch, M. S., & DeGarmo, D. (2002). Extending and testing the social interaction learning model with divorce samples.

Fraser, M., & Galinsky, M.J. (1997). Toward a resilience-based model of practice. In M. Fraser (Ed.), *Risk and resilience in childhood: An ecological perspective* (pp. 265-275). Washington, DC: NASW Press.

Friedrich, M. (2015). Motherhood and the Construction of Gendered Identity: An Exploration of Middle Eastern and North African Harems. *Constellations*, 6(2).

Furstenberg, F. F., & Hughes, M. E. (1997). The influence of neighborhoods on children's development: A theoretical perspective and a research agenda. *Indicators of children's well-being*, 346-371.

Garbarino, J. (1977). The Human Ecology of Child Maltreatment: A Conceptual Model for Research. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 39 (4): 721-35.

Gardner, F. E. (1989). Inconsistent parenting: Is there evidence for a link with children's conduct problems? *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 17, 223-233.

Gastil, R. D. (1961). The determinants of human behavior. *American Anthropologist*, 63(6), 1281-1291.

Gecas, V., & Schwalbe, M. L. (1986). Parental behavior and adolescent self esteem. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 37-46.

Glass, A. (2007). Understanding generational differences for competitive success. *Industrial and commercial training*.

Goffman, E. (1967). "Where the Action Is." Pp. 149-270 in *Interaction Ritual: Essays on Face-to-Face Behavior*, edited by E. Goffman. Garden City, N.Y.: Double day.

Goode, W. J. (1963). *World Revolution and Family Patterns*. New York: Free Press.

Gordon, H. S. (2002). *The history and philosophy of social science*. Routledge.

Gorman-Smith, D., Tolan, P.H., Zelli, A., & Huesmann, L.R (1996). The relation of family functioning to violence among inner-city minority youth. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 10, 115-129.

Greenberg, M. T., Weissberg, R. P., O'Brien, M. U., Zins, J. E., Fredericks, L., Resnik, H., & Elias, M. J. (2003). Enhancing school-based prevention and youth development through coordinated social, emotional, and academic learning. *American psychologist*, 58(6-7), 466.

Grunbaum, Jo Anne, Laura Kann, Steve Kinchen, James Ross, Joseph Hawkins, Richard Lowry, William A. Harris, Tim McManus, David Chyen, and James Collins. "Youth risk behavior surveillance--United States, 2003." *MMWR: Surveillance summaries* 53, no. 2 (2004): 1-96.

Guba, E. G. (1990). The alternative paradigm dialog. In E. G. Guba (Ed.), *The paradigm dialog* (pp. 17-30). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln, *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 191-215). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Gunnoe, M.L., Hetherington, E.M., & Reiss, D. (1999). Parent religiosity, parenting style, and adolescent social responsibility. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 19, 199–225.

Hair, J. F., Risher, J. J., Sarstedt, M., & Ringle, C. M. (2019). When to use and how to report the results of PLS-SEM. *European Business Review*, 31(1), 2-24.

Halgunseth, L. C., Ispa, J. M., & Rudy, D. (2006). Parental control in Latino families: An integrated review of the literature. *Child development*, 77(5), 1282-1297.

Hampton, R.L., & Newburger, E.H. (1985). Child Abuse Incidence and Reporting by Hospitals: Significance of Severity, Class, and Race. *American Journal of Public Health*, 75 (1): 56–60.

Hanson, M. J., & Lynch, E. W. (1992). Family diversity: Implications for policy and practice. *Topics in early childhood special education*, 12(3), 283-306.

Hart, C. H., Ladd, G. W., & Burleson, B. R. (1990). Children's expectations of the outcomes of social strategies: Relations with sociometric status and maternal disciplinary styles. *Child Development*, 61, 127–137.

Hart, K.E. & Kritsonis, W.A. (2006). A critical analysis of John B. Watson's original writing: "Behaviorism as a behaviorist views it" (1913). *National Forum of Applied Educational Research Journal*, 19, 1-6.

Hawkins, J. D., Catalano, R. F., & Miller, J. Y. (1992). Risk and protective factors for alcohol and other drug problems in adolescence and early adulthood: implications for substance abuse prevention. *Psychological bulletin*, 112(1), 64.

Helper, M.M. (1958). Parental evaluations of children and children's self-evaluations. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 56, 190-194.

Hirschi, T. (1969). *Causes of delinquency*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press

Hoeve, M., Dubas, J. S., Eichelsheim, V. I., Van der Laan, P. H., Smeenk, W., & Gerris, J. R. (2009). The relationship between parenting and delinquency: A meta analysis. *Journal of abnormal child psychology*, 37(6), 749-775.

Hoghughi, M., & Speight, A. N. P. (1998). Good enough parenting for all children—a strategy for a healthier society. *Archives of Disease in Childhood*, 78(4), 293-296.

Holtrop, K., Smith, M., & Scott, J. C. (2014). Associations between positive parenting practices and child externalizing behavior in underserved Latino immigrant families. *Family process*.

Huang, L. N., & Ida, D. J. (2004). Promoting positive development and preventing youth violence and high-risk behaviors in Asian American/Pacific Islander communities: A social ecology perspective. *Denver, CO: National Asian American Pacific Islander Mental Health Association*.

Huang, T. T. K., Harris, K. J., Lee, R. E., Nazir, N., Born, W., & Kaur, H. (2003). Assessing overweight, obesity, diet, and physical activity in college students. *Journal of American College Health*, 52(2), 83-86.

Ijaz, T., & Mahmood, Z. (2009). Relationship between perceived parenting styles and levels of depression, anxiety, and frustration tolerance in female students. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research*, 24(1).

Imam, F. (2012). Child Rearing and Socialization Practices among Working and Non Working Mothers in Pakistan. *Shield: Research Journal of Physical Education & Sports Science*, (7).

Ingram, P. B. (2011). Authoritarian Parenting Style. *Encyclopedia of Child Behavior and Development*, 175-176.

Izzo, C., Weiss, L., Shanahan, T., & Rodriguez-Brown, F. (2000). Parental self-efficacy and social support as predictors of parenting practices and children's socioemotional adjustment in Mexican immigrant families. *Journal of Prevention & Intervention in the Community*, 20(1-2), 197-213.

Jackson, C. A., Henderson, M., Frank, J. W., & Haw, S. J. (2012). An overview of prevention of multiple risk behaviour in adolescence and young adulthood. *Journal of public health*, 34(suppl 1), i31-i40.

Jackson, C., & Henriksen, L. (1997). Do as I say: parent smoking, antismoking socialization, and smoking onset among children. *Addictive behaviors*, 22(1), 107-114.

Jacobs, G. (2006). *Charles Horton Cooley: imagining social reality*. Univ of Massachusetts Press.

Jacobson, K. C., & Crockett, L. J. (2000). Parental monitoring and adolescent adjustment: An ecological perspective. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 10, 65-97.

Jacobvitz, D. B., Morgan, E., Kretchmar, M. D., & Morgan, Y. (1991). The transmission of mother-child boundary disturbances across three generations. *Development and Psychopathology*, 3, 513-527.

Johnson, A. W., & Earle, T. K. (2000). *The evolution of human societies: from foraging group to agrarian state*. Stanford University Press.

Johnson, L. E., & Kelley, H. M. (2011). Permissive Parenting Style. In *Encyclopedia of Child Behavior and Development* (pp. 1080-1080). Springer US.

Keller, H., & Otto, H. (2009). The cultural socialization of emotion regulation during infancy. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 40(6), 996-1011.

Kim, J. E., Hetherington, E. M., Reis, D. (1999). Associations among family relationships, antisocial peers, and adolescents' externalizing behaviors: Gender and family type differences. *Child Development*, 70, 1209-1230

Klebanov, P.K., Brooks-Gunn, J., & Duncan, G.J. (1994). Does Neighborhood and Family Poverty Affect Mothers' Parenting, Mental Health, and Social Support? *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 56(2); 441-55.

Kondrat, M. E. (1999). Who is the "self" in self-aware: Professional self-awareness from a critical theory perspective. *Social Service Review*, 73(4), 451-477.

Kosterman, R., Hawkins, J. D., Spoth, R., Haggerty, K. P., & Zhu, K. (1997). Effects of a preventive parent-training intervention on observed family interactions: proximal outcomes from preparing for the drug free years. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 25(4), 337-352.

Kotchick, B. A., & Forehand, R. (2002). Putting parenting in perspective: A discussion of the contextual factors that shape parenting practices. *Journal of child and family studies*, 11(3), 255-269.

Krug, E. G., Mercy, J. A., Dahlberg, L. L., & Zwi, A. B. (2002). The world report on violence and health. *The lancet*, 360 (9339), 1083-1088.

La Rossa, R., & Reitzes, D. C. (1993). Symbolic interactionism and family studies. In *Sourcebook of family theories and methods* (pp. 135-166). Springer US.

Lamborn, S. D., Mounts, N. S., Steinberg, L., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1991). Patterns of competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful families. *Child development*, 62(5), 1049-1065.

Landor, A., Simons, L.G., Simons, R.L., Brody, G.H., & Gibbons, F.X. (2011). The Role of Religiosity in the Relationship between Parents, Peers, and Adolescent Risky Sexual Behavior. *J Youth Adolesc*, 40(3): 296-309.

Leung, K., Lau, S., & Lam, W. L. (1998). Parenting styles and academic achievement: A cross cultural study. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly* (1982-), 157-172.

Leventhal, T., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (2000). The neighborhoods they live in: the effects of neighborhood residence on child and adolescent outcomes. *Psychological bulletin*, 126(2),309.

LeVine, R. (1988). Human parental care: Universal goals, cultural strategies, individual behavior. In W. Damon (Series Ed.) & R.A. LeVine, P.M. Miller, & M.M. West (Vol. Eds.), *New directions for child development: No. 40. Parental behavior in diverse societies* (pp. 5-12). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

LeVine, R. A. (1977). Child rearing as cultural adaptation. *Culture and infancy: Variations in the human experience*, 15-27.

Levitin, S.A., Belous, R.S., & Gallo, F. (1988). *What's happening to the American family? Tensions, hopes, and realities* (rev. ed.). Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Li, X., Stanton, B., & Feigelman, S. (2000). Impact of perceived parental monitoring on adolescent risk behavior over 4 years. *Journal of adolescent health, 27*(1), 49-56.

Littleton, H. L., & Ollendick, T. (2003). Negative body image and disordered eating behavior in children and adolescents: what places youth at risk and how can these problems be prevented?. *Clinical child and family psychology review, 6*(1), 51-66.

Loeber, R. (1990). Development and risk factors of juvenile antisocial behavior and delinquency. *Clinical Psychology Review, 10*(1), 1-41.

Loeber, R., & Lahey, B. B. (1987). Recommendations for research on disruptive behavior disorders of childhood and adolescence. In B. B. Lahey & A. E. Kazdin (Eds.), *Advances in clinical child psychology* (Vol. 12, pp. 221-251). New York: Plenum.

Loeber, R., Brinthaupt, V. P., & Green, S. M. (1990). Attention deficits, impulsivity, and hyperactivity with and without conduct problems: Relationships to delinquency and unique contextual factors. In R. J. McMahon & R. DeV. Peters (Eds.), *Behavior disorders of adolescence: Research, intervention, and policy in clinical school settings* (pp. 39-62). New York: Plenum.

Logue, A.W. (1994). Watson's behaviorist manifesto: Past positive and current negative consequences. In J. T. Todd & E. K. Morris, (Eds.), *Modern perspectives on John B. Watson and classical behaviorism* (pp. 109-124). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Lohfind, M.M, and Paulsen, M.B (2005). Comparing the determinants of persistence for first generation and continuing generation students. *Journal of college students development*, 46 (4), 49-428

Maccoby, E. E., & Martin, J. A. (1983). Socialization in the context of the family: Parent child interaction. *Handbook of child psychology: formerly Carmichael's Manual of child psychology/Paul H. Mussen, editor.*

Macionis, J.J. (2005). *Sociology*. New Jersey, USA: Pearson Education Inc.

MacIver, R. M. (2012). *Community: A Sociological Study, Being an Attempt to Set Out Native & Fundamental Laws*. Routledge.

Manis, M. (1958). Personal adjustment, assumed similarity to parents, and inferred parental evaluations of the self. *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 22, 481-485.

Mann, E.A. (1994). Education, money and the role of women in maintaining minority identity. In Z. Hasan (Ed.), *Forging identities: Gender, communities and the state* (pp.130–168). New Delhi: Raj Press.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2006). Designing qualitative research (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Masten, A.S. (2001). Ordinary magic: Resilience processes in development. *American Psychologist*, 56(3), 227–238

McPhail, C., & Rexroat, C. (1979). Mead vs. Blumer: The divergent methodological perspectives of social behaviorism and symbolic interactionism. *American Sociological Review*, 449-467.

Mead, G. H. (1934). *Mind, self, and society: From the standpoint of a social behaviorist* (Vol. 1). University of Chicago press.

Mead, G. H., & Mind, H. (1934). Self and society. *Chicago: University of Chicago*, 173 175.

Metsapelto, R. L., Pulkkinen, L., & Pikkeus, A. M. (2001). A search for parenting style: A cross-situational analysis of parental behavior. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs, 127*(2), 169.

Middleman, A. B., Vazquez, I., & Durant, R. H. (1998). Eating patterns, physical activity, and attempts to change weight among adolescents. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 22*(1), 37-42.

Miller, T. (2010). *Making sense of fatherhood: Gender, caring and work*. Cambridge University Press.

Morgan, D. (2007). Paradigms lost and pragmatism regained: Methodological implications of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1* (1), 48- 76.

Nansel, T. R., Overpeck, M. D., Haynie, D. L., Ruan, W. J., & Scheidt, P. C. (2003). Relationships between bullying and violence among US youth. *Archives of Pediatrics & Adolescent Medicine, 157*(4), 348-353.

Nansel, T. R., Overpeck, M., Pilla, R. S., Ruan, W. J., Simons-Morton, B., & Scheidt, P. (2001). Bullying behaviors among US youth: Prevalence and association with psychosocial adjustment. *Jama, 285*(16), 2094-2100.

Naples, N. A. (1992). Activist mothering: Cross-generational continuity in the community work of women from low-income urban neighborhoods. *Gender & Society*, 6(3), 441-463.

Neumark-Sztainer, D., Story, M., Dixon, L. B., & Murray, D. M. (1998). Adolescents engaging in unhealthy weight control behaviors: are they at risk for other health compromising behaviors?. *American journal of public health*, 88(6), 952-955.

Newcomb, M. D., Maddahian, E., & Bentler, P. M. (1986). Risk factors for drug use among adolescents: concurrent and longitudinal analyses. *American Journal of Public Health*, 76(5), 525-531.

Nock, S. L. (2000). The divorce of marriage and parenthood. *Journal of Family Therapy*, 22(3), 245-263.

Nurco, D. N., & Lerner, M. (1999). A complementary perspective to primary socialization theory. *Substance use & misuse*, 34(7), 993-1003.

Obeid, R. A. (1988). An Islamic theory of human development. In T. R. Murray (Ed.), *Oriental theories of human development* (pp. 155-174). New York: Peter Lang.

Oetting, E. R., & Donnermeyer, J. F. (1998). Primary socialization theory: The etiology of drug use and deviance. I. *Substance use & misuse*, 33(4), 995-1026.

Ogbu, J. U. (1981). Origins of human competence: A cultural-ecological perspective. *Child Development*, 52, 413-429.

Ogburn, W.F., & Nimkoff, M.F. (1955). Technology and the Changing Family. Houghton Mifflin Co.

Okorodudu, G. N. (2010). Influence of parenting styles on adolescent delinquency in delta central senatorial district. *Edo Journal of counselling*, 3(1), 58-86.

Paglia, A., & Room, R. (1999). Preventing substance use problems among youth: A literature review and recommendations. *Journal of Primary Prevention*, 20(1), 3 50.

Park, N. (2004). The role of subjective well-being in positive youth development. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 591(1), 25-39.

Parker, G., Tupling, H., & Brown, L. B. (1979). A parental bonding instrument. *British Journal of Medical Psychology*, 52(1), 1-10.

Patterson, G. R. (1986). Performance models for antisocial boys. *American Psychologist*, 41, 432-444.

Patterson, G. R., & Stouthamer-Loeber, M. (1984). The correlation of family management practices and delinquency. *Child Development*, 55, 1299-1307.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). Qualitative evaluation and research methods (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Paxson, C., & Waldfogel, J. (2002). Family Income, Parental Characteristics, and Child Maltreatment: A Preliminary Report. Paper presented at the twenty-fourth annual research conference of the Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management, Dallas, TX, November 7-9.

Pearce, L.D., & Axinn, W.G. (1998). The impact of family religious life on the quality of mother child relations. *American Sociological Review*, 63, 810-828.

Pereboom, D. (2001) Living Without Free Will, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Peterson, G. W., & Hann, D. (1999). Socializing children and parents in families. In *Handbook of marriage and the family* (pp. 327-370). Springer US.

Peterson, L., Ewigman, B., & Vandiver, T. (1994). Role of parental anger in low-income women: Discipline strategy, perceptions of behavior problems, and the need for control. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 23, 435-443.

Prasad, A., & Prasad, P. (2007). Mix, flux and flows: The globalization of culture and its implications for management and organizations. *Journal of Global Business Issues*, 1(2), 11.

Pring, R (2000) Philosophy of Educational Research London: Continuum.

Rakos, R. F. (2013). John B. Watson's 1913 "behaviorist manifesto": setting the stage for behaviorism's social action legacy= El "manifiesto conductista" de 1913 de John B. Watson: preparando el escenario para el legado del conductismo en la acción social. *Revista mexicana de análisis de la conducta= Mexican journal of behavior analysis*, 39(2), 99-118.

Rey-López, J. P., Vicente-Rodríguez, G., Biosca, M., & Moreno, L. A. (2008). Sedentary behaviour and obesity development in children and adolescents. *Nutrition, Metabolism and Cardiovascular Diseases*, 18(3), 242-251.

Rivas-Drake, D., & Witherspoon, D. (2013). Racial identity from adolescence to young adulthood: does prior neighborhood experience matter?. *Child development*, 84(6), 1918-1932.

Rohner, R. P. (1980). Worldwide tests of parental acceptance-rejection theory: An overview. *Behavior Science Research*, 15(1), 1-21.

Rohner, R. P. 1975. *They Love Me, They Love Me Not: A Worldwide Study of the Effects of Parental Acceptance and Rejection*. New Haven

Rohner, R. P., & Khaleque, A. (2010). Testing central postulates of parental acceptance rejection theory (PARTheory): A meta-analysis of cross-cultural studies. *Journal of Family Theory & Review*, 2(1), 73-87.

Rohner, R. P., & Khaleque, A. (2010). Testing central postulates of parental acceptance rejection theory (PARTheory): A meta-analysis of cross- cultural studies. *Journal of Family Theory & Review*, 2(1), 73-87.

Rohner, R. P., & Rohner, E. C. (1981). Parental acceptance-rejection and parental control: Cross-cultural codes. *Ethnology*, 245-260.

Rohner, R. P., Khaleque, A., & Cournoyer, D. E. (2004). Cross-national perspectives on parental acceptance-rejection theory. *Marriage & family review*, 35(3-4), 85-105.

Rohner, R. P., Khaleque, A., & Cournoyer, D. E. (2005). Parental acceptance-rejection: theory, methods, cross-cultural evidence, and implications. *Ethos*, 33(3), 299-334.

Rohner, R. P., Khaleque, A., & Cournoyer, D. E. (2005). Parental acceptance-rejection: Theory, methods, cross-cultural evidence, and implications. *Ethos*, 33(3), 299-334.

Rohner, R. P., Khaleque, A., & Cournoyer, D. E. (2012). Introduction to parental acceptance rejection theory, methods, evidence, and implications. *Journal of Family Theory & Review*, 2(1), 73-87.

Rohner, R.P. 1980. Worldwide Tests of Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory. *Behavior Science Research* I(5), I-2 I.

Rosenbaum, S., Layton, C., & Liu, J. (1991). *The health of America's children*. Washington, DC: Children's Defense Fund.

Rosenberg, M. (1979). *Conceiving the Self*. New York: Basic Books.

Rubin, K. H., & Chung, O. B. (Eds.). (2013). *Parenting beliefs, behaviors, and parent child relations: A cross-cultural perspective*. Psychology Press.

Rudy, D., & Grusec, J. E. (2006). Authoritarian parenting in individualist and collectivist groups: Associations with maternal emotion and cognition and children's self esteem. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 20(1), 68.

Rutter, M. (2001). Psychosocial adversity: Risk, resilience and recovery. In J.M. Richman, & M.W. Fraser (Eds.), *The context of youth violence: Resilience, risk, and protection* (pp. 13–41). Westport, CT: Praeger.

Sadeh, A., Tikotzky, L., & Scher, A. (2010). Parenting and infant sleep. *Sleep medicine reviews*, 14(2), 89-96.

Salzinger, S., Feldman, R., Hammer, M., & Rosario, M. (1993). The effects of physical abuse on children's social relationships. *Child Development*, 64, 169–187.

Sampson, R. J. (1997). Collective regulation of adolescent misbehavior validation results from eighty chicago neighborhoods. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 12(2), 227–244.

Sanders, M. R., Markie-Dadds, C., Tully, L. A., & Bor, W. (2000). The triple P-positive parenting program: a comparison of enhanced, standard, and self-directed behavioural family intervention for parents of children with early onset conduct problems. *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology*, 68(4), 624.

Schneider, A., & Helen, I. (1993). The Social Construction of Target Populations: Implications for Policy and Practice. *American Political Science Review*. 87, 334-47.

Schulze, P. A., Harwood, R. L., Schoelmerich, A., & Leyendecker, B. (2002). The cultural structuring of parenting and universal developmental tasks. *Parenting: Science and Practice*, 2, 151-178.

Schwandt, T. A. (2007). Dictionary of qualitative inquiry (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Schwartz, S. H. (1994). Are there universal aspects in the structure and contents of human-values. *Journal of Social Issues*, 50(4), 19-45.

Sedlak, A.J., & Broadhurst, D.D. (1996). *The Third National Incidence Study of Child Abuse and Neglect (NIS-3)*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

Segrin, C., Woszidlo, A., Givertz, M., Bauer, A., & Taylor Murphy, M. (2012). The association between overparenting, parent-child communication, and entitlement and adaptive traits in adult children. *Family Relations*, 61(2), 237-252.

Sheeran, P. (2002). Intention-behavior relations: A conceptual and empirical review. In W. Stroebe, & M. Hewstone (Eds.), *European review of social psychology* (Vol. 12, pp. 1-30). New York: Wiley.

Sherkat, D. E., & Ellison, C. G. (1999). Recent developments and current controversies in the sociology of religion. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 25, 363-394.

Sieving, R. E., Maruyama, G., Williams, C. L., & Perry, C. L. (2000). Pathways to adolescent alcohol use: Potential mechanisms of parent influence. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 10*(4), 489-514.

Simons, R. L., Lin, K. H., Gordon, L. C., Brody, G. H., Murry, V., & Conger, R. D. (2002). Community differences in the association between parenting practices and child conduct problems. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 64*(2), 331-345.

Skinner, B. F. (1974). *About behaviorism*. New York, NY: Knopf.

Skinner, E., Johnson, S., & Snyder, T. (2005). Six dimensions of parenting: A motivational model. *Parenting: Science and Practice, 5*(2), 175-235.

Skinner, E., Wellborn, J., & Connell, J. (1990). What it takes to do well in school and whether I've got it: A process model of perceived control and children's engagement and achievement in school. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82*, 22-32.

Slife, B. D., & Williams, R. N. (1995). What's behind the research? Discovering hidden assumptions in the behavioral sciences. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Smircich, L. (1983). Concepts of culture and organizational analysis. *Administrative science quarterly, 339-358*.

Smith, L. E. (2012). *Early parenting trajectories and children's language development: differences between adolescent and adult* [Thesis PhD]. University of Notre Dame, Indiana.

Smokowski, P. R., Bacallao, M. L., Cotter, K. L., & Evans, C. B. (2015). The effects of positive and negative parenting practices on adolescent mental health outcomes in

a multicultural sample of rural youth. *Child Psychiatry & Human Development*, 46(3), 333-345.

Snider, J. B., Clements, A., & Vazsonyi, A. T. (2004). Late adolescent perceptions of parent religiosity and parenting processes. *Family Process*, 43(4), 489–502.

Stearney, L. M. (1994). Feminism, ecofeminism, and the maternal archetype: Motherhood as a feminine universal. *Communication Quarterly*, 42(2), 145-159.

Steinberg, L. (2008). A social neuroscience perspective on adolescent risk taking. *Developmental review*, 28(1), 78-106.

Steinberg, L., Fletcher, A., & Darling, N. (1994). Parental monitoring and peer influences on adolescent substance use. *Pediatrics*, 93, 1060-1064.

Steinberg, L., Mounts, N. S., Lamborn, S. D., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1991). Authoritative parenting and adolescent adjustment across various ecological niches. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 1, 19–36.

Stets, B. (2003). A sociological approach to self and identity.

Stewart, S. M. , Bond, M. H. , Zaman, R. M. , McBride-Chang, C. , Rao, N. , & Fielding, R. (1999). Functional parenting in Pakistan. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 23, 747-770.

Stewart, S. M., Bond, M. H., Ho, L. M., Zaman, R. M., Dar, R., & Anwar, M. (2000). Perceptions of parents and adolescent outcomes in Pakistan. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 18(3), 335-352.

Stormshak, E. A., Bierman, K. L., McMahon, R. J., & Lengua, L. J. (2000). Parenting practices and child disruptive behavior problems in early elementary school. *Journal of clinical child psychology, 29*(1), 17-29.

Strassberg, Z., Dodge, K. A., Pettit, G. S., & Bates, J. E. (1994). Spanking in the home and children's subsequent aggression toward kindergarten peers. *Development and Psychopathology, 6*, 445-461.

Stryker, S. (1980). Symbolic interactionism: A social structural version. Menlo Park: Benjamin Cummings.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003). Handbook of mixed method research in the social and behavior sciences. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Teale, W. H. (1981). Parents reading to their children: What we know and need to know. *Language Arts, 902*-912.

Tomasello, M. (2015). The ontogeny of cultural learning. *Current Opinion in Psychology*.

Van der Kolk, B. A. (1989). The compulsion to repeat the trauma: Reenactment, revictimization, and masochism. *Psychiatric Clinics of North America, 12*, 389-411.

Van der Kolk, B. A. (1996). The complexity of adaptation to trauma: Self-regulation, stimulus discrimination, and characterological development. In B. A. van der Kolk, A. C. McFarlane, & L. Weisaeth (Eds.), *Traumatic stress: The effects of overwhelming experience on mind, body, and society*, (pp. 182-213). New York: Guilford.

Van Rooij, F. B., Van Balen, F., & Hermanns, J. M. A. (2006). Migrants and the meaning of parenthood: involuntary childless Turkish migrants in The Netherlands. *Human Reproduction, 21*(7), 1832-1838.

Verplanken, B. (2006). Beyond frequency: Habit as a mental construct. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 45*, 639-656.

Wahler, R. G., & Dumas, J. E. (1986). Maintenance factors in coercive mother-child interactions: The compliance and predictability hypothesis. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 19*, 13-22.

Walters, G.D. (1992). A meta-analysis of the gene-crime relationship. *Criminology, 30*, 595-613.

Watson, J. B. (1919). Psychology from the standpoint of a behaviorist. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott.

Watson, J. B. (1924). Behaviorism. New York: People's Institute.

Weegar, M.A., & Pacis, D. (2012). A Comparison of Two Theories of Learning-Behaviorism and Constructivism as applied to Face-to-Face and Online Learning. In *Proceedings E-Leader Conference, Manila*.

Whitebread, D., & Bingham, S. (2013). Habit formation and learning in young children. *University of Cambridge and Money Advice Service*.

Whiteman, S. D., McHale, S. M., & Soli, A. (2011). Theoretical perspectives on sibling relationships. *Journal of Family Theory and Review, 3*, 124-139.

Wilcox, W.B. (1998). Conservative protestant child-rearing: Authoritarian or authoritative? *American Sociological Review, 63*, 796-809.

Wills, T.A., & Cleary, S.D. (1996). How are social support effects mediated? A test with parental support and adolescent substance use. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 71, 937-952.

Wilson, A. (1978). *Finding a voice: Asian women in Britain*. London: Virago.

Wood, W., & Neal, D. T. (2007). A new look at habits and the habit-goal interface. *Psychological Review*, 114, 843-863.

Yamane, T. (1967). *Statistics: An Introductory Analysis* (2nd ed.). New York: Harper and Row.

Yeung, K. T., & Martin, J. L. (2003). The looking glass self: An empirical test and elaboration. *Social Forces*, 81(3), 843-879.

Zastrow, C., & Kirst-Ashman, K. (2006). *Understanding human behavior and the social environment*. Cengage Learning.

Zeanah, C. H., & Zeanah, P. D. (1989). Intergenerational transmission of maltreatment: Insights from attachment theory and research. *Psychiatry*, 52, 177-196.

Zhang, L., & Ikeda, S. (2013). Thankworthy Parental Altruism and Children's Habit Formation.

Zinn, M. B., Eitzen, D. S., & Wells, B. (1990). *Diversity in families*. New York: Harper & Row.

## Appendix A: Tool of Data Collection

### Department of Sociology International Islamic University, Islamabad

#### Effects of Parenting Practice on Youth Behaviour in Pakistan: A Sociological Case Study of Lahore

Researcher

Hassan Raza

Abbasi

Ph.D. (Scholar) Sociology

International Islamic University Islamabad

Research Supervisor  
Prof. Dr. Saif-ur-Rehman Saif

Department of Sociology

**NOTE:** This questionnaire is a part of the research being conducted by Hassan Raza for his PhD research. It is requested to tick in the box that you think is your answer to question or statement. The researcher ensures that this information will be kept confidential. (raza.hassan04@gmail.com)

Demographic Information of Respondents		
College Name		
Discipline		
Age in Completed Years		
Monthly Family Income (Rs.)		
Area of Residence	a) Urban	b) Rural
Type of Family	a) Nuclear	b) Joint
No of Children studying in Family		
Year of Study at College	b) 1 <sup>st</sup> Year	b) 2 <sup>nd</sup> Year
Father Education		
Mother Education		
Father Occupation		
Mother Occupation		

Life Status of Grandparents	Alive	Dead
Grandmother		
Grandfather		

Availability of Facilities	Yes	No
Possession of Cell Phone		
Possession of PC or Laptop		
Internet Facility		
Motorbike Facility		

Possession of Cell Phone			
Possession of PC or Laptop			

Daily Usage of Mobile Phone, Internet & T.V.	<1 Hour	1-3 Hours	>3 Hours	All the time
Mobile Phone				
Internet				
T.V.				

Sharing of Worries and Joy	Father	Mother	Siblings	Friend	Grand-Parents
To whom you like to talk regarding any educational worry					
To whom you like to talk when you lose temper					
To whom you like to talk when you become shocked on any event					
To whom you like to talk when you feel you are not healthy					
To whom you like to tell that you have fight with any friend					

Leisure Activities in Free Time	Yes	No
Spending free time on Television		
Spending free time on mobile phone		
Spend free time in playing games		
Spending free time on reading books		
Spending free time with parents		
Spending free time with friends		

### Parental Acceptance

Warmth/Affection Scale	Almost Always True	Sometimes True	Rarely True	Almost Never True
Says nice things about me.				

Makes it easy for me to tell him things that are important to me				
Is really interested in what I do				
Makes me feel wanted and needed				
Makes me feel what I do is important				
Cares about what I think, and likes me to talk about it				
Lets me know he loves me				
Treats me gently and with kindness				

### Parental Rejection

a) Hostility/Aggression Scale	Almost Always True	Sometimes True	Rarely True	Almost Never True
Hits me, even when I do not deserve it				
Punishes me severely when he is angry				
Says many unkind things to me				
Goes out of his way to hurt my feelings				
Frightens or threatens me when I do something wrong				
Feels other children are better than I am no matter what I do				
b) Indifference Neglect Scale				
Pays no attention to me				
Is too busy to answer my questions				
Pays no attention when I ask for help				
Pays a lot of attention to me				
Forgets important things I think he should remember				
Pays no attention to me as long as I do nothing to bother him				
c) Undifferentiated Rejection Scale				
Sees me as a big nuisance				
Seems to dislike me				
Lets me know I am not wanted				

### Behavioural Outcomes

a) Violent Behavioural Scale	Almost Always True	Sometimes True	Rarely True	Almost Never True
I like to fight				
I Like to hit something or someone				
I become offend without any reason				
I lose my control on loose temper and start breaking things				
I become very emotional when I lose my temper				
I consider world as the most dangerous place				
I cannot have control on myself				

b) Self-confidence Scale	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Mostly	Always
I like my self					
I feel that I can do what other can do					
I believe life is precious					
It is very easy for me to express love for my parents					
I feel that can struggle hard and achieve the targets that I want get					
It is very easy for me to tell my parents that I love them					
I feel good about myself					
I feel I may succeed in doing what I want to do					
It is quite easy for me to tell my friends that I like them					
Life is a good thing for me					

c) Self-discipline Scale	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Mostly	Always
I pray five times a day					
I get up timely in the morning					
Daily I go to sleep timely					
I daily go to college					
I regularly do my college assignments					
I act upon all advices given by my Parents					

I always do my personal best					
I never insist to fulfil my demand					
I assist my parents in home management					
I take care of my sisters and brothers					
<b>d) Life Satisfaction Scale</b>	<b>SA</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>DK</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>SD</b>
Are you not satisfied with your educational affairs/ performance?					
You have not enough time for extracurricular activities					
Are you not able to decide about yourself?					
You were not allowed to select the subjects for studies by yourself					
Your parents do not have confidence on you					
You are considered as failed person					
You always face criticism of others					

**Appendix-B: INFORMATION OF DATA COLLECTION TEAM**

No		
1	NAME	ABUBAKAR AMIN
	QUALIFICATION	M.Phil (Sociology) M.Sc (Sociology)
	CONTACT NUMBER	0303-6952522
	EMAIL	<a href="mailto:bakar.soc@gmail.com">bakar.soc@gmail.com</a>
2	NAME	ZAHEER HUSSAIN
	QUALIFICATION	M.Phil (Sociology) M.Sc (Sociology)
	CONTACT NUMBER	0334-7637353
	EMAIL	<a href="mailto:zaheer.soc@gmail.com">zaheer.soc@gmail.com</a>

## APPENDIX-C: LICENSE TO USE PARQ TOOL



**Ronald and Nancy Rohner Center  
for the Study of Interpersonal Acceptance and Rejection**

**Human Development & Family Studies, Box U-1858, University of Connecticut,  
Storrs, CT 06269-1858 USA**

**Limited License  
PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE FOR  
LIMITED EDUCATIONAL, CLINICAL, AND RESEARCH PURPOSES**

September 11, 2017

Permission is granted to Hassan Raza to reproduce and use any measures provided by Rohner Research Publications (hereinafter, "RRP") for use in a research project. In addition, in exchange for the permission granted above, Hassan agrees to supply RRP with completed research results, in whatever form, and hereby grants a license to RRP to use such research results for interpretation, citation, and archiving.

Scoring and data storage is available at no cost by registering this project at <https://perscore5.apenavt.com> using a Gmail account. Please use the HELP video for guidance. And keep in contact with Dr. Mussaffa Butt.

Warm regards,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Ronald P. Rohner".

Ronald P. Rohner, Ph.D., CEO  
Rohner Research Publications  
[www.rohnerresearchpublications.com](http://www.rohnerresearchpublications.com)  
[rohner@uconn.edu](mailto:rohner@uconn.edu)

**APPENDIX-D: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF SCALES USED IN STUDY***Parental Warmth/Affection Scale*

Item No.	Scale Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness
1	Says nice things about me.	1.34	0.692	2.172
2	Makes it easy for me to tell him things that are important to me	1.77	1.008	1.127
3	Is really interested in what I do	1.81	1.035	0.976
4	Makes me feel wanted and needed	1.70	1.016	1.211
5	Makes me feel what I do is important	1.73	0.932	1.095
6	Cares about what I think, and likes me to talk about it	1.75	0.973	1.059
7	Lets me know he loves me	1.82	1.052	0.942
8	Treats me gently and with kindness	1.42	0.793	1.931
<b>Total</b>		<b>13.34</b>	<b>4.627</b>	<b>1.931</b>
<b>Cronbach Alpha= 0.761</b>				

*Parental Hostility / Aggression Scale*

Item No.	Scale Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness
1	Hits me, even when I do not deserve it	1.65	1.069	1.376
2	Punishes me severely when he is angry	1.92	1.014	0.778
3	Says many unkind things to me	1.80	1.067	0.991
4	Goes out of his way to hurt my feelings	1.88	1.112	0.873
5	Frightens or threatens me when I do something wrong	2.60	1.146	-0.140
6	Feels other children are better than I am no matter what I do	2.30	1.216	0.210
Total		12.15	4.634	0.725
<i>Cronbach Alpha= 0.790</i>				

*Parental Indifference Neglect Scale*

Item No.	Scale Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness
1	Pays no attention to me	1.97	1.102	1.376
2	Is too busy to answer my questions	1.72	1.001	0.778
3	Pays no attention when I ask for help	1.73	1.065	0.991
4	Pays a lot of attention to me	1.54	0.906	0.873
5	Forgets important things I think he should remember	2.13	1.167	-0.140
6	Pays no attention to me as long as I do nothing to bother him	1.94	1.122	0.210
Total		11.02	4.668	0.671
<i>Cronbach Alpha= 0.823</i>				

*Parental Undifferentiated Rejection Scale*

Item No.	Scale Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness
1	Sees me as a big nuisance	1.63	1.055	1.356
2	Seems to dislike me	1.79	1.142	1.001
3	Lets me know I am not wanted	1.91	1.144	0.756
Total		8.40	2.971	0.758

Cronbach Alpha= 0.794

*Self Confidence Scale*

Item No.	Scale Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness
1	I like my self	1.60	0.895	1.305
2	I feel that I can do what other can do	1.51	0.830	1.570
3	I believe life is precious	1.30	0.726	2.586
4	It is very easy for me to express love for my parents	1.80	1.005	1.008
5	I feel that can struggle hard and achieve the targets that I want get	1.49	0.789	1.601
6	It is very easy for me to tell my parents that I love them	1.86	1.029	0.862
7	I feel good about myself	1.69	0.863	1.013
8	I feel I may succeed in doing what I want to do	1.73	0.963	1.137
9	It is quite easy for me to tell my friends that I like them	1.84	0.989	0.912
10	Life is a good thing for me	1.68	0.939	1.202
Total		16.50	4.757	0.752

Cronbach Alpha= 0.706

*Self-discipline Scale*

Item No.	Scale Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness
1	I pray five times a day	3.49	0.959	-0.158
2	I get up timely in the morning	4.12	0.958	-1.179
3	Daily I go to sleep timely	3.75	1.201	-0.668
4	I daily go to college	4.49	0.775	-1.772
5	I regularly do my college assignments	4.19	0.963	-1.084
6	I act upon all advices given by my Parents	4.59	0.686	-2.097
7	I always do my personal best	4.58	0.712	-2.212
8	I never insist to fulfil my demand	3.79	1.294	-0.797
9	I assist my parents in home management	4.23	0.987	-1.249
10	I take care of my sisters and brothers	4.50	0.814	-2.023
<b>Total</b>		<b>41.72</b>	<b>5.562</b>	<b>-0.995</b>
<b>Cronbach Alpha= 0.784</b>				

*Violent Behaviour Scale*

Item No.	Scale Items	Mean	S.D.	Skewness
1	I like to fight	1.93	0.984	0.808
2	I Like to hit something or someone	1.86	1.094	0.908
3	I become offend without any reason	2.37	1.125	0.234
4	I lose my control on loose temper and start breaking things	1.96	1.177	0.770
5	I become very emotional when I lose my temper	2.71	1.072	-0.232
6	I consider world as the most dangerous place	2.43	1.103	0.108
7	I cannot have control on myself	2.42	1.094	0.093
Total		15.69	4.937	0.455
Cronbach Alpha= 0.786				

