



From A Child To A Parent- A Changing Perspectives Of Parent – Child Relationship

1 Saumya Taneja , 2 Dr. Nitika Kumar

¹ Student, ²Assistant Professor

¹Amity Institute of Psychology and Allied Sciences

¹ Amity University Uttar Pradesh, Noida, India

Abstract: The current study has been done with aim to analyse the change in parent-child relationship over two generations with the current day parent being the index generation. (When parent was child). The objectives were to 1. To compare between Conventional and Contemporary parent child relationship on the basis of gender. 2. To compare between Males and Females on dimensions of Conventional and Contemporary Parent Child relationship. 3. To study the relationship between Conventional Parent child relationship and Contemporary Parent Child relationship. 4. To study the relationship between Conventional Parental Ambition, Control, Love and Role reversal and Contemporary Child Parent Conflict and Closeness. A sample of 110 parents (45 Males and 65 Females) were randomly selected. The Childhood Questionnaire by Jochen Hardt and The Child Parent Relationship Scale were used for data collection. Data was analysed using Independent Sample's T Test and Pearson Correlation. Findings suggest that there is no significant difference between males and females on the basis of Conventional and Contemporary parent child relationship. It was noted that there was no significant difference between Conventional Parental Ambition and Parental Role Reversal on the basis of gender, however there was a significant difference Conventional Parental Control and Conventional Parental Love on the basis of gender. Dimension wise correlation was also calculated. Good parenting practices and good parent child relationship undoubtedly will go a long way in producing better and more productive citizens of the future. Learning to understand the differences across cultures and nations can help pick up the best practices for parenting.

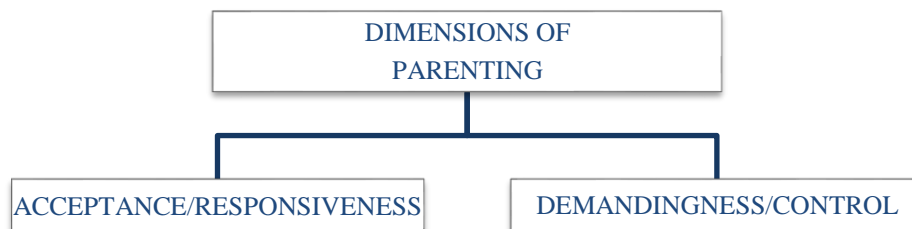
Index Terms - Parent- Child Relationship, Changing Perspective, Conventional Vs Contemporary .

I. INTRODUCTION

The way of supporting and promoting physical, social, intellectual and emotional development of a child from infancy to adulthood is called parenting. It also refers to the intricacies of raising a child and not exclusively for a biological relationship (Brooks, 2012). Practices of parenting focus on majorly 3 goals around the world i.e. making sure of child's health and safety, making children ready for life as responsible adults and imparting values of culture. Good parenting is parenting that prepares children to meet the demands of the specific culture or subculture in which they live. However some conclusions can be drawn about the ingredients of good parenting that will apply in most settings. We can go far in understanding which parenting styles are effective to prepare the children to meet the society (Joseph & John, 2008).

Patterns and Strategies of Parenting Style

Sigelman (1999) gave two aspects of parenting to understand the effectiveness of parenting style



Parental acceptance / responsiveness (also referred to as parental warmth or supportiveness) refers to “the level to which parents intentionally encourage originality, self-regulation, and self-assertion by being conformed, encouraging, and cooperative to child’s special needs and demands” (Baumrind, 1991).

Parental demandingness (also referred to as behavioural control) refers to “the claims made by parents for children to become integrated into the family whole, by their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child who disobeys” (Baumrind,1991). Combining the dimensions of Acceptance/Responsiveness and Demanding/Control, 4 basic parenting styles are seen:

1. Authoritarian/ Disciplinary Parenting tends to be strict, directive, and emotionally detached.
2. Permissive/ Indulgent Parenting tends to set less restrictions or limit.
3. Uninvolved Parenting
4. Authoritative Parenting tends to give clear and firm directions, with moderate discipline, warmth and flexibility.

“Parenting strategies are specific parental behaviours used in the child-rearing process (Darling & Steinberg, 1993)”. Researchers had identified three key parenting strategies: parental responsiveness, parental psychological control, and parental monitoring (i.e., parental behavioural control). This three strategy model is derived from Baumrind, Martin and Maccoby’s two strategy prototype.

Monitoring refers to a parent’s effort to adapt and regulate child’s behaviour with supervision and guidance.

“Psychological Control emanates from parent’s motivation to inhibit the child’s developing psychological autonomy, to keep the child dependant on the parent, and to help retain power in the relationship” (Pettit et. al, 2002).

Practices of parenting have deep seated socio-cultural differences in various countries. In India, the system of joint family and nuclear family coincide. Urbanization, education and empowerment of women and improving socio-economic conditions influence parenting.

Family is defined as a unit of social existence and the socialization of children is a key concept. Cultural scripts, parents own experiences, family situations and location guide parenting and familial practices, (K, 1999) suggested that parents’ beliefs and ethos theories contain direct and indirect ideas about the manner in which children ought to be raised. Tuli (2012) suggested with increasing global interaction and urban movement, the urban Indian family is continually faced with the challenge of keeping up with the fast pace of change. Such change exerts tremendous pressure on the ethos of the family as well as on parenting goals and motivations.

Indian households, as a patriarchal society, are traditionally run by the father or grandfather, with family life and home arrangement centred on decisions taken by male family members. Women are in charge of household chores and day-to-day childcare. Many Indian families live in multi-generational households, with children staying with their parents before they marry, and occasionally sometimes after as well.

Religion being an important part of culture of India, many families of India instil in their children the importance of prayer and worship. The Indian culture puts a heavy focus on elder appreciation. In most cases, children grow up in the same house as their ancestors. In Indian society, infants are kept more by parents and spend less time in cribs and playpens than in Western culture. Another cultural distinction is that many Indian families prefer to start toilet-training their children at the age of 12 months.

1. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES OF PARENTING

1.1 Theory of Attachment

- Attachment can be described as a strong and long-lasting emotional connection between two people in which each seeks closeness and feels more comfortable when the attachment figure is present. Attachments are more likely to develop with those who correctly replied to the baby's signals, rather than with the person with whom they spent the most time. Schaffer and Emerson called this sensitive responsiveness
- Responding sensitively and respectfully to the child's needs is an indication of adult attachment activity toward the child. This form of action seems to be universal across cultures.
- In psychology, theory of attachment has originated from John Bowlby’s work in 1958. He defined attachment theory in psychology originates with the seminal work of John Bowlby (1958). Bowlby defined attachment as a “lasting psychological connectedness between human beings. (1969, p.194)”
- He also stated proposed that the caregiver offers protection and security for the child, which can be viewed in an evolutionary sense. Attachment is adaptive since it increases the probability of survival for the infant.
- The emergence of parent-child relationships has also been explained by this theory.
- “Attachment is characterized by specific behaviors in children, such as seeking proximity to the attachment figure when upset or threatened” (Bowlby, 1969).

1.2 Behavioural Theory

- B.F. Skinner developed the operant conditioning behavioural theory, which is based on the premise that in order to understand actions, one must look at both what happens and what doesn't happen.
- As a result, behaviourism concepts of parenting were used to increase good behaviour and decrease unwanted behaviour.
- Every day, parents should find as many ways as possible to reward their children for making positive decisions or participating in activities that satisfy them. This acts as a form of positive reinforcement, raising the probability that these behaviours will continue.
- Parents can not draw too much attention to their children's undesirable habits. Children would be more likely to drop out if these are not positively reinforced. Positive discipline is also used because it focuses on the positive aspects of the child's actions. This is in contrast to the use of discipline to deter unwanted behaviour, which is not advocated because it is cruel and indicates a desire for the child to suffer.
- The basic principle is that children are learning, and whether they are learning to act correctly or incorrectly depends on what has been reinforced. What is usually the most difficult for parents is to forget and remain cool about activities that annoy them.
- Children become better behaved and more in control of their own decisions and behaviour over time, and the parent-child relationship improves. Positive discipline/parenting is sometimes referred to as peaceful parenting because of this.

1.3 Guidance of a Child

- Rudolf Dreikurs' work is widely cited as a significant influence on positive parenting. His work is a continuation of Alfred Adler's Individual Psychology approach, which considers the person's context while evaluating them. There are many components to Dreikurs' advice on parents guiding their children. There are some of them:
- There should be **mutual respect** between a parent and child based on the basic human right of equality. Parents should show encouragement for their child's efforts, as this indicates they believe in the child and accept them as they are. At the same time, parents should not set standards the child cannot reach, as this will discourage them.
- Instead of using incentives and punishments, parents should **use natural outcomes** that result from the child's acts, rather than using their power to compel the child to do or not do anything. When disciplining, it's better to do more acting and less talking, which can lead to disputes.. To remove an audience for the child's attempts at a power struggle, the parent may withdraw by ignoring or leaving the room. This is not the same as withdrawing from the child; rather, it is about withdrawing from the dispute. Please bear in mind that these recommendations are not for circumstances where a child is in imminent danger or is too young to be left alone.
- Children should **be taught valuable skills and behaviours** when they are relaxed, and not when there are people present that are not in the immediate family, so the child does not feel self-conscious. Parents must encourage children to do for themselves when and what they can, and recognise a child's likely insufficient efforts if they get the job done.. They must fight the temptation to change things just a little bit, or to prove their worth as parents.

1.4 Social Learning Theory

- According to Albert Bandura's social learning theory The concept behind good parenting is to be mindful of the examples we set as parents or caregivers, and to use the influence of modelling to show children the attitudes and feelings that can help them accomplish their goals.
- To get the best out of observational learning, you need to be involved in the model. Children are instinctively drawn to their parents when they are constantly in their presence. This is referred to as associational choice by Bandura. This is one of the key reasons why children sometimes emulate their parents, siblings, and peers.
- Children can learn behaviors -- which to engage in, and which to avoid -- as well as emotional responses, with the important element of reinforcement here, too. A child can learn a behavior or emotional response, but whether it is reproduced depends on whether it was positively rewarded when the child observed it.
- Furthermore, a toddler should not always take an all-or-nothing approach. He or she may be picky on what is imitated or added together — or use a number of components to produce a specific effect. This stresses modeling's cognitive or reasoning aspect.
- Children may learn to feel they have the abilities to be capable, or that they lack the skills required to master their world, which is linked to the reasoning aspect. This is known as self-efficacy, and it makes children be resilient and take on tasks while it is strong. Parents who perform effective parenting work to ensure that their children have mastered the qualities required to have a high sense of self-efficacy.

2. IMPACT OF PARENTING ON A CHILD

“Parenting is usually narrated as a satisfying and stimulating experience. A sense of fulfilment is provided which is nowhere close to other important milestones in life. Parenting is also referred to as a journey which is stressful and is full of challenges for the parents and the people involved with it. This journey is full of anxiety as well as excitement, full of obstacles yet full of happiness, its like an ECG of emotions.” (Lerner. 1998)

Our societies have been subjected to a lot of advancements over the past few years and so practices and perceptions of parenting have also changed with time.

“A style of parenting is a depiction of strategies commonly used by parents to bring up children” (Kordi, 2012). Therefore, as a construct of psychology, it is reliant on parent's attitude and behaviour. A style of parenting may not always fit into a definite category and may not be constant over time. It could be a combination of 2-3 parenting styles and gradually evolve with growing up and as a consequence of various life experiences.

Attitudes of child rearing are cognitions that makes an individual susceptible to behave either negatively or positively towards children. Attitudes involve warmth, acceptance and coldness, rejection that is present in a parent-child relationship, as well as the extent to which parents are permissive or restrictive in the limits they set for their children. Researches have indicated that parental warmth along with suitable levels of control produced child with positive outcomes.

The influence of parent though on child outcomes have also been illustrated in researches. Parents, for example, seek explanations for why they and their children behave the way they do. When these attributions are right, they can make parenting more effective. They can become an obstacle in effective parenting when they lead to angry and depressed feelings. These negative feelings draw parent's attention away from their parental responsibilities and make it more difficult for them to respond adequately and effectively to socialization challenges

These beliefs have been shown to be strong predictors of parenting activity because they reflect the emotional environment in which children and parents communicate as well as the relationship's overall health. Understanding parenting in totality it appears that parents observe their children through a filter of conscious and unconscious thoughts, beliefs, and attitudes. This forms a basis of how they interpret their children's behaviour. When our emotions are optimistic, they lead us to take positive actions. When our feelings are right, we are more likely to take constructive actions. When they are skewed and distressing, on the other hand, they divert parents' attention away from the task at hand and contribute to negative feelings and attributions, which hinder successful parenting.

3. PARENTING IN A FAMILY SETUP

Parenting is the act of raising an infant. It's close to the food that a sapling requires to grow into a large and fruitful tree. And so, good parenting is important for a child to turn into a great human being. Styles of Parenting differ from culture to culture, and the belief system is split on some of the most important aspects of parenting, as demonstrated by the comparisons between Indian and Western parenting styles. When an infant is born, their mother, or in a wider context, their parents, create the child's first link to the outside world. The child sees the world from the eyes of its parents, trying to consume all they see around them. As a result, a parent-child relationship serves as the foundation for the 'construction of their lives.

India is a land with many traditions, all of which are based on the same set of beliefs. In India, where joint families are still common, a child is raised in an atmosphere where he/she learns to respect people and relationships. More critical than maintaining the child's physical development during her early years is instilling spiritual values. Indian parents firmly feel that their child is a member of a family and a society, and it is important that the child knows that every choice and action they take has implications for everyone in the family and community.

3.1 Joint Family/ Co-Parenting

A stable, co-parenting family can be a blessing. It can be a great mental and financial support device.

Mrs. Usha Mehta in her blog listed a few advantages of having a joint family. "While we had our share of battles and disagreements, I found that being part of a joint family had its benefits," she said. There were other members with whom you could share family and social obligations.

My sister-in-law and I alternate cooking, picking up the kids from kindergarten, and babysitting. Despite our differences, we have developed a bond as a result of our mutual family experiences. My children did not need to leave the house to pursue companionship. They will still play with their cousins." However "Not every family is a stable family," says Dr. Sushma Mehrotra in her blog on "Parenting In Joint Families". What matters most in a joint family is the environment. It can be a virtue in a co-parenting family if the environment is friendly. All the gains of a joint family are missed if there is friction and disagreement among the parents, and if they are always attempting to outscore each other."

When there are many children in a joint family, Dr. Mehrotra claims that parents are vulnerable to making comparisons. Often, if one child gets something and the other does not, it will encourage excessive rivalry and feelings of envy.

3.2 Nuclear Family Parenting

Many people think nuclear families to be 'typical,' with a mother, father, and children living in the same home. However, as the social environment shifts, so do various family groups' ideas and expectations. Every family arrangement has benefits and drawbacks.

In general, people believe this family arrangement to be the safest or most dominant way to raise a family. For a number of factors, two married parents and their children living together projects a hopeful picture.

- Many nuclear families have ample financial security to have luxuries, opportunities, and a stable atmosphere for their children.
- Children in nuclear families may be able to engage in dance, gymnastics, music, or other sports, especially if both parents work outside the home. Children who have these experiences are more likely to attain academic and social achievement. Children profit from the continuity of treatment offered by a stable nuclear family. Children who have both security and discipline in their life are more likely to engage in healthy conduct, receive high grades in school, and participate in group and extracurricular activities.
- The nuclear family can regularly eat dinner together, attend church or temple, and take family vacations, all of which reinforce relationships and provide a strong base for future life goals.
- In a nuclear family, there are less barriers and disruptions to contact with family members. These families are increasing contact from outside the home as a result of technical developments.

However, every family faces challenges and emergencies at some point in their lives. For a number of factors, the nuclear family is not necessarily a feasible choice.

- For immediate family members, the nuclear family unit offers a good bonding experience. The nuclear family unit, on the other hand, will separate families from other families and partnerships due to the smaller family size, which makes for individualised devotion to spouses and children, resulting in lifelong ties.
- In tough times, this disintegration of the extended family structure would be counterproductive. Within a family system, grandparents, aunts, uncles, and cousins have a position, but the nuclear family does not always nurture these relationships.
- Family members, particularly mothers, are vulnerable to burnout as a result of trying to fulfil everyone's needs. The concentration on children can be draining, leaving no time for parents to care for themselves. Parents will need to take time off work to care for sick children if they do not have support from extended family. Without outside support, juggling the stresses of employment, families, and friendships leads to fatigue, depression, anxiety, and other concerns.
- Nuclear families may be thrown into disarray in the case of a disaster or even a disease. A study demonstrates how extended family systems have built-in assistance in these circumstances. It is not always easy to fulfil all demands and desires exclusively inside the family unit of a nuclear family where all parents work and have small children. Where required, multigenerational households provide assistance..

4. THE CHANGING FACE OF PARENTING

Parenting is usually narrated as a satisfying and stimulating experience. A sense of fulfilment is provided which is nowhere close to other important milestones in life. Parenting is also referred to as a journey which is stressful and is full of challenges for the parents and the people involved with it. This journey is full of anxiety as well as excitement, full of obstacles yet full of happiness, it's like an ECG of emotions. (Lerner. 1998)

4.1 Conventional Parenting

Attempts to trace the paths of how parenting started with new parents who lacked the guidance of experts and theorists and efforts to define “tradition” of parenting would be futile. This is because parenting styles vary depending on various aspects such as personality, culture, parental environment, socioeconomic status, size of the family, religion etc.

Most parenting styles, as per the convention, derive from the way the parents themselves were raised. This does not mean a repeat of identical practices of parenting although it may, in denial imply abandoning or preventing such a repetition. This may simply be because these are the only parenting practices they are aware of and are experienced with. It could also be with the intention of learning from the one’s own parent’s shortcomings or unknowingly relying on derived learning. In fact, modern day parents believe that their parenting styles are largely influenced by the way their parent raised them, thus serving as a starting point for one’s own journey as a parent.

Traditional Indian parenting is focused on fostering social harmony and interdependence, which is not unexpected considering the recorded evidence of the collectivistic existence of Indian culture. The importance of such parental priorities assists Indian families in caring for their children's needs for nourishment, mental bonding, and social support. Akhtar et. al (2017) suggested emotional closeness to grandparents moderated the relationship between both father & mother authoritative and child overconfidence, indicating a positive relationship when children's emotional closeness to grandparents is low and a negative relationship when children's emotional closeness to grandparents is high.

Given traditional Indian families' tight hierarchical kinship system, an insistence on adherence to authority is understandable. Finally, traditional Indian parenting emphasises greater physical intimacy between the parent and the child, including closeness to the body, constant massaging, and co-sleeping, particularly as an infant as a culture that values affiliation and touch.

4.2 Contemporary Parenting

Over the last few decades, parental interaction with young adult children has grown significantly. There has been a noticeable increase in parents' contact, support, coresidence, and intimacy with their young adult children. (Fingerman et. al. 2009). Parents today interact with their young adult children more often than they did thirty years earlier. Just half of parents registered contact with a grown child at least once a week, according to research based on national US data from the mid to late twentieth century. Since most parents had more than one adult child, it stands to reason that many adults have much less interaction with their parents. Current research in the twenty-first century, on the other hand, showed that almost all parents had contact with an adult child in the previous week, and more than half of parents had contact with an adult child on a weekly basis.

According to national statistics, 20% of young people in the United States have no contact with a father figure, and 6.5 percent have no contact with a mother figure.

On average, parents have more assistance to their grown children than they have in the past. In comparison to the late twentieth century, parents today provide nearly 10% of their income to young adult children across all social strata. During the 1970s and 1990s, parents spend the most money on their offspring during their adolescent years. However, since the year 2000, parents from all socioeconomic groups have spent the most money on children under the age of six or young adult children over the age of eighteen. In the twenty-first century, love between young people and their parents seems to be on the rise. Due to measuring problems and ceiling impact, it is difficult to scientifically track shifts in the frequency of relational bonds—most individuals have recorded strong links to parents or grown children over the decades. Intergenerational affection, however, seems to be on the rise. Marriage was the main tie in Western cultures throughout the twentieth century. . Nonetheless, over 15 years ago, Bengtson (2001) predicted that multigenerational relations would become more prominent in the twenty-first century as a result of shifts in family composition (e.g., the breakdown of romantic bonds) and longevity (e.g., generations sharing more years together)

Over time, parental strategies are also bound to change in response to changing demands. With the primary aim of parenting remains unchanged, the techniques and tactics used to accomplish the goal have undergone major changes. In terms of both private self-expression by offspring and expressions of defiance toward parents, historical developments have been observed over the decades, including greater control granted by parents in terms of both private self-expression by offspring and expressions of defiance toward parents.

There has also been a reduction in parental autonomy for freedom to travel, as well as a pause in embracing substantive obligations.

The conventional authoritarian parenting model, including unquestioning compliance, is quickly becoming extinct, with a desire for a sense of parental authority taking its place.

A Conventional study in the western world evaluated the differences in parenting in late 20th and early 21st century, “parents ignored knowledge of their children's whereabouts and stressed chore completion and compliance as a parental goal; however, shifting times have resulted in a reversal of the degree of emphasis applied to these same goals. including a greater focus on freedom of speech within the home, greater limits on their independence outside the home, and an emphasis on academics replacing chores “(Rutherford M, 2009) “As a result, shifts in parenting styles, particularly among urban educated parents, have resulted in an emphasis on a sense of connectedness, autonomy, and power, with parenting practises being more permissive, child-centred, and sensitive, and thus appearing to resonate more with Baumrind's authoritative parenting style than a conventional authoritarian approach “(Sharma, Saraswati, Baumrind). It seems most possible that these findings can be extrapolated to India as well. Research indicates that contemporary parenting styles in India's urban settings exhibit a dialectical convergence of both material freedom and psychological interdependence (Sharma, 2006) With the emergence of technological conquest, especially the growing position of social media, a distinct shift in the essence of family contact habits can be seen (Bala, 2015)

Furthermore, increases and decrease in family size and composition, such as a rise in dual-income households (with both parents working) or an increase in the number of single parents, are underlying major changes in parenting patterns. Such familial adaptations have been related to a new form of parental indulgence, with parents devoting more time, attention, and money to their children's schooling and employment options, ironically playing a more demanding role in terms of parental accomplishment and performance standards. Around the same time, new parents tend to be open to rethinking their parental strategies in order to strengthen their interaction with their child or adolescent. (Tussi, 2005)

Both parents and youth have come to understand the importance of individuality and self-reliance in the new world as a result of globalisation, improving schooling, and expanded exposure to Western cultures. As a result of this heightened understanding, parents are becoming more receptive, which could lead to potential consequences of a "kid-glove management" approach to parenting. As a consequence of such an app, conventional parental knowledge is mixed with recent ideas and developments in the area of childcare and parenting. (Tuli, 2012)

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Aim: To analyze the change in parent-child relationship over two generations with the current day parent being the index generation. (When parent was child)

Objectives

1. To compare between Conventional parent child relationship and Contemporary parent child relationship on the basis of gender.
2. To compare between Males and Females on dimensions of Conventional and Contemporary Parent Child relationship.
3. To study the relationship between Conventional Parent child relationship and Contemporary Parent Child relationship.
4. To study the relationship between Conventional Parental Ambition, Control, Love and Role reversal and Contemporary Child Parent Conflict and Closeness.

Hypothesis

1. There is no significant difference between Conventional parent child relationship and Contemporary parent child relationship on the basis of gender
2. There is no significant difference between Conventional Parental Ambition Control, Love and Role Reversal on the basis of gender
3. There is no significant difference between males and females in the dimension Closeness and conflict
4. There is no significant relationship between Conventional parent child relationship and Contemporary parent child relationship
5. There is no significant relationship between dimensions of Conventional and dimensions of Contemporary Child Parent Relationship

Sample - Data was randomly collected from 110 educated parents (65 females and 45 males) living in urban areas.

DESCRIPTION OF TOOLS

1. The Childhood Questionnaire By Jochen Hardt

The Childhood Questionnaire was originally developed to assess the dimensions that were used in the Adult Attachment Interview (George et al., 1985). Subjects were asked to describe the relationship between themselves and their mothers and fathers during the first 14 years of life. Out of 11 dimensions that were originally conceptualised, nine were retained after item analysis. Research over the past decade using eight of the nine scales led us to shorten the Childhood Questionnaire to four scales for the parents were Perceived Love, Control, Ambition, and Role Reversal. All scales were to be answered according to a four-point Likert scale with the categories "strongly disagree", "disagree", "agree", "strongly agree".

2. The Child- Parent Relationship Questionnaire By Robert C. Pianta

The CPRS (Pianta, 1992) is a self-report instrument completed by mothers or fathers that assesses their perceptions of their relationship with their son or daughter. The 15 items are rated on 5-point Likert scales and the ratings can be summed into groups of items corresponding to conflict and closeness subscales. The CPRS is a self-completion questionnaire. The parent/primary caregiver responds to 30 statements concerned with their interactions with their child, by rating their responses on a five-point scale, with answer options of Definitely does not apply / Not really / Neutral, not sure / Applies somewhat / Definitely applies. Ratings are then summed into groups of items corresponding to conflict and closeness subscales. Scores for the conflict subscale range between 8-40. A higher score on the conflict questions suggest parents feel their relationship with their child is characterised by negativity. Therefore, a lower score is desirable on the conflict subscale.

The questionnaire was explained to the respondents and a brief introduction was given about the study. Respondents were asked to fill The Childhood Questionnaire on the basis of their childhood memories.

They were asked part 2 (The Child Parent Relationship Scale) of the tool in reference to their children.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

1. Data was collected, Microsoft EXCEL was used;
 - a. To find the raw scores of the individuals for The Childhood Questionnaire (TCQ)
 - b. To find out the raw scores of the individuals for The Child- Parent Relationship Scale (CPRS-sf)
2. The sample description (Table 1) was obtained using the Descriptive Statistics.
3. To compare Conventional parent child bond with Contemporary parent child bond T test was used.
4. To evaluate dimension wise comparison between males and females, T test was used.
5. To study the relationship between Conventional parent child relation and contemporary parent child relation, Pearson correlation was used
6. To find out dimension wise correlation, Pearson Correlation was used.
7. Calculations were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 22.0

N	110
Gender	Males – 45 Females – 65
Occupation	Business – 15 Home Maker – 9 Medical – 57 Services – 29
Family Type	Joint Family – 42 Nuclear Family – 63 Single Parent Family – 5
Birth Order	Middle Child- 25 Oldest Child – 48 Only Child – 6 Youngest Child – 31
No. Of Child(ren)	One Child – 26 Two Children – 78 Three Children – 6

Table 1. Sample Description

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Variables	Males (N = 45)		Females (N = 65)		Table “t” value	t value
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation		
Conventional Parent Child Relationship	15.12	1.8	14.45	1.4	1.96 at 0.05 2.58 at 0.01 level	2.45 1.96 se reject and 2.58 se accept
Contemporary Parent Child Relationship	24.09	2.8	25.74	2.7	1.96 at 0.05 2.58 at 0.01 level	3.63 greater null hypo not rejected

Table 2: Mean Comparison of Males and Females on Conventional and Contemporary Parent Child relationship

From Table, it can be seen that the mean scores of Conventional Parent child relationship for males (15.12) is higher than the mean scores for females (14.45). The obtained t value for conventional parent child relationship is 2.45, which lies between 0.05 and 0.01 significant levels i.e. 1.96 and 2.58 respectively. This suggests that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of Conventional Parent child relationship for males and females at 0.01 level. The null hypothesis is rejected at 0.05 level of significance. However, the null hypothesis is not rejected at 0.01 level of significance.

Table also indicated that the mean scores of Contemporary Parent child relationship for males (24.09) is lower than that for females (25.74). The obtained t values for contemporary parent child relationship is 3.63, which is higher than 0.05 and 0.01 significant levels i.e. 1.96 and 2.58 respectively. This suggests that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of Contemporary Parent child relationship for males and females.

Variables	Males (N = 45)		Females (N = 65)		Table “t” value	t value
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation		
Parental Ambition	17.17	3.05	15.80	2.84	1.96 at 0.05 2.58 at 0.01 level	2.85
Parental Control	11.51	2.62	10.96	2.23	1.96 at 0.05 2.58 at 0.01 level	1.35
Parental Love	16.35	2.63	17.79	2.66	1.96 at 0.05 2.58 at 0.01 level	.782
Parental Role Reversal	15.44	2.05	14.35	2.43	1.96 at 0.05 2.58 at 0.01 level	3.01
Contemporary Parent Child Relationship Conflict	18.53	7.07	19.73	5.64	1.96 at 0.05 2.58 at 0.01 level	1.13
Contemporary Parent Child Relationship Closeness	29.64	5.35	30.73	2.77	1.96 at 0.05 2.58 at 0.01 level	2.88

Table 3: Mean Comparison of Males and Females on dimensions of Conventional and Contemporary Parent Child relationship.

The mean scores of Conventional Parental Ambition for their child(ren) is higher for males (17.17) than for females (15.80). The obtained t value for Parental Ambition is 2.85, which is higher than 0.05 and 0.01 significant levels i.e. 1.96 and 2.58 respectively. This suggests that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of males and females for Parental Ambition.

The mean scores for Conventional Parental Control towards their children is higher for males (11.51) than females (10.96). The obtained t value for Parental Control is 1.35, which is lower than 0.05 and 0.01 significant levels i.e. 1.96 and 2.58 respectively. This suggests that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of males and females for Parental Control.

The mean scores for Conventional Parental Love for their children is higher for females (17.79) than for males (16.35). The obtained t value for Parental Love is 0.82, which is lower than 0.05 and 0.01 significant levels i.e. 1.96 and 2.58 respectively. This suggests that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of males and females for Parental Love.

In Conventional Parent child bond's dimension Parental Role Reversal, mean score was higher for males (15.44) than for females (14.35). The obtained t value for Parental Role Reversal is 3.01, which is higher than 0.05 and 0.01 significant levels i.e. 1.96 and 2.58 respectively. This suggests that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of males and females for Parental Role Reversal.

In the dimension “Closeness” towards the child in context of contemporary parent child bond, mean scores were higher for females (30.73) than for males (29.64). The obtained t value for Closeness towards the child is 2.88, which is higher than 0.05 and 0.01 significant levels i.e. 1.96 and 2.58 respectively. This suggests that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of males and females for Closeness towards their child(ren) .

In the dimension "Conflict" towards the child in context of contemporary parent child bond, mean scores were higher for females (19.73) than for males (18.53). The obtained t value for Conflict towards the child is 1.13, which is lower than 0.05 and 0.01 significant levels i.e. 1.96 and 2.58 respectively. This suggests that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of males and females for Conflict.

		Conventional Parent Child Relationship	Contemporary Child Parent Relationship
Conventional Parent Child Relationship	Pearson Correlation	1	.169*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.035
	N	110	110
Contemporary Child Parent Relationship	Pearson Correlation	.169*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.035	
	N	110	110

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4: Correlation between Conventional and Contemporary Parent Child Relationship

Table 4 shows correlation between Conventional and Contemporary Parent Child Relationship. From the table it is clear that correlation coefficient is 0.169. This indicates that there is a positive relationship between conventional and contemporary parent child relationship for the entire population. A positive correlation indicates that when one variable increases the other variable also increases & vice versa. The correlation is statistically significant at 0.05 level of significance ($p > 0.05$)

		Parental Ambition	Conflict	Closeness
Parental Ambition	Pearson Correlation	1	.216**	-.040
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.005	.625
	N	110	110	110

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5: Correlation between Conventional Parental Ambition and Contemporary Child Parent Conflict and Closeness

Table 5 shows correlation between Conventional Parental Ambition and Contemporary Conflict and closeness. The correlation coefficient for parental ambition and conflict is 0.216. This indicates that conventional parental ambition towards the contemporary parent is positively related to contemporary parent's conflict with their children. A positive correlation indicates that when one variable increases the other variable also increases & vice versa. The correlation is statistically significant at 0.01 level of significance.

The coefficient of correlation for parental ambition and closeness is -0.40 . This suggests that conventional parental ambition towards the contemporary parent is weakly and negatively related to contemporary parent's closeness with their children. A negative correlation indicates that when one variable increases the other variable decreases & vice versa. The correlation is statistically insignificant.

		Conflict	Closeness	Control
Control	Pearson Correlation	.253**	-.186*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.020	
	N	110	110	110

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 6: Correlation between Conventional Parental Control and Contemporary Conflict and Closeness

Table 6 shows correlation between Conventional Parental Control and Contemporary Conflict and closeness. The correlation coefficient for parental control and conflict is 0.253. This indicates that conventional parental control towards the contemporary parent is positively related to contemporary parent's conflict with their children. A positive correlation indicates that when one variable increases the other variable also increases & vice versa. The correlation is statistically significant at 0.01 level of significance

The coefficient of correlation for parental control and closeness is -0.186 . This suggests that conventional parental control towards the contemporary parent is negatively related to contemporary parent's closeness with their children. A negative correlation indicates that when one variable increases the other variable decreases & vice versa. The correlation is statistically significant at 0.05 level of significance.

Table 7: Correlation between Conventional Parental Love and Contemporary Child Parent Conflict and Closeness

		Conflict	Closeness	Love
Love	Pearson Correlation	-.306**	.288**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	110	110	110

****.** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 7 shows correlation between Conventional Parental Love and Contemporary Conflict and closeness. The correlation coefficient for parental love and conflict is -0.306. This indicates that conventional parental love towards the contemporary parent is negatively related to contemporary parent's conflict with their children. A negative correlation indicates that when one variable increases the other variable decreases & vice versa. The correlation is statistically significant at 0.01 level of significance. The coefficient of correlation for parental love and closeness is 0.288. This suggests that conventional parental love towards the contemporary parent is positively related to contemporary parent's closeness with their children. A positive correlation indicates that when one variable increases the other variable also increases & vice versa. The correlation is statistically significant at 0.01 level of significance.

Table 8: Correlation between Conventional Parental Role Reversal and Contemporary Child Parent Conflict and Closeness

		Conflict	Closeness	Role Reversal
Role Reversal	Pearson Correlation	.246**	-.085	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.291	
	N	110	110	110

****.** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 8 shows correlation between Conventional Parental Role Reversal and Contemporary Conflict and closeness. The correlation coefficient for parental Role Reversal and conflict is 0.246. This indicates that conventional parental Role Reversal towards the contemporary parent is positively related to contemporary parent's conflict with their children. A positive correlation indicates that when one variable increases the other variable also increases & vice versa. The correlation is statistically significant at 0.01 level of significance.

The coefficient of correlation for parental Role Reversal and closeness is -0.085. This suggests that conventional parental Role Reversal towards the contemporary parent is negatively related to contemporary parent's closeness with their children. A negative correlation indicates that when one variable increases the other variable decreases & vice versa. The correlation is statistically significant at 0.01 level of significance.

DISCUSSION

Gender Differences between Conventional and Contemporary Parent Child Relationship

Findings suggest that there is no significant difference between males and females on the basis of Conventional and Contemporary parent child relationship.

Research by Ferguson, L. E. (2016) supports the hypothesis. According to this study today's households, are more likely to embody a phenomenon known as gender-flexibility, which suggests that they are able to discuss positions for family members outside of conventional gender ideologies. This will mean that in young adulthood parenting, mothers would deviate from their position as affective caregivers, and fathers would deviate from having instrumental means of support.

Gender Differences among Conventional Parental Ambition, Control, Love, Role Reversal and Parent Child Conflict and Closeness

Results indicate that there is significant difference between males and females in the dimension Conflict.

This hypothesis can be validated by a study by Renk et. al. (2006). He stated that the themes of parent-adolescent conflict differed by gender with mothers and fathers reporting on their sons and daughters. Sons' behaviour problems were reported as a source of contention by mothers more frequently than daughters. Fathers chose peer group topics (e.g., joining events with peers, dating) as a source of friction for daughters more often than sons, in comparison to mothers.

However it was hypothesised that there is no significant difference between males and females in the dimension Closeness

Association between Conventional and Contemporary Parent Child Relationship

Findings also suggest that there is a significant relationship between Conventional Contemporary Parent Child Relationships.

Tuli (2012) stated that both parents and youth have come to understand the importance of individuality and self-reliance in the new world as a result of globalisation, improving schooling, and expanded exposure to Western cultures. As a result of this heightened understanding, parents are becoming more receptive and so conventional parental knowledge is mixed with recent ideas and developments in the area of childcare and parenting.

It appears that most parenting styles, as per the convention, derive from the way the parents themselves were raised. This may simply be because these are the only parenting practices they are aware of and are experienced with.

It could also be with the intention of learning from the one's own parent's shortcomings or unknowingly relying on derived learning. In fact, modern day parents believe that their parenting styles are largely influenced by the way their parent raised them, thus serving as a starting point for one's own journey as a parent.

Dimension Wise Correlation between Conventional and Contemporary Parent Child Relationships

Conventional Parental Ambition came to be positively related to Contemporary Parent Child conflict, which suggests that if conventional parental ambition was high, contemporary parent child conflict was also high and vice versa.

It should be noted that there is a significant relationship between conventional parental ambition and contemporary parent child closeness. Parental Ambition and contemporary closeness was weakly and negatively correlated.

Findings indicate that conventional parental control towards the contemporary parent is positively related to contemporary parent's conflict and negatively correlated to closeness with their children.

A positive correlation indicates that if Conventional Parental Control was high Contemporary Parent child conflict was also high and vice versa while a negative correlation indicates that if Conventional Parental Control was high, contemporary closeness is low and vice versa.

Findings suggest that if parental love was high in the past, contemporary conflict will be low and vice versa. It was also suggested that conventional parental love towards the contemporary parent is positively related to contemporary parent's closeness with their children.

Parental love is basically love from parents. A child's well-being depends on his or her parents' affection. Children need love in order to survive.

Parent's love helps their child's brain grow, as much as twice the rate of a neglected child. It is vital that children receive support and care during those early years. Children from loving homes tend to learn better to be adaptable. The love of parents gives children the necessary roots to develop resilience and perspective to face the difficulties of life.

Children can learn better perseverance, self-control, and when they receive authentic, encouraging and supportive words from their parents.

The findings indicate that conventional parental Role Reversal towards the contemporary parent is positively related to contemporary parent's conflict with their children while it is negatively related to contemporary parent's closeness with their children. Parentification is a role reversal process in which a child is forced to parent their own parent or sibling. In extreme situations, the infant is used to fill the emotional void left by the alienating parent

To conclude it can be said that over the last few decades, parental interaction with young adult children has grown significantly. There has been a noticeable increase in parents' contact, support, coresidence, and intimacy with their young adult children.

Parents today interact with their young adult children more often than they did thirty years earlier. However most parenting styles, as per the convention, derive from the way the parents themselves were raised.

Changing socio- economic profile, education specially of females, urbanization, changing family sizes and profiles, exposure to international cultures owing to increasing travel and multinational businesses have changed parent- child equation.

Parenting is a dynamic process and involves experiential learning, unlearning and relearning.

The dynamism of parenting could depend on various factors like family types, socio economic strata, childhood experiences, special family needs and could involve stratification in this changing times.

Good parenting practices and good parent child relationship undoubtedly will go a long way in producing better and more productive citizens of the future.

Learning to understand the differences across cultures and nations can help pick up the best practices for parenting.

However there are some limitations as well, the subjects of the current study belonged to educated urban families. It would be interesting to replicate the study across cultures and socio economic strata.

The collection of data was done through objective questionnaire, a deeper understanding of how a parent uses his childhood memories in different aspects of parenting through a more qualitative method.

In most cultures women play a greater role in parenting and share a greater rapport with the children than fathers. It would be interesting to study the differences in parent child relationships with better education, economic independence and women empowerment which would also mean lesser time spent with the children.

A very long term study to understand the effect of parental ambition, control and closeness on outcomes of success in the future.

IV. REFERENCES

1. Akhtar Z. (2012). 'The Effect of Parenting Style of Parents on the Attachment Styles of Undergraduate Students, 'Language in India, www.languageinindia.com- accessed on 08.01.15
2. Bala K. Social media and changing communication patterns. *Global Media Journal—Indian Edition*. 2014;5(1):1–6.
3. Baumrind D. (1991) The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and substance use, *The Journal of Early Adolescence*, Vol. 11, No.1, pp. 56-95
4. Baumrind D. Current patterns of parental authority. *Developmental Psychology Monographs*. 1971;4:1–103.
5. Darling, Nancy and Laurence Steinberg (1993), "Parenting Style as Context: An Integrative Model," *Psychological Bulletin*, 113 (3), 487–96
6. Ferguson, L. E. (2016). Examining generational and gender differences in parent-young adult child relationships during co-residence.
7. Fingerman, K. L. (2017). Millennials and their parents: Implications of the new young adulthood for midlife adults. *Innovation in Aging*, 1(3), igx026.
8. Fingerman, K., Miller, L., Birditt, K., & Zarit, S. (2009). Giving to the good and the needy: Parental support of grown children. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 71(5), 1220-1233.
9. Jane B. Brooks (28 September 2012). *The Process of Parenting: Ninth Edition*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education. ISBN 978-0-07-746918-4.
10. Joseph, M. V., & John, J. (2008). Impact of parenting styles on child development. *Global Academic Society Journal: Social Science Insight*, 1(5), 16-25.
11. Kordi A., Baharudin R. Parenting attitude and style and its effect on children's school achievements. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*. 2010;2(2):217–222.
12. Lerner R. M., Noh E. R., Wilson C. (1998). The parenting of adolescents and adolescents as parents: A developmental contextual perspective [Internet].
13. Renk, K., Liljequist, L., Simpson, J. E., & Phares, V. (2005). Gender and age differences in the topics of parent-adolescent conflict. *The Family Journal*, 13(2), 139-149.
14. Sharma V., Sandhu G. K. A community study of association between parenting dimensions and externalizing behaviours. *Journal of Indian Association for Child and Adolescent Mental Health*. 2006;2(2):48–58.
15. Sigelman C. K. (1999) *Lifespan Human Development*, Third Edition. Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, p. 401.
16. Tucci J., Mitchell J., Goddard C. *The Changing Face of Parenting – Exploring the Attitudes of Parents in Contemporary Australia*. Australia: Australian Childhood Foundation; 2005. 29 p.
17. Tuli M, Chaudhary N. (2010), 'Elective Interdependence: Understanding Individual Agency and Interpersonal Relationships in Indian families, 'Culture & Psychology, 16(4) 477– 496, Sage Publications.
18. Tuli, M. (2012). Beliefs on parenting and childhood in India. *of Comparative Family Studies*, 43(1), 81-91.
19. Vieno, A., Nation, M., Pastore, M., & Santinello, M. (2009). Parenting and antisocial behavior: A model of the relationship between adolescent self-disclosure, parental closeness, parental control, and adolescent antisocial behavior. *Developmental Psychology*, 45(6).

