



Perceived Parenting Styles and Juvenile Delinquency in Pakistan

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Table of Contents

	Title	PageNo.
1.	Abstract (Zusammenfassung)	1
1.1	Abstract	1
1.2	Zusammenfassung	3
2.	Introduction	5
2.1	Definitions	5
2.2	Objectives of the Present Study	6
3	Theory	8
3.1	Parenting Styles	8
3.2	Parenting Styles and Child's Outcomes	9
3.3	Association between Parenting Style and Delinquency/Externalizing Behaviors	9
3.4	Gender Differences in the Association between Parenting Styles and Delinquency/Externalizing Behaviors	11
3.5	Cultural Differences in Parenting Styles and Delinquency/Externalizing Behaviors	12
3.6	Parent Training Program to Manage Juvenile Delinquency	14
3.7	Program Description	16
3.8	Objectives of the Research	19
4.	Empirical Studies	21
4.1	Sampling Techniques and Research Procedures	21
4.2	Measures	23
4.2.1	Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ)	23
4.2.2	Self-Reported and Informant-Reported Delinquency Scale (SRDS and IRDS)	24

4.2.3 Demographic Form	24
4.2.4 Sampling for Meta-analysis	24
4.3 Summary of the Studies	26
4.3.1 Summary of the Study I: ‘Gender differences in the associations between perceived parenting styles and juvenile delinquency in Pakistan.’	26
4.3.2 Summary of the Study II: ‘Effectiveness of an indigenous parenting training on change in parenting styles and delinquency in Pakistan: A randomized controlled trail.’	29
4.3.3 Summary of the Study III: ‘Do the associations of parenting styles with behavior problems and academic achievement vary by culture? Results from a meta-analysis.’	32
5. Discussion	35
5.1 Interplay of Gender, Parenting styles and Juvenile Delinquency in Pakistan	35
5.2 Parenting Styles and Juvenile Delinquency; Causality and Practical Outcome of Study	37
5.3 Cultural Variation in Association with Parenting Styles and Child Outcomes: Similarities and Differences	38
5.4 Limitations	39
5.5 Directions for Future Research	40
5.6 Recommendations for Policy Makers	40
6. References	42
7. Appendix	51
7.1 Manuscripts of the Three Studies	51
7.1.1 Study I	51
7.1.2 Study II	72
7.1.3 Study III	103

7.2 Questionnaires (First stage field research)	192
7.3 Questionnaires (Second stage field research)	206
8. Curriculum Vitae	212
9. Erklärung	213

List of Tables

Sr. No	Title	Page No.
1.	Goals of the Training Sessions	18
2.	Sample Characteristics with Respect to Gender of Adolescents	22

1. Abstract (Zusammenfassung)

1.1 Abstract

Life transitions are stages in development when human experiences key changes (Lenz, 2001). Adolescence is a transitional phase because it is denoted with rapid physical, cognitive, emotional, and social changes (Steinberg, 2014). Research examines the outcome of this transitional process and in this perspective also highlights the factors that may influence these outcomes. There are many genetic, hormonal and environmental factors that contribute to the process of development. However, literature shows that the influence of environmental factors is stronger than the hormonal influence (Brooks-Gunn, Graber & Paikoff, 1994). Within the environmental factors, parenting exerts important influence on healthy personality development (Zarrett & Eccles, 2006). Hence, the present research aims at the assessment of the relationship between parenting styles and juvenile delinquency, and to evaluate the impact of an indigenous parent training program for managing delinquent tendencies on change in delinquency among adolescents of Pakistan. Furthermore, a meta-analysis is conducted to calculate cultural variations in the association of parenting styles with problem behaviours and academic achievement of adolescents. The research has been conducted in three phases. In first phase, an adolescent sample has been drawn from five different randomly selected schools where 1140 students (aged 11-17 years) filled a modified version of the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) (Buri, 1991), Self-reported Delinquency Scale (SRDS) (Naqvi & Kamal, 2008), and a demographic form. In the second phase, 110 parents of adolescents with elevated levels of delinquent tendencies, screened from adolescents participated in previous phase, have participated in a randomized control trial. Participants were placed randomly either in the intervention or in the control condition. Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) (Buri, 1991) and Informant-reported Delinquency Scale (IRDS) (Naqvi & Kamal, 2008) were used for assessments at pre-test, post-test, and follow-up stages. Participants of the intervention condition have participated in seven sessions of an indigenous parent training program which is developed to promote behaviours related to authoritative parenting. In the third phase, 428 studies on associations of parenting styles with child and adolescent outcomes are searched by using different electronic databases. These studies are included in a meta-analysis to measure the cultural variations in the association of parenting styles and child outcome (internalizing and externalizing behaviours, and academic achievement). In the first study, results show that there is

a negative association between authoritative parenting and juvenile delinquency, and a positive correlation between neglectful parenting and juvenile delinquency. Mothers' parenting was more strongly associated with adolescents' delinquency than father's parenting. In the second study, results also reveal that the parents of the intervention group show significant improvements in their behaviours relating to authoritative parenting and they also report that their children have also shown improvements in their delinquent behaviours. Participants of the control condition report significant changes neither in their parenting nor in the delinquent behaviours of their adolescent child from the period of pre-test to follow-up. Based on regression analyses, it is concluded that decrease in delinquent behaviours of adolescents can be explained by an increased level of authoritative parenting. Findings of the meta-analysis indicate few cultural/ethnic differences in the association of authoritative parenting with the prescribed variable. Therefore, it is concluded that there are more similarities than differences on the effectiveness of authoritative parenting in the western and non-western countries. Meta-analysis provides sufficient evidences to claim that Baumrind's typology is applicable around the globe.

1.2 Zusammenfassung

Lebensübergänge sind Phasen in der Entwicklung, in denen Menschen zentrale Veränderungen erleben (Lenz, 2001). Die Adoleszenz ist eine transitionale Phase, weil sie mit schnellen physischen, kognitiven, emotionalen und sozialen Veränderungen einhergeht (Steinberg, 2014). Die Forschung untersucht das Ergebnis des transitionalen Prozesses und beleuchtet unter dieser Perspektive außerdem die Faktoren, die diese Ergebnisse beeinflussen könnten. Es gibt viele genetische, hormonelle und Umweltfaktoren, die zu dem Prozess der Entwicklung einen Beitrag leisten. Dennoch zeigt die Literatur, dass der Einfluss von Umweltfaktoren stärker ist als der von hormonellen Faktoren (Brooks-Gunn, Gruber & Paikoff, 1994). Innerhalb der Umweltfaktoren hat die Erziehung einen wichtigen Einfluss auf eine gesunde Persönlichkeitsentwicklung (Zarrett & Eccles, 2006). Somit ist es das Ziel der aktuellen Forschung, die Beziehung zwischen Erziehungsstilen und jugendlicher Delinquenz zu beurteilen und die Auswirkung eines indigenen Elterntrainingsprogramms zur Bewältigung delinquenter Tendenzen von pakistanischen Jugendlichen zu evaluieren. Außerdem wird eine Meta-Analyse durchgeführt, um kulturelle Unterschiede in dem Zusammenhang von Erziehungsstilen und Problemverhalten sowie akademischer Leistung zu ermitteln. Die Forschung wurde in 3 Phasen durchgeführt. In der ersten Phase wurde eine Stichprobe von Jugendlichen aus fünf unterschiedlichen, zufällig ausgewählten Schulen gezogen, an denen 1140 Schüler (11-17 Jahre) eine modifizierte Version des Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) (Buri, 1991), die Self-reported Delinquency Scale (SRDS) (Naqvi & Kamal, 2008) und ein demographisches Formblatt ausfüllten. In der zweiten Phase nahmen 110 Eltern von Jugendlichen mit einem erhöhten Ausmaß delinquenter Tendenzen – untersucht an Jugendlichen aus der ersten Phase – an einer randomisiert kontrollierten Studie teil. Die Teilnehmer wurden randomisiert entweder der Interventions- oder der Kontrollbedingung zugewiesen. Der Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) (Buri, 1991) und die Informant-reported Delinquency Scale (IRDS) (Naqvi & Kamal, 2008) wurden für die Messungen des Pretests, Posttests und Follow-Ups verwendet. Teilnehmer der Interventionsbedingung nahmen an 7 Sitzungen eines indigenen Elterntrainingsprogramms teil, das entwickelt wurde, um Verhaltensweisen, die mit autoritativer Erziehung verbunden sind, zu unterstützen. In der dritten Phase wurden 428 Studien zu Zusammenhängen von Erziehungsstilen und kindlichen Outcomes mit der Hilfe unterschiedlicher elektronischer Datenbanken ermittelt. Diese Studien wurden in eine Meta-Analyse eingeschlossen, um die kulturellen Unterschiede in

dem Zusammenhang zwischen Erziehungsstilen und kindlichen Outcomes (internalisierende und externalisierende Verhaltensweisen, akademische Leistung) zu messen. In der ersten Studie zeigten die Ergebnisse eine negative Korrelation zwischen autoritativer Erziehung und jugendlicher Delinquenz und eine positive Korrelation zwischen vernachlässigender Erziehung und jugendlicher Delinquenz. Mütterliche Erziehung war stärker mit jugendlicher Delinquenz assoziiert als väterliche Erziehung. In der zweiten Studie zeigte sich außerdem, dass Eltern in der Interventionsgruppe signifikante Verbesserungen in ihrem Verhalten bezüglich autoritativer Erziehung und ihre Kinder signifikante Verbesserungen bezüglich delinquenten Verhaltensweisen aufwiesen. Teilnehmer der Kontrollbedingung zeigten zwischen Pretest und Follow-up weder signifikante Veränderungen in ihrer Erziehung noch in delinquenten Verhaltensweisen ihrer jugendlichen Kinder. Basierend auf Regressions-Analysen, kann man zu dem Schluss kommen, dass eine Abnahme in delinquenten Verhaltensweisen Jugendlicher durch ein erhöhtes Ausmaß an autoritativer Erziehung erklärt werden kann. Ergebnisse der Meta-Analyse weisen auf wenige kulturelle/ethnische Unterschiede in dem Zusammenhang zwischen autoritativer Erziehung und den gegebenen Variablen hin. Daher wird darauf geschlossen, dass es zwischen westlichen und nicht-westlichen Ländern mehr Gemeinsamkeiten als Unterschiede in der Effektivität autoritativer Erziehung gibt. Die Meta-Analyse liefert ausreichende Beweise für die Behauptung, dass Baumrinds Typologie weltweit anwendbar ist.

2. Introduction

2.1 Definitions

The first and second part of present dissertation explores the association between parenting styles and juvenile delinquency in Pakistan. An indigenous parenting training has been developed to improve authoritative parenting in parents of adolescents with elevated levels of delinquent behaviours. In third part, cultural variations in association with parenting styles and child outcomes are explored. It is important to define these terms according to their use in the present research project. Following terms and definitions are used in the dissertation.

Darling and Steinberg (1993) define parenting styles as “a constellation of attitudes towards the child that are communicated to the child and that, taken together, create an emotional climate in which the parents’ behaviours are expressed” (p. 488). In the present dissertation, the term “Parenting Style” refers to the manner in which parents rear their children. These manners include parents’ use of authority, warmth, family decision making processes and expectations from their adolescents.

Juvenile delinquent behaviour is defined as “any illegal actions committed by a juvenile in which there is an apprehension of court proceeding” (Balogun & Chukwumezie, 2010, p. 46). In the present dissertation the term “Juvenile Delinquency” refers to rule breaking behaviours of adolescents aged 11-17 years. These rule breaking behaviours comprise of lie, theft, use of drugs, disobedience to parents or authority, and aggression. Self-Reported Delinquency Scale (SRDS) and Informant Reported Delinquency Scale (IRDS) developed by Naqvi and Kamal (2008) are used to measure the delinquent tendencies. These scales are indigenous and are not used for diagnosis. Clinical interviews based on DSM V to measure conduct disorder are not used. Minor delinquent behaviours are different from conduct disorder defined by DSM V. However, these behaviours can be precursors for crimes.

Parent training is defined as “structured programs with specific coverage and set goals, their ultimate purpose is the prevention of the mental health of the child and they belong to a variety of interventions for parents” (Konstadinidis & Goga, 2015, p. 141). In the present dissertation the term “Parent Training” refers to a program which guides parents to improve their parenting practices for managing behaviours of their adolescents.

Individualism refers to “a preference for a loosely-knit social framework in which individuals are expected to take care of only themselves and their immediate families”, whereas collectivism (interdependence) is defined as “a preference for a tightly-knit framework in a society in which individuals can expect their relatives or members of a particular in-group to look after them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty” (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010, p. 90).

2.2 Objectives of the Present Study

Comprehensive child development is an emerging discourse, aims to nurture children according to acceptable socio-legal conditions of societies. In this context, the United Nations stresses all nations to reduce youth’s involvement in crimes by 2015 (United Nations, 2008). The member countries in collaboration with many international and national human rights organizations are trying to protect children from any type of deviation through different advocacy and counselling programs. However, still there are several barriers which are aggravating the incidence of juvenile delinquency throughout the world. The situation is more critical in developing countries where the number of juvenile delinquents is increasing comparatively at high rate (United Nations, 2004).

Although statistics of juvenile delinquency are not widely available from Pakistan, Tahir et al (2011) report that 17 percent of the crimes are committed by adolescents (15-19 years) during 2010-2011. They are involved in different criminal acts like abortion¹, homicide, theft, use of illegal weapons, robbery, use of drugs, and fire raising (Tahir et al., 2011). These crimes may be precursors to minor delinquency during adolescence, but later may serve as building blocks of serious crimes.

Literature from Pakistan highlights associations of juvenile delinquency with various socio-cultural and economic factors, but research on parenting styles and juvenile delinquency is not lucid. Only three studies (Akhtar, Hanif, Tariq & Atta, 2011; Gilani & Altaf, 2005; Rizvi & Najam, 2015) addressed the issue, but these studies only measured the association of three parenting styles with delinquency, but the association of fourth parenting style, reported by Maccoby and Martin (1983), is missing. Moreover, these studies also neglected gender as a

¹ Abortion is illegal in Pakistan in general conditions

moderator. The literature from Pakistan only reported data from correlational research designs, whereas longitudinal or experimental designs were missing.

It has been established that that parenting plays an important role in the personality development of children (Baumrind, 1991; Chan & Koo, 2011). In the case of less optimal parenting, the risk of deviation is enhanced among children. Therefore, parent training programs are developed and used to manage these issues. Unfortunately, there is not a single parent training program available from Pakistan.

The present dissertation aims to fill the above-mentioned gap in the existing literature by assessing the associations of four parenting styles and juvenile delinquency with respect to gender differences. Moreover, the study also sheds light on the cultural variations in associations of parenting styles with child outcomes. In addition, a parent training program is developed and administered by using an experimental research design for improving authoritative parenting and delinquent tendencies among adolescents. The program can facilitate researchers and interventionists in their professional endeavours. Besides these theoretical and practical objectives, the present dissertation also proves applicability of Baumrind's typology to a collectivistic society (Pakistan).

3. Theory

3.1 Parenting Styles

Past studies have differently conceptualized parenting behaviours, and one widely used theory is the concept of parenting styles developed by Baumrind (1966; 1991). Baumrind (1966) presented a prototypical approach to study parenting behaviours, which was further developed by Maccoby and Martin (1983). They classified parenting styles (prototypes) based on different levels and combinations of two dimensions: responsiveness and demandingness. Baumrind (2005) described responsiveness/warmth as parental dimension that deliberately fosters individuality, self-regulation, and self-assertion in their children. Aspects of parental responsiveness include warmth, support, autonomy granting, and healthy communication patterns between parent and child. As reported by Baumrind (2005), demandingness/control refers to the requirements that parents develop for their children to adjust in the family and society. Aspects of demandingness are maturity demands, monitoring, and consistent disciplinary strategies. The concept of control is continuously evolving, but the distinction between behavioural control (such as use of monitoring and limit setting) and psychological control (emotional state and belief controlled by parents) are expressed by many researchers (Barber, 1996; Gray & Steinberg, 1999; Schaefer, 1965).

These two dimensions are used to build a four-fold classification of parenting conducts. These naturally occurring combinations of parenting behaviours, values, and attitudes - Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive, Neglectful - are based on the combination of different levels of responsiveness and demandingness (Baumrind, 1991). Parenting style is a typology, and “a typology assumes that the types are more than and different from the sum of its parts” (Baumrind, 1991, p. 63). She suggested that operational definitions of these four parenting prototypes may vary according to social context, developmental age and technique of evaluation, but they share definite indispensable features. *Authoritative parents* are high in responsiveness and demandingness. “They monitor and impart clear standards for their children’s conduct. They are assertive, but not intrusive and restrictive. Their disciplinary methods are supportive, rather than punitive. They want their children to be assertive as well as socially responsible, and self-regulated as well as cooperative” (Baumrind, 1991, p. 62). *Authoritarian parents* are high in demandingness, but low in responsiveness. “They are obedience-and-status oriented, and expect

their orders to be obeyed without explanation” (Baumrind, 1991, p. 62). *Permissive parents* are high in responsiveness, but low in demandingness. “They are non-traditional and lenient, do not require mature behaviour, allow considerable self-regulation, and avoid confrontation” (Baumrind, 1991, p. 62). *Neglectful parents* are low in responsiveness and demandingness. “They do not structure or monitor, and are not supportive, but actively rejecting or else neglect their child rearing responsibilities altogether” (Baumrind, 1991, p. 62).

3.2 Parenting Styles and Child’s Outcomes

Extensive literature on socialization research promotes that there is an association between parenting styles and child’s outcomes (Chan & Koo, 2011; Dooley & Stewart, 2007). Association of parenting styles with child’s self-esteem (e.g., Milevsky, Schlechter, Netter, & Keehn 2007), internalizing and externalizing behaviours (e.g., Aunola & Nurmi, 2005), and academic achievements (e.g., Aunola, Stattin, & Nurmi, 2000) are well studied topics. It is established that authoritative parenting is more likely to produce, whereas the remaining three parenting styles namely authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful are less likely to produce positive developmental outcomes of children (Hoeve et al., 2009; Pinquart, 2015; Sangawi, Adams, & Reissland 2015).

3.3 Association between Parenting Style and Delinquency/Externalizing Behaviours

It is hypothesized that there is an association between parenting styles and delinquency/externalizing behaviours (Buschgens et al., 2010; Hoeve et al., 2009; McKee, Colletti, Rakow, Jones, & Forehand, 2008). Externalizing behaviour refers to negative behaviours that are directed towards the external environment, such as aggression, delinquency, opposition, property violations, and status violations (Bongers, Koot, van der Ende, & Verhulst, 2004). Available literature shows some degree of consistency in associations of authoritative parenting with delinquency/externalizing behaviours (Asher, 2006; Hoeve et al., 2009; Moitra & Mukherjee, 2010). Why authoritative parenting works best? Steinberg (2001) discusses that the elements of authoritative parenting – nurturance and involvement – make the child more open to parental influence for efficient socialization. It also fosters self-regulation skills those ultimately help the child to be a competent individual. Furthermore, verbal give-and-take in authoritative families promotes cognitive and social competence. In a meta-analysis, Hoeve et al. (2009)

report that psychological control, parental monitoring, parental rejection, and hostility account for 11% of the variance in delinquency. They found that delinquency has the strongest associations with psychological control ($r = 0.23$) and weakest with authoritarian control ($r = 0.10$). Similar mean effect sizes were found for authoritative control ($r = -0.11$ to -0.13). When analyzing aspects of parental support, strongest mean effect sizes were found for negative aspects for support such as, neglect, rejection, and hostility (r ranged from 0.26 to 0.33). Parental monitoring, parental knowledge, and child disclosure were also found with relatively stronger effect sizes (r ranged from -0.23 to -0.31). Mean effect size for neglectful parenting was also moderate ($r = 0.29$). Smallest effect sizes were found for permissive parenting and physical punishment ($r = 0.10$). The mean effect size of authoritative parenting style was $r = -0.19$. They also mentioned that few parenting behaviours are more important in some contexts and sub-samples than in others.

However, several studies showed that the remaining three parenting styles are not associated with positive child outcomes. For example, a study by Balogun and Chukwumezie (2010) showed that the authoritarian parenting style is associated with higher levels of delinquency. Similarly, Moitra and Mukherjee (2010) reported that authoritarian and neglectful parenting is positively correlated with delinquency in an Indian sample. Hoeve et al (2008) identified five distinct trajectories of delinquency from non-delinquent to serious desisting in their sample. They share that authoritarian parenting is associated with moderate desisting to serious persisting delinquency, whereas neglectful parenting is associated with moderate desisting to serious desisting trajectories of delinquency. Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, and Dornbusch (1994) also reported that children reared with a neglectful parenting style are most disadvantaged in terms of competence and adjustment. They testified that neglectful parenting is associated with higher levels of delinquency.

Finally, permissive parenting also has a tendency to be associated with higher levels of delinquency. For example, Steinberg et al (1994) share that adolescents from indulgent homes show higher levels of misconduct. However, there are inconsistencies in literature related to permissive parenting styles. For example, Gracia and Gracia (2009) reveal in their findings that authoritative and permissive parenting is related to lower levels of problem behaviour. They even conclude that permissive parenting is an optimal parenting style for Spanish children. One possible explanation can be its component of high responsiveness (high level of warmth and

involvement). They suggested that responsiveness is a key to socialization whereas, strictness is unnecessary or of low importance. For instance, Balogun and Chukwumezie (2010) report that responsiveness is negatively associated with juvenile delinquency when assessing relationship between parenting dimensions and juvenile delinquency.

3.4 Gender Differences in the Association between Parenting Styles and Delinquency/Externalizing Behaviours

Gender affects parenting styles. Gender is a combination of norms, values and beliefs of a culture toward roles, responsibilities and behavioural patterns of males and females (Slavkin & Stright, 2000). The existing literature highlights the differences in parenting styles as per gender of parents and gender of child. Ultimately, these differences affect the relationship between parenting styles and child outcomes. For instance, Russell et al. (1998) share that there are mean level differences in parenting styles of mothers and fathers. They also pointed out differences between parenting of boys and girls. Mothers use authoritative parenting more frequently, whereas fathers use more often authoritarian and permissive parenting. Parents exercise authoritative parenting while dealing with daughters and authoritarian parenting while dealing with sons. Similarly, by sharing the findings from Palestinian sample, Dwairy (2004) observes that girls perceive their parents as more authoritative than boys, whereas boys perceive their parents more authoritarian. In the same context, Kauser and Shafique (2008) report that girls perceive their fathers more authoritative and permissive as compared to boys. Boys perceived their mothers more authoritative than girls. No gender differences were found for authoritarian parenting. Contrary to this, Chipman, Olsen, Klein, Hart, and Robinson (2000) study the convicts and elaborate that girls report higher level of authoritarian behaviour (strict control) of their parents as compared to boys confined in the jail.

Furthermore, Rhucharoenpornpanich et al. (2010) also find differences in parental control and supervision with respect to gender of children. They infer that parents supervise their daughters more closely than their sons and give more freedom to sons. Nonetheless, they do not find gender differences in the reported levels of delinquency among adolescents. In another study, Coie and Dodge (1998) indicated a difference. They observed that overt aggression is common among males. They further suggest that the female child is more closely supervised by parents than the male child. This contributes to higher levels of antisocial behaviour in boys.

There are also other factors that contribute to this phenomenon. A meta-analysis by Hoeve et al (2009) finds differences in association between parenting and delinquency with respect to maternal and paternal parenting. They establish that a neglectful parenting style is associated with higher levels of delinquency in boys. In addition, permissive parenting was associated with higher levels of delinquency among girls. They also share that fathers' support show a stronger negative relationship with delinquency than mothers' support. They observe that the relationship between parental support and delinquency is stronger for same-sex dyads (e.g., father-son) than for opposite-sex dyads. However, this meta-analysis does not find moderator effects of adolescents' gender on the association between parenting styles and delinquency.

Furthermore, with regard to adolescent's gender, it is established that male adolescents incline to display higher levels of delinquency than their female fellows (e.g., Herrera & McCloskey, 2001; Moffitt, Caspi, Rutter, & Silva, 2001). A meta-analysis by Card, Stuckey, Salawani, and Little (2008) indicated that boys show more overt aggression, whereas girls show more covert aggression. They also reported that overt aggression is strongly related to delinquency while covert aggression is related to internalizing problems.

3.5 Cultural Differences in Parenting Styles and Delinquency/Externalizing Behaviours

Culture affects human behaviours from different aspects. Important aspects are parenting styles and practices. Therefore, cultural beliefs and social factors play a decisive role in shaping parenting styles/practices (Kotchick & Forehand, 2002). There is scientific evidence that parenting styles/practices vary across different cultures (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009). National differences in individualism/collectivism may explain related differences in parenting styles/dimensions (Hofstede, 1984). Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkow (2010) measure national levels of collectivism-individualism as a continuous variable. Many researchers have used this division (Chao, 1994; Sorkhabi, 2005); therefore, it will be helpful for comparison and precision about the existing literature. For instance, Wang and Leichtman (2000) compare the narratives of American (individualistic society) and Chinese (collectivistic society) children and observe that Chinese children have greater concerns for moral connectedness and authority and less autonomous orientation as compared to their American counterparts. Other authors indicate that parenting styles are differently practiced and produce varying outcomes across different cultures. Few studies reveal that there are cultural differences in the relationship between parenting

styles/practices and externalizing behaviours (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009; Lansford et al., 2004; Stormshak et al., 2000). For instance, Javo, Ronning, Heyerdahl, and Rudmin (2004) found cultural variations in the effects of parenting on externalizing behaviours of children. They reported that harsh treatment and physical punishment are associated with externalizing behaviours in Norwegian boys, whereas the reverse is true for Sami boys. Lansford et al (2004) also share these variations and report that physical discipline strategies are associated with higher levels of externalizing behaviours in European American adolescents, but lower levels of externalizing behaviours in African American adolescents. They conclude that perceived normative use of physical discipline moderates the relationship between physical discipline and problem behaviour.

The above mentioned studies refer to ethnic communities living in the developed world. Cultural differences may be smaller when comparing ethnic groups within one country (due to acculturation) than when comparing countries that differ according to individualism/collectivism or to other dimensions. Therefore, it is necessary to review studies from collectivistic cultures on the subject. In this regard, Dwairy (2004) reports no significant relationship between authoritarian parenting and conduct disorder, whereas there is a positive relationship between permissive parenting and conduct disorder in Arab Children. Findings also reveal negative relationship between authoritative parenting and conduct disorder. Furthermore, Okorodudu (2010) reports that authoritative parenting with social competence of adolescents. His results show that authoritative parenting and authoritarian parenting do not predict delinquency in adolescents from Nigeria. Nonetheless, permissive parenting predicts adolescents' delinquency. Sharma and Sandhu (2006) share that warmth and control dimensions are inversely correlated to externalizing behaviours in India, whereas permissive parenting, autonomy granting, and harsh discipline strategies are positively correlated with externalizing problems. Aforementioned literature reveals that the results from non-western countries are not totally consistent.

Furthermore, Sangwai et al (2015) concluded in a narrative review on 21 studies that there are cultural differences in the effects of parenting styles. They elaborate that the relationship between authoritative parenting and externalizing behaviour problems is not consistent across cultures. In few studies, they also find a negative association between authoritarian parenting and problem behaviours in children. However, reported differences cannot be claimed as only an outcome of ethnicity, as methodological variations can also be a

reason. They also suggested that physical discipline is not a single reason for behavioural problems among children. Parental rejection, excessive control and overprotection were also positively associated with behavioural problems and this relationship is reversed when high behaviour control is combined with emotional warmth and support. Hence, it can be concluded that warmth and support can considerably change the association of behavioural control with behavioural problems. Moreover, there are inconsistencies in the literature from collectivistic cultures (Chao, 2001; Chen, Wu, Chen, Wang, & Cen, 2001; Sharma & Sandhu, 2006). Sangwai et al (2015) observe a number of methodological limitations and suggest that these may have contributed to inconsistency of results.

Alternatively, Steinberg et al. (1991) report that positive correlates of authoritative parenting with social adjustment outstrip the influence of ethnicity. They use four indicators, school performance, self-reliance, psychological distress and delinquency, to measure social competence. The findings of their study show a negative relationship between authoritative parenting styles and delinquency. Steinberg (2001) concludes that authoritative parenting would have positive effects around the globe as his findings from the US were confirmed in extremely diverse sample from China, Pakistan, Hong Kong, Scotland, Australia and Argentina (Feldman, Rosenthal, Mont-Reynaud, Lau, & Leung, 1991; Shek, 1996; Shucksmith, Hendry, & Glendinning, 1995; Stewart, Bond, Zaman, Dar, & Anwar, 1999). His review suggests the applicability of authoritative parenting around the globe regardless of cultural and social background. Similarly, in a narrative review, Sorkhabi (2005) concluded that Baumrind's parent typology is applicable to both individualistic as well as collectivistic cultures. She further elaborated that authoritative parenting is an optimal parenting style around the globe. The aforementioned review of the literature highlights the need of a cross-cultural meta-analysis to diminish these inconsistencies in literature.

3.6 Parent Training Program to Manage Juvenile Delinquency

Many parent training programs are offered by psychologists and social workers to manage the child's behaviour. These programs offer knowledge, skills and trainings for bolstering parenting ways and means to improve parent-child relationship and communication. All these parent training programs are used to improve less optimal parenting through explaining the use of reinforcement to strengthen the expected behaviour, use of affection and consistent

consequences in common. However, there are many differences in methods of delivering knowledge and information as well as content of the programs. These differences can be based on the cultural background of receivers of the program and the age of the child.

Most parent training programs are developed for younger children (under the age of 10 years) (Chu, Bullen, Farruggia, Dittman, & Sanders, 2015). Only few programs are developed for adolescents' parents and for families of developing countries. Previous studies show that parent training programs must be developmentally scheduled to help parents achieve effective results and to effectively manage issues related to the development of their adolescent children (Webster-Stratton & Hammond, 1990).

There are cultural diversities within and across societies. Therefore, definition of normative behaviour varies. These variations also affect parenting practices (Chao, 2000, 2001; Deater-Deckard, Dodge, & Sorbring, 2005). Hence, it is inevitable to develop a parent training program with culturally acceptable norms and values. Most parent trainings are developed within western cultures (Burke, Brennan, & Cann, 2012; Chu, et al. 2015; Connell, Dishion, Yasui, & Kavanagh, 2007; Leijten, Overbeek, & Janssens, 2012). Only few evidence-based parent training programs are available in developing counties (Aghebati, Gharraee, Hakim Shoshtari, & Gohari, 2014; Aktan, Kumpfer, & Turner, 1996; Leung, Sanders, Leung, Mak, & Lau, 2003). Available literature shows that culturally relevant training programs show more promising results than non-relevant programs (Kumpfer, Alvarado, Smith, & Bellamy, 2002). Therefore, an indigenous parent training program is developed in the present dissertation for Asian cultures in general and for Pakistan in particular.

This parent training is designed for the parents of adolescents with elevated levels of juvenile delinquency. Existing literature shows that there is not a single parent training program available in Pakistan; neither such program has been developed nor adapted before. My study has developed a parent training program to manage the delinquent behaviours among adolescents. Such programs have improved parenting in the developed world, but were missing in a country like Pakistan. The prescribed training is mainly based on Baumrind's parenting typology. The goal of the parent training is to promote authoritative parenting. This is because authoritative parenting creates equilibrium between affection and limit setting; therefore it gives best results in all stages of development (Steinberg, 2001).

3.7 Program Description

An indigenous parent training program has been developed with seven didactic sessions, organized for parents of adolescents with elevated levels of delinquent behaviours. A group format is used with varying numbers of participants (from 6 to 15). Parent trainings are conducted in the group format due to expediency and time efficiency (Sanders, 2012). We have selected the schools of children for conducting sessions with parents due to their convenient approach from homes to schools. All sessions are planned for approximately two hours with a tea break of 20 minutes. Pakistan is a country where psycho-educational programs on parenting are not available. Electronic media are also not playing a role to highlight the importance of these issues and possible solutions actively. It has already been acknowledged, as we are working with parents of adolescents, that it is important to know the level of their prior knowledge about growth and development patterns and psychological needs of adolescents. During introductory sessions, it has been noticed that the parents have a very little information about the physical growth and psychological changes to be occurred among adolescents and their impact on their behaviours. Hence, sessions are embedded with aforementioned explanations for improving parents' understanding and competencies for dealing their adolescents.

Each session contains the summary of essential information shared in the former session. During all sessions, different resources are used to support the learning process. These resources include the use of white board, handouts and worksheets. Handouts cover different topics such as the use of positive discipline strategies, limit setting, autonomy granting and sense of responsibility, forgiveness, co-parenting, monitoring, and balance in relationships. Worksheets are used for identifying family problems, making house rules and improving anger management skills. Homework assignments are also given to group participants to connect and implement the group learning at homes. This exercise provides an opportunity for participants to practice newly learned skills. All worksheets and handouts are prepared in Urdu language (national language of Pakistan).

It is well established that parental stress is associated with physically abusive parenting (e.g., Whipple & Webster-Stratton, 1991). Hence group members were fortified by the researcher to discuss and share their problems especially related to their adolescents' activities. Sharing is a powerful tool for decreasing stress. Empathetic understanding and active listening help parents improve understanding of adolescents' behaviour and reducing their stress.

Language plays an important role to disseminate and improve the effectiveness of any training program (Falicov, 2009). Pakistan is a multilingual country. Urdu is the national language, but Punjabi is shared as a provincial language in the city of Lahore². In his commentary, Falicov (2009) also stresses the importance of complete knowledge of cultural values and contextual stressors in the dissemination of any training program. The mentor who conducted the parent training is proficient in both languages and belongs to the similar cultural background. Therefore, she is familiar with cultural values, terms and contextual factors. The knowledge and awareness about cultural norms and values have facilitated her to understand how parents socialize their children in Pakistani society.

Pakistani society is a collectivistic society (Hofstede, 2016) where familial norms and customs are more likely valued than individual interests. The family operates under emerging cultural norms and values where traditional gender relations are more likely reinforced. In such relations, boys are treated as anticipated breadwinners whereas girls are groomed as future homemakers. These anticipated roles and responsibilities of children influence the selection of parenting style by parents. Therefore, traditional gender beliefs are also discussed in the training program under the topics of autonomy granting and monitoring with respect to adolescents' genders.

In addition, religion occupies a significant space in the culture. Religious affiliations and subsequent practices indirectly influence the decisions of parents for the selection of parenting styles. It has been noticed that culture and religious have separate as well as combined impacts on human developmental processes. Religion has deep imprint on people's lives in Pakistan. This is because independence of Pakistan is closely attached to the notion that a geographical land will be demarked where the religion of Islam will be practiced with full zeal. The Islamic scripture offers various guidelines for parents to shape relationships with their children. It is due to strong influence of religion on the lives of Pakistani people, many examples from religious scriptures are also used in the parenting training to improve parental responsiveness, anger management and to avoid physical punishment of their offspring.

² This is capital city of the province of Punjab. Pakistan is comprised of five provinces and Punjab is the largest province of the country with respect to its population.

The subjects of parent training sessions are grounded on the themes of responsiveness, demandingness and autonomy granting as well as self-regulatory methods of parenting. An overview of topic and goals of sessions is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. *Goals of the Training Sessions*

Session	Topic of the Session	Goals
1	Orientation Session of Parental Training	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To psycho-educate the parents about risk factors of delinquency 2. To identify risk factors that may exist in the family 3. To encourage parents to begin to cure risk factors of delinquency that can be rectified within the family
2	Responsiveness	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To discuss the effective ways of parental responsiveness 2. To establish a more positive interaction pattern and communication between parent and child
3	Making House Rules and Promoting Good Behaviour	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To define the clear house rules 2. To increase positive reinforcement and attention for compliance
4	Using Consequences and Anger Management	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To learn the concept of consistency and practice the use of consistent consequences. 2. To encourage parents for learning self-regulation skills
5	Monitoring and Co-parenting	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To increase the parental monitoring of the child's behaviour in the family and neighbourhood 2. To decrease inconsistency between mothers' and fathers' parental behaviours administration by learning co-parenting principles
6	Decision Making for Autonomy and Responsibility	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To encourage parents for learning self-regulation skills 2. To psycho-educate parents about age-related autonomy granting
7	Program of Today for Future of Families	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To think about possible future behaviour problems and use of new skills for managing these issues

3.8 Objectives of the Research

The present study outlines different objectives based on scientific gaps identified in the reported literature. The first goal of the present study is to compute association between parenting styles and juvenile delinquency in Pakistan. Second, the present research aims to analyse gender differences in the association between parenting styles and juvenile delinquency. Third, the present study intends to explore cultural variations in parenting styles and child's outcomes. Fourth, the proposed study intends to test for a causal relationship between parenting styles and juvenile delinquency. Last, the present study also aims at developing a parent training program to improve their parenting styles.

The relationship between parenting styles and juvenile delinquency has been rarely explored in Pakistan. To our knowledge, only three studies (Akhtar et al., 2011; Gilani & Altaf, 2005; Rizvi & Najam, 2015) are published to determine associations between three parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian and permissive and delinquency). Information about the associations of delinquency with the fourth parenting style (neglectful) defined by Maccoby and Martin (1983) is missing. Thus, the present study aims to analyse association between four parenting styles and juvenile delinquency.

Gender is a culturally defined phenomenon that influences the selection of parenting styles and outcomes in children. Parents select parenting styles based on existing norms, values and beliefs toward children's future roles. For instance, there is a high likelihood that boys in traditional cultures are differently groomed and treated by their parents than girls (Inglehart & Norris, 2003). The literature is scarce on gender differences in parenting styles and their association with juvenile delinquency. Importantly, we could not find a single research published on this phenomenon in Pakistan. Hence, the current research intends to study gender differences in associations between parenting styles and juvenile delinquency.

Past literature offers inconsistencies on the topic of cultural variations in parenting styles and its impact on child's outcomes. For example, Deater-Deckard and Dodge (1997) share that there are cultural differences in the meaning and acceptability of parenting styles. Huntsinger and Jose (2009) also report that there are cultural differences in parenting styles and their association with externalizing behaviours. Chang (2007) reports that there are no cultural differences in the use and impact of authoritative parenting. However differences were found in the use of authoritarian parenting. Steinberg et al. (1991) also confirms universality of authoritative

parenting. These inconsistencies in the existing literature demand a comprehensive study such as a meta-analysis to highlight cultural differences in association between parenting styles and child's outcomes. Thus, the present research also aims to analyse cultural differences in the association between parenting styles and child's outcome.

The existing literature does not determine causality of the relationship between parenting styles and juvenile delinquency. Past studies are available on correlational or longitudinal research designs that do not provide evidences about a fundamental relationship between both variables. In the current study, we aim to adopt an experimental design (randomized control trial) to test a causal relationship between parenting styles and juvenile delinquency.

Past literature does not provide any evidence regarding the existence of a parent training program in Pakistani context. Delinquency is an emerging issue in the developed and developing world. Parent training programs help with managing behavioural problems. The literature offers various parent trainings to manage or prevent delinquency, but most programs come from western/individualistic countries (Burke et al., 2012; Chu et al., 2015; Connell et al., 2007; Leijten et al., 2012). It is established that, when working with ethnic minorities or in non-western countries, indigenous or adapted parent trainings more likely achieve their goal than a parent training with culturally irrelevant contents (Kumpfer et al., 2002). Therefore, the last goal of the present study is to develop an evidence-based parent training program. This program will determine whether improvements in authoritative parenting are associated with improvement in reported delinquent tendencies/behaviours.

4. Empirical Studies

This dissertation comprises of three empirical studies. Two studies are prepared based on primary data collected by the present researcher between April 2014 and March 2015. The third study is a meta-analysis that was conducted based on available studies published before October, 2016. In the following section, sampling techniques, research procedures, and data collection tools are discussed in detail.

4.1 Sampling Techniques and Research Procedures

The first part of the present study has been conducted in two stages. In the first stage, a correlational cross-sectional research design has been used for data collection. In the second stage, an experimental research design has been employed.

In the first stage, five different schools are selected randomly from Lahore, Pakistan. Principals of schools are contacted and requested to allow the researcher for involving their students from different grades (6th to 10th) in the research activity. Principals of the selected schools have studied the selected questionnaires and manual for parent training (used in second stage of research) and have showed reservations on few items in the Self-Reported Delinquency Scale. After discussion, 25 items out of 27 are finalized before the final administration of the questionnaire with students. Two items are excluded because these items are related to the themes of homo and heterosexuality. Before administrating the questionnaires, the researcher has developed a confidence with the students about the purpose of the study. They are guided about the importance of the research and the value of their contribution to the research activities. They are also assured about the confidentiality of their responses. Hence, all students have taken a part in research activities. A demographic form, a modified version of the Parental Authority Questionnaire (mother and father version) and the Self-Reported Delinquency Scale are administered with 1500 students of different age groups (from 11-17 years). Questionnaires are administered in the presence of class teachers. The co-operation of teachers has made it easy for the researcher to finish her task timely and effectively. Teacher's presence has also helped with maintaining discipline in the classes. Out of 1500, 1140 questionnaires are filled by students completely. The response rate remains 76%. The data analysis indicates that the mean age of respondents is 13.4 years ($SD = 1.4$).

In the second stage, out of the 1140 adolescents, 325 students are screened with the elevated level of delinquent tendencies/behaviours from the 1140 respondents (defined as scoring at least one standard deviation above the sample mean). Parents of these adolescents are contacted and requested to participate in the next segments of research. Among them, 146 parents have shown their interest to become part of further research. They are assigned to either intervention or control condition through randomization by flipping a coin. Later, 73 participants are placed into each group; intervention or control. Pretesting is carried out with parents of both groups by administering PAQ (parent version) and IRDS. After pretesting, a parent training has been scheduled with the participants of the intervention condition, whereas no information has been provided to the participants of control condition. Parent training has been continued for seven sessions/weeks. After seven weeks, post-testing has been done with the participants of both groups. From the intervention condition, 50 participants have completed their parent training and participated in the post-testing. On the opposite side, 60 participants from the control condition have also participated in post-testing. After nine months, these participants have also completed their follow-up. Table 1 shows the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample.

Table 2. *Characteristics of the Participants of Study 1*

Gender (numbers, percentage)	Age (Mean and SD)	Grade (frequency & %)	Family System (numbers, percentages)
Boys = 558, 51%	13.9(1.40)	6 th (27, 4.8 %)	Nuclear = (323, 57.4 %)
		7 th (101, 18 %)	
		8 th (155, 27.5 %)	Extended Family = (240, 42.6 %)
		9 th (209, 37.2 %)	
		10 th (71, 12.7 %)	
Girls = 573, 49%	13.0(1.47)	6 th (103, 14.9 %)	Nuclear = (330, 57.2 %)
		7 th (105, 18.2 %)	
		8 th (177, 30.6 %)	Extended Family = (245, 42.5 %)
		9 th (153, 26.6 %)	
		10 th (39, 6.8 %)	

4.2 Measures

The following measures are used in both stages of field research, but their versions are different, such as the adolescent version of the PAQ (reports about maternal and paternal parenting) and the Self-reported Delinquency Scale are used in the correlational research design. PAQ with parent ratings and Informant-reported Delinquency Scale are used in experimental research design at T¹, T², and T³.

4.2.1 Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ). A modified version of the PAQ has been used to measure perceived parenting styles. The PAQ has been developed by Buri (1991) in English language originally and comprises of three parenting styles - authoritarian, authoritative and permissive - with 10 items for each subscale. Items are rated on a 5-point Likert type scale, ranging from *Strongly Disagree* (1) to *Strongly Agree* (5). The fourth parenting style named as neglectful was missing. Hence, 6 items on neglectful parenting, based on Baumrind's parenting prototypes and their components (Baumrind, 1996), are added by the present researchers. A sample item for the neglectful parenting style is "*My mother always showed an indifferent attitude while I was making my decisions*". In the current research, the modified version of PAQ is translated into Urdu language by adopting standard procedures such as backward translation and blind technique. Few researchers in Pakistan like Kausar and Shafique, (2008) and Loona and Kamal (2012) have used the Urdu version of the PAQ in their studies with satisfactory reliability estimates. In the present correlational study, Cronbach's alphas of the subscales of the PAQ (maternal version) are .75 (authoritative parenting), .76 (authoritarian parenting), .61 (permissive parenting), and .70 (neglectful parenting). Cronbach's alphas for the paternal version of the PAQ are .77 (authoritative parenting), .76 (authoritarian parenting), .65 (permissive parenting), and .72 (neglectful parenting). In the experimental study (randomized controlled trial), Cronbach's alphas for authoritative parenting ranged from .86 to .91 for authoritarian parenting, from .72 to .75 for permissive parenting, from .58 to .63, and for neglectful parenting from .75 to .79.

³ T¹ refers to pretest. T² refers to post-test, T³ refers to follow-up

4.2.3 Self-Reported and Informant-Reported Delinquency Scale (SRDS and IRDS). An indigenous delinquency scale developed by Naqvi and Kamal (2008) is used to measure delinquent tendencies among adolescents. The original SRDS and IRDS consist of 27 items; however two items are excluded due to reservation of school administration about their content. Items are answered on a 5 point Likert type scale ranging from ‘*Never*’ (1) to ‘*10 or more times*’ (5). Instructions are given to the parents (study 2) to remember the behavioural practices of their children during last 3-4 months while filling the questionnaire. The questionnaire is comprised of the following themes such as theft, drug abuse, lying, non-compliance, police encounter, violence related delinquency, aggression, cheating, gambling, and harassment. A sample item is “*I travelled on bus or train without ticket*”. In the correlational study, Cronbach’s alpha of SRDS is .88. In the experimental study, Cronbach’s alpha of IRDS ranged from .78 to .80.

4.2.4 Demographic Form. A demographic form, based on single item indicators, is used to cover actual information of the respondents such as age, gender (1 = boys, 2 = girls), and educational level/grade, number of siblings, residential area (1 = urban, 2 = rural), and family system (1= joint, 2 = nuclear). This form is only used for the correlational research (study 1). Although data is collected on these variables, some of these variables are not included in the present analysis.

4.2.5 Sampling for the Meta-analysis

We have identified studies through different electronic databases such as PSYCINFO, ERIC, Google Scholar, and PSYNDEX and cross-referencing to identify target studies. We have used search the following terms: (parenting style) AND (academic achievement OR grade point average OR GPA OR achievement test OR internalizing OR anxiety OR depress* OR externalizing OR aggress* OR delinquent*). We have identified 1670 studies. After screening for eligibility, we have included 428 studies in the meta-analysis. Studies published in the languages other than English were also included in the analysis. Our search has also provided us access to various unpublished studies (e.g., dissertations). These studies are also included in the analysis. The following criteria are used for the inclusion of studies in the meta-analysis:

- a) The studies measure parenting styles defined by Maccoby and Martin (1983)
- b) The studies measure externalizing symptoms, and/or internalizing symptoms , and/or

academic achievement (by grade point average or academic achievement tests) and/or

- c) The studies measure statistical associations between parenting styles and at least one of these child outcomes
- d) Mean age of the sample < 20 years
- e) The studies are completed before October, 2016

4.3 Summary of the Studies

This section provides summaries of three research articles submitted for publication in different journals.

4.3.1 Summary of the Study I

Kausar. R., & Pinquart, M. (in press). Gender differences in the associations between perceived parenting styles and juvenile delinquency in Pakistan. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research*.

Objectives: By using a cross-sectional research design, the present study aims to identify gender differences in parenting styles and their associations with self-reported delinquency among adolescents. The postulates on parenting styles are often framed in a generalized manner. However, contemporary literature shows that parenting styles and child outcomes differ by parent and adolescent's gender (Aunola & Nurmi, 2005). Based on previous literature from western countries, several hypotheses are drawn. We assume that mothers are perceived more authoritative, whereas fathers are perceived more authoritarian by their adolescents (Russel et al., 1998; Winsler et al., 2005). We draw our second hypothesis in the lines of previous work done by Dwairy (2004) and anticipate that girls perceive their parents more authoritative than boys. Based on the work of Baumrind (1966, 1991) and successors, we also assume that authoritative parenting is associated with lower levels of delinquent behaviour of adolescents. We are also interested to investigate which genders of parents show stronger association with delinquent behaviour of adolescents. Past literature offers inconsistent findings on this issue (Hoeve et al., 2009; Rothbaum & Weisz, 1994). However, we assume that mothers' parenting plays a more vital role in promoting/managing adolescent's delinquency. Mothers play the role of primary caregiver and fathers play the role of breadwinners in most Pakistani families. The literature endorse that ultimate effects of mothers' engagement go beyond the preschool years (Lamb, Ketterlinus, & Fracasso, 1992). Previous literature shows that boys show higher levels of delinquency than girls (Herrera & McCloskey, 2001; Moffitt et al., 2001). Based on these findings, we assume that adolescent boys show higher levels of delinquency than adolescent girls.

Methods: To test the aforementioned assumptions, we draw our sample from five different schools of Lahore, Pakistan. 1140 adolescents aged 11-17 years from different grades (6th to 10th) take part in research. Parental authority questionnaire and self-reported delinquency scale is used for data collection.

Results: Four separate ANOVAs are computed on the data. Test statistics confirm a main effect of parental and adolescent's gender. The results confirm significant main effects of parental gender on authoritarian, permissive and neglectful parenting. Adolescents perceive their fathers less authoritarian as well as more neglectful and permissive than their mothers. Thus, the first and second hypotheses are not confirmed. With respect to adolescent's gender, boys perceive their parents less authoritative, more authoritarian and more neglectful than girls. Therefore, the present results provide sufficient evidences to accept our third hypothesis. Furthermore, there are significant interaction effects between parental and adolescent gender regarding authoritative and permissive parenting. Girls perceive more differences in the use of authoritative parenting by their parents than boys. Moreover, boys perceive their fathers more permissive than the girls do. Bivariate analyses are computed for testing the association between the four parenting styles and delinquency. Analysis reveals that there is an association between higher levels of authoritative parenting and lower levels of delinquency; however there is a positive correlation of authoritarian and neglectful parenting with delinquency. We also calculate confidence intervals for analysing whether two effect sizes differ from each other with respect to parental gender. Results show that maternal parenting styles have stronger associations with delinquent behaviour of children than paternal parenting styles. Thus, our fourth and fifth hypotheses are also accepted.

Four multiple linear regression analyses are computed with respect to parent's and adolescent's gender. Results imply that higher levels of maternal authoritative and permissive parenting are associated with lower levels of delinquent behaviour, whereas authoritarian and neglectful parenting are associated with higher levels of delinquent behaviour among both girls and boys. However, reports on the association between paternal parenting and delinquency vary by child gender. Paternal authoritative parenting is associated with lower levels of delinquent behaviour, and neglectful parenting is associated with higher levels of delinquent behaviour among adolescent girls than among boys. The reports of adolescent boys also suggest that paternal neglectful parenting is associated with higher levels of delinquent behaviour. To

calculate the gender differences in the level of delinquency, we compute *t*-test. The result indicates that there are significant gender differences in the levels of delinquency. Boys report higher levels of delinquency than girls. This confirms our sixth hypothesis.

Discussion: The present study is a nascent research that has analyzed associations between perceived parenting styles and adolescent delinquency with respect to parental and adolescent gender in Pakistan. The adolescents report that three out of four parenting styles differ for female and male adolescents. Results show more similarities than differences with the literature from western world, as a higher level of authoritative parenting is associated with lower levels of delinquency, whereas neglectful parenting is associated with the incidents of delinquency. The results also depict that maternal parenting have stronger associations with adolescents' delinquency than paternal parenting. These findings are in line with a meta-analysis by Rothbaum and Weisz (1994). In the traditional society of Pakistan, mothers spend more time with their children than fathers do, whereas fathers perform the roles of breadwinners outside home. This can be a possible reason of this association. Nevertheless, the literature also indicates inconsistencies in these results. For instance, a more recent meta-analysis by Hoeve et al. (2009) indicates reverse findings. Previous literature claims that adolescent boys have higher levels of delinquency than their girls' peers. Our results elaborate that boys perceive their parents more authoritarian and neglectful, whereas girls perceive their parents more authoritative. These differences in parenting styles can be a possible reason for higher level of delinquency among boys. Finally, the findings authenticate the applicability of Baumrind's parenting typology in developing countries like Pakistan.

4.3.2 Summary of the Study II

Kausar, R., & Piquart, M. (submitted). Effectiveness of an indigenous parenting training on change in parenting styles and delinquency in Pakistan: A randomized controlled trial.

Objectives: An experimental research design is employed to assess the effectiveness of an indigenous parent training program for Pakistani families. Parent training programs are used to manage behavioural problems of children (Aghebati et al., 2014; Leijten et al., 2012; Leung et al., 2003). These programs are developed to minimize the unhealthy effects of less than optimal parenting. Parents learn different skills and improve their knowledge to manage their children through a parent training program. The contents of our parent training program are designed based on the concept of authoritative parenting. Hence, we assume that parents who have participated in parent training program will show higher levels of authoritative parenting than the parents who did not participate in the training. It is also hypothesized that improvement in behaviours (high responsiveness and high demandingness) that are associated with authoritative parenting will be associated with a decline of behaviours indicating other parenting styles, if parents take part in the present parent training program. As already reported, we have designed a parent training to manage delinquent behaviours of adolescents by improving authoritative parenting levels of their parents. Hence, we hypothesize that adolescents whose parents participate in the intervention condition/parent training will decline their levels of delinquent behaviours/tendencies as compared to those adolescents whose parents are in control condition. We also assume that increase in the levels of authoritative parenting by parents is associated with decline in parental reports on delinquent behaviours of adolescents.

Methods: A randomized control trail is used to measure the above mentioned hypotheses. The parents of the adolescents (with elevated levels of delinquency) take part in this research activity. These parents are divided into two groups; intervention and control. The former group only receives parent training to improve the levels of authoritative parenting. Parental Authority questionnaire and informant reported delinquency scales are used for assessment.

Results: Five separate analysis of variance with repeated measures are computed on data where time is treated as within-subject factor, whereas group membership is treated as between-

subject factor. The main effect of time is significant for authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful parenting styles along with delinquent behaviours. According to parents' reports there was a significant increase in the levels of authoritative parenting and decrease in the levels of authoritarian, permissive, neglectful parenting as well as delinquent behaviours. The main effects of group membership appear significant for authoritative, authoritarian and neglectful parenting plus delinquent behaviour of adolescents. However, there is no main effect of group membership for permissive parenting. Furthermore, significant interaction effects are found for authoritative, authoritarian, neglectful parenting as well as delinquent behaviour of adolescents, having medium to large effect sizes ($\eta^2 = .42, .18, .24, .16$). Results of post hoc test reveal that there are significant improvements in members of the intervention condition in the levels of authoritative parenting between pre-test to post-test/follow-up. They also report significant decline in the delinquent behaviour of their adolescents between the periods of assessment. However, parents of the control condition do not report any change. Moreover, two hierarchical multiple linear analyses (one for post-test and one for follow-up) are also computed to test whether increase in the levels of authoritative parenting is associated with decrease in the levels of delinquent behaviours of adolescents. Among all four parenting styles, only increase in authoritative parenting is associated with decline in delinquent behaviours of adolescents. However, change in parenting style cannot fully elucidate the effects of intervention at post-test level.

Discussion: This study presents findings of a randomized controlled trial on the effectiveness of a parent training program. We calculate the effects of parent training program on parenting styles and delinquent behaviour of adolescents in Pakistan. This parent training program is a preliminary effort in the discourse of parenting practices in Pakistan. Available literature from Pakistan neither reports adapted parenting trainings nor develops any version of parent training program to manage adolescents' behavioural issues through parenting styles. The present results manifest that the participants of parent training program have reported an increased level of authoritative parenting style. Our parent training has been designed to improve authoritative parenting style only. There are few available parent trainings based on behaviours associated with parenting styles, but the present program is an initial effort to measure changes in parenting styles after participating in a comprehensive parent training. Up to now, only Holliday (2014) reports that parent training programs (based on Adlerian model of positive parenting) can

significantly improve behaviours related to authoritative parenting. Additionally, the present training also accounts for elucidating decline in authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles, along with adolescents' delinquent behaviours. We find that when parents apply knowledge and expertise of learned in parent training, it helps to reduce or prevent an increase in delinquent behaviours of their adolescents. These findings are also in line with previous studies on parenting trainings with another focus (Burke et al., 2012; Chu et al., 2014; Connell et al., 2007). The study shows that an increase in reported levels of authoritative parenting style predict decline in delinquency among adolescents. These findings support our hypothesis. Our manualized intervention can help parents to improve family functioning on a larger scale. This prevention program is an effort to manage expansive problems that have great impact on the well-being of child, family and society (Gross et al., 2014).

4.3.3 Summary of the Study III

Pinquart, M., & Kauser, R. (submitted). Do the associations of parenting styles with behaviour problems and academic achievement vary by culture? Results from a meta-analysis

Objectives: The present study reports findings from a meta-analysis. Generally, literature suggests that children reared with authoritative parenting show fewer internalizing and externalizing behaviours along with better academic achievement than the children reared with other parenting styles (Steinberg et al., 1991). Up to now, only two narrative reviews are available to address cultural variations in the association of parenting style and child's outcomes. Nonetheless, these reviews came to inconsistent conclusions (Sangwai et al., 2015; Sorkhabi, 2005). Therefore, there is an obvious need for meta-analysis on the topic. Our first research question focuses on ethnic differences. We ask whether the association of parenting styles with internalizing symptoms, externalizing symptoms and academic achievements in families from western countries are moderated by ethnicity. We state our second research question to address cross-national comparisons. For this purpose, we divide available data into 10 regions of similar cultural roots – based on the previous work of Huntington (1996), Kolb (1962) as well as Spencer and Thomas (1973). We ask whether the size of associations of authoritative and authoritarian parenting with internalizing and externalizing symptoms and academic achievements varies between the 10 regions. Contemporary literature such as a paper by Rudy and Grusec (2001) has used the concept of individualism-collectivism to define two cultural groups. These studies have found that authoritative parenting may have less positive and authoritarian parenting may have less negative effects in collectivistic groups. We analyse our data based on individualism versus collectivism defined by Hofstede (1984). Based on this concept, we ask whether the size of associations between parenting styles and child outcomes is moderated by the level of individualism-collectivism.

Methods: To compute a meta-analysis, studies were identified through different databases. We set criteria for inclusion of studies and studies other than English language are also included in meta-analysis. After screening, we include 428 studies in meta-analysis. The

included studies use different measures to assess parenting styles and behaviours, externalizing and internalizing behaviours, academic achievement and grade point average.

Results: The present results show that authoritative parenting is associated with fewer internalizing and externalizing symptoms, as well as better academic achievements when we compared Hispanic families, non-Hispanic white families, African-American families, and Asian-American families. These associations ranged from small to very small (Cohen, 1992). We find that authoritarian parenting is associated with more internalizing and externalizing behaviours as well as with poor academic performance in Hispanic White and Asian American children. In the case of Hispanic children, we find positive associations of authoritarian parenting with internalizing and externalizing symptoms only. There is no significant association between authoritarian parenting and above-mentioned three child outcomes in African-American group.

Moreover, we find mixed results regarding how associations of authoritative and authoritarian parenting with internalizing problems and externalizing problems vary between country groups. However, results do not show that authoritative parenting is more strongly associated with desirable child outcomes in western countries than in non-western countries. Moreover, authoritative parenting shows at least one association with a desirable outcome in each of the regions. Authoritative parenting is found to be associated with better academic achievements across the different regions of the globe. However, there is no such variability in associations of authoritarian parenting with academic achievement. Any significant association is hardly found for permissive parenting. Furthermore, neglectful parenting style produces associations of varying size with higher levels of internalizing and externalizing symptoms as well as with poor academic performance of adolescents. If we refer to 95% confidence intervals, this indicates that associations of neglectful parenting with internalizing symptoms are stronger in South Asia than in other regions, such as North America, Western Europe, Latin America, East Asia and Sub Sahara Africa. Moreover, it is noticed that neglectful parenting has more negative associations with academic achievements in North America than in Arab-Muslim countries.

Results also reveal that associations of authoritative parenting with a single outcome of children, academic achievement, are moderated by collectivism/individualism. Nonetheless, we notice that the moderator – collectivism/individualism – affects the size of associations of authoritarian parenting with all measures of child outcomes. Authoritarian parenting shows

stronger association with undesirable child outcomes in countries with *higher* collectivism score. Conversely, associations of permissive and neglectful parenting with the measures of child outcomes are not moderated by the level of collectivism-individualism.

Discussion: Results reveal that despite some ethnic/cultural variability in the associations of parenting styles with the measured child outcomes, similarities are in abundance more than differences. It has been observed that authoritative parenting is associated with at least one healthy child outcome in the compared ethnic groups of western countries and in all regions around the globe. Thus, the findings authenticate the applicability of authoritative parenting. This infers that authoritative parenting can be considered as an optimal parenting style compared to other parenting styles. For instance, Steinberg (2001) highlighted that behaviours related to authoritative parenting, warm and firm attitude and autonomy granting, have appeared developmentally appropriate for children and for adolescents throughout the world. Findings related to authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles are associated with unhealthy child outcomes in most regions, but with few exceptions related to authoritarian parenting where no significant associations were found. The meta-analysis indicates that parents should not use these parenting styles. Permissive parenting does not show significant associations with child outcomes in most cases because permissive parents use higher levels of responsiveness and this may compensate for the lack of adequate levels of control (Lipps et al., 2012). It is concluded that findings related to this parenting style seem to be most context-specific. While considering the moderating effect of collectivism/individualism, it can be concluded that authoritarian parenting is related to undesirable associations with child outcomes even in collectivistic societies. We reject the suggestions given by Rudy and Grusec (2001) and Dwairy et al. (2006) that authoritarian parenting may show less adverse associations with child outcomes in the more collectivist societies. Moreover, we support the conclusion of Sorkhabi (2005) that authoritative parenting is an optimal parenting style in individualist as well as collectivistic cultures.

5. Discussion

The present dissertation reports the findings from three studies; 1) a correlational study, 2) a randomized controlled trial, and 3) a meta-analysis. With reference to findings, our discussion will answer following research questions: 1) what do we learn about parenting and delinquency? 2) What do we learn about cultural similarities and differences in this context? And 3) what is practical outcome of our work?

5.1 Interplay of Gender, Parenting Styles and Juvenile Delinquency in Pakistan

The present study is a preliminary effort to test an association of four parenting styles with juvenile delinquency in Pakistan. Previous studies have tested associations between juvenile delinquency and three parenting styles - authoritative, authoritarian and permissive from Pakistan. These studies did not provide evidences for a relationship between the fourth parenting style – neglectful and juvenile delinquency. By adding this parenting style to our theoretical model, we observe that neglectful parenting style is also associated with higher levels of delinquency in Pakistan like the West.

Our study underlines an important concept ‘gender’ that not only influences the selection of parenting style, but also influences possible child’s outcome. Based on adolescent’s reports, the first study noticed that mothers more likely practice authoritarian parenting, whereas fathers’ use more neglectful and permissive parenting styles. These inferences shed light on the wide spread cultural practices that designate mothers and fathers different roles in the country. In the majority of cases, mothers are responsible for indoor activities (caregiving, home-making), whereas fathers take charge of outdoor activities (breadwinning). To some extent, these roles further shape their parenting styles. Authoritarian parenting by mothers can be a result of their responsibility to maintain household discipline, whereas neglectful and permissive parenting by fathers can be an outcome of their more involvement outside home and less time for their children. How do parenting styles influence delinquency among adolescents? Although, past studies have already established associations between these variables, our study also endorse previous findings but also offers some variations with respect to ‘gender’ differences. Our study segregates the role of parents’ gender on the upbringing of their children. It is noticed that mothers’ parenting is more strongly associated to adolescent’s delinquency than father’s

parenting. For instance, if mothers more likely practice authoritative versus neglectful parenting their children will less likely versus more likely to show delinquent behaviour. Culturally defined roles of mothers can be fine explanation of these trends. However, only neglectful parenting has shown a stronger association with delinquent behaviour of adolescents if its association is only computed for fathers' parenting for their sons. It might happen because son gain earlier independence than daughters (who experience several cultural constraints due to prevailing gender inequalities from birthday). An early independence may promote several delinquencies in unconducive environment. Our study for the first time reports these gender differences from Pakistan.

The adolescents, based on their gender, differently perceive their parent's parenting styles. Girls perceive their parents more authoritative, whereas boys perceive their parents more authoritarian and neglectful. These differences can be explained through different child upbringing strategies based on anticipated roles of both genders in future; boys are controlled through harsh physical punishments, whereas girls are controlled softly by parents. These findings are already reported by Kauser and Shafique (2008) from Pakistan. In addition, we also observe gender differences in the reported level of delinquent behaviours by adolescents. Boys show higher level of delinquent behaviour than girls. There can be several explanations of higher delinquency among boys. Differences in their perception toward their parents' parenting styles can be one of them.

Our research provides an interesting insight into the interplay of gender, parenting styles and juvenile delinquency from Pakistan. Past studies focus only on the bivariate association of parenting styles and juvenile delinquency, whereas our inferences manifest that not only parenting styles associate with juvenile delinquency, but gender of parents and adolescents also matters. Importantly, if authoritative parenting style is practiced by both parents, it produces positive impacts on adolescent's behaviour irrespective to their gender. However, mothers have slight advantage in this aspect due to their predefined cultural roles as 'caregivers' in Pakistan. Large effect sizes, produced in result of parent training, in comparison to many other parent training programs developed and executed in west show that people who have lower knowledge of effective parenting and psychological knowledge in general are more likely to modify their parenting styles after such trainings. Overall, our results endorse the universality of the positive

association of authoritative parenting style with desirable child's outcomes as suggested by Baumrind (1966) in Pakistan and other non-western regions.

5.2 Parenting Styles and Juvenile Delinquency: Causality and Practical Outcomes of the Study

The first study provides data for correctional analysis of associations between parenting styles and juvenile delinquency. This research also assists with conducting a randomized control trial to get some information about possible causal relations between parenting styles and delinquency. For this purpose, in the second phase, we develop an indigenous training program based on Baumrind's typology to improve authoritative parenting among selected parents of adolescents with elevated level of delinquency. This program has dual advantages: 1) It is anticipated that this program will serve as a tool for assessing causality between parenting styles and juvenile delinquency after participating in the parent training. 2) Past research has not tested whether training-induced change in parenting styles predicts changes in adolescent delinquency. Hence, this program will fill the gaps in scientific/professional literature.

Many studies are available on the associations of parenting styles and delinquency from other Asian countries, but these studies do not test a causal relationship between these two variables. Hence, we introduce a parent training program to bring changes in parenting styles of parents with the prediction of decline in delinquent behaviours of adolescents. Our parent training program and its outcome indicate that improved levels of authoritative parenting is associated with changes in other parenting styles, i.e. more inclination toward authoritative parenting reduces the practices related to other parenting styles. Later, it is observed that changes in parenting styles predicted decline in reports on delinquent behaviour of adolescents. Hence, it is likely that change in parenting practices had a casual effect on the incidents of juvenile delinquency. However, besides parenting styles participants of training may have given socially desirable answers on change in parenting and change in delinquency. We cannot completely rule out this but literature showed that many parent trainings with active control group design produced changes in parenting practices and their outcomes. Based on the results of the second study, our training program appears as an effective tool to improve authoritative parenting among parents and to enable them to manage the delinquent behaviours of their adolescents. This training program solely covers all possible dimensions of authoritative parenting (warmth,

control, autonomy granting) and aims to reduce other parenting practices among parents of the intervention group. It has already been discussed that culturally relevant programs produce more desirable effects than culturally non-relevant programs. This program has been developed by considering the socio-cultural needs of Pakistani society (a collectivist society). This program does not include culture sensitive contents that are not acceptable in traditional societies like Pakistan. The successful execution of our training program is a nascent contribution in the field of developmental psychology that can improve authoritative parenting among parents as defined by Baumrind (1966).

Finally, we adopt a different methodological approach to assess a possible change in parenting styles through a training program with parents and to draw causal inferences between parenting styles and juvenile delinquency. For this purpose, a randomized controlled trial, with seven training sessions with parents of intervention group, was scheduled. Parents learned several skills to improve authoritative parenting. The comparison of outcome between the intervention and control group authenticates the appropriateness of our training program as well as justifies the methodological approach. This is a methodological as well as empirical contribution of our study in the scientific literature because past studies on parenting styles do not use an experimental approach of randomized controlled trials.

5.3 Cultural Variation in Association between Parenting Styles and Child Outcomes: Similarities and Differences

We have also computed a meta-analysis on the cultural variations of the association between parenting styles and three child outcomes (internalizing problems, externalizing behaviours and academic achievement). Our results indicate that although there are few cultural/ethnic differences in the relationship between parenting styles and outcome variables, authoritative parenting is associated with most desirable outcomes and neglectful parenting with most undesirable outcomes in every region of the globe. However, few inconsistencies are also observed with respect to authoritarian and permissive parenting. For example, authoritarian parenting was not associated with undesirable child outcomes in African families living in western countries. These findings may indicate that authoritarian parenting is more culturally acceptable in African-Americans than other ethnic groups (Deater-Deckard et al., 2005; Steinberg, 2001). Permissive parenting was found to be associated with fewer internalizing

symptoms in Latin America and in Western Europe. One explanation for this association with the desired outcome is the emphasis placed on affection and egalitarian relations in these countries (Gracia et al. (2008). Therefore, the observed inconsistencies in associations of authoritarian and permissive parenting with child outcomes can only be context based. These findings are also in line with our first study. More specifically, it is concluded that authoritative parenting is a functional parenting style throughout the world. This is because authoritative parenting enhances self-regulation skills and prepares child for efficient socialization process (Steinberg, 2001). This is associated with most desirable child's outcomes regardless of any ethnic or cultural background.

5.4 Limitations

There are several limitations of the present studies. We should consider these limitations first before deliberating the generalizability of the present results. First, the sample of study 1 and 2 has been drawn from the urban area of Pakistan. Only 33% of the Pakistani population lives in cities (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, 2016). There is a big difference of facilities between cities and villages. Provision of facilities related to education, health care, and transportation is a major problem in rural areas of Pakistan (Rafiq, Akhtar, Ashfaq, & Anwar, 1999; Safdar, Inam, Omair, & Ahmed, 2002). In addition, cultural practices, beliefs and values of the residents of rural areas can differ from the inhabitants of urban areas. This can affect the selection of parenting styles. Another possible reason for differences between urban and rural areas can be the effect of globalization. As big cities are more prone to the effects of globalization, it is possible that the popular parenting style (authoritative) in western countries has gained acceptance and is popular in developing countries, and in their urban areas in particular, too. Similar issue appears in the meta-analysis because data from rural areas of non-western countries on parenting styles and child outcomes is almost not available. Secondly, our data is based on reports of one informant. In the correlational part (study 1), adolescents are the only respondents and in the experimental part (study 2), parents are the only respondents. Therefore, it seems difficult to conclude that reported gender differences are real gender differences or just based on perceptions of adolescents. Thirdly, we have not paid attention on social class differences in the current study. Our sample of study 1 and 2 is only based on middle class and lower middle class families. Upper class and lower class families are not included in

the sample. Fourthly, we do not use an active control group in the intervention study. Only members of the parenting training group have received an active intervention, therefore the effects of regular attention of the trainer cannot be ruled out.

5.5 Directions for Future Research

We offer some recommendations to design future research on associations of parenting styles with child outcomes. Firstly, future studies should include more sources of information in their data collection to overcome the issues of mono-reporter bias. Secondly, a future sample can be drawn from rural areas of Pakistan to rule out differences between urban and rural areas. Thirdly, participants from all social classes can be included in a future study to enhance the generalizability of results. Fourthly, an active control group design can be used to rule out effects of trainer's attention and to improve the experimental design. Lastly, a modification of the present training program can be used to manage different psychological and behavioural issues, such as internalizing problems, issues related to self-esteem, or low academic performance. The present training program has been developed to improve behaviours related to authoritative parenting and it is established that behaviours related to authoritative parenting – warmth, emotional support, parent child communication, and age appropriate autonomy granting, have appeared helpful for children and adolescents to develop as instrumentally competent (Baumrind, 1991; Steinberg, 2001). Therefore, this parent training program can be used with different age groups from infancy to adolescence with minor changes in contents. The present program has been designed for adolescents with delinquent behaviours. Consequently, contents are based on developmental issues related to adolescence and reasons of delinquent behaviours.

5.6 Recommendations for Policy Makers

Youth is a treasure of every nation. We are well familiar that the future and progress of any country depends on competent youth. Therefore, it is important to make necessary arrangement for healthy personality development of children. Pakistan is a developing country with very low literacy rate. Many people do not have much knowledge about healthy parenting patterns to groom their children and promote their personality development as a competent and responsible citizen. Hence, it is the responsibility of policy-makers to provide knowledge about parenting styles to common people. Print and electronic media can play an important role in this

matter. Administration of schools can guide parents by arranging workshops even for enhancing academic grades of children and adolescents.

6. References

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7. Appendix

7.1 Manuscripts of the Three Studies

7.1.1 Study I

Kauser. R., & Pinquart, M. (in press). Gender differences in the associations between perceived parenting styles and juvenile delinquency in Pakistan. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research*.

Gender Differences in the Associations between Perceived Parenting Styles and Juvenile Delinquency in Pakistan

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The present study identified gender differences in adolescents' reports on their mothers', fathers' parenting styles, and in the associations between perceived parenting styles and juvenile delinquency. For this purpose, five schools were randomly selected from Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan. In total, 1140 students (11-17 years, 51% girls and 49% boys) with mean age of 13.4 years ($SD = 1.4$) filled in an amended version of the Parental Authority Questionnaire (Buri, 1991) and the Self-reported Delinquency Scale (Naqvi & Kamal, 2008). Results showed that reports on parenting styles varied by parental and adolescent gender. Authoritative parenting style was associated with lower levels of juvenile delinquency, whereas neglectful parenting was associated higher levels of delinquency. Moreover, perceived maternal parenting styles showed stronger relationships with juvenile delinquency than paternal parenting styles. Findings suggested that Baumrind's parenting typology is applicable in developing countries like Pakistan. Therefore, it is concluded that there are more similarities than differences in results between Western countries and Pakistan.

Keywords. Parenting Styles, Juvenile Delinquency, Gender, Culture, Developing Countries

Juvenile delinquent behavior is defined as “any illegal actions committed by a juvenile in which there is an apprehension of court proceeding” (Balogun & Chukwumezie, 2010, p, 46). An adolescent who commits felony such as theft, rape, drug related crimes or any other antisocial behavior will be considered as delinquent. Juvenile delinquency is rapidly increasing all over the world. Statistics revealed that delinquency rate in Western countries increased rapidly between mid-1980s and late 1990s (e.g., Snyder & Sickmund, 1999; Estrada, 2001) followed by some decline thereafter (Federal Interagency

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Forum on Child and Family Statistics, 2009). The observed increase in juvenile delinquency was not limited to the developed world but developing countries also faced the same problem after 1995 (National Center for Juvenile Justice, 2011). According to UNICEF (2006), the number of adolescents conflicting with law is not less than one million. The situation does not look different in Pakistan. Gillani, Rehman, and Gill (2009) reported the country at 23rd rank in the list of daily crimes (1144 per day), and Society for the Protection of the Rights of the Child (2012) reported that the number of arrested juveniles increased from 1225 in 2010 to 1421 in 2011.

Several factors contribute to delinquency among adolescents. The family environment in general (Steinberg, 2008), parenting styles in particular (Baumrind, 2005), poverty (Cummings, Ballard, El-Sheikh, & Lake, 1991), peer influence, and the characteristics of the community (Vazsonyi et al. 2008) are most salient. Family relations produce long lasting effects on the children. Some scholars even stated that family relations establish a model for all other relationships of life, such as educational, economic, political, and religious (Ho, 1996; Kim & Choi, 1994); and parenting is an important aspect of the family relationships. Several theorists have conceptualized parenting behaviors differently, such as Baumrind (1966) who pointed out two parenting behaviors that is, responsiveness and demandingness. Responsiveness is defined as support and acceptance by parents for their children's needs in order to enhance individuality and self-assertion. Parental warmth, autonomy granting, and explanations of parental demands are essential components of this process (Baumrind, 2005). Demandingness is defined as parent's expectation of maturity by the children that demands behavioral regulations and avoidance of violation to predefined rules in order to enhance their adjustment and integration in the society (Baumrind, 2005). Different combinations of these behaviors further build four parenting styles (Baumrind, 2005; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). These parenting styles are authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful. Darling and Steinberg (1993) briefly defined parenting styles as a constellation of attitudes towards children that are communicated to them and that taken together; create an emotional climate in which the parents' behaviors are expressed.

Available studies from Western countries indicate that authoritative parenting (high demandingness plus high responsiveness) minimizes the likelihood of delinquency (e.g., Asher, 2006; Hoeve, et al., 2009). Authoritative parenting provides a balance between restrictiveness and autonomy. Consequently, authoritative parenting promotes self-reliance and competence among children and

adolescents (Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989). Verbal give and take promotes intellectual development that offers basis for psychosocial maturity (Smetana, Cren, & Daddis, 2002).

Most studies indicate that the remaining three parenting styles are not associated with healthy personality development (Collins & Steinberg, 2006). Several studies have found that authoritarian parenting (high demandingness plus low responsiveness) is associated with serious violence among adolescents (e.g., Gorman-Smith, Tolan, & Henry, 2000; Balogun & Chukwumezie, 2010). If parents use physical aggression or other power asserting techniques to control the behavior of their offspring, their children are more likely to use the same tactics while dealing with others (Bandura, 2006). Nonetheless, few studies indicate that authoritarian parenting may promote healthy development for specific subgroups and under specific conditions, such as when children have to be protected from a dangerous neighborhood (Steinberg, Blatt-Eisengart, & Cauffman, 2006).

Permissive or indulgent parenting (low demandingness plus high responsiveness) also tends to be associated with elevated levels of juvenile delinquency. For example, Jacobson and Crocket (2000) reported that adolescents of permissive parents are more likely to be influenced by negative associates such as delinquent peers. Another study of Synder and Sickmund (1995) concluded that permissive parenting is a risk factor for rule breaking behavior among adolescents. Nevertheless, in a study from Spain, Garcia, and Garcia (2009) indicated that both authoritative and indulgent parenting styles may be associated with a low risk for delinquency among adolescents.

Finally, the fourth parenting style, neglectful parenting (low demandingness plus low responsiveness) is often associated with high level of delinquency among adolescents. For instance, Hoeve et al. (2008) showed that the neglectful parenting style is a risk factor for delinquency, and the parents who practice neglectful parenting have a poor relationship with their adolescents. In a meta-analysis Hoeve et al. (2009) also confirmed that neglectful parenting is associated with higher levels of delinquency.

Gender Differences

The assumptions on parenting styles are often formulated in a generalized way (Aunola & Nurmi, 2005; Chao, 2001). Nonetheless, associations of parenting styles with child outcomes may vary by parental and adolescent gender. Available studies indicate that parental behaviors vary, in part, by the gender of the child which

could, again, affect child outcomes. For instance, Coie and Dodge (1998) and Hyde (1984) suggested that the female child is more closely supervised by her parents than the male child. Dwairy (2004) found that Palestinian girls perceived their parents as more authoritative than boys; while, the reverse was observed for authoritarian parenting. In contrast, Rhucharoenpornpanich et al. (2010) did not find differences between boy's and girl's perception of parenting styles. Furthermore, Chipman, Olsen, Klein, Hart, and Robinson (2000) observed that girl convicts even reported higher level of authoritarian behavior of their parents as compared to their male convicts. Specifically, with reference to associations of parenting with delinquency, Hovee et al. (2009) found that a neglectful parenting style increased the risk of delinquency only in boys whereas permissive parenting was associated with more delinquency only among girls.

Regarding parental gender, there is some evidence that mothers behave more authoritatively than fathers, while fathers behave more in an authoritarian way than mothers (Russel et al., 1998; Winsler, Madigan, & Aquilino, 2005). As mothers are the main caregivers in many societies, they may have a stronger impact than fathers on the behavior of their children (Milevsky, Schlechter, Netter, & Keehn, 2007). In fact, the meta-analysis by Rothbaum and Weisz (1994) found that maternal parenting has stronger associations with delinquency than paternal parenting. In contrast, a more recent meta-analysis by Hovee et al. (2009) found that paternal support showed a stronger negative relationship with delinquency than maternal support. They also reported that associations of parental support with delinquency were stronger for same-s] meta-analyses did not analyze gender differences in the association between parenting styles and delinquency.

With regard to adolescent's gender, male adolescents tend to show higher levels of juvenile delinquency than their female peers (e.g., Herrera & McCloskey, 2001; Moffitt, Caspi, Rutter, & Silva, 2001). A meta-analysis by Card, Stuckey, Salawani, and Little (2008) also indicated that overt aggression is more persistent among boys than among girls. As boys are more likely to show delinquent behavior than girls, parenting efforts might also have stronger effects on the prevention or reduction of boys' delinquency. However, the meta-analysis by Hovee et al. (2009) did not find empirical support for this suggestion.

As most available research on gender differences in parenting and associations of parenting with delinquency has been done in Western countries, it is important to know whether associations of parenting

with delinquency vary between Western and nonWestern countries. Chang (2007) argued that cultural values have a strong influence on the selection of parenting styles. More concretely, Chao (2001) suggested that authoritative parenting is considered most suitable in the west but it may not have the same effects across other cultures. In countries where authoritarian parenting is more accepted (e.g., use of physical discipline), authoritarian parenting would be less likely to be related to negative child outcomes than in Western countries. For example, in a study on eight Arab countries Dwairy and Achoui, (2006) observed that authoritarian parenting within an authoritarian culture does not harm the adolescents' mental health as it does in western liberal societies.

Gender differences in the use of parenting styles and in the association between parenting styles and child outcomes may also vary between cultures. Collectivistic societies like Pakistan are enriched with traditional culture, with strong focus on the collective system rather than individuation. Gendered norms which do not promote equality in roles and responsibilities are prevalent in these societies (Critelli, 2010) and may affect the selection of parenting styles. Girls are treated with more warmth and control to prepare them for later responsibilities in the household (Stewart, Bond, Ho, Zaman, Dar, & Anwar, 2000).

Hypotheses

There are very few studies that highlighted the importance of authoritative parenting for adolescent's grooming in non-western countries like Pakistan. Up to now, only three studies from Pakistan addressed association between parenting styles and deviant behaviors of adolescents. These studies inferred that authoritative parenting is inversely associated with deviant behaviors of adolescents, while the reverse is true for authoritarian parenting (Gilani & Altaf, 2005; Akhtar, Hanif, Tariq, & Atta, 2011; Rizvi, & Najam, 2015). Unfortunately, these studies assessed only three out of four parenting styles as defined by Maccoby and Martin (1983) and did not report results on neglectful parenting. Moreover, these studies did not analyze whether gender moderates the association of parenting with juvenile delinquency. Based on these scientific gaps, the followings research questions and hypotheses were derived for the present study:

1. Mothers are perceived by their adolescent children to behave more authoritatively than fathers.

2. Fathers are perceived to behave more authoritarian than mothers.
3. Female adolescents perceive the behavior of their parents more authoritatively than their male peers.
4. Authoritative parenting shows an inverse relationship with juvenile delinquency.
5. Perceived maternal parenting shows stronger associations with juvenile delinquency than perceived paternal parenting.
6. Male adolescents show higher level of delinquency than female adolescents.

Method

Sample

Initially, five schools from Lahore, Pakistan were randomly selected. After getting the permission from the schools' principals, questionnaires were distributed to students from grade 6 to 10 aged 11-17 years. Their mean age was 13.4 years ($SD = 1.4$). Questionnaires were administered in the presence of class teachers, and cooperative attitude of teachers made it easier to maintain the discipline in classes. Students were explained about objectives of the research and the importance of their responses. They were assured about the confidentiality of their responses, and that the information obtained from them will only be used for research purposes. Students took 60-90 minutes for completing their questionnaires. Of about 1500 students participated in this research activity at these schools, 1140 adolescents completed the questionnaires on behaviors of both parents (49% boys, 51% girls; response rate 76%). Students with only one available parent were excluded from the present analysis.

Measures

Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ). The researchers used a modified version of the PAQ to measure perceived parenting styles separate questions were stated for maternal and paternal parenting. The PAQ was developed by Buri (1991) in English language and encompasses three parenting styles (authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive) with 10 items to be rated on 5-point Likert for each subscale, ranging from *Strongly Disagree* (1) to *Strongly Agree* (5). Because neglectful parenting style was missing, the researchers added 6 items on neglectful parenting, based on Baumrind's parenting prototypes and their components (Baumrind, 1996). A sample item for

the neglectful parenting style is “*My mother always showed an indifferent attitude while I was making my decisions*”. In the present study, the modified PAQ was translated in Urdu language by three bilinguals and later translated backward by using blind technique. The Urdu version of the original PAQ had already been used in studies in Pakistan (Kausar & Shafique, 2008; Loona & Kamal, 2012) with satisfactory reliability estimates. In the present study, Cronbach’s alphas of the subscales of the PAQ (maternal version) were .75, (authoritative parenting), .76 (authoritarian parenting), .61 (permissive parenting), and .70 (neglectful parenting); while, Cronbach’s alphas for the paternal version of the PAQ were .77 (authoritative parenting), .76 (authoritarian parenting), .65 (permissive parenting), and .72 (neglectful parenting).

Self-Reported Delinquency Scale (SRDS). An indigenous Self-Reported Delinquency Scale developed by Naqvi and Kamal (2008) was used to measure delinquent tendencies among adolescents. The SRDS consists of 25 items that are answered on a 5 point Likert type scale ranging from ‘*Never*’ (1) to ‘*10 or more times*’ (5). The items refer to theft, drug abuse, lying, non-compliance, police encounter, violence related delinquency, aggression, cheating and gambling, and harassment. A sample item is “*I traveled on bus or train without ticket*”. Two of the original items referring to sex-related delinquency had to be excluded from original scale as the school authorities had several concerns on these questions. In the present study, Cronbach’s alpha of .88 was achieved for SRDS.

Demographic Form. A demographic form was separately prepared, covering factual information like age, gender, educational level/grade, number of siblings, residential area, and socio-economic background.

Results

Four separate ANOVAs were computed with adolescent gender as between-subject factor, parental gender as within-subject factor (because each adolescent reported on maternal and paternal parenting), and the four parenting styles as dependent variables.

Table1

Variations of Perceived Parenting Styles by Parental and Adolescent Gender (N = 1140)

Parenting Styles	Mothers		Fathers		<i>F</i> (Partial η^2)		Interaction Effect
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Gender		
	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	Parents	Adolescents	
Authoritative	3.47 (.72)	3.21 (.74)	3.42 (.77)	3.27 (.76)	.04 (.000)	29.87*** (.03)	4.66* (.004)
Authoritarian	3.11 (.79)	3.26 (.77)	2.92 (.83)	3.09 (.74)	60.59*** (.05)	16.40*** (.01)	.19 (.000)
Permissive	2.89 (.62)	2.86 (.66)	3.04 (.64)	3.12 (.66)	90.60*** (.07)	.63 (.43)	6.18* (.005)
Neglectful	2.07 (.83)	2.52 (.85)	2.17 (.85)	2.56 (.90)	6.86** (.05)	93.83*** (.08)	1.77 (.002)

Note. Partial η^2 = variance explained by the predictor.

* $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$

Significant main effects of parental gender were found with regard to authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful parenting. Fathers were perceived as less authoritarian as well as more neglectful and permissive than mothers (Table 1). Thus, Hypothesis 1 and 2 were not supported.

Main effects of adolescent gender were observed for authoritative, authoritarian, and neglectful parenting. Boys perceived the behavior of their parents as less authoritative as well as more authoritarian and neglectful than girls. Thus, the third hypothesis was confirmed by the present results. In addition, significant interaction effects between parental and adolescent gender were observed with regard to authoritative and permissive parenting. Girls reported stronger differences between levels of authoritative parenting of mothers and fathers than boys. In addition, fathers of boys were perceived as most permissive.

With regard to the fourth hypothesis, bivariate associations between parenting styles and delinquency were analyzed (Table 2).

Table 2

Correlations Matrix for Delinquency and Four Parenting Styles

Parenting Styles	1	2	3	4	5
1. Delinquency	-	-.30**	.21**	-.04	.35**
2. Authoritative	-.10**	-	.01	.13**	-.34**
3. Authoritarian	.12**	.07*	-	.31**	.35**
4. Permissive	.04	.45**	.26**	-	.30**
5. Neglectful	.22**	.45**	-.15**	.26**	-

Note. Values above the diagonal represent correlations between perceived maternal parenting and juvenile delinquency; values below the diagonal represent correlation between perceived paternal parenting and juvenile delinquency.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Three out of four parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, and neglectful) were found to have significant relationships with delinquency. More specifically, higher scores on authoritative parenting were associated with lower levels of juvenile delinquency, thus supporting Hypothesis 4. In contrast, authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles were associated with higher levels of delinquency. For determining whether the effect size of these parenting styles differ by parental gender, we calculated 95% Confidence intervals (CI) of the correlations between four parenting styles and delinquency scores. The 95% CI for authoritative and neglectful parenting of mothers versus fathers do not overlap, indicating that maternal parenting styles showed stronger associations with delinquency than paternal styles (Table 2). However, 95% CIs of associations of maternal and paternal authoritarian as well as permissive parenting overlap, indicating that the size of these associations do not differ significantly by parental gender. Thus, Hypothesis 5 is, in part, supported by the present data.

Because perceptions of the four parenting styles were, in part, inter-correlated, multiple linear regression analyses were computed for analyzing multivariate associations of the four parenting styles with delinquent behavior of adolescents. Four separate analyses were computed (girls' views on maternal and paternal parenting, boys' views on maternal and paternal parenting). For girls' report on maternal parenting, the regression model was significant, $F(4,572) = 21.15$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .13$, adjusted $R^2 = .12$. The total effect size (R^2) for all four predictors can be interpreted as medium (Cohen, 1988). Results showed that higher levels of perceived maternal authoritative and permissive parenting are associated with lower levels of delinquency, whereas the reverse is true for perceived maternal authoritarian and neglectful parenting (Table 3).

Table 3

Multivariate Associations between Perceived Parenting Styles and Juvenile Delinquency in Girls (N = 593)

Parenting Styles	Mothers				
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>T</i>	95% CI
Authoritative	-.12	.03	-.16	3.87***	-.18, -.06
Authoritarian	.07	.03	.11	2.63**	.02, .13
Permissive	-.10	.04	-.12	2.78**	-.17, -.03
Neglectful	.25	.05	.24	5.05***	.15, .35
Constant	29.02	1.58		18.34***	25.91, 32.13
	Fathers				
Authoritative	-.07	.03	-.10	2.03*	-.13, -.00

Authoritarian	.05	.03	.08	1.64	-.01, .11
Permissive	.03	.04	.04	.75	-.05, .11
Neglectful	.11	.05	.10	2.09*	.01, .21
Constant	25.93	1.42		18.17***	23.13, 28.73

Note. *B/β* = un-/standardized regression coefficient, *SE* = standard error.

* $p \leq .05$. ** $p \leq .01$. *** $p \leq .001$

For girls' report on paternal parenting, the overall regression model was also significant, $F(4,572) = 5.99$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .04$, adjusted $R^2 = .03$. The total effect size (R^2) for all four predictors can be interpreted as small (Cohen, 1988). Results showed that higher levels of perceived paternal authoritative parenting is associated with lower levels of delinquency among girls, whereas reverse findings were observed for perceived paternal neglectful parenting. In contrast to mothers' parenting, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles of fathers were nonsignificant predictors (Table 3).

With regard to boys' reports on maternal parenting, the overall the regression model was significant, $F(4,558) = 30.49$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .17$, adjusted $R^2 = .17$. The total effect size (R^2) can be interpreted as medium (Cohen, 1988). Results showed that higher levels of perceived maternal authoritative and permissive parenting are associated with lower levels of delinquency, whereas reverse findings are found for perceived maternal authoritarian and neglectful parenting (Table 4).

Table 4
Multivariate Associations between Perceived Parenting Styles and Juvenile Delinquency in Boys (N = 547)

Parenting Styles	Mothers				
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>T</i>	95% CI
Authoritative	-.25	.05	-.20	4.79***	-.36, -.15
Authoritarian	.24	.05	.20	4.78***	.14, .34
Permissive	-.19	.06	-.14	3.12**	-.31, -.07
Neglectful	.41	.08	.23	5.09***	.25, .57
Constant	31.56	2.41		13.10***	26.83, 36.29
Fathers					
Authoritative	-.06	.06	-.05	1.06	-.18, .05
Authoritarian	.02	.06	.02	.38	-.09, .14
Permissive	-.02	.07	-.02	.32	-.17, .12
Neglectful	.29	.08	.17	3.52***	.13, .45
Constant	29.64	2.29		12.92***	24.14, 34.15

Note. *B/β* = un-/standardized regression coefficient, *SE* = standard error.

** $p \leq .01$. *** $p \leq .001$

In addition the overall regression model for associations of boys' delinquency with paternal parenting was significant, $F(4,572) = 4.82$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .03$, adjusted $R^2 = .03$. The total effect size (R^2) for all four predictors can be interpreted as small (Cohen, 1988). Results showed that a higher level of perceived paternal neglectful parenting is associated with higher level of delinquency among boys. In contrast to boy's perceptions of maternal parenting, authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting styles of fathers were not significant predictors of delinquency.

Finally, an independent sample t -test was computed to analyze the mean differences in delinquency among adolescent girls and boys. There were significant gender differences in the levels of delinquency with $t(887.96) = 10.49$, $p < .001$. Boys ($M = 31.99$, $SD = 9.22$) reported higher levels of delinquency than girls ($M = 27.31$, $SD = 5.26$), thus supporting Hypothesis 6.

Discussion

The present study is the first to analyze the complete range of the parenting styles defined by Maccoby and Martin (1983) in families from Pakistan and to test whether mean levels and associations with delinquency differ by parental and adolescent gender. Perceptions of the parents varied between female and male adolescents with regard to three out of four parenting styles as did perceptions of the parenting styles of mothers versus fathers. Similar to studies from western countries, authoritative parenting tended to be associated with lower delinquency but this association was more consistent for mothers. In line with previous studies, male adolescents reported higher levels of delinquency than their female peers.

When comparing perceptions of maternal and paternal parenting, the present findings indicate that fathers from Pakistan are perceived as more neglectful or permissive than mothers, whereas mothers are perceived as more authoritarian than fathers. In contrast, the perceived use of authoritative parenting did not differ between reports on mothers and fathers. In societies like Pakistan, the fathers are designated for the role of bread winners, and the mothers are assigned the responsibilities of child rearing and house-keeping (Inglehart & Norris, 2003). As mothers take the main responsibility for shaping the behavior of their adolescents, they may show higher levels of authoritarian parenting than fathers in order to raise their adolescents according to acceptable familial and social norms. In this way, they are more likely to exhibit strict attitude towards their children, and

enforce them to lead their lives according to prescribed rules and regulations rather than providing them room for their options and choices (Stewart et al., 2000). Because fathers spend more time in outside activities, and have fewer opportunities for interaction with their children compared to mothers, they are more likely to adopt a neglectful or permissive parenting style. In neglectful cases, they might have given parenting responsibility to mothers or other family members, and assumed that they are free from this obligation. In the case of permissive parenting, as they have only limited time for their children, and in order to satisfy children's emotional needs, they might show warmth rather than control to build a positive association with them.

Male adolescents were found to perceive their parents more authoritarian and neglectful than their female peers while the reverse was observed with regard to authoritative parenting. The observed differences between male and female adolescents' perceptions of authoritative parenting replicate results from Pakistan (e.g., Akhtar, 2012; Kauser & Shafique, 2008; Stewart et al., 2000). Parenting is linked with traditional roots of culture where certain stereotypes regarding the role of males and females compel parents to treat their children according to their gender (Witt, 1997). Like in many traditional societies, Pakistani males are considered suitable for breadwinning roles and females are encouraged to take part in household activities. This division of labor is classified by society and endorsed by family which at the beginning, promote the selection of varying parenting styles by parents. In order to make daughters suitable for their prescribed role and responsibilities (care-giving), parents treat them with more care, and prepare them gently how to meet culturally defined expectations (Ali, Krantz, Gul, Asad, Johansson, & Mogren, 2011).

As authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles are associated with less warmth than authoritative parenting (Maccoby & Martin, 1983), the present results indicate that boys perceive lower parental warmth than girls. Because neglectful parenting is characterized by low parental control while authoritarian parenting is characterized by high control, the results may either indicate that parental control of boys is more polarized with some boys facing high and other low levels of parental control or that parents behave more inconsistently when raising boys and show strict behavior in some situations and permissiveness in others. Positive correlations of perceived permissiveness and neglectfulness (Table 2) support the latter suggestion. Perceptions of female and male adolescents did not vary

with regard to permissive parenting. These findings are in line with the research findings of Dwairy (2004).

The fourth hypothesis focused on associations of perceived parenting styles with adolescent delinquency. The present results indicate that authoritative parenting of mothers and, in part, fathers are associated with lower levels of juvenile delinquency whereas the reverse is true for (either maternal or paternal) neglectful parenting. These findings tend to be in line with results from Western countries (Hoeve et al., 2009). In contrast to most results from western countries, paternal authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were not related with delinquency which suggests tolerance for authoritarian or permissive paternal parenting in Pakistani culture. These results provide support for the suggestion that authoritarian or permissive parenting may not always have negative effects, as observed in the west (Garcia & Garcia, 2009; Steinberg et al., 2006).

The above discussion raises a question, whose' parenting shows stronger associations with adolescent outcomes. Past literature has been inconsistent in this respect (Hoeve et al., 2009; Rothbaum & Weisz, 1994). The present results are in line with Rothbaum and Weisz (1994) and highlight the importance of maternal parenting with respect to preventing or reducing juvenile delinquency. These findings reconfirm the previous discussion that in culturally traditional countries like Pakistan, mothers as main caregivers spend more time with their adolescents than fathers, and have, therefore, more opportunities to affect the development of their offspring. Lamb, Ketterlinus, and Fracasso (1992) endorse this interpretation that the fundamental effect of mothers' regular engagement with children as compared to fathers goes beyond preschool years into adolescence. This can cause stronger association between mothers' parenting and adolescents' delinquent behaviors.

Finally, similar to previous studies (e.g., Herrera & McCloskey, 2001; Moffitt et al., 2001; Steffensmeier & Allan, 1995) the present findings indicate that boys are more involved in delinquent behaviors than girls. Several explanations of these differences have been stated with one being different parental treatments for daughters and sons. Several researchers indicate that girls are more closely supervised than boys, which is suggested to reduce delinquency (Bottcher, 1995; McCarthy, Hagan, & Woodward, 1999; Svensson, 2003). Moreover, in traditional societies, culturally defined roles confine girls within households and the boys are allowed to enjoy more time with their peers in sports or other out-door activities at public places (Inglehart & Norris, 2003). In such cases, relative liberty of adolescent boys and confinement of girls within the home affect their behavior in different

directions. Boys are at high risk of developing delinquent behaviors due to their unsupervised time spent with their peers. In contrast, female adolescents have fewer opportunities to develop delinquent behaviors.

Limitations and Recommendations

There are few limitations of the present study. First, the sample of the study was comprised of students from urban areas. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalized at rural areas. In Pakistan, more than 67 percent of the citizens live in rural areas (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, 2014). There are significant differences in social norms, values and practices between urban and rural areas which can differently effect the selection of parenting styles by parents, and their implications for the juvenile delinquency. Second, the present study did not account for social class differences because we took the sample from middle and lower middle class families solely. Adolescents belonging to upper class and lower class were not part of the study. Third, data was solely based on self-reported delinquency and their reports about parenting styles. Multiple informants were not included in the study. Therefore, it is difficult to conclude whether the observed gender differences reflect gender differences in parental behavior or in adolescents' perception of these behaviors. Nonetheless, mothers' and fathers' reports on parenting may be biased and avoid reporting problematic behaviors to a third party (Morsbach & Prinz, 2006) which supports the present use of adolescent reports. Lastly, the present correlational data did not allow for causal inferences.

Future studies should include more sources of information about parenting and delinquency and use experimental designs to test whether changes in parenting (in participants of parenting training) predict changes in juvenile delinquency. As effects of parenting trainings have not yet been evaluated in Pakistan, there is a need to develop and evaluate the effects of these trainings. The present results indicate that these programs should promote authoritative parenting (of mothers in particular) and minimize neglectful parenting.

Conclusion

The results indicate that authoritative parenting is inversely and neglectful parenting positively linked to juvenile delinquency of Pakistani adolescents, and these associations are similar to the western world. We also conclude that there are similarities and differences between the perceived use of parenting styles of mothers and fathers from Pakistan. While authoritative parenting was reported to be equally practiced by both parents, mothers were reported to use more authoritarian parenting than fathers while the reverse was true with regard to permissive and neglectful parenting, irrespective to the gender of their adolescents. These gender differences have not yet been identified in the literature from Pakistan. Similar to previous studies (Kausar & Shafique, 2008), the present findings indicate that girls perceive their parents as more authoritative than boys whereas the reverse is true with regard to authoritarian or neglectful parenting. Prevailing cultural norms and values explain these differences, like culturally led parents' own roles and responsibilities, and anticipated roles and responsibilities of adolescents. Importantly, it was observed that authoritative parenting was perceived to be used by both parents more for female adolescent whereas neglectful parenting were perceived to be used more for male than for female adolescents. This can be one explanation for higher levels of delinquent behaviors among male adolescent as compared to female adolescents. The present findings suggest that maternal parenting may have a greater impact on adolescent's upbringing compared to paternal parenting and this is also a new addition to the scientific literature from Pakistan. Previous studies did not describe the links between gender, parenting styles and juvenile delinquency. While previous studies have only reported bivariate relationships, the present study analyzed the interplay of the three variables. Finally, our results confirm the universality of the positive association of authoritative parenting style with healthy personality development in Pakistan as suggested by Baumrind (1966).

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7.1.2 Study II

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**Effectiveness of an Indigenous Parenting Training on Change in Parenting Styles and
Delinquency in Pakistan: A Randomized Controlled Trial**

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**Effectiveness of an Indigenous Parenting Training on Change in Parenting Styles and
Delinquency in Pakistan: A Randomized Controlled Trial**

Abstract

The effectiveness of an indigenous parent training program was examined within selected Pakistani families. For this purpose, 110 parents of adolescents with above-average levels of delinquent tendencies, who were screened and chosen from five randomly selected schools in Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan, participated in the study. The adolescents' parents were randomly placed into either an intervention group or a control group. Members of the intervention group participated in seven sessions of parent training, which aimed to increase behaviors associated with an authoritative parenting style. Findings show that participants of the parent training program displayed an increase in authoritative parenting behaviors and a decrease in authoritarian and neglectful parenting behaviors at both the posttest and follow-up. In addition, their children showed reductions in parent-reported delinquent tendencies. Declines in delinquent tendencies were explained by increases in authoritative parenting behaviors, although not all intervention effects could be explained by such increases. We conclude that, similar to western countries, the authoritative parenting style is the most effective parenting style for managing adolescents' delinquent behaviors in Pakistan.

Key words: parent training, authoritative parenting, juvenile delinquency

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

Adolescence is a time of biological, cognitive, and social changes. Biological changes refer to a change in body shape and to becoming physically mature for reproduction. Cognitive change refers to the development of advanced, efficient, and abstract ways of thinking (Zarrett & Eccles, 2006). Social changes are related to changes in friendship ties, building romantic relations, and increase in autonomy. These transitional processes guide individuals from a state of immaturity to maturity (Steinberg, 2016). Many adolescents pass through this transitional period safely and successfully, but some face challenges along the way. Evidence shows that social influences have stronger effects on adolescents than hormonal changes (Brooks-Gunn, Graber, & Paikoff, 1994). These influences determine whether the transition will be smooth or not. In general, adolescents interact within four main social contexts: within their peer group, school, workplace, and family (Steinberg, 2016). Out of these, the family in general, and the parents in particular, exert a strong influence on adolescents' developmental processes (Zarrett & Eccles, 2006).

Parents' behavior towards their children can be characterized in several ways, one of which is "parenting style", as discussed by Baumrind (1966). Several studies show that different parenting styles are associated with certain adolescent behaviors (e.g., Alizadeh, Abu Talib, Abdullah, & Mansor, 2011; Williams et al., 2009). Baumrind's parenting model encompasses two constructs, responsiveness and demandingness. Varying degrees of these two constructs are combined in order to form four parenting styles: authoritative (high responsiveness and high demandingness), authoritarian (low responsiveness and high demandingness), permissive (high responsiveness and low demandingness), and neglectful (low responsiveness and low demandingness) (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Baumrind's research shows that the authoritative parenting style provides the best outcome in regards to the healthy personality development of children (Baumrind, 1991, 2005). An authoritative parenting style is linked with positive adolescent behaviors such as higher academic

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

performance, positive engagement in school activities, and reduction of problem behaviors, such as substance abuse, that can be encouraged by negative influences from peers (Nash, McQueen, & Bray, 2005; Rayner & Montague, 2000). The remaining three parenting styles are not beneficial for the personality development of children and adolescents (Balogun & Chukwumezie, 2010; Collins & Steinberg, 2006; Jacobson & Crocket, 2000). A considerable research from western and nonwestern world showed cross-cultural applicability of Baumrind's typology. A narrative review by Sorkhabi (2005) concluded that Baumrind's typology has similar implications for collectivistic cultures and individualistic cultures.

Parent training programs have been developed in order to prevent or reduce adverse effects on children caused by less than optimal parenting. These programs aim to enhance parents' knowledge, improve parenting skills, and help parents interact with their children in a positive manner. A few evidence-based programs are available for parents of adolescents with behavioral problems, such as ABCD Parenting Young Adolescents (Burke, Brennan, & Roney, 2010), Strengthening Family Programs 10-14 (Spoth, Trudeau, Gyll, Chungyeol, & Redmond, 2009), Adolescent Transitions Program (Connell, Dishion, Yasui, & Kavanagh, 2007), Teen Triple P Parenting Program (Ralph & Sanders, 2003), and Guiding Good Choices (Haggerty, Kostarman, Catalano, & Hawkins, 1999). Though the number of parent training programs for parents with delinquent adolescents is scarce, these programs often show promising results. Their effect sizes vary from small to large (Burke, Brennan, & Cann, 2012; Chu et al., 2014; Connell et al., 2007; Leijten, Overbeek, & Janssens, 2012; Mason, Kosternan, & Hawkins, 2003). A possible reason for a lack of available parent training programs for families with adolescents could be, in part, the age-associated increase in autonomy, which can lead to a decline in parental influences on the development of an adolescent (Steinberg, 1987). However, levels of adolescents' autonomy vary

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

between cultures, in part based on their levels of individualistic or collectivistic cultural beliefs and practices. Collectivistic cultures promote dependence of the family members whereas individualistic cultures promote independence/autonomy (Bochner, 1994). Family interventions appear more beneficial and popular where 'we' cultures are promoted and the importance of family identity is emphasized rather than in 'I' cultures in which more importance is placed on self-identity (Boyd-Franklin, 2001; Mock, 2001). A meta-analysis by Tobler and Kumpfer (2000) also shows that when dealing with conduct problems in both traditional families and those of ethnic minorities, the effect size of family interventions is nine times larger than the effect size of the youth-only interventions (as cited in Kumpfer, Alvarado, Smith, & Bellamy, 2002).

In sum, parenting training programs for families with adolescents may be particularly useful in collectivist societies. Pakistan is considered a collectivistic society as manifested in a close long-term commitment to the members of the family and high responsiveness to the needs of other (Hofstede, 2016; Mohamed, Ali, & Tam, 2009). According to the work by Hofstede, Pakistan got a low score of 14 on the collectivism/individualism scale with 0 indicating very high levels of collectivism and 100 very high levels of individualism. Applying parenting training programs in collectivistic societies could help parents learn about various parenting styles and to select the most appropriate style for handling various behavioral problems that appear during adolescence. Moreover, available parent training programs tend to focus on individual parenting practices (e.g., involvement, discipline practices etc.) as means for preventing or dealing with delinquency rather than the parenting styles defined by Baumrind (1966) and successors (Burke et al., 2012; Chu et al., 2015; Connell et al., 2007; Leijten et al., 2012; Mason et al., 2003), although these practices often refer to components of parenting styles. Darling and Steinberg (1993) suggested that the typological approach of parenting styles may be ecologically more valid than the focus on individual practices

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

because parenting practices naturally occur in combinations. Furthermore, the available parental training programs designed for dealing with problematic adolescent behavior have mainly been developed in the western world; only a few adapted parent training programs are available in developing countries (Aghebati, Gharraee, Hakim Shoshtari, & Gohari, 2014; Aktan, Kumpfer, & Turner, 1996; Leung, Sanders, Leung, Mak, & Lau, 2003), but not a single program is available or has been evaluated in Pakistan. Programs should be sensitive to the cultures of the individual countries, as culturally relevant parent training programs are more effective than those containing culturally irrelevant content (Kumpfer et al., 2002). Past studies also infer that culturally specific family programs should address a culture's specific values (Coatsworth, Santisteban, McBride, & Szapocznik, 2001). With this in mind, we developed an evidence-based program for parents of adolescents with elevated levels of delinquent behaviors in an Asian country, namely Pakistan. This program takes the cultural and religious values of Pakistani society into account and recognizes the influence that such values have on daily life in Pakistan. Furthermore, the program promotes family ties as well as other important Pakistani beliefs and values.

Theoretical Perspective of the Parenting Program

The present parent training program is based on the Baumrind's (1966) theory of parenting styles and Bandura's (1991) social learning theory of self-regulation. Baumrind's research shows that an authoritative parenting style provides the best results in regards to healthy personality development of children (Baumrind, 1991, 2005). Previous studies provide support for a negative correlation between an authoritative parenting style and adolescent delinquency (Asher, 2006; Hoeve et al., 2009). Even studies from Pakistan show that an authoritative parenting style is associated with lower levels of deviant behaviors (Akhtar, Hanif, Tariq, & Atta, 2011; Gilani & Altaf, 2005; Rizvi & Najam, 2015).

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

Bandura's (1991) agentic perspective explains that individuals can be seen as producers, in that they regulate their behavior, as well as products, because they are influenced by their environment. Self-regulation is defined as one's capacity to modify his or her behavior. The self-regulatory system mediates the effect of most external influences, and provides the base for purposeful actions. These purposeful actions are regulated by forethought and become a source of motivation for self-regulation. Bandura emphasizes three main aspects of self-regulation: self-monitoring (monitoring one's own activities), self-judgment (evaluation of one's own performances), and self-reactions (reactions to one's own performance in the form of reward or punishment). In our parent training program, self-regulation techniques (e.g., anger-management, problem solving etc.) are based on Bandura's self-regulation theory. Other parent training programs have also used Bandura's theory as a theoretical base (Sanders, 2008; Sanders, Turner, Markie-Dadds, 2002). Our parent training program focuses on promoting an authoritative parenting style and learning self-regulation techniques in order to prevent and reduce adolescent delinquency.

Research Hypotheses

In the current study we aimed to test the following hypotheses, as based on previous literature (Akhtar et al., 2011; Balogun & Chukwumezie, 2010; Hovee et al., 2009):

- i) Parents who participate in the parent training programs (the intervention condition) will show an increase in behaviors indicating an authoritative parenting style in comparison to parents in the control condition who do not participate in the training.
- ii) Participants of parenting training will show declines in behaviors related to the other parenting styles defined by Baumrind (1966) and successors.
- iii) Adolescents of parents in the intervention condition will show stronger declines in parent-reported delinquent behavior than adolescents of parents in the control condition.

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

iv) Increases in behaviors associated with an authoritative parenting style are associated with declines in adolescent's delinquent behaviors.

Methods

Procedure and Sampling

The current study was conducted in two stages: a correlational research and a randomized controlled trial. In the first stage, five different schools were randomly selected from the urban city Lahore, Pakistan; 1500 students aged 11-17 years filled in the Parental Authority Questionnaire (Buri, 1991), Self-Report Delinquency scale (Naqvi & Kamal, 2008) and a socio-demographic form (findings of the correlational part are presented in another paper). Students with elevated levels of delinquent tendencies (more than one standard deviation above the group mean) were screened out from this sample and their parents were contacted. Later, their parents, who fulfilled the following criteria, were asked to participate in the study:

- a) Parents belong to middle and lower middle class
- b) Biological parents with daily contact to their children
- c) Parents living as a couple.

A total of 325 parents of adolescents with delinquent tendencies were approached, but only 146 gave their consent and agreed to participate in the study. They were briefed about parent training. From these parents, 73 were randomly assigned to the intervention condition and 73 to the control condition by flipping a coin. However, 27 parents withdrew before the intervention had begun and 5 left after the first session. In total, 110 parents completed the study, 50 from the intervention group and 60 from the control group. Almost 80% respondents were mothers. Few couples interchangeably attended parent training sessions therefore exact percentage of parental gender cannot be presented here. In the intervention group, parents participated in seven weekly

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

sessions of parent training that were designed to improve ‘authoritative’ parenting skills. Each session lasted two hours including a tea break. Parents attend five sessions on average. The members of the control group did not receive an intervention. Pre-testing was carried out with both groups prior to the start of the intervention. After the end of intervention (after a week), post-testing was done with both groups. Follow-up assessments were completed nine months after the post-tests. A flow-chart is presented in Figure 1.

[Insert Figure 1 about here]

Measures

Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ): A modified version of the PAQ (parent ratings) was used to measure perceived parenting styles. Originally, the PAQ was constructed by Buri (1991) in English. It includes three parenting styles (authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive) with 10 items for each of the three subscales. The items are rated based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). The fourth parenting style (neglectful), suggested by Maccoby and Martin (1983) was not included. Therefore, we added 6 items for the neglectful parenting style as based on Baumrind’s parenting prototypes and their components (Baumrind, 1996). A sample item for the neglectful parenting style subscale is “I always showed an indifferent attitude while my child made his/her decisions”. The modified PAQ was translated into Urdu by following standard procedure. The Urdu version of the original PAQ has already been used in various studies from Pakistan (Kausar & Shafique, 2008; Loona & Kamal, 2012) and has depicted a satisfactory reliability. In the present study, the Cronbach’s Alphas of the subscales of the PAQ were as follows: .75 to .79 (neglectful parenting), .58 to .63 (permissive parenting), .72 to .75 (authoritarian parenting), and .86 to .91 (authoritative parenting).

Informant-Reported Delinquency Scale (IRDS): An indigenous Informant-Reported Delinquency

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

Scale (Urdu) developed by Naqvi and Kamal (2008) was used to measure delinquent tendencies among adolescents. The IRDS consists of 25 items that are answered on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'never' (1) to 'ten or more times' (5). The items reference theft, drug abuse, lying, non-compliant behavior, police encounters, aggression, cheating and gambling, and harassment. Parent ratings were used in the present study. Participants were instructed to refer to the last 3-4 months while filling the questionnaire. Sample items were 1) "He/she was involved in pickpocketing" 2) "He/she used drugs more than once." Two of the original items referring to sex-related delinquency had to be excluded from the original scale as the school authorities showed reservations about these questions. In the present study the Cronbach's Alpha for the IRDS ranged from .78 to .80.

Program Description

Seven didactic sessions were arranged with the parents. During preliminary conversations, it was observed that the parents had little knowledge about the physical growth and psychological development of adolescents and their implications for adolescents' behaviors. Therefore, more explanation was needed to provide parents with the aforementioned knowledge in order to improve their understanding as well as their skills in dealing with their adolescents' behavior. Sessions took place in groups ranging from 6 to 15 participants. A group format was used for reasons of convenience and time efficiency (Sanders, 2012). Parent training was held in the schools of their child. Each session was comprised of a summary of core information of the previous session, objectives, activities and discussion. During the sessions, different materials were used, such as a white board, handouts, and worksheets. Homework assignments were given to provide the families with extra practice and in order to give them a chance to implement the skills which they learned during the sessions. Participants were encouraged by the researcher to discuss and share their

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

experiences relating to their adolescents' behaviors and practices. Sharing helped parents with improving knowledge and decreasing their stress. All sessions were designed to last approximately two hours, with an included tea break of 20 minutes. Language plays very important role in dissemination of any training program. Urdu is a mother language of Pakistan, but Punjabi is a famous regional language in Lahore, Punjab. The researcher, who led the parent training, was proficient in both languages. She belonged to similar cultural background. These characteristics helped her to understand how parents socialize their children. Pakistani society is a collectivistic society (Hofstede, 2016). Therefore a focus of all sessions was on strengthening family ties. Gender specific issues based on cultural beliefs were also discussed such as the importance of autonomy granting, and monitoring for both genders. Particularly, monitoring strategies were discussed in view of interdependence within the families. Due to strong impact of religion on life, examples from religious scriptures were also used to improve parental responsiveness and to avoid physical punishment of their children. The themes of parent training sessions were based on responsiveness, demandingness, and self-regulatory methods of parenting. A logical model is presented in Figure 2.

[Insert Figure 2 here]

Results

At pretest, characteristics of the group members (age of adolescents, parents' education, family system, school type, and gender, parenting styles, or levels of delinquency) did not differ significantly between the experimental and control groups. Mean age of adolescents' was 13.84 years ($SD=1.29$) in the experimental group and 14.51 years ($SD=1.49$) the in control group. Five analyses of covariance with school affiliation as independent variable, changed scores in parenting styles and delinquent tendencies as dependent variable, and group membership (experimental versus control group) as covariate showed that the change scores did not vary between schools ($F(6,103) =$

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

.57 to 2.18, $p > .05$). Therefore, we did not have to control for adolescents' school affiliation in our main analyses.

Five analyses of variance (ANOVAs) with repeated measures were computed with time (pre-test, post-test, and follow-up) as the within-subject factor and intervention condition (intervention group versus control group) as the between-subject factor. The four parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, neglectful), as well as delinquency, were treated as the dependent variables. Significant main effects of time were found within all dependent variables. In comparison to pre-testing, parents reported higher levels of behaviors associated with an authoritative parenting style and lower levels of authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful parenting styles, as well as lower levels of adolescents' delinquency at later points of measurement (Table 1). Significant main effects of the parent training condition were found for authoritative, authoritarian, and neglectful parenting styles, as well as adolescents' delinquency; no main effect of training condition was observed with regard to permissive parenting style.

In addition, significant interaction effects between the intervention condition and the time of measurement were found for the authoritative, authoritarian, and neglectful parenting styles, as well as adolescents' delinquency (Table 1), with medium to large effect sizes ($\eta^2 = .42, .18, .24$). Post-hoc tests indicated that participants of the intervention condition showed significant increases in levels of behaviors associated with an authoritative parenting style between pretest and posttest/follow-up. They also reported declines in levels of behaviors associated with authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles between the pretest and later assessments. In contrast, no significant changes in parenting styles were observed in the control condition. Participants of parent training also reported a significant decrease in delinquent behavior displayed by their adolescents between the pretest and later assessments. No such change was observed in the control group. Thus, Hypothesis 1, 2 and 3

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

are supported by our data. No significant changes were observed between posttest and follow-up, thus indicating that the gains of the intervention group were maintained at follow-up

[Insert Table 1 here]

Two hierarchical multiple linear regression analyses were computed in order to test whether an increase in levels of behaviors associated with the authoritative parenting style is related to a decline of adolescents' delinquent behaviors. Juvenile delinquency at posttest and follow-up, respectively, was treated as a dependent variable. Delinquency (t1) was entered as an independent variable in the first step, followed by group membership (second step), and change in parenting styles (authoritative, neglectful, authoritarian, and neglectful) in the final step.

In the first model, delinquency contributed significantly to the regression model $F(1,108) = 6.64, p < .05$ and accounted for 5.8% of the variation within delinquency at the posttest. Introducing group membership in step two explained an additional 31.6% of the variation seen in delinquency scores. In the third step, the change in parenting styles explained an additional 11.4% of the variation of delinquency. Among the parenting styles, only an increased level of behaviors associated with the authoritative parenting style predicted levels of juvenile delinquency at the posttest. Group membership remained a significant predictor of delinquency in the final step of the analysis, although the size of the regression coefficient declined after including change in parenting styles. Thus, changes in parenting styles could not completely explain the effect of the intervention condition¹.

[Insert Table 2 here]

In the second model, the pretest score of delinquency accounted for 10.6% of the variation in delinquency at the follow-up. Introducing group membership in step two explained an additional

¹ A figure with the mean scores of delinquent tendencies at pretest, posttest and follow-up is electronically available as supplementary figure S1

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

21.5% of the variations observed in the delinquency scores. In the third step, changes in the four parenting styles explained an additional 11.4% of the variation of delinquency at the follow-up. Again, only an increase in the level of behavior associated with an authoritative parenting style predicted declines in juvenile delinquency at the follow-up. The statistical effect of group membership was no longer statistically significant after including change in parenting styles as a predicting variable. In conclusion, the results supported our fourth hypothesis.

[Insert Table 3 here]

Discussion

This paper reports the findings from a randomized controlled trial on a parent training program, and its effect on parenting styles and delinquent behavior in Pakistan. Participants of the training program reported an increase in level of behaviors associated with an authoritative parenting style. In addition, reports depicting authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles, as well as reports of adolescents' delinquent behaviors declined. An increase of the behaviors associated with an authoritative parenting style predicted declines in delinquency. However, change in parent reports on delinquency at posttest could not entirely be explained by an increase in reported authoritative parenting.

Findings of the present study support the first hypothesis, that participation in our parent training program is associated with a significant increase in the level of behaviors associated with an authoritative parenting style over time in comparison to the control condition. Until now, very few parent training programs assessed changes in parenting styles. However, Holliday (2014) observed that a parenting training program, based on an Adlerian model of positive discipline, led to a significant increase in behaviors associated with an authoritative parenting style. The results of the present study support the hypothesis that the authoritative parenting style can be taught with the use

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

of a parenting training program, by providing parents with instruction and guidance during training sessions. These findings are also in line with results on training programs which proved that parenting practices could be improved by parent trainings (Leijten et al., 2012; Ogden & Hagen, 2008). The observed large increases in reports on authoritative parenting may have been based on the fact that the participating parents had very limited access to psychological knowledge about effective parenting styles before the start of the intervention. Thus, parents in developing countries, such as Pakistan, may particularly be likely to alter their parenting styles after participating in a culturally sensitive parent training program. Findings show that our parent training program leads to significant changes in other parenting styles as well, as seen by a decrease in behaviors associated with both authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles. Declines in behaviors associated with an authoritarian parenting style may have been due to program contents aimed at identifying harsh (authoritarian) parenting and distinguishing it from positive reinforcement. In addition, the promotion of responsiveness and demandingness, components of the authoritative parenting style, is associated with a decline in behaviors associated with a neglectful parenting style (a combination of low demandingness and low responsiveness).

The observed decline in parental reports of adolescent delinquency indicates that participating in this parent training program did not only improve parental behaviors, but also brought about change in regards to the delinquent behaviors of their adolescents. Findings suggest that parents applied their newfound knowledge and skills to their daily routines in order to reduce delinquent behaviors displayed by their adolescent children and/or to prevent a further increase in delinquency. These findings are in line with previous findings on parent training programs (Burke et al., 2012; Chu et al., 2014; Connell et al., 2007; Leijten et al., 2012; Mason, et al., 2003).

Lastly, as participants of the training program showed changes in several reported parenting

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

styles, we were interested in whether the increase of behaviors associated with an authoritative parenting style specifically explains declines in the reported levels of adolescent delinquent tendencies. Our findings support the fourth hypothesis by showing that a decrease in reported delinquent behavior could, at least in part, be explained by increases in behavior associated with an authoritative parenting style (Fletcher, Steinberg, Darling, & Dornbusch, 1995). No previous randomized controlled studies were found that tested discuss the positive influence that training-based improvements of the authoritative parenting style have on adolescents' delinquency. Many cross-sectional studies (Akhtar et al., 2011; Balogun & Chukwumezie, 2010; Hoeve et al., 2009) and two longitudinal studies by Burt, Simons, and Simons (2006), as well as a study by Greeson et al. (2014) indicate that an increased level of behaviors associated with an authoritative parenting style predict lower levels and declines in delinquency and externalizing behavior in general. However, these associations do not imply causality and non-experimental longitudinal studies do not rule out the possibility that the observed correlation between parenting style and delinquency are explained, at least in part, by an unmeasured third variable. Randomized controlled trials provide stronger support for the suggestion that an authoritative parenting style could lead to a reduction of adolescent delinquent tendencies.

Nonetheless, the changes in delinquent tendencies at the posttest could only be explained in part by the improvements of scores on the authoritative parenting subscale of the PAQ. As the items of the authoritative parenting subscale address demandingness and democratic family decision-making more than parental warmth, the subscale might not have sufficiently assessed effects of improvements in parental warmth as part of the authoritative parenting style. In addition, the authoritative parenting subscale measures authoritative parental behaviors in general rather than focusing on specific behaviors parents can practice in order to deal with delinquent tendencies, such

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

as those addressed in the training program. Further studies which aim to comprehensively assess the authoritative parenting style and the delinquency-specific parental behaviors (e.g., prohibiting contact with delinquent peers) could provide additional insights into the processes that contributed to a change in reported delinquent tendencies.

Limitations and Direction for Future Research

There are a few limitations in the present study. First, data is only taken from parental reports. As adolescents' reports are not included in the study, it is difficult to determine whether reports on changes in parenting styles and delinquent tendencies reflect, at least in part, a response bias (e.g., parents' tendency to provide socially desirable answers). Previous literature shows that parents' reports on their own parental behavior might be biased in order to appear more favorable to a third party observer (Morsbach & Prinz, 2006). However, this would also apply to the parents in the control group. Future studies should include data from other sources, such as reports and observations from teachers (on delinquency) and adolescents (on parenting and delinquency). However, studies using different sources of information found positive effects of parent trainings on reports of different informants (Li et al., 2002).

All participants were residing in urban areas during the time of the study. Therefore, the effectiveness of the training program cannot be generalized to rural residents. In Pakistan, more than 67 percent of the citizens live in rural areas (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, 2014). Significant differences in social norms, values, and practices may exist between urban and rural areas that can affect parenting styles. This can also have an influence on the frequency and type of incidents pertaining to juvenile delinquent tendencies. Therefore, further research is needed to explore the impact of the present parent training program on families in rural areas.

As only the members of the experimental group received an intervention, we cannot rule out

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

that non-specific factors, such as the regular attention of the trainer, contributed to the observed training effects. Future research should include an active control group design to rule out possible confounds.

Conclusions

Based on the present research, three conclusions are inferred. Firstly, while the available correlative data regarding parenting styles and delinquent tendencies in Pakistan and in other Asian countries do not provide information on causality, the present experimental study indicates that increased behaviors associated with an authoritative parenting style predict declines in delinquent behavior, and that a training program aimed at promoting the authoritative parenting style has a causal effect on the decrease of parental reports on adolescent's delinquent tendencies. Secondly, our parent training program helped parents to manage their adolescent's delinquent behaviors effectively. The decline in reports of delinquent tendencies in the intervention condition as compared to the control condition indicates that the parenting intervention played a decisive role in changing adolescents' delinquency. Lastly, as parent training led to changes in three out of four reported parenting styles, we concluded that training-based changes in one parenting style are associated with changes in other styles. However, as only changes in the authoritative parenting style predicted changes in rates of behaviors associated with delinquency, we advise that practitioners mainly focus on increasing authoritativeness.

Compliance with Ethical Standards

Conflict of Interest: The authors have declared that they have no conflict of interest.

Informed Consent: All the participants in the research signed the informed consent.

Ethical Approval: All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

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Running head: PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

Table 1

Parenting Styles and Delinquent Tendencies in the Experimental and Control Group at Three Different Times

	Pre-test				Post-test				Follow-up				<i>F</i> Values (Partial n^2)		
	Intervention Group		Control Group		Intervention Group		Control Group		Intervention Group		Control Group		Condition	Time	Time x Condition
	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>			
Authoritative parenting	34.80	7.34	35.28	7.48	43.66	2.6	35.18	7.40	45.12	3.00	35.20	7.44	29.15***	75.15***	77.96***
													(.21)	(.41)	(.42)
Authoritarian parenting	34.58	6.65	33.12	7.86	28.62	4.26	33.05	7.86	29.94	5.38	33.05	7.85	2.76*	25.79***	24.58***
													(.25)	(.19)	(.18)
Permissive parenting	30.20	4.46	30.58	5.03	28.94	5.67	29.91	4.62	25.92	7.29	28.86	5.37	2.91	16.34***	3.14
													(.02)	(.13)	(.03)
Neglectful parenting	19.06	2.47	21.53	2.94	10.50	3.06	20.35	3.20	9.68	4.01	17.38	6.26	155.62***	117.12***	34.60***
													(.59)	(.52)	(.24)
Delinquent tendencies	30.86	5.05	33.36	9.09	28.02	2.75	33.31	9.10	27.72	2.72	33.18	8.84	10.82**	24.03***	20.31***
													(.09)	(.18)	(.16)

Notes. *SD* = standard deviation, *F* = test score of analysis of variance. Partial n^2 = variance explained by the predictors, * $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

Table 2

Prediction of Delinquent tendencies at Posttest (Hierarchic Multiple Linear Regression Analysis)

	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3					
	<i>B</i>	95% CI of <i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	95% CI of <i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	95% CI of <i>B</i>	β			
Delinquent tendencies t_1	-.09*	-.15	-.02	-.24	-.12	-.17	-.06	-.33	-.10***	-.15	-0.51	-.29
Group membership												
Change in authoritative parenting												
Change in authoritarian parenting												
Change in permissive parenting												
Change in neglectful Parenting												
Constant	1.44	-.74	3.62		7.01***	4.68	9.34		5.34***	2.85	7.85	
ΔR^2	.06				.32				.11			
R^2	.06				.37				.49			

Note: Group membership: 1 = control condition, 2 = intervention condition. Change in parenting refers to t_2-t_1 , B/β = un-/standardized regression. CI = confidence interval, ΔR^2 = explained variance in the particular step, R^2 = explained total variance. * $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$.

PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

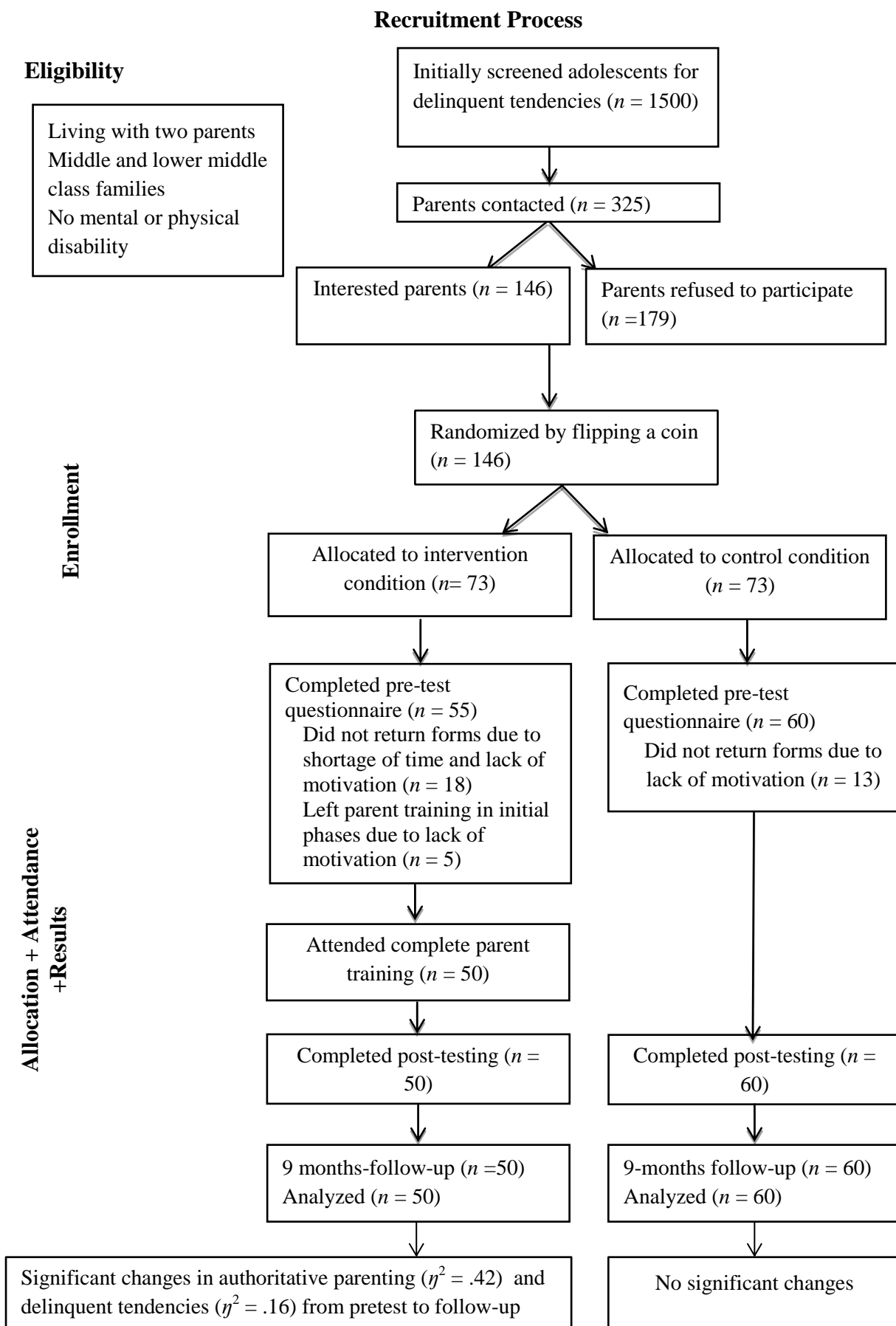
Table 3

Prediction of Delinquent tendencies at Follow-up (Hierarchic Multiple Linear Regression Analysis)

	<i>Step 1</i>			<i>Step 2</i>			<i>Step 3</i>					
	<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI of B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI of B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI of B</i>	β			
Delinquent tendencies t_1	-.16**	-.24	-.07	-.33	-.19***	-.27	-.12	-.40	-.18***	-.26	-.10	-.37
Group membership												
Change in authoritative parenting												
Change in authoritarian parenting												
Change in permissive parenting												
Change in neglectful Parenting												
Constant	3.55*	.66	6.44		9.80***	6.50	13.10		7.29***	3.76	10.82	
ΔR^2	.11				.21				.10			
R^2	.11				.32				.43			

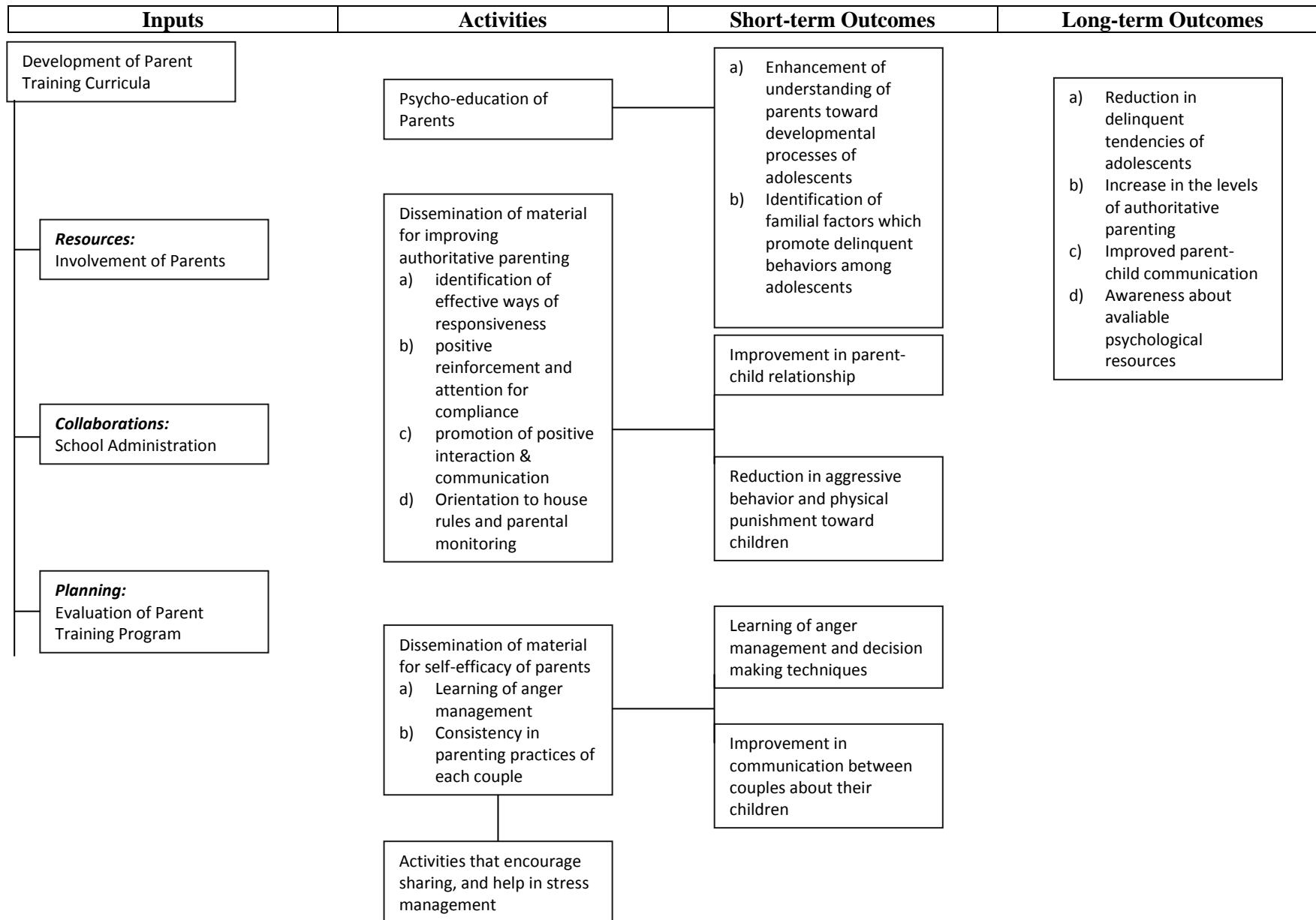
Note: Group membership: 1 = control condition, 2 = intervention condition. Change in parenting refers to t_3-t_1 , B/β = un-/standardized regression. ΔR^2 = explained variance in the particular step, R^2 = explained total variance, * $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$.

Figure 1: Consort diagram showing flow of participants from screening to analysis



PARENTING TRAINING AND DELINQUENCY

Figure 2: Logical model for parenting training



7.1.3 Study III

Pinquart, M., & Kauser, R. (submitted). Do the associations of parenting styles with behavior problems and academic achievement vary by culture? Results from a meta-analysis

Abstract

Objective. The study tested whether associations of parenting styles with internalizing problems, externalizing problems, and academic achievement vary between ethnic groups in western countries, between different regions of the globe, and by level of collectivism/individualism of individual countries. **Methods:** A systematic search in electronic data bases and cross referencing identified 428 studies that were included in the random-effects meta-analysis. **Results:** More ethnic and regional similarities than differences were identified. In western countries, associations of authoritative parenting with academic achievement were stronger in non-Hispanic, white families than in Asian minorities. In these countries, associations of authoritarian parenting with academic achievement were less negative in Hispanic families than in non-Hispanic, white families. Authoritative parenting was associated with at least one positive child outcome and authoritarian parenting was associated with at least one negative outcome in all regions of the globe, with some regional variation. Finally, associations of authoritarian parenting with child outcomes were weaker in countries with a higher individualism score, as were associations of authoritative parenting with academic performance. **Conclusions:** Parents across the globe could be recommended to behave authoritatively, although authoritarian and permissive parenting is, to some extent, tolerable in a few cultural contexts.

Key words: parenting style; academic achievement; internalizing problems, externalizing problems

Do the Associations of Parenting Styles with Behavior Problems and Academic Achievement Vary by Culture? Results from a Meta-Analysis

Over the last decades, hundreds of studies have analyzed aspects of parental behavior that might promote the psychological health and academic achievement of children and adolescents, and their positive development in general (Hoeve, Dubas, Eichelsheim, Van der Laan, Smeenk, & Gerris, 2009; blinded reference). Based on the work of Baumrind (1966), Maccoby and Martin (1983) defined four parenting styles according to the two-dimensional framework of responsiveness/warmth and behavioral control: an authoritative style (high warmth and high control), an authoritarian style (low warmth and high control), a permissive style (high warmth and low control), and a neglectful style (low warmth and low control). Other researchers added that – in contrast to authoritarian parents – authoritative parents encourage and permit their children to develop their own opinions and beliefs (autonomy granting; Steinberg, 2001)

Most of the research on the parents' role for children's psychological and behavioral outcomes has been conducted among families from the United States and other western countries. These studies indicated that children from authoritative parents show fewer internalizing and externalizing symptoms, as well as better academic performance than children from other families, although the average effect sizes tend to be small (blinded reference). In contrast, authoritarian, neglectful, and, in part, permissive parenting styles are associated with elevated levels of symptoms and poorer academic performance (blinded reference).

Associations of parenting styles with child outcomes may vary, to some extent, between cultural contexts, such as ethnic groups within countries and different regions of the globe. Cross-cultural researchers have emphasized that socialization goals and practices vary across cultures because different qualities and outcomes in children are valued and emphasized (e.g., Chao, 1994, 2000, 2001). In addition, the same parental behavior and

parenting style may be interpreted differently (e.g., as more or less adequate) depending upon the cultural meaning of this behavior or style in the particular cultural group (e.g., Chao, 2000, 2001; Deater-Deckard, Dodge, & Sorbring, 2005). Cultural differences in the normativeness or prevalence of certain parenting practices or styles might moderate the socialization function of such practices/styles. For example, Lansford et al. (2005) found weaker adverse effects of corporal punishment on children's adjustment in cultures with higher prevalence of this practice. Dwairy, Achoui, Abouserie, and Farah (2006) suggested the inconsistency hypothesis—claiming that a parenting style will not have positive effects or even negative effects on child outcomes if it is not consistent with the expectations of the socio-cultural environment.

Chao (1994) suggested that Baumrind's parenting styles may not be culturally relevant in Asian and Asian American families, as parental strictness and warmth have a different meaning in those contexts: For Asians, some aspects of parental strictness may be equated with parental concern, caring, and involvement, while western families tend to associate authoritarian control with hostility and rejection. In addition, responsiveness of Asian parents could be more accurately described as involvement and support rather than as praising, hugging, and kissing the child (see also Chao & Tseng, 2002). Nonetheless, comparative studies showed that Baumrind's parenting styles can be meaningfully identified in non-western countries with adequate measurement invariance, such as in China (Leung, Lau, & Lam, 1998; Wu et al., 2002).

Observed Differences between Ethnic Groups in Western Countries

Results of individual studies are inconsistent regarding whether associations of parenting styles with child outcomes do or do not differ between ethnic groups within western countries. For example, in a study from the United States, Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn, and Dornbusch (1991) observed that the associations of authoritative parenting with internalizing symptoms and delinquency did not vary between ethnic groups. In contrast, associations of

authoritative parenting with academic achievement were more positive in non-Hispanic, white adolescents than in African American and Asian American adolescents. Similarly, Chao (2001) found that the authoritative style showed a stronger positive association with academic achievement in European American families than in first-generation Chinese immigrants living in the United States.

Regional Differences

In a cross-national study, Leung et al. (1998) found authoritative parenting to be associated with better academic performance in students from Australia and the United States, but not in students from Hong Kong. A statistically significant negative correlation of authoritarian parenting with academic achievement was only observed in the U.S. sample.

In contrast to Leung et al. (1998), Chen, Dong, and Zhou (1997) found an authoritative parenting style to be associated with better academic performance in students from Beijing, China, while authoritarian parenting was associated with worse performance in school. In contrast to research from Western countries (e.g., Leung et al., 1998; Steinberg et al., 1991), some studies with Arab families did not find that authoritarian parenting is associated with elevated psychological distress (Dwairy, 2004a; Dwairy & Menshar, 2006), although another study found a negative association in a subgroup of Arab children (gifted as compared to non-gifted students; Dwairy, 2004b).

While studies from the U.S. indicate that children of permissive parents tend to show more adjustment problems and less academic success than children of authoritative parents (e.g., Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 2004), some researchers from Southern Europe and Latin America reported that permissive parenting is associated with the same or even better psychological adjustment than authoritative parenting, perhaps as a consequence of the emphasis placed on affection and egalitarian relations in these countries (e.g., Gracia, Garcia, & Lila, 2008). To our knowledge, a neglectful parenting style has not been considered as culturally accepted in any region of the globe. Nonetheless, while larger

numbers of studies found higher levels of behavior problems and less academic success in children of neglectful parents (e.g., Steinberg et al., 1994), a Turkish study by Akcinar and Baydar (2014) found the lowest level of externalizing problems if the observed behavior of mothers of 3-year-old children was characterized by the combination of low warmth and low behavioral control (thus indicating a neglectful parenting style).

The Role of Collectivism/Individualism

The level of collectivism/individualism characterizes the degree to which members of a society are integrated into groups. The ties between individuals are loose in individualist societies and individuals are expected to look after themselves and their immediate family. In collectivist societies, individuals are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups (e.g., extended families with uncles, aunts and grandparents) in which members protect each other in exchange for unquestioning loyalty (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkow, 2010).

Applying the cultural inconsistency hypothesis to the authoritarian parenting style, Dwairy et al. (2006) stated that in collectivist cultures, authoritarian parenting would only have minor or negligible negative influences on children's development due to the style being culturally consistent, but would have negative effects in individualist western countries. Similarly, Rudy and Grusec (2001) stated that authoritarian parenting goals, such as obedience and respect for authority, are more normative in collectivist societies or groups, which also affects parenting practices and their effects. In fact, parental endorsement of collectivistic values predicted the use of authoritarian parenting in their study (Rudy & Grusec, 2001). In collectivist societies or groups, individuals must learn to inhibit the expression of their own wants and needs, and to attend to the needs of others in the in-group. Authoritarian parenting, which requires obedience from children without expression of their own point of view, is suggested to promote the development of these qualities (Grusec, Rudy, & Martini, 1997). Thus, an authoritarian parenting style may have fewer negative effects and even some positive effects in collectivist societies. In contrast, authoritarian parenting would not be motivated by the

instilling of values of respect for the in-group in individualistic societies but may instead reflect negative attitudes and feelings toward the child. These negative parental attitudes or feelings contribute to the negative effects of this parenting style on children from individualist societies. Rudy and Grusec (2001) further concluded that authoritative parenting would only be the most effective parenting style in transmitting values in individualist societies because, in this context, it is important for individuals to assert themselves and actively pursue their own wishes and needs. As the promotion of autonomy is an important aspect of authoritative parenting (Steinberg, 2001), this parenting style encourages self-assertion and other characteristics that are valued in individualistic societies (Rudy & Grusec, 2001).

Up to now, only two narrative reviews have addressed cultural similarities and differences in the associations of parenting styles with child outcomes (Sangawi, Adams, & Reissland, 2015; Sorkhabi, 2005). Sorkhabi (2005) reviewed 19 studies on associations of parenting styles with heterogeneous child outcomes (e.g., academic achievement, psychological adjustment, self-esteem). The author noted cultural variation in the link between parenting styles and child outcomes in some studies, while other studies found similar associations in collectivist and individualist cultures. As the former rather than the latter results may have been affected by mono-informant bias, Sorkhabi (2005) concluded that the results on cultural similarities are more trustworthy, and parenting styles may have similar functions in both cultures. Sangawi et al. (2015) reviewed studies on the association of parenting styles and dimensions with behavior problems of 6- to 12-year-old children. The authors concluded that the impact of parenting styles on behavior problems may be culturally specific, particularly for African and Chinese children (p. 176). However, four of their five reviewed studies on parenting styles (from China, Iran, Spain, and the U.S.) found a positive association of authoritarian parenting with behavior problems and a negative association of authoritative parenting with these problems. Results on authoritative parenting had not been reported in the Spanish study, and the only study that did not find a positive association of

authoritarian parenting with a sum measure of internalizing, externalizing, and learning problems had been conducted in the U.S. with mainly Caucasian families (Kaufman et al., 2000). In addition, Sangawi et al. (2015) did not provide any data on cultural differences in the association of permissive and neglectful parenting with behavior problems. Thus, their conclusions about cultural differences were not well supported by the cited studies. In sum, available narrative reviews had some shortcomings as they a) included a very limited number of studies on associations of parenting styles with child outcomes, b) did not explicitly test for cultural differences in the association between these variables, and c) could not prove whether the results of individual studies vary by the level of collectivism/individualism.

Research Questions

Given the heterogeneity of the results of the individual studies and shortcomings of the available narrative reviews, we conducted meta-analyses in order to integrate the available results. Meta-analyses compute weighted mean effects across the available studies that are more robust than the results of individual studies. In addition, they test whether the variations between the results of the individual studies are statistically significant or whether the between-study variabilities could be explained by chance (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). We focused on three correlates of parenting styles that have often been assessed in the available literature – internalizing problems (such as anxiety and depression), externalizing problems (aggressive and delinquent behavior), and academic achievement (grades or scores on achievement tests).

The first research question focuses on within-country ethnic differences in the associations of parenting styles with the three child outcomes in families from western countries. On average, children of authoritative parents tend to show fewer internalizing and externalizing symptoms as well as better academic performance than other children while children of authoritarian parents tend to show more externalizing and internalizing problems and poorer academic performance (blinded reference; Steinberg et al., 1991). Authoritarian

parenting tends to be more prevalent in African American, Asian American, and Hispanic families than in families with a European ethnic background, while the reverse is true with regard to authoritative parenting (e.g., Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987). According to the cultural inconsistency hypothesis (Dwairy et al., 2006), parenting styles should have more positive effects if they are more common and more culturally accepted. Thus, we ask in our first research question whether negative associations of authoritative parenting with externalizing and internalizing symptoms, as well as positive associations of this parenting style with academic achievement, would be stronger in non-Hispanic, white families than in the Hispanic families, as well as families with African (e.g., African American, African Canadian), and Asian ethnic ethnicities (e.g., Chinese American). We also explore whether the associations of authoritarian parenting with higher levels of internalizing and externalizing problems and lower academic achievement would be stronger in non-Hispanic whites than in the other three ethnic groups. In addition, we test whether associations of permissive and neglectful parenting with the three child outcomes differ between ethnic groups. No directional hypothesis could be stated for these associations.

The second research question addresses between-country (cross-national) comparisons. Authoritative parenting tends to be more prevalent in western, individualist countries than in non-western, collectivist countries, while the reverse is true with regard to authoritarian parenting (e.g., Yang, Kim, Laroche, & Lee, 2014; Su & Hynie, 2011). According to the cultural inconsistency hypothesis (Dwairy et al., 2006), these differences should be associated with weaker positive effects of authoritative parenting and weaker negative effects or even positive effects of authoritarian parenting in the more collectivist countries. Rudy and Grusec (2001) suggested that these different effects would be based on cultural differences in socialization goals as the respect for authority and the promotion of compliance would be more valued in collectivist rather than individualist countries, and authoritarian parenting would be an adequate strategy for promoting compliance and respect for authority. In

contrast, authoritative parenting would be more normative and effective in individualist, western countries because it promotes the development of self-reliance and autonomy (Rudy & Grusec, 2001; Steinberg, 1991).

Chao (1994, 2001) highlighted that some effects of parenting styles may be specific for particular regions of the globe, such as Asian families. Thus, comparing western, individualist and non-western, collectivist countries would not be sufficiently differentiated. Several attempts to categorize regions according to common cultural roots have been published (Huntington, 1996; Kolb, 1962; Spence & Thomas, 1973). Based on these authors' publications, the present meta-analysis compares results from ten regions: Northern America (Canada, U.S.), Central/Southern America (Latin America), Western Europe (all European countries that have not been part of the former communist block), Eastern Europe/Russia, Arab-Muslim countries (North Africa, the Arabian Peninsula, Iran, Turkey), Sub Sahara Africa, Australia/New Zealand, East Asia (China, Japan, Singapore, Taiwan), South Asia (India, Bangladesh, Pakistan), and South East Asia (e.g., Cambodia, Indonesia, Thailand, Vietnam). The frontiers of these regions are, in part, permeable as, for example, some former communist Eastern European countries have become members of the European Union. The second research question is whether the size of correlations of authoritarian and authoritative parenting with the three child outcomes differs between the 10 regions. Based on the work by Chao (1994, 2001), Dwairy et al. (2006), and Rudy and Grusec (2001), we tested whether the associations of authoritarian and authoritative parenting with the child outcomes is weaker in East Asian countries and other non-western regions than in Northern America, Western Europe, and Australia/New Zealand.

The final research question addresses whether the level of individualism and collectivism of the individual country explains national/regional differences in the correlation between parenting styles and child outcomes (Dwairy et al., 2006; Rudy & Grusec, 2001; Sorkhabi, 2005). Hofstede et al. (2010) assess the national level of collectivism/individualism

as a continuous variable. North American and European countries tend to have relatively high average individualism scores, the highest of which is in the United States. In contrast, most African, Asian, and Latin American countries score low on individualism/high on collectivism, with Japan and Arab countries having middle values on this dimension. Although some researchers have suggested assessing individualism and collectivism as separate constructs, and to distinguish different aspects of individualism and collectivism (e.g., normative versus relational individualism/collectivism; for overview Kagitcibasi, 1997) we refer to the original concept by Hofstede et al. (2010) because only these researchers provide collectivism/individualism scores for most countries.

Based on this concept, our third research question examines whether the level of collectivism/individualism moderates the size of the correlation between parenting styles and child outcomes. More concretely, we ask whether the correlation of authoritative parenting with lower internalizing and externalizing problems, as well as better academic performance, is stronger in countries with a higher individualism score. Furthermore, we ask whether the positive correlation of authoritarian parenting with both kinds of problems and the negative correlation of authoritarian parenting with academic achievement is weaker in countries with lower individualism scores.

Methods

Sample

Studies were identified through electronic databases [PSYCINFO, ERIC, Google Scholar, and PSYNDEX (an electronic database of psychological literature from German-speaking countries) – search terms: (parenting style) AND (academic achievement OR grade point average OR GPA OR achievement test OR internalizing OR anxiety OR depress* OR externalizing OR aggress* OR delinquen*)] and cross-referencing. The final search was completed at 2016-10-01. Criteria for inclusion of studies in the present meta-analysis were:

- a) The studies assessed parenting styles defined by Maccoby and Martin (1983).

- b) They assessed academic achievement (via grade point average or academic achievement tests), and/or internalizing problems, and/or externalizing problems.
- c) The correlations between parenting styles and at least one of the child outcomes were reported or could be computed.
- d) The mean age of the sample was < 20 years.
- e) The studies were completed before October, 2016.

In order to include studies from different regions of the globe, we did not limit the included studies to those written in English. Unpublished studies identified by the literature search (e.g., dissertations) were also included. We identified 1723 records. After screening and assessing for eligibility, we were able to include 428 studies in the meta-analysis. A flow chart of the search for studies is provided online as supplementary material S1, and the studies included are listed in the supplementary materials S2 and S3.

We entered the number of children, mean age, percentage of girls, and percentage of members of ethnic minorities, as well as Hispanic children, children with African, Asian, and European ethnicity, country and region of data collection, publication status (1 = published, 2 = unpublished), rater of parenting (1 = child, 2 = parent, 3 = observer, 4 = multi-informant), rater of child outcome (1 = child, 2 = parent, 3 = teacher, 4 = researcher, 5 = multi-informant), quality of the measures of parenting and child outcomes (2 = support for validity and reliability provided, 1 = no such support provided), the size of association of parenting styles with academic performance, and internalizing and externalizing problems. If associations were provided for several subgroups within the same publication (e.g., for female and male participants), we entered them separately in our analysis. Approximately 20% of the studies were coded by the first author and a graduate student. A mean inter-rater reliability of 93% (range 89% - 100%) was established. Differences were resolved by discussion.

Measures

Parenting styles were most often assessed with the Parental Authority Questionnaire (Buri 1991; 105 studies; 24.8%), the Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ; Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 2001 (68 studies; 15.9%), the Parenting Style Questionnaire (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; 34 studies; 8.0%), the Child Rearing Practices Report (10 studies; 2.4%), and related instruments (211 studies; 49.8%). Academic performance was assessed via GPA (121 studies; 85.8%) and academic achievement tests such as the Woodcock-Johnson III Tests of Achievement (Woodcock et al. 2001; 20 studies; 14.2%). Internalizing problems were most often measured with the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL; Achenbach, 1991; 32 studies; 15.9%), the Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (Radloff, 1977; 21 studies; 10.4%), the Children's Depression Inventory (Kovacs, 1982; 15 studies; 7.5%), the Youth Self-Report (YSR; Achenbach, 1991; 11 studies; 5.5%), and related instruments (124 studies; 60.9%). Finally, externalizing problems were most often measured with the CBCL (Achenbach, 1991; 32 studies; 13.6%), the YSR (Achenbach, 1991; 14 studies; 5.9%), and related instruments (190 studies; 80.5%).

Statistical Integration of the Findings

Calculations for the meta-analysis were performed in five steps, based on standardized procedures outlined by Lipsey and Wilson (2001). Random-effects models and the method of moments were computed as random-effects models are recommended if not all sources of heterogeneity between results of individual studies can be identified (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). The analyses were performed with the meta-analytic software *Comprehensive Meta-Analysis* (Borenstein, Higgins, Hedges, & Rothstein, 2005).

1. The correlations were transformed using Fisher's r -to- z transformation. Outliers that were more than two SD 's from the arithmetic mean of the effect sizes were recoded to the value at two SD 's, based on Lipsey and Wilson (2001).
2. Effect sizes were weighted by the inverse of their squared standard error. Then,

weighted mean z -scores and 95%-confidence intervals [CIs] were computed. The significance of the mean was tested by dividing the weighted mean effect size by the standard error of the mean. To compare the mean effect sizes with the effect sizes reported in the single studies, the mean effect sizes were later converted to the original metric of product–moment correlations.

3. Homogeneity of effect sizes was tested by use of the Q statistic.
4. In order to test the influence of categorical moderator variables (country group and ethnic group), we used an analogue of an analysis of variance or covariance. Because the latter procedure has not yet been implemented in meta-analytic software, we first computed a weighted regression analysis for predicting the effect sizes from the covariates. We saved the residuals that represent the variance that is not explained by the covariates. We then computed an analog of an analysis of variance with the residuals as the dependent variable and region as the independent variable. A significant Q score indicates heterogeneity of the effect sizes between the compared conditions. Differences between two conditions are significant if the 95%-CIs of two effect sizes do not overlap (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). Weighted ordinary least squares regression analyses were computed for testing the moderating effect of the continuous variable collectivism/individualism.
5. Egger's test (Egger, Davey Smith, Schneider, & Minder, 1997), a trim and fill analysis (Duvall & Tweedie, 2000), and Rosenthal's fail-safe N (Rosenthal, 1979) were used for analysis of possible publication bias.

Results

The included studies have been conducted in the United States ($N=161$; 37.6%), Iran ($N=30$; 7%), China ($N=20$; 4.7%), Spain ($N=20$; 4.7%), India ($N=20$; 4.7%), Hong Kong ($N=13$; 3.0%), Pakistan ($N=13$; 3.0%), Canada ($N=12$; 2.8%), Nigeria ($N=12$; 2.8%), the Netherlands ($N=10$; 2.3%), Australia ($N=9$; 2.1%), Taiwan ($N=8$; 1.9%), Kenya ($N=6$; 1.4%),

Malaysia ($N=6$; 1.4%), the United Kingdom ($N=6$; 1.4%), Ghana ($N=5$; 1.2%), Italy ($N=5$; 1.2%), Russia ($N=5$; 1.2%), Singapore ($N=5$; 1.2%), South Africa ($N=5$; 1.2%), Ethiopia ($N=4$; .9%), Israel ($N=4$; .9%), the Philippines ($N=4$; .9%), South Korea ($N=4$; .9%), Turkey ($N=4$; .9%), Belgium ($N=3$; .7%), Brazil ($N=3$; .7%), Finland ($N=3$; .7%), Germany ($N=3$; .7%), Indonesia ($N=3$; .7%), Ireland ($N=3$; .7%), New Zealand ($N=3$; .7%), Portugal ($N=3$; .7%), Albania ($N=2$; .5%), Cyprus ($N=2$; .5%), Egypt ($N=2$; .5%), Greece ($N=2$; .5%), Jamaica ($N=2$; .5%), Mexico ($N=2$; .5%), Romania ($N=2$; .5%), Sweden ($N=2$; .5%), Thailand ($N=2$; .5%), the Bahamas ($N=1$; .2%), Cameroon ($N=1$; .2%), France ($N=1$; .2%), Jordan ($N=1$; .2%), Poland ($N=1$; .2%), Saudi Arabia ($N=1$; .2%), Slovenia ($N=1$; .2%), St. Kitts and Nevis ($N=1$; .2%), St. Vincent ($N=1$; .2%), and Tajikistan ($N=1$; 2%). Another three studies (.7%) combined data from more than one country. About 5% of the included studies provided longitudinal data. Two thirds of the studies provided support for the validity and reliability of the measures of parenting, internalizing problems, and externalizing problems. In about 72% of the studies, information on parenting and child outcomes came from the same source.

The 428 included studies provided data on 347,051 children and adolescents with a mean age of 12.99 years ($SD = 3.87$). About 50.9% of the children were female and 36.2% belonged to an ethnic minority.

Differences between Ethnic Groups in Western Countries

The first research question asked whether the associations of authoritative and authoritarian parenting with internalizing problems, externalizing problems, and academic achievement would differ between non-Hispanic white (“European”) families, Hispanic families, as well as families with African and Asian ethnicities living in western countries. Only those studies that provided separate results for at least one of these ethnic groups were included in this meta-analysis. As shown in Table 1, authoritative parenting is associated with fewer internalizing and externalizing problems, as well as better academic performance in all four ethnic groups; these correlations can be interpreted as small/very small (Cohen, 1992).

Nonetheless, the *Q*-statistics indicate that the size of the association of authoritative parenting with externalizing problems and academic achievement differs between the assessed ethnic groups. As indicated by the non-overlap of the 95%-CI, associations of authoritative parenting with academic achievement were stronger in non-Hispanic, white families than in families with an Asian ethnicity. In the analysis on externalizing problems, the 95%-CIs of the four ethnic groups overlapped, thus indicating that there were no clear between-group differences.

While authoritarian parenting was associated with more internalizing and externalizing problems and poorer academic performance of non-Hispanic, white and Asian children, we found such an association in Hispanic children only with regard to internalizing and externalizing problems. No significant associations of authoritative parenting with the three child outcomes were observed in children with an African ethnic background. The *Q*-statistics indicate significant ethnic differences with regard to internalizing problems and academic achievement: The positive correlation of authoritarian parenting with internalizing problems was stronger in families with an Asian and Hispanic ethnic background than in those with an African background. In addition, the association of authoritarian parenting with academic achievement was stronger (more negative) in non-Hispanic, white families than in families with a Hispanic ethnic background.

Only two significant associations of permissive parenting emerged: This parenting style was associated with more externalizing problems in Hispanic and Asian families. However, differences between ethnic groups did not reach statistical significance. Finally, neglectful parenting was associated with negative child outcomes in all compared ethnic groups, and the size of this association did not differ by ethnicity. All effect sizes in the ethnic groups were homogeneous, thus indicating similar results within the combined studies.

[Insert Table 1]

Regional Differences

Regional comparisons were the focus of the second research question. We first

checked for regional differences in study characteristics using an analysis of variance. There were regional differences in participant age ($F(9)=6.36, p<.001$), use of community-based versus clinical samples ($F(9)=2.88, p<.001$), use of validated parenting ($F(9)=2.40, p<.02$) and child outcome measures ($F(9)=3.93, p<.001$), mono-informant bias ($F(9)=5.33, p<.001$), and use of cross-sectional versus longitudinal designs ($F(9)=5.04, p<.001$). Thus, we used these variables as covariates in the following meta-analysis.

As shown in Table 2, associations of authoritative parenting with internalizing problems, externalizing problems and academic achievement varied between country groups. Authoritative parenting was associated with fewer internalizing and externalizing problems in North America, Western Europe, East Asia, South Asia, South-East Asia, Arab-Muslim countries, and Australia/New Zealand. In addition, authoritative parenting was associated with fewer internalizing problems in Latin America. No significant associations with internalizing and externalizing problems were found in Eastern Europe and Subsahara Africa. The non-overlap of the 95%-CIs indicates that the association of authoritative parenting with internalizing problems was more negative in Australia/New Zealand and Western Europe than in Subsahara Africa. Authoritative parenting showed stronger negative associations with externalizing problems in studies from Arab-Muslim countries than in North America, Western Europe, East Asia, South-East Asia, and Subsahara Africa. Furthermore, authoritative parenting was associated with better academic achievement in all compared regions. No Latin American studies were found on this association. Associations of authoritative parenting with academic achievement were stronger in South Asia, Arabic-Muslim countries, and Subsahara Africa than in North America. The associations were also stronger in Subsahara-Africa and Arab-Muslim countries than in Western Europe and South-East Asia.

Associations of an authoritarian parenting style with internalizing and externalizing problems also varied between country groups while no such variability emerged in regards to

associations with academic achievement. Authoritarian parenting was associated with more internalizing and externalizing problems and poorer academic performance in North America, Western Europe, Eastern Europe, East Asia, South Asia, and Arab-Muslim countries. Two out of three associations were significant in Australia/New Zealand and Latin America (where no studies on academic achievement could be identified), and only one significant association emerged in South-East Asia (for externalizing problems) and Sub Sahara Africa (for academic achievement). There were no associations of authoritarian parenting with a desirable outcome. The non-overlap of the 95%-CIs indicates that the positive correlation of authoritarian parenting with internalizing problems was stronger in Latin America and South Asia than in Sub Sahara Africa, and that the positive correlation of authoritarian parenting with externalizing problems was stronger in South Asia than in North America.

Few significant associations were found for permissive parenting. This parenting style was associated with more internalizing problems in North America and South-East Asia but with fewer internalizing problems in Western Europe and Latin America. Associations of permissive parenting with internalizing problems were more negative in Latin America than in North America, Western Europe, East Asia, South Asia, South East Asia, Arab-Muslim countries, and Sub Sahara Africa. Permissive parenting was related to more externalizing problems in North America, East Asia, South Asia, South-East Asia, Arab-Muslim countries, Sub Sahara Africa, and Australia/New Zealand. Associations of permissive parenting with more externalizing problems were stronger in Sub Sahara Africa than in North America, Western Europe, and Eastern Europe. In addition, permissive parenting related to poorer academic performance in North America, East Asia, South Asia, Arab-Muslim countries, Australia/New Zealand, and Sub Sahara Africa. The non-overlap of the 95%-CIs indicates that associations were more negative in North America, East Asia, South Asia, Arab-Muslim countries, Sub Sahara Africa and Australia/New Zealand than in Western Europe.

The neglectful parenting style was associated with more internalizing and

externalizing problems as well as poorer academic performance in North America, Western Europe, and South Asia. Two of these associations were significant in Subsahara Africa (with externalizing problems and academic achievement). Only one of these associations was significant in Eastern Europe (with worse academic performance), East Asia and South-East Asia (with more externalizing problems each), Arab-Muslim countries (with more internalizing problems), and Australia/New Zealand (with worse academic performance). The non-overlap of the 95%-CIs indicates that associations of neglectful parenting with internalizing problems were more positive in South Asia than in Latin America. In addition, associations with academic achievement were more negative in North America than in Arab-Muslim countries.

About 85% of the effect sizes of the individual country groups were homogeneous, thus indicating that most results were similar in the counties that were combined to a county group. Most heterogeneous effect sizes (5 out of 17) were observed in Subsahara Africa, thus indicating that the effect sizes vary, in part, between and/or within the included countries.

[Insert Table 2]

As we had included a larger number of unpublished studies (e.g., dissertations), we were able to test whether their results differ from the results of studies that have been published in journals or book chapters. Three out of 12 associations of parenting styles with child outcomes were stronger in published than in unpublished studies (association of authoritative parenting with internalizing symptoms, of authoritarian parenting with academic achievement, and of neglectful parenting with achievement). However, another three associations (of authoritarian parenting with externalizing problems, of permissive parenting with achievement, and of neglectful parenting with internalizing problems) were stronger in unpublished than in published studies (blinded reference). The Egger test (regressing the effect size against its standard error; Egger et al., 1997) indicated funnel plot asymmetry in seven of 12 cross-national analyses ($t = 2.75$ to 4.68 , $p < .01$ to $.001$). Three effect sizes

decreased after applying the trim and fill algorithm (authoritarian parenting – achievement: from $r = -.09$ to $-.04$; authoritarian parenting – externalizing symptoms: from $r = .16$ to $.10$; permissive parenting – externalizing symptoms: from $r = .08$ to $.00$). However, these associations became stronger after applying the trim and fill algorithm (authoritative parenting – achievement: from $r = .18$ to $.21$; permissive parenting – internalizing symptoms from $r = .02$ to $.04$; neglectful parenting – externalizing symptoms: from $r = .18$ to $.20$). Only one association (permissive parenting – externalizing symptoms) was no longer significant after applying the trim and fill procedure. Fail-safe N indicates that the number of unidentified studies with effect sizes of zero would have to be, on average, about 22 times higher than the number of included studies before the combined effect would no longer be statistically significant (Table 1 and 2).

Associations with Levels of Collectivism/Individualism

The third research question examined whether the size of association between parenting styles and child outcomes varies by the level of collectivism/individualism of the country where the study has been conducted. Six studies had to be excluded from the analysis because no collectivism/individualism score was available for the country or because the study combined data from more than one country. We first checked whether the level of collectivism/individualism of the country of the individual study correlated with other study characteristics, namely use of clinical versus community-based sample, use of longitudinal versus cross-sectional study design, mean age, percentage of female participants, use of parenting measures and child outcome measures with support for validity and reliability, source of information on parenting and child outcome, and mono-informant bias. As the level of collectivism/individualism correlated with mono-informant bias and use of clinical samples, we controlled for these study characteristics as covariates.

One moderating effect of collectivism/individualism was found in regards to the associations of authoritative parenting with child outcomes: The association with academic

achievement was *weaker* (less negative) in countries with higher individualism scores. In addition, collectivism/individualism moderated the size of association of authoritarian parenting with all assessed child outcomes. Associations of authoritarian parenting with internalizing and externalizing symptoms were *weaker* (less positive) in countries with higher individualism scores. Similarly, associations of authoritarian parenting with academic achievement were *weaker* (less negative) in countries with higher individualism scores. Associations of permissive and neglectful parenting with the child outcomes were not moderated by the level of collectivism/individualism (Table 3).

[Insert Table 3]

Discussion

The present study is the first meta-analysis on ethnic and regional differences in the associations of parenting styles with internalizing problems, externalizing problems, and academic achievement. More ethnic and regional similarities than differences were found. In studies from western countries, we did not find much empirical evidence for the suggestion that associations of authoritative parenting with child outcomes may be stronger in non-Hispanic, white families than in ethnic minorities. There was only weak support for the suggestion that the associations of authoritarian parenting with a child outcome is less negative in ethnic minorities than in non-Hispanic, white families. Authoritative parenting was related to at least one positive child outcome and authoritarian parenting to at least one negative child outcome in all assessed regions, although the results varied, in part, between regions. Finally, positive associations of authoritarian parenting with internalizing and externalizing problems, as well as negative associations of this parenting style with academic achievement, were weaker in countries with higher individualism scores. Similarly, associations of authoritative parenting with academic achievement were weaker (less positive) in more individualist countries.

When focusing on studies from western countries, we found that authoritative parenting is associated with better child outcomes in non-Hispanic, white families as well as those with an African, Asian, and African ethnicity. These results support Steinberg's conclusion that young people from western countries benefit from having parents who are authoritative: warm, firm, and accepting of their needs for psychological autonomy (Steinberg, 2001). Nonetheless, we have to be aware that the included studies provided only correlational (non-experimental) data that do not allow for drawing causal conclusions.

Stronger associations of authoritative parenting in non-Hispanic, white families than in families from ethnic minorities were only found in relation to academic achievement of children with an Asian ethnic identity. This result may support Chao's (1994) suggestion that authoritative parenting would be less culturally relevant in Asian American families than in Caucasian families. Alternatively, Steinberg, Dornbusch, and Brown (1992) reported that Asian American students achieved better grades than students from other ethnic groups – thus indicating restricted variance in this child outcome which would reduce the size of correlation with parenting variables.

Authoritarian parenting did not show a negative association with the assessed child outcomes in western families with an African ethnic background, and associations of authoritarian parenting with child outcomes were, in part, stronger in non-Hispanic, white, Asian, and Hispanic families than in families with an African ethnic background. The observed stronger associations of authoritarian parenting in families with an Asian and Hispanic ethnic background as compared to those with an African background may be based on the fact that authoritarian parenting tends to be more culturally accepted in African American families than in Asian American and Hispanic families (Deater-Deckard et al., 2005; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Steinberg, 2001). Nonetheless, we did not find significantly positive associations of authoritarian parenting with any of the assessed outcomes in families from western countries with an African ethnic background.

Regional comparisons indicated that authoritative parenting showed at least one positive association with a desirable child outcome in all 10 assessed regions of the globe. The results were least consistent in Eastern Europe and Sub Sahara Africa, but the test power was restricted for Eastern European due to low number of available studies. Families from Eastern Europe and Sub Sahara Africa may have less experience with authoritative parenting than families from western countries (e.g., Piko & Balázs, 2012) which might lead to lower effects due to cultural inconsistency (Dwairy et al., 2006). For example, Soviet pedagogy encouraged child-rearing methods designed to foster obedience, and violation of this value could justify punishments (Yakhnich, 2016).

We found no support for Chao's suggestion that authoritative parenting may be associated with less positive child outcomes in Chinese and other East Asian societies than in the western countries (Chao, 1991). However, most studies from Asia have been conducted in urban areas where families might be more influenced by western concepts of parenting than the rural families (Liu & Guo, 2010).

Authoritarian parenting was associated with at least one undesirable child outcome in all compared regions. Although we found fewer statistically significant associations with undesirable outcomes in South-East Asia and Sub Sahara Africa than in North America and Western Europe, we did not find evidence for significantly stronger associations with undesirable outcomes in the three Western regions than in the other regions of the globe, thus indicating more similarities than differences between western and nonwestern countries.

Permissive parenting was associated with undesirable outcomes (internalizing or externalizing problems or poor academic performance) in 15 out of 27 comparisons and with a desirable outcome in two comparisons (fewer internalizing problems in Western Europe and Latin America). Gracia et al. (2008) suggested that positive effects of permissive parenting in Latin America and (South-)West Europe may be explained by the emphasis placed on affection and egalitarian relations in these countries.

Associations of neglectful parenting with undesirable child outcomes were most consistent in North America and Western Europe. However, this parenting style has been assessed less often than the other parenting styles, and on average, only about three to four studies were available for analyses in each of the non-western regions. Thus, restricted statistical power may explain the lower number of significant associations of this parenting style with child outcomes in nonwestern regions.

The present meta-analysis found that positive associations of authoritative parenting with academic achievement as well as the negative associations of authoritarian parenting with academic achievement were weaker in countries with higher individualism scores. Similarly, positive associations of authoritarian parenting with internalizing and externalizing problems were weaker in the more individualist countries. The direction of these moderating effects of collectivism/individualism was not in line with expectations of Rudy and Grusec (2001) as well as Dwairy et al. (2006). Authoritarian parenting may be less normative and more harmful in many collectivist societies than suggested by Rudy and Grusec (2001). For example, Choi, Kim, Kim, and Park (2013) stated that the ultimate goals of establishing and building strong family ties and interdependence in Asian families are likely to discourage a harsh (authoritarian) parenting style. In addition, Rudy and Grusec's arguments might work better for child outcomes that are more strongly related to collectivism/individualism, such as the development of autonomy or respect for authority.

Our results on authoritarian parenting may be explained by the fact that a low prevalence of authoritarian parenting in individualist countries (e.g., Su & Hynie, 2011; Yang et al., 2014) is associated with restricted variance which, again, leads to smaller statistical effect sizes. In contrast, severe forms of authoritarian parenting tend to be more prevalent in (some) collectivist countries (Lansford et al., 2010) where authoritarian parenting is more culturally accepted (Dwairy et al., 2006). As higher use of severe forms of physical punishment has, on average, stronger negative effects (Gershoff, 2002), there will be stronger

associations with undesirable outcomes in countries with higher collectivism scores. Similarly, the high prevalence of authoritative parenting observed in many studies from Western countries (e.g., White, Liu, Gonzales, Knight, & Tein, in press) may have caused restricted variance and lower effect sizes in the more individualist countries. The observed stronger positive association of authoritative parenting with academic achievement in the more collectivist countries may also be based on the fact that the responsiveness of authoritative parents from Asian cultures and possibly other collectivist cultures is often expressed as actively promoting the academic success of their children (Sokrabi, 2005; Stewart et al., 1999). As associations of authoritative parenting with academic performance were less positive in (western) countries with higher individualism scores, one may ask whether our result contrasts with the conclusion of Steinberg (2001) that young people from western countries benefit from having parents who are authoritative. However, we found a positive association of authoritative parenting with academic achievement in North America, Western Europe, and Australia/New Zealand. Our results indicate instead, that children from non-western countries may even benefit more.

Limitations and Conclusions

Some limitations of the present study have to be mentioned. First, we limited our focus on the four parenting styles defined by Baumrind and successors (Baumrind, 1966, Maccoby & Martin, 1983). There were not enough studies available for regional comparisons of other parenting styles that may be particularly relevant in some nonwestern regions, such as “training” (Chao, 1994). Second, analyses of ethnic differences in western countries were limited to four ethnic groups. Too few studies were available on Native Americans or for splitting the four ethnic groups into subgroups (e.g., Chinese-Americans, Japanese-Americans). Third, we had to combine results from different countries of defined regions because too few studies were available from most individual countries. Nonetheless, about 85% of the effect sizes were homogeneous, thus indicating that most results did not vary

within the region. Fourth, the number of available studies was not equally divided across regions, thus reducing the chance for finding significant associations in some non-western regions. Fifth, levels of collectivism/individualism do not only vary between countries but also within countries. Variation within countries (and related variation between different samples from the same country) increase the size of error variance and reduce the test power of the related moderator analysis. Sixth, the large majority of studies from non-western countries have been conducted in urban areas where parental behavior and their effects may be less traditional than in rural areas. Seventh, we limited our focus on moderating effects of ethnicity, region, and collectivism/individualism. Effects of other moderators on the association of parenting styles with child outcomes have been addressed elsewhere (blinded reference). Eighth, similarly to other meta-analyses, we combined data from different cultures, groups, and measures without being able to prove the measurement invariance of the measures across the different studies. Nonetheless, the very few cross-cultural studies that have tested for measurement invariance of parenting styles measures (Leung et al., 1998; Wu et al., 2002) found some support for the invariance of their measure. Non-equivalence of measures should lead to an increase in the variance between studies (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001) and probably to heterogeneous effect sizes across studies. However, about 85% of the effect sizes were found to be homogeneous. Nevertheless, we would like to see more cross-cultural studies with proved invariance of their measures that test whether associations of parenting styles with child outcomes differ between cultural groups. Finally, the analysis of correlational data does not allow for drawing causal conclusions. Associations of parenting styles with child outcomes are, in part, bidirectional (blinded reference). As most available studies on cross-lagged associations of parenting styles with behavior problems and academic achievement have been conducted in western countries and with ethnically heterogeneous samples, we could not analyze ethnic and cross-national differences in these associations.

Despite these limitations, several conclusions can be drawn. First, although there is some ethnic/cultural variability in the association of parenting styles with internalizing and externalizing problems as well as academic achievement, there are more similarities than differences. As authoritative parenting is associated with at least one desirable outcome in all compared ethnic groups and regions of the globe, all parents could be advised or trained to practice this parenting style. Being warm, firm, and, to some extent, accepting of their children's needs for psychological autonomy seems to be appropriate for children and adolescents around the world (Steinberg, 2001).

Because authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles were associated with undesirable child outcomes in three quarters and two thirds of the ethnic and regional analyses, respectively, and not with a desirable outcome in any analysis, we conclude that parents should not use these parenting styles. As there were no negative associations of authoritarian parenting with the assessed outcomes in families with African ethnic backgrounds living in western countries, authoritarian parenting seems to be tolerable in this cultural context. Nonetheless, as authoritative parenting was associated with desirable outcomes in this context, authoritarian parenting would not be the best choice in African-American families.

As permissive parenting was the only parenting style associated with a desirable outcome in some analyses (internalizing problems of children from Western Europe and Latin America), with an undesirable outcome in other analyses (e.g., in North America), and as this parenting style did not show significant associations in other cases, we conclude that effects of this style seem to be most context-specific. While this style (and parental warmth in particular) may help with maintaining or – in Latin American and Western European families – even with increasing emotional well-being, the lack of control may place some children at risk for psychological and academic problems.

With regard to the role of collectivism/individualism we conclude that Rudy and Grusec (2001) and Dwairy et al. (2006) were wrong when suggesting that authoritarian

parenting may show less undesirable associations with child outcomes in the more collectivist societies. The effects of this parenting style may even be more problematic in these countries. With regard to further research, we recommend more studies from rural regions of non-western countries because their results might differ from those of urban regions that are more strongly affected by globalization (Liu & Guo, 2010). Rather than using the global constructs of collectivism/individualism, future research should assess more specific cultural features that are related to cultural differences in the association of parenting styles with child outcomes, such as cultural normativeness of parenting dimensions or styles.

In addition, more longitudinal research from non-western countries and from different ethnic groups within western countries would be welcomed for ethnic and national comparisons of the effects of parenting styles on *change* in child outcomes. In addition, further meta-analyses should test ethnic and national similarities and differences in the association of parenting *dimensions* (such as warmth, behavioral control, autonomy support) with child outcomes.

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Table 1. Ethnic differences in the association of parenting styles with internalizing and externalizing problems, and academic performance (Western samples)

	Internalizing problems					Externalizing problems					Academic performance							
	<i>k</i>	<i>r</i>	95%- <i>CI</i>	<i>Q</i>	FsN	<i>k</i>	<i>r</i>	95%- <i>CI</i>	<i>Q</i>	FsN	<i>k</i>	<i>r</i>	95%- <i>CI</i>	<i>Q</i>	FsN			
Authoritative parenting				5.05					8.08 ^a					14.31 ^b				
European	8	-.15 ^c	-.22	-.08	4.82	262	7	-.23 ^c	-.28	-.16	7.12	445	17	.20 ^c	.15	.24	14.13	3653
African	9	-.09 ^a	-.17	-.01	9.06	20	16	-.23 ^c	-.27	-.18	22.58	899	7	.13 ^c	.06	.21	6.84	56
Hispanic	29	-.08 ^c	-.13	-.04	36.97	284	15	-.14 ^c	-.19	-.08	16.20	193	11	.17 ^c	.11	.23	11.88	283
Asian	21	-.15 ^c	-.20	-.10	21.33	576	16	-.16 ^c	-.22	-.10	11.53	354	20	.08 ^c	.03	.13	9.36	171
Authoritarian parenting				12.00 ^b					6.23					7.96 ^a				
European	9	.12 ^c	.05	.19	.96	165	10	.10 ^b	.03	.18	4.23	161	13	-.12 ^c	-.17	-.07	11.85	281
African	9	-.01	-.09	.07	6.17	0	11	.05	-.03	.13	8.21	0	8	-.05	-.13	.03	5.71	0
Hispanic	28	.13 ^c	.08	.17	29.06	534	15	.12 ^c	.05	.20	19.76	142	11	.01	-.07	.08	13.78	0
Asian	16	.16 ^c	.10	.22	25.01	590	13	.19 ^c	.12	.27	15.31	600	19	-.06 ^a	-.11	-.00	19.63	75
Permissive parenting				2.95					3.54					4.35				
European	6	-.08	-.15	.00	1.96	0	7	-.01	-.12	.10	8.16	0	8	.05	-.01	.10	10.76	0
African	10	-.01	-.09	.06	4.52	0	12	.05	-.05	.16	14.61	0	8	.03	-.05	.10	5.09	0
Hispanic	16	.01	-.05	.07	14.71	0	11	.11 ^a	.00	.21	5.68	12	9	-.02	-.09	.05	8.97	0
Asian	8	-.01	-.09	.07	15.49 ^a	0	6	.13 ^a	.00	.26	7.54	5	14	-.03	-.09	.03	7.86	0
Neglectful parenting				1.90					2.07					1.73				
European	6	.10 ^c	.06	.14	3.67	33	6	.16 ^c	.07	.24	3.75	256	8	-.15 ^c	-.18	-.12	11.49	523
African	9	.15 ^c	.09	.20	15.46	57	9	.21 ^c	.13	.28	15.95 ^a	219	7	-.16 ^c	-.22	-.12	6.48	55
Hispanic	7	.12 ^c	.08	.17	4.70	76	6	.12 ^a	.02	.22	2.78	32	5	-.16 ^c	-.22	-.11	4.35	63
Asian	6	.12 ^c	.05	.19	11.73 ^a	29	4	.17 ^b	.04	.30	.16	20	8	-.13 ^c	-.17	-.08	2.56	108

Note. = number of effect sizes included; *r* = effect size (weighted mean correlation coefficient); *Z* = test for significance of *r*. 95 % *CI* = lower and upper limits of 95% confidence interval; *Q* = test for homogeneity of effect sizes. FsN = fail-safe *N*. ^a *p*<.05, ^b *p*<.01, ^c *p*<.001.

Table 2. Regional differences in the association of parenting styles with internalizing problems, externalizing problems, and academic performance

	Internalizing problems						Externalizing problems					Academic performance						
	<i>k</i>	<i>r</i>	95%-CI	<i>Q</i>	<i>FsN</i>	<i>k</i>	<i>r</i>	95%-CI	<i>Q</i>	<i>FsN</i>	<i>k</i>	<i>r</i>	95%-CI	<i>Q</i>	<i>FsN</i>			
Authoritative parenting style						27.76 ^c						27.70 ^b						33.17 ^c
North America	172	-.13 ^c	-.15	-.11	131.80	28,850	140	-.16 ^c	-.18	-.14	133.87	39,860	111	.15 ^c	.12	.18	58.57	42,017
Western Europe	43	-.19 ^c	-.22	-.15	45.30	4475	63	-.13 ^c	-.16	-.10	48.73	5839	13	.12 ^a	.05	.19	8.21	687
Eastern Europe	3	-.11	-.24	.02	6.84 ^a	0	10	-.12	-.24	.00	3.29	0	3	.26 ^c	.09	.42	6.37 ^a	69
Latin America	10	-.10 ^a	-.17	-.03	9.21	146	4	-.11	-.22	.00	1.20	0	0					
East Asia	21	-.19 ^c	-.23	-.13	13.39	934	36	-.15 ^c	-.19	-.11	8.60	2082	13	.14 ^a	.05	.23	16.49	141
South Asia	16	-.16 ^c	-.22	-.09	26.12 ^a	452	18	-.18 ^c	-.24	-.12	16.67	498	17	.24 ^c	.18	.31	28.35 ^b	2871
South-East Asia	4	-.10 ^a	-.17	-.03	1.66	15	18	-.11 ^c	-.16	-.06	10.12	294	13	.11 ^a	.02	.19	12.13	224
Arab-Muslim countries	23	-.18 ^c	-.23	-.13	36.37 ^a	689	16	-.25 ^c	-.30	-.19	31.12 ^b	1496	22	.25 ^c	.19	.31	13.88	3362
Subsahara Africa	12	-.06	-.12	.00	17.50	0	8	-.08	-.16	.00	19.13 ^b	0	19	.28 ^c	.22	.35	52.92 ^c	3542
Australia/New Zealand	6	-.24 ^c	-.32	-.15	2.04	92	3	-.35 ^c	-.47	-.21	.73	35	8	.23 ^c	.13	.33	14.02	291
All studies	313	-.14 ^c	-.16	-.13	311.61	122,620	317	-.15 ^c	-.17	-.14	288.81	179,514	219	.18 ^c	.16	.20	214.74	207,762
Authoritarian parenting style						31.38 ^c						19.13 ^a						14.61
North America	152	.13 ^c	.10	.19	152.93	15,773	151	.14 ^c	.12	.16	109.89	19,107	93	-.06 ^c	-.09	-.02	61.28	1103
Western Europe	37	.15 ^c	.10	.18	29.34	1392	61	.18 ^c	.14	.21	50.32	6294	9	-.12 ^b	-.21	-.03	3.19	354
Eastern Europe	6	.14 ^b	.04	.24	5.52	35	17	.12 ^a	.03	.20	9.57	194	3	-.28 ^c	-.47	-.08	1.31	58
Latin America	12	.23 ^c	.16	.30	11.29	818	6	.12 ^a	.01	.22	8.75	19	0					
East Asia	27	.17 ^c	.11	.21	30.74	1556	41	.21 ^c	.17	.25	44.68	10,201	18	-.09 ^b	-.16	-.02	14.12	371

South Asia	13	.26 ^c	.20	.33	11.11	619	16	.22 ^c	.16	.28	5.19	752	16	-.11 ^a	-.19	-.03	17.13	213
South-East Asia	4	.05	-.07	.16	.66	0	13	.13 ^b	.06	.19	9.63	136	12	-.07	-.16	.02	18.40	0
Arab-Muslim countries	31	.16 ^c	.11	.20	35.64	1057	24	.17 ^c	.12	.22	45.73 ^b	2918	21	-.13 ^c	-.19	-.06	30.41	539
Subsahara Africa	11	.06	-.01	.13	4.99	0	9	.10 ^a	.01	.18	8.00	5	17	-.15 ^c	-.22	-.08	39.91 ^c	614
Australia/New Zealand	6	.17 ^c	.08	.26	3.29	93	9	.23 ^c	.13	.33	6.58	131	8	.01	-.09	.12	6.72	0
All studies	302	.14 ^c	.13	.16	281.64	99,050	350	.16 ^c	.14	.18	313.90	199,523	198	-.09 ^c	-.11	-.07	194.25	29,502
Permissive parenting style					41.83 ^c				27.52 ^b				24.73 ^b					
North America	109	.03 ^a	.00	.05	88.48	11	128	.08 ^b	.06	.11	81.22	3117	83	-.04 ^b	-.07	-.01	60.28	1523
Western Europe	32	-.05 ^a	-.09	-.01	26.85	127	66	.03	-.00	.07	67.99	0	9	.08	-.00	.15	7.94	0
Eastern Europe	2	-.01	-.46	.43	.04	0	12	-.02	-.15	.12	4.68	0	3	-.11	-.33	.11	2.02	0
Latin America	5	-.19 ^c	-.27	-.11	1.07	125	3	.04	-.09	.27	2.08	0	0					
East Asia	9	.07 ^a	.00	.14	5.97	29	11	.09 ^a	.01	.17	10.38	22	10	-.15 ^c	-.22	-.06	15.40	151
South Asia	14	.01	-.06	.07	21.36 ^a	0	15	.11 ^b	.04	.19	8.09	270	16	-.11 ^b	-.18	-.04	32.80 ^b	326
South-East Asia	4	.15 ^a	.03	.25	4.17	36	12	.13 ^c	.06	.21	9.05	243	11	-.04	-.13	.04	5.01	0
Arab-Muslim countries	22	.04	-.02	.09	36.16 ^a	0	16	.12 ^c	.05	.19	16.11	283	21	-.08 ^a	-.13	-.02	20.37	143
Subsahara Africa	10	.06	-.01	.13	7.58	0	8	.24 ^c	.15	.32	19.31 ^a	449	16	-.11 ^c	-.17	-.04	24.75	62
Australia/New Zealand	0						1	.27	-.02	.52		0	6	-.15 ^b	-.24	-.04	2.46	166
All studies	208	.01	-.00	.04	189.83	0	271	.08 ^c	.06	.10	229.96	18,268	176	-.06 ^c	-.08	-.04	175.59	11,257
Neglectful parenting style					14.28				11.99				14.47					
North America	54	.14 ^c	.10	.16	60.61	5069	57	.17 ^c	.14	.21	55.10	14,628	41	-.15 ^c	-.19	-.11	22.32	8898

Western Europe	23	.13 ^c	.08	.18	15.32	342	33	.17 ^c	.13	.21	25.90	3921	8	-.16 ^c	-.23	-.09	5.11	636
Eastern Europe	2	.03	-.43	.48	.03	0	2	-.07	-.50	.39	.16	0	3	-.24 ^a	-.43	-.04	.51	35
Latin America	9	.05	-.02	.12	9.63	0	2	.14	-.02	.30	.01	0	0					
East Asia	2	.04	-.08	.17	.11	0	5	.14 ^b	.05	.23	16.52 ^b	31	8	-.04	-.12	.04	10.90	0
South Asia	5	.26 ^c	.13	.38	3.11	55	2	.24 ^c	.10	.38	.82	35	3	-.13 ^a	-.25	-.01	.84	19
South-East Asia	0						2	.26 ^b	.10	.41	1.30	27	2	-.13	-.26	.02	.01	0
Arab-Muslim countries	3	.21 ^c	.10	.32	4.76	28	1	-.06	-.39	.28	.00	0	2	.04	-.10	.18	3.48	0
Subsahara Africa	3	.09	-.02	.19	11.30 ^b	0	2	.21 ^b	.05	.34	2.34	44	10	-.16 ^c	-.22	-.09	35.42 ^c	229
Australia/New Zealand	3	.08	-.02	.18	.03	0	4	-.07	-.24	.12	.24	0	2	-.20 ^a	-.36	-.02	.13	10
All studies	104	.13 ^c	.11	.15	108.76	14,621	109	.18 ^c	.16	.21	117.40	44,453	79	-.14 ^c	-.16	-.11	78.79	25,069

Note. All analyses controlled for mean age, quality of the parenting and child outcome measure, mono-informant bias, sampling (clinical vs.

community-based), study design (cross-sectional vs. longitudinal), and reporter of parenting and child outcome. k = number of effect sizes included;

r = effect size (weighted mean correlation coefficient); Z = test for significance of r . 95 % CI = lower and upper limits of 95% confidence interval;

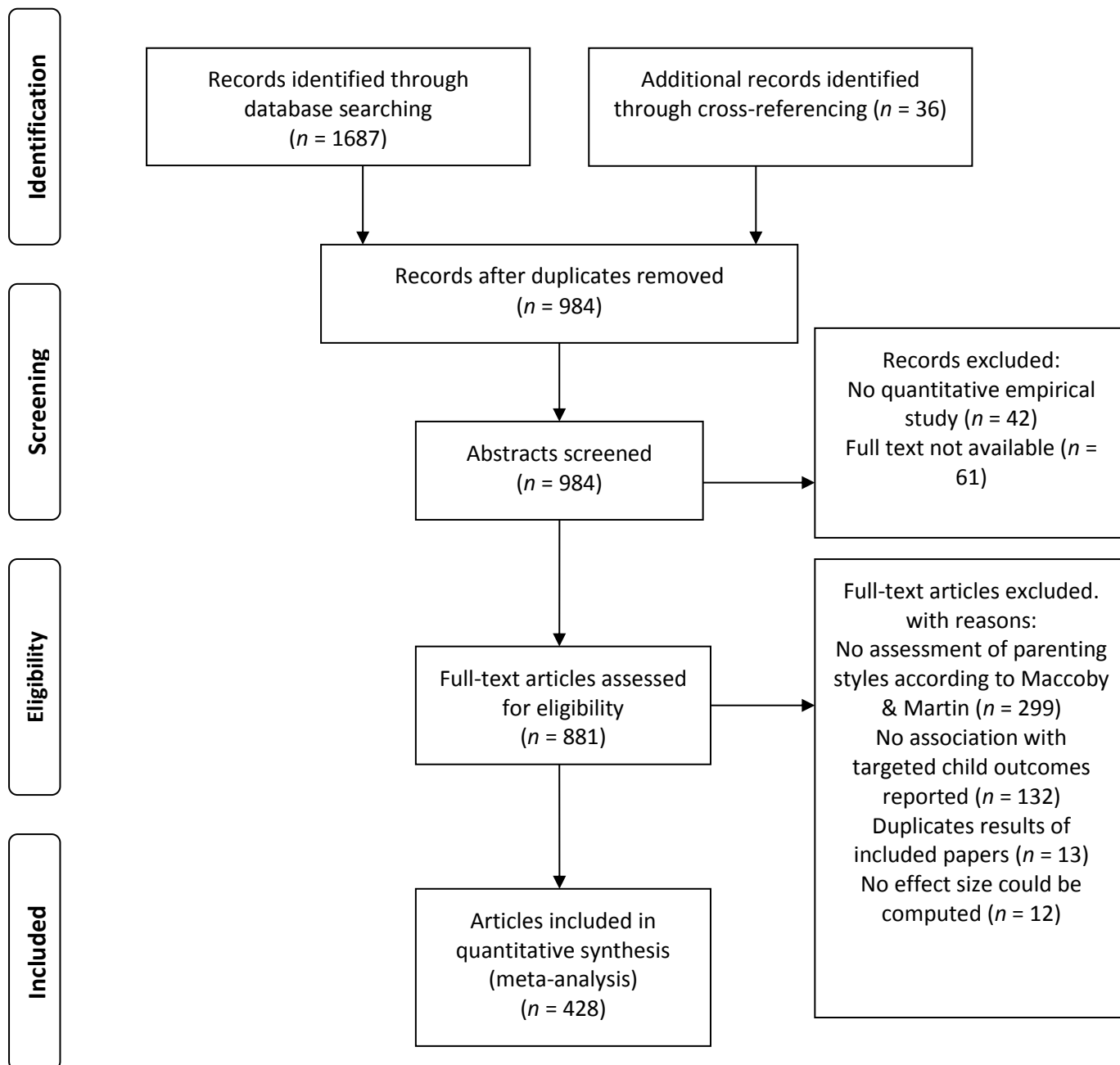
Q = test for homogeneity of effect sizes. FsN = fail-safe N . ^a $p < .05$, ^b $p < .01$, ^c $p < .001$.

Table 3. Moderating effects of the national level of collectivism/individualism on the association between parenting styles with internalizing and externalizing problems, and academic performance

	Internalizing problems				Externalizing problems				Academic performance			
	<i>k</i>	<i>B</i>	β	<i>Z</i>	<i>k</i>	<i>B</i>	β	<i>Z</i>	<i>k</i>	<i>B</i>	β	<i>Z</i>
Authoritative parenting	308	.0002	.04	.64	312	-.0003	-.07	-1.27	217	-.0010	-.18	-2.61**
Authoritarian parenting	297	-.0009	-.17	-2.83**	344	-.0008	-.16	-2.95**	195	.0009	.16	2.33*
Permissive parenting	205	-.0002	-.04	-.58	270	-.0003	-.06	-.90	173	.0006	.11	1.42
Neglectful parenting	102	.0001	.02	.16	109	-.0001	-.01	-.11	79	-.0008	-.18	-1.54

Note. Regression analyses controlled for mono-informant bias and use of clinical samples. *k* = number of studies; *B*/ β non-/standardized regression coefficient, *t* = test for significance. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Supplementary material S1: PRISMA 2009 Flow Diagram



S2: Studies Included in the Meta-Analysis

- Abar, B., Carter, K.L., & Winsler, A. (2009). The effects of maternal parenting style and religious commitment on self-regulation, academic achievement, and risk behavior among African-American parochial college students. *Journal of Adolescence*, 32, 259-272.
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S3: Selected Characteristics of the Included Studies

Author	Country	N	Mean Age	Percent girls	Child outcome
Abadi et al. (2015)	Iran	500	.	57	A
Abar et al. (2009)	USA	85	.	65	A
Abdi et al. (2010)	Iran	120	15.0	.	E
Abedini et al. (2012)	Iran	500	14.7	49	A
Addai (2013)	Ghana	208	.	.	A
Addelaim (2003)	Saudi Arabia	331	16.7	0	I
Ahmed & Braithwait (2004)	USA	610	10.9	54	E
Aiyappa & Archaya (2012)	India	973	17.0	48	A
Ajilchi et al. (2013)	Iran	80	10.5	100	I
Akcinar & Baydar (2014)	Turkey	123	3.5	53	E
Akhter et al. (2011)	Pakistan	200	10.0	.	I, E
Akinsola & Udoka (2013)	Nigeria	567	11.5	51	I
Alfiasari et al. (2011)	Indonesia	107	18.5	49	A
Al-Matalka & Hussainat (2012)	Jordan	300	14.5	0	E
Alizadeh et al. (2011)	Iran	681	.	51	I, E
Alonso-Geta (2012)	Spain	1103	10.2	47	E
Aminabadi et al. (2012)	Iran	117	5.2	53	I
Andal et al. (2016)	Philippines	59	14.0	56	E
Anton et al. (2015)	USA (AF)	194	13.0	45	E
Arora (2014)	India	1000	.	50	A
Asher (2006)	USA	22	.	0	E
Assadi et al. (2007)	Iran	240	14.0	50	A
Atzaba-Poria (2011)	Israel	75	5.5	51	I
Atzaba-Poria (2011)	Israel	70	5.5	57	I, E
Aucoin et al. (2006)	USA	98	12.4	47	I, E
Aunola et al. (2000)	Sweden	354	14.0	100	I
Avazpour & Mahmoudi (2015)	Iran	382	16.5	50	A
Avenevoli et al. (1999; 14 samples)	USA (AF, AS, H, W)	3213	.	.	I, E, A

Aye et al. (2008)	Singapore	2090	15.5	53	A
Bakhla et al. (2013)	India	146	12.7	45	I
Baldry & Farrington (1998)	Italy	238	12.7	48	E
Baldry & Farrington (2000)	Italy	238	12.7	48	E
Barrios (2014)	Brazil	423	16.3	53	E
Barton & Hirsch (2016)	USA	524	19.4	52	I
Barton & Kirtley (2012)	USA	290	19.0	58	I
Batool (2013)	Pakistan	109	16.7	52	E
Batool & Bond (2015)	Pakistan	225	17.0	50	E
Baumrind (1991)	USA	139	15.0	48	I, E, A
Baumrind et al. (2010)	USA	87	4.5	45	I, E
Besharat et al. (2011)	Iran	371	16.0	51	A
Beyers & Goosens (1999)	Belgium	558	14.5	56	I, E, A
Blissett et al. (2011)	UK	77	4.5	47	I, E
Blitstein et al. (2005)	USA	2335	12.7	51	E
Bolkan et al. (2010)	USA	3353	12.9	47	E
Boon (2007a)	Australia	879	.	.	A
Boon (2007b)	Australia	112			A
Braza et al. (2015)	Spain	47	5.2	0	I, E
Braza et al. (2015)	Spain	42	5.2	0	I, E
Bronstein et al. (2005)	USA	93	10.7	55	A
Bronte-Tinkew et al. (2006)	USA	5345	15.3	48	E
Brunet (2013)	Canada	66	7.4	30	E
Burt et al. (2006)	USA (AF)	754	10.5	54	E
Butnaru & Gherasim (2010)	Romania	133	13.0	0	I, A
Calvete et al. (2014)	Spain	1698	14.1	49	E
Calvete et al. (in press)	Spain	591	14.2	50	E
Calzada et al. (2012)	USA (H)	232	4.7	53	I, E
Calzada et al. (2012)	USA (H)	210	4.7	46	I, E
Calzada et al. (in press)	USA (H)	369	3.8	49	I
Calzada et al. (in press)	USA (H)	292	4.8	52	I

Camisasca et al. (2010)	Italy	82	3.4	51	I, E
Campana et al. (2008)	USA	371	14.8	60	I, E
Camras et al. (2012)	China	150	12.9	59	I, E
Camras et al. (2012)	USA	168	12.7	50	I
Candeias & Carvalhosa (2014)	Portugal	411	10.4	48	I, E
Carson et al. (1999)	India	107	13.7	47	A, E
Carson (2014)	New Zealand	88	15.0	69	E
Casanova et al. (2005)	Spain	310	13.5	47	A
Casas et al. (2006)	USA	122	4.3	57	E
Castaneda et al. (2012)	Spain	28	15.8	36	E
Cebrian (2009)	Spain	1115	14.8	57	A, E
Cenk & Demir (in press)	Turkey	1353	16.0	48	A
Cepe (2014)	New Zealand	106	16.7	53	A
Cepe (2014)	New Zealand	211	19.3	68	A
Chan (2010)	Hong Kong	185	7.1	49	I, E
Chan (2013)	Hong Kong	1095	13.3	47	I, E
Chan & Koo (2011)	UK	1289	15.0	.	I, E, A
Chan & Koo (2011)	UK	1396	15.0	.	I, E, A
Chan & Poon (2015)	Hong Kong	209	9.5	44	I
Chandler (2006)	USA	264	19.3	65	A
Chang (2010)	South Korea	181	14.5	65	I, E, A
Chang (2013)	Hong Kong	361	13.4	59	E
Chao (1996)	USA	323	8.4	.	A
Chao (2001)	USA (W)	208	.	51	A
Chao (2001)	USA (AS)	148	.	51	A
Chao (2001)	USA (AS)	176	.	57	A
Chapell & Overton (1998)	USA	51	15.3	50	I
Chau (2010)	USA (AS)	30	14.1	33	A
Cheevers (2010)	Ireland	197	4.7	43	I, E
Chen et al. (1997)	China	263	7.9	47	I, E, A
Chen et al. (2005)	China	535	11.1	53	E

Chen et al. (2011)	China	425	7.7	55	E
Chen et al. (2014)	USA (AS)	258	7.4	48	I, E
Chen et al. (2015)	USA (AS)	258	7.4	48	A
Chu (2014)	Taiwan	460		50	A
Chung & Lim (2016)	South Korea	164	12.5	58	I
Chung (2009)	Taiwan	208	17.8	79	A
Clark et al. (2015)	USA (W)	184	19.0	72	E
Clark et al. (2015)	USA (AF)	128	19.0	72	E
Cohen & Rice (1997)	USA	386	.	51	A
Cullerton-Sen et al. (2008)	USA	410	9.9	48	E
Daglar et al. (2011)	Turkey	767	4.8	49	I; E
Dawson (1996)	USA	137	.	46	A
De la Torre-Cruz et al. (2014)	Spain	371	13.1	0	E
DeBaryshe et al. (2001)	USA (AS)	55	14.0	51	E
Dehue et al. (2012)	Netherlands	1141	11.7	49	E
Dehyadegary et al. (2012)	Iran	382	16.5	66	A
Den Exter Blokland et al. (2002)	Netherlands	170	14.9	0	E
De Oliveira (2015)	USA	225	.	37	A
Di Maggio & Zappulla (2014)	Italy	213	15.5	54	I, E
Diaz (2005)	USA (H)	107	9.0	44	I, E
Diaz (2009)	USA	93	15.4	100	I
Dietz et al. (2008)	USA	112	12.2	45	I
Dornbusch et al. (1987)	USA (AF, AS, H, W)	6836	15.6	48	A
Dou et al. (in press)	China	3213	15.0	51	E
Dougherty et al. (2013)	USA	541	3.6	46	I
Doyle et al. (2003)	Canada	239	13.1	.	I, E
Driscoll et al. (2008)	USA (H)	820	15.4	53	I, E
Dwairy (2004a)	Israel	118	14.0	65	I, E
Dwairy (2004a)	Israel	115	14.0	71	I, E
Dwairy (2004b)	Israel	204	13.5	0	I, E

Dwairy (2004b)	Israel	227	13.5	100	I, E
Dwairy & Menchar (2006)	Egypt	351	16.5	40	I, E
Dwairy et al. (2014)	Israel, Algeria, Lebanon	975	15.5	48	I, E
Dyer et al. (2016)	USA	262	15.3		I, E
Ehrenreich et al. (2014)	USA	296	9.0	53	E
Eisenberg et al. (2009)	China	697	8.3	45	I, E
El-Ray et al. (2011)	Egypt	163	13.5	50	A
Elias & Yee (2009)	Malaysia	247	.	59	A
Fakeye (2014)	Nigeria	2410	.	53	A
Farrington & Hawkins (1991)	UK	411	8.0	0	E
Farver et al. (2007)	USA (AS, W)	360	16.1	46	I, A
Feldman (2011)	USA	2086	15.8	47	I, E, A
Feldman et al. (1991)	Australia	155	15.9	59	E
Feldman et al. (1991)	Hong Kong	141	16.4	62	E
Feldman et al. (1991)	USA (W)	155	16.5	57	E
Fendrich et al. (1990)	USA (W)	178	17.0	52	I, E
Fili (2016)	Albania	310	2.9	48	E
Fite et al. (2009)	USA (AF)	80	8.9	29	I, E
Fletcher et al. (1995)	USA	4431	.	100	I, E, A
Fletcher et al. (2008)	USA	370	11.0	52	I, E, A
Forehand & Nousianinen (1993)	USA	63	14.0	51	I
Frankel (2008)	USA	226	12.2	54	I
Fuentes et al. (2015a)	Spain (W)	487	13.1	54	A
Fuentes et al. (2015b)	Spain (W)	772	15.0	46	E
Fung et al. (2013)	Hong Kong	1485	12.5	.	E
Gallimore & Kurdek (1992)	USA	35	13.6	74	I
Garcia, E. et al. (2008)	Spain	489	.	52	I, E
Garcia, F. & Garcia (2009)	Spain	1416	14.9	57	I, E; A
Garcia, F. & Gracia (2010)	Spain	948	12.3	52	E, A
Garg et al. (2005)	Canada	1054	.	52	A

Garg et al. (2005)	India	74	.	35	A
Garthe (2011)	USA	100	19.8	54	E
Gelley (2011)	Canada, USA (AS)	648	9.4	100	I, E
Georgiou (2008)	Cyprus	377	11.6	49	E
Georgiou et al. (2013)	Cyprus	231	13.0	52	E
Ghanbari et al. (2009)	Iran	271	8.0	0	I
Gherasim et al. (in press)	Romania	123	10.3	51	I
Gherasim et al. (in press)	Russia	112	9.9	58	I
Gherasim et al. (in press)	France	90	9.9	56	I
Gidey (2002)	Ethiopia	300	16.7	49	A
Ginsburg & Bronstein (1993)	USA	93	10.7	55	A
Glasgow et al. (1997)	USA	2353	16.0	52	A
Glendinning (2015)	Russia	1539	15.0	.	I
Goetzinger (2014)	USA	179	13.7	48	A
Gomez-Ortiz et al. (2015)	Spain	626	14.1	50	E
Gracia et al. (2012)	Spain (W)	1015	14.9	58	E, A
Grant et al. (2005)	USA (AF)	105	12.9	47	I, E
Greening et al. (2010)	USA (AF)	172	9.4	29	I, E
Greeson et al. (2014)	USA	160	8.4/8.7/9.1	.	E
Gulley et al. (2014)	USA	75	12.6	59	I
Gunnoe et al. (2006)	USA	235	12.3	44	I, E
Hajiyar & Rezaei (2014)	Iran	205	.	49	I
Harper (2014)	Philippines	133	11.5	65	I, E
Hart et al. (2000)	Russia	207	5.1	51	E
Hassan & Ee (2015)	Malaysia	270	11.0	50	E
Heaven & Ciarrochi (2008)	Australia	563	12.3	51	A
Heilbrun & Orr (1965)	USA	289	.	40	E
Heller et al. (1996)	USA	77	4.6	52	E
Hesari & Hejazi (2011)	Iran	211	.	100	E
Hickman & Crossland (2004)	USA	257	19.0	53	A
Hillstrom (2009)	USA (H)	122	16.6	60	A

Hines & Holcomb-McCoy (2013)	USA (AF)	153	17.0	0	A
Hinnant et al. (in press)	USA	252	15.8	47	E
Hinshaw et al. (1997)	USA	133	9.0	0	E
Hirabayashi (2006)	USA (AS)	141	20.0	51	I
Hiu (2010)	USA (AS)	30	14.1	33	A
Hoeve et al. (2007, study 2)	Netherlands	128	12.9	0	E
Hoeve et al. (2011)	Netherlands	318	17.2	50	E
Hoggan (2008)	USA	60	16.0	44	A
Hokoda et al. (2006)	Taiwan	325	14.5	58	E
Hong et al. (2005)	Taiwan	1672	16.7	53	A
Hsieh (1998)	Taiwan	230	11.7	53	E, A
Huan & Tan (1999)	Singapore	359	15.0	.	E
Huber (2013)	USA	182	18.2	85	I
Ibukunolu (2013)	Nigeria	390	.	.	A
Igbo & Ihejiene (2014)	Cameroon	350		46	A, E
Inam et al. (2016)	Pakistan	70	13.0		A
Jabagchourian et al. (2014)	USA (H)	73	.	42	A
Jackson et al. (1998)	USA	1715	.	53	I, E
Jackson et al. (1998)	USA	224	16.0	57	I, E
Jankowska et al. (2014)	Poland	21	10.9	57	I, E, A
Jewell et al. (2008)	USA	39	4.4	50	E
Jiménez-Barbero et al. (2016)	Spain	252	13.5	51	E
Johnson et al. (1991)	USA	312	14.5	57	A
Kang & Moore (2011)	China	122	14.7	.	A
Kanmani (2013)	India	600	.	50	A
Karre & Mounts (2012)	USA	177	19.1	0	I, E
Kashahu et al. (2014)	Albania	220	.	66	A
Kauser & Pinguart (under review)	Pakistan	1140	13.4	51	E
Kemunto (2016)	Kenya	389	16.7	40	A, E
Kenney et al. (2015)	USA	289	19.0	59	A

Kerr et al. (2012)	Sweden	978	13.7	49	I, E
Keshvarpanah et al. (2014)	Iran	400		0	E
Khan et al. (2014)	Malaysia	200	15.5	48	A
Khasakhala et al. (2012)	Kenia	1276	16.2	41	I
Khasakhala et al. (2013)	Kenia	250	16.9	41	I
Khodabakhsh et al. (2014)	Iran	278	16.4	55	I
Kim & Rohner (2002)	USA (AS)	245	13.9	55	A
Kiuru et al. (2012)	Finland	864	6.2	46	A
Kiuru et al. (2014)	Finland	2137	6.2	48	A
Kleftaras & Alexopoulos (in press)	Greece	640	11.8	50	I
Kom (2012)	Singapore	1193	13.3	47	E
Kordestani (2006)	India	400	15.0	50	A
Kordestani (2006)	Iran	400	14.1	50	A
Kugbey & Archaribasam (2016)	Ghana	120	17.1	50	I
Kumar (2011)	India	300	15.3	50	I
Kusterer (2009)	USA	136	17.8	60	A
Kwan & Leung (2015)	Hong Kong	102	.	61	A
Laboviti (2015)	Italy	100	16.5	54	I
Lai & McBride-Chang (2001)	Hong Kong	120	16.1	63	I
Lamborn et al. (1991)	USA	4081	16.0	52	A
Lange et al. (2005)	Ireland	49	8.3	0	I
Lange et al. (2005)	Ireland	47	8.5	0	I
Latouf & Dunn (2010)	South Africa	24	5.0	.	E
Lee, B. (2014)	New Zealand (AS)	207	7.8	53	I, E
Lee et al. (2006)	USA	7866	.	.	A
Lee et al. (2014)	USA (AS)	258	7.4	48	I, E
Lee, C.H. (2010)	South Korea	1238	14.8	42	E
Lee, S.S. & Wong (2009)	Hong Kong	778	12.5	48	E
Leinonen et al. (2003)	Finland	527	12.0	49	I, E
Leslie & Cook (2015)	USA	113	14.7	58	I

Leung et al. (1998)	Australia (W)	133	16.1	60	A
Leung et al. (1998)	Hong Kong	107	16.3	59	A
Leung et al. (1998)	USA (W)	142	16.6	57	A
Levendosky et al. (2003)	USA	103	4.0	55	I, E
Leykam (1999)	USA	39	13.9	38	A
Li et al. (2010)	China	79	19.9	58	I
Li et al. (2010)	USA (W)	58	19.1	60	I
Liem et al. (2010)	USA	1325	18.0	52	I
Lindahl (1998)	USA	81	8.6	0	E
Lin et al. (2011)	South Korea	519	9.8	51	I
Lin et al. (2011)	South Korea	157	9.4	57	I
Lipps et al. (2012)	Bahamas	217	14.3	53	I
Lipps et al. (2012)	Jamaica	278	15.1	53	I
Lipps et al. (2012)	St. Kitts and Nevis	737	14.1	48	I
Lipps et al. (2012)	St. Vincent	716	15.5	46	I
Loboviti (2015)	Italy	100	16.5	54	I
Lokoyi (2015)	Nigeria	50			E
Lotfi Azimi et al. (2012)	Iran	380	15.0	52	E
Lundt (1988)	USA	190	17.1	42	A
Luyckx et al. (2011)	Belgium	429	15.8	47	I
Mahdavi et al. (2013)	Iran	120	6.0	0	I, E
Makri-Botsari & Karagianni (2014)	Greece	396		52	E
Martin & Waite (1994)	Australia	291	15.0	44	I
Martin et al. (2004)	Australia	2596	13.0	45	I
Martinez et al. (2013)	Spain	673	15.5	52	E
Masud et al. (2016)	Pakistan	313	.	30	A
Maximo & Loy (2014)	Philippines	876	.	55	E
McHale et al. (2000)	China	100	4.7	36	I, E
McKinney et al. (2008)	USA	475	19.2	68	I
McKinney et al. (2011)	USA	526	19.2	69	I

McKinney et al. (2011)	USA	.	19.2	0	
McPherson (2004)	USA	3174	.	53	IA
Medinnus (1965)	USA	60	15.0	0	E
Meklit (2014)	Ethiopia	110	18.1	59	II
Meyer et al. (2015)	USA	303	3.0	51	I
Michalcio & Solomon (2002)	Canada	15	2.5	33	E
Michels et al. (2013)	Belgium	464	8.4	51	I
Milevsky et al. (2007)	USA	272	.	47	I
Miller et al. (2011)	Thailand	420	13.5	51	E
Mills (2003)	Canada	88	3.8	100	I
Mofid et al. (2012)	Iran	400		100	A
Moghaddam et al. (2016)	Iran	206	15.5	53	E
Mohajer et al. (2016)	Iran	300		100	A
Mohammadi et al. (2013)	Iran	100	15.5	50	I
Moremi (2002)	South Africa	61	6.5	54	I, E
Mosavi et al. (2008)	Iran	273	8.0	0	E
Mowen & Schroeder (2015)	USA (AF, H, W)	8984	14.0	47	E
Mozafari (2014)	Tajikistan	262		50	A
Muhtadie et al. (2013)	China	372	7.7	56	I
Munyi (2013)	Kenia	314	18.2	67	A
Murray (2012)	Ireland	8568	9.0	49	A
Naz & Kausar (2013)	Pakistan	100	16.0	100	I
Nel (2013)	Hong Kong	60	.	.	A
Nelson et al. (2011)	USA	403	18.9	62	I
Nelson et al. (2014)	Russia	119	5.0	55	E
Nguyen (2008)	USA (AS)	290	14.2	51	I
Nguyen (2009)	USA (AS)	159	16.0	56	A
Nijhoff & Engels (2007)	Netherlands	670	19.0	62	I, E
Nikoogoftar & Seghatoleslam (2015)	Iran	60	.	0	I; E
Noack & Kracke (2003)	Germany	95	16.8	62	E

Nwosu et al. (2016)	Nigeria	240	15.5	.	I
Nyarko (2011)	Ghana	239	.	55	A
Obi & Okeke (2014)	Nigeria	813	17.0	46	A
Odubote (2008)	USA	1469	12.3	49	E
Odubote (2008)	Nigeria	957	14.9	52	E
Ofosu-Asdimah (2013)	Ghana	322	17.9	46	A
Ogunleye et al. (2013)	Nigeria	116	15.2	47	A
Okamoto (2005)	USA	242	19.2	60	A
Okorodudu (2010)	Nigeria	404	15.5	.	E
Oliveira et al. (2002)	Brazil	50	4.5	50	I, E
Omar et al. (2012)	Malaysia	55	.	.	A
Otto et al. (in press)	Germany	176	5.2	52	I
Owano (2010)	Kenia	341	17.4	43	A
Oyserman et al. (2002)	USA	70	13.1	51	I
Özbaran et al. (2009)	Turkey	120	12.5	50	I
Pacheco et al. (1999)	Brazil	193	15.8	63	I, E
Pang et al. (2013)	Singapore	1148	13.2	47	I, E
Park & Bauer (2002)	USA (AS, H, W)	11490	.	.	A
Parsasirat et al. (2013)	Iran	546	16.0	54	A
Pascual-Sagastizabal et al. (2014)	Spain	159	8.0	56	E
Paulson et al. (1998)	USA	230	10.9	53	A
Paulussen-Hoogeboom et al. (2008)	Netherlands	196	3.4	50	I, E
Pederson et al. (in press)	USA	392	9.4	29	I, E
Pelegrina et al. (2002)	Spain	372	13.0	.	A
Pereira et al. (2009)	Portugal	519	8.9	52	I, E
Pezella et al. (in press)	USA (W)	114	14.0	0	E
Pezella et al. (in press)	USA (AF)	413	14.0	0	E
Pilarinos (2014)	Canada	48	8.4	52	E
Pilarinos (2014)	Canada	31	8.5	40	E
Pisacano (2006)	USA	41	19.5	59	A

Pittman & Chase-Lansdale (2001)	USA (AF)	302	16.2	100	I, E, A
Platt (2013)	USA	189	10.4	37	E
Pong et al. (2005)	USA	17996	.	.	A
Pong et al. (2010)	Taiwan (AS)	12211	11.6	49	A
Pong et al. (2010)	USA (W)	10668	.	50	A
Poon (2010)	Hong Kong	399	10.3	50	I
Posey (2014)	USA	181	14.6	29	A
Prabrandi & Yuliati (2016)	Indonesia	120	16.0	57	A
Pretorius (2000)	South Africa	50	6.0	58	I
Prinzie et al. (2010)	Netherlands	434	10.8	52	E
Querido et al. (2002)	USA (AF)	108	4.7	55	E
Radziszewska et al. (1996)	USA (AF, AS, H, W)	3993	16.0	52	I
Rahmipour et al. (2015)	Iran	400	14	100	A
Rana et al. (2013)	Pakistan	200	19	50	I
Rathert et al. (2015)	USA	392	9.4	29	I, E
Raval et al. (2013)	India	145	.	.	I, E
Renk et al. (2008)	USA	174	19.6	70	I, E
Rey & Plapp (1990)	Australia	173	14.0	42	E
Rhucharoenpornpanich et al. (2010)	Thailand	400	13.5	51	E
Richardson et al. (1993)	USA	3993	16.0	52	A
Rinaldi & Howe (2012)	USA	59	2.7	51	I, E
Rizvi & Najam (2015)	Pakistan	300	14.8	42	I, E
Robinson et al. (1996)	Australia	299	.	.	I, E
Robinson et al. (1996)	China	335	.	.	I, E
Robinson et al. (1996)	Russia	376	.	.	I, E
Robinson et al. (1996)	USA	187	.	.	I, E
Rodriguez et al. (2016)	USA	110	18.8	75	I, E
Roman et al. (2015)	South Africa	853	17.0	57	I
Roopnarine et al. (2006)	USA (H)	70	5.1	49	A

Ross & Hammer (2002)	USA	98	.	78	A
Rossmann & Rea (2005)	USA	104	8.7	49	I, E
Rounagh et al. (2014)	Iran	302	.	100	A
Russell et al. (2003)	US/Australia	349	4.7	46	E
Salazar et al. (2000)	USA (AS)	535	15.0	47	A
Salem (2013)	USA (H)	312	17.4	52	A
Samina et al. (2014)	Pakistan	350	17.5		A
Sanchez-Martin et al. (2009)	Spain	129	5.5	53	E
Sandstrom et al. (2007)	USA	82	9.5	61	E
Schalenbourg & Verschueren (2003)	Netherlands	84	4.6	55	I, E
Sandhu & Sharma (2015)	India	227	9.9	100	I
Sankah (2007)	Ghana	200	16.4	50	I
Schroeder & Mouwen (2014)	USA	4389	13.0	49	E
Schultz-Leon (2012)	USA (H)	165	14.0	59	A
Seth & Asudani (2013a)	India	1000	.	50	A
Seth & Asudani (2013b)	India	1000	.	50	A
Seth & Ghormode (2013a)	India	1000	.	50	A
Seth & Ghormode (2013b)	India	1000	.	50	A
Shafipour et al. (2015)	Iran	741	9.0	.	I, E
Sharma et al. (2010)	India	98	15.0	100	I
Sharma et al. (2011)	India	100	15.0	50	I
Shayesteh et al. (2014)	Iran	200	16	50	E
Sheh (2013)	Canada	31	3.0	42	I, E
Sheraz & Nayam (2015)	Pakistan	200	12.5	0	E
Shobola et al. (2012)	Nigeria	120	11.5	63	A
Shucksmith et al. (1995)	UK	4034	14.5	50	I
Sierra & Vega (2014)	Mexico	184	8.7	29	E
Sim & Ong (2005)	Singapore	143	5.1	100	E
Simons & Conger (2007)	USA	451	13.5	.	I, E
Simons, R.L. et al. (2000)	Taiwan	1437	13.0	49	E

Simons, R.L. et al. (2000)	USA	452	13.0	52	E
Simons, R.L. et al. (2005)	USA (AF)	633	10.5	54	E
Slicker (1998)	USA	1311	18.0	53	I, E, A
Smith & Morre (2013)	Jamaica	524	15.1	39	I, E
Sommer (2007)	USA	175	4.1	43	E
Soni (2011)	India	600		50	E
Soysa & Weiss (2014)	USA	206	19.0	78	I
Steinberg et al. (1991)	USA	4081	16.0	52	I, E
Steinberg et al. (1992)	USA	6357	16.0	49	A
Steinberg et al. (1994)	USA	2353	16.0	52	I, E
Steinberg et al. (2006)	USA	571	16.0	16	I, E, A
Stevens (2014)	USA	1382	19.6	66	I
Stewart & Barling (1996)	Canada	189	.	45	I, E, A
Sullivan (2007)	Canada	89	3.4	43	I
Summers (2006)	USA	311	17.0	48	E
Supple & Small (2006)	USA (W)	3797	n.r.	50	A
Supple & Small (2006)	USA (AS)	200	n.r.	50	A
Swanson et al. (2012)	USA	266	9.6	54	A
Tabatabai et al. (2016)	Iran	135		100	I
Tagliabue et al. (2014)	Sweden, Italy, Greece	744	17.1	.	I, E
Talib et al. (2011)	Malaysia	200	8.1	50	A
Tan et al. (2012)	China	133	5.2	100	I, E
Tan et al. (2015)	USA (AS)	651	9.3	100	I, E
Tanvar et al. (2016)	Pakistan	80	19.5		A
Tao (2013)	USA (AS)	258	7.5	58	I, E
Tao et al. (2010)	China	382	15.4	53	I
Tavassolie et al. (2016)	USA	152	4.8	49	I, E
Tavecchio et al. (1999)	Netherlands	83	18.0	42	E
Tavecchio et al. (1999)	Netherlands	79	19.4	32	E
Taylor et al. (1995)	USA (AF)	566	11.5	.	A

Thergaonkar & Wadkar (2007)	India	207	16.0	47	I
Thompson et al. (2003)	UK	12925	5.0	50	E
Timpano et al. (2010)	USA	227	18.7	76	I
Timpano et al. (2015)	USA	227	18.7	80	I
Torres et al. (2015)	Portugal	543	4.5	51	E
Trainor (2011)	Canada	59	2.8	48	E
Trainor (2011)	Canada	24	3.8	41	E
Trinkner et al. (2012)	USA	596	12.3	62	E
Tsemrekal (2013)	Ethiopia	477	13.6	54	A
Turner et al. (2009)	USA	264	19.3	65	A
Turney (2012)	USA	2655	5.0	.	I, E
Ugwu (2011)	Nigeria	200	.	50	E
Underwood et al. (2009)	USA	282	9.0	50	E
Vallejo Casarín (2008)	Mexico	312	15.4	62	I
Vaughan et al. (2010)	USA	3444	13.4	51	I
Viramontes (2009)	USA	11820	10.4	49	A
Wang (2007)	Taiwan	665	.	49	I
Wang (2014)	China	1971	.	0	E, A
Wang & Zhang (2012)	China	346	5.0	.	I
Weis (2002)	USA (AF)	185	3.6	49	I, E
Weiss & Schwarz (1996)	USA	178	.	52	I, E, A
Werner (2009)	USA	105	2.0	.	I, E
Werner (2009)	USA	105	2.0	.	I
West & Farrington (1973)	UK	411	8.5	0	E
White (1997)	USA	78	15.4	28	E
White et al. (in press)	USA (H)	462	10.8	48	I, E
Wiley & Renk (2007)	USA	31	6.4	.	I, E
Williams et al. (2009)	USA	113	7.0	54	I, E
Wintre & Bowers (2007)	Canada	944	19.1	72	I, A
Wintre & Yaffe (2000)	Canada	408	19.2	72	I
Wolfradt et al. (2003)	Germany	276	15.4	54	I

Xu (2007)	China	544	7.0	46	E
Yaffee & Burg (2014)	Israel	101	11.5	57	I
Yahaya & Nordin (2006)	Malaysia	.	.	.	A
Yaman et al. (2010)	Netherlands	94	2.0/3.0	51	E
Yarahmadi (2015)	India	500	.	50	A
Yarahmadi (2015)	Iran	500	.	50	A
Yeung & Chan (2014)	Hong Kong	223	16.7	56	I, E
Yohn et al. (2009)	Philippines	3601	16.5	64	A
Young (2014)	South Africa	272	12.1	64	E
Yousaf (2015)	Pakistan	100	16.5	100	I
Yudanagara (2014)	Indonesia	163		0	E
Yusuf et al. (n.d.)	Nigeria	523	.	46	A
Zdzinski et al. (2015)	USA	1114	.	.	A
Zekele & Tadesse (1998)	Ethiopia	560	.	50	A
Zhang & Wang (2009)	China	306	4.5	.	I
Zhao (2010)	China	182	.	.	I
Zhou et al. (2004)	China	425	7.7	56	E
Zhou et al. (2008)	China	425	7.7	56	E
Zhou et al. (2008)	China	382	11.6	.	E
Zupančič & Kavčič (2011)	Slovenia	193	6.0	54	A

Notes: A = academic achievement, E = externalizing problems, I = internalizing problems, AF/AS/H/W = separate results reported for families with African ethnic background, with Asian ethnic background, Hispanics, and non-Hispanic Whites, respectively.

7.2 Questionnaires (First stage field research)

اجازت نامہ

میرانام روبینہ کوثر ہے۔ میں فلپس یونیورسٹی ماربرگ میں شعبہ نفسیات میں ڈاکٹریٹ کی طالبہ ہوں۔ میری ریسرچ کا عنوان 'پاکستان میں والدین کی پرورش کے طریقے اور نابالغوں میں جرائم' ہے۔ میں آپ کے جوابات کیلئے آپ کو پوری رانداری کا یقین دلاتی ہوں اور اس بات کا بھی یقین دلاتی ہوں کہ آپ سے لی گئی معلومات آپ کی شناخت کو ظاہر کئے بغیر صرف تعلیمی مقاصد کیلئے استعمال ہوں گی۔ اگر آپ کے ذہن میں اس سے متعلق کوئی سوالات ہیں تو آپ پوچھ سکتے ہیں۔ آپ کے تعاون کا شکریہ۔

دستخط

ذاتی اور گھریلو معلومات کا فارم

نمبر شمار	سوالات	جوابات کی آپشنز	جواب کا خانہ
۱	مہربانی سے اپنا نام بتائیں		
۲	اپنی عمر بتائیں		
۳	آپ کی جنس کیا ہے	۱- مرد ۲- عورت	
۴	مہربانی سے اپنی کلاس کا انتخاب کریں	۱- چھٹی ۲- ساتویں ۳- آٹھویں ۴- نہم ۵- دہم	
۵	مہربانی سے اپنے سکول کا نام بتائیں		
۶	آپ کس طرح کے سکول میں پڑھتے ہیں	۱- سرکاری ۲- پرائیویٹ	
۷	مہربانی سے اپنے گھر کا پتہ بتائیں		
۸	مہربانی سے اپنے گھر کا ٹیلیفون نمبر بتائیں		
۹	آپ کونسے علاقہ میں رہتے ہیں	۱- گاؤں ۲- شہر	
۱۰	آپ کس طرح کے فیملی سسٹم میں رہتے ہیں	۱- صرف آپ کے ماں باپ اور آپ بہن بھائی ۲- آپ کے دادا دادی۔ ماں باپ۔ آپ بہن بھائی اور آپ کے چچا چچی وغیرہ	
۱۱	کیا آپ کی فیملی کے پاس ذاتی گھر ہے	۱- ہاں ۲- نہیں	
۱۲	کیا آپ کی فیملی کے پاس ذاتی سواری ہے	۱- ہاں ۲- نہیں	

	<p>۱۔ کار</p> <p>۲۔ موٹر سائیکل</p> <p>۳۔ کوئی دوسری</p>	<p>اگر ہے تو کونسی ہے</p>	۱۳
		<p>آپ کے گھر میں کتنے لوگ رہتے ہیں</p>	۱۴
	<p>۱۔ ان پڑھ</p> <p>۲۔ پانچویں کلاس پاس</p> <p>۳۔ آٹھویں کلاس پاس</p> <p>۴۔ میٹرک پاس</p> <p>۵۔ ایف اے یا ایف ایس سی</p> <p>۶۔ بی اے یا بی ایس سی یا بی کام یا کوئی اور ملتی جلتی ڈگری</p> <p>۷۔ ایم اے یا ایم ایس سی یا کوئی اور ملتی جلتی ڈگری</p> <p>۸۔ اور کوئی تعلیم</p>	<p>آپ کے والد کی تعلیم کتنی ہے</p>	۱۵
	<p>۱۔ جاب کرتے ہیں</p> <p>۲۔ بزنس کرتے ہیں</p> <p>۳۔ زمیندار ہیں</p> <p>۴۔ ریٹائرڈ ہیں</p> <p>۵۔ کوئی کام نہیں کرتے</p> <p>۶۔ اسکے علاوہ ہے تو خود لکھیں</p>	<p>آپ کے والد کا کیا پیشہ ہے</p>	۱۶
	<p>۱۔ بہت اچھا</p> <p>۲۔ اچھا</p> <p>۳۔ ٹھیک سا</p> <p>۴۔ برا</p> <p>۵۔ بہت برا</p>	<p>آپ اپنے باپ کے ساتھ اپنے تعلق کو کیسے سمجھتے ہیں</p>	۱۷
	<p>۱۔ بہت نرم</p> <p>۲۔ نرم</p> <p>۳۔ متوازن</p> <p>۴۔ سخت</p> <p>۵۔ بہت سخت</p>	<p>آپ کے باپ کا مجموعی طور پر آپ کے ساتھ رویہ کیسا ہے</p>	۱۸

	<p>۱۔ ان پڑھ ۲۔ پانچویں کلاس پاس ۳۔ آٹھویں کلاس پاس ۴۔ میٹرک پاس ۵۔ ایف اے یا ایف ایس سی ۶۔ بی اے یا بی ایس سی یا بی کام یا کوئی اور ملتی جلتی ڈگری ۷۔ ایم اے یا ایم ایس سی یا کوئی اور ملتی جلتی ڈگری ۸۔ اور کوئی تعلیم</p>	<p>آپ کی ماں کی تعلیم کتنی ہے</p>	<p>۱۹</p>
	<p>۱۔ جا ب کرتی ہیں ۲۔ بزنس کرتی ہیں ۳۔ زمیندارہ ہیں ۴۔ ریٹائرڈ ہیں ۵۔ گھریلو خاتون ہیں ۶۔ اسکے علاوہ ہے تو خود لکھیں</p>	<p>آپ کی والدہ کا پیشہ کیا ہے</p>	<p>۲۰</p>
	<p>۱۔ بہت اچھا ۲۔ اچھا ۳۔ ٹھیک سا ۴۔ برا ۵۔ بہت برا</p>	<p>آپ اپنی والدہ کے ساتھ اپنے تعلق کو کیسے سمجھتے ہیں</p>	<p>۲۱</p>
	<p>۱۔ بہت نرم ۲۔ نرم ۳۔ متوازن ۴۔ سخت ۵۔ بہت سخت</p>	<p>آپ کی والدہ کا مجموعی طور پر آپ کے ساتھ رویہ کیسا ہے</p>	<p>۲۲</p>
	<p>آپ کتنے بہن بھائی ہیں</p>	<p>۲۳</p>	
	<p>آپ کا اپنے بہن بھائیوں میں پیدائشی نمبر کیا ہے</p>	<p>۲۴</p>	

	<p>۱۔ بہت اچھا ۲۔ اچھا ۳۔ ٹھیک سا ۴۔ برا ۵۔ بہت برا</p>	<p>آپ اپنے بہن بھائیوں کے ساتھ اپنے تعلق کو کیسا سمجھتے ہیں</p>	۲۵
		<p>آپ کے ابودن میں کتنی نمازیں پڑھتے ہیں</p>	۲۶
		<p>آپ کی امی دن میں کتنی نمازیں پڑھتی ہیں</p>	۲۷
		<p>آپ دن میں کتنی نمازیں پڑھتے ہیں</p>	۲۹
	<p>۱۔ باقاعدگی سے ۲۔ کبھی کبھار ۳۔ بالکل نہیں</p>	<p>آپ کے فیملی ممبر دینی رسومات کتنی پابندی سے ادا کرتے ہیں</p>	۳۰

والدہ کی اٹھارٹی کا سوالنامہ

برائے مہربانی نیچے دیئے گئے سوالات کو پڑھیں اور دی گئی پانچ آپشنز میں سے کسی ایک کا انتخاب اپنے اور اپنی والدہ کے رویے کو سامنے رکھ کر کریں

نمبر شمار	بیانات	۱-۱ انتہائی غیر متفق	۲-۲ غیر متفق	۳-۳ غیر جانبدار	۴-۴ متفق	۵-۵ انتہائی متفق
۱	میری امی نے اکثر میرے رویہ کو نظر انداز کیا چاہے وہ اچھا ہو یا برا					
۲	میری امی نے محسوس کیا کہ ایک اچھی طرح سے چلتے ہوئے گھر میں بچوں کے اپنے طور طریقے ہونے چاہیے جیسا کہ اکثر وہ خود کرتی ہیں					
۳	جب ہم بچے اپنی امی سے کسی بات پر متفق نہ ہوتے تو میری امی یہ محسوس کرتیں کہ اگر ہم بچوں کو ویسا کرنے پر مجبور کیا جاتا جیسا وہ چاہتی تھیں تو یہ ہمارے لیے اچھا ہوتا					
۴	جب ایک گھریلو قانون مقرر ہو جاتا تو میری امی اس قانون کے پیچھے موجود ہونے کو گھر میں بچوں کے ساتھ زیر بحث لاتیں					
۵	میری امی نے ہمیشہ یہ محسوس کیا کہ بچوں کو ہمیشہ اپنے خواب بننے اور وہ سب کرنے کیلئے جو وہ کرنا چاہتے ہیں آزادی ہونی چاہیے اگرچہ وہ اس سے مختلف ہی کیوں نہ ہوں جو ہماری امی چاہتی ہیں					
۶	جب بھی میری امی نے مجھے کچھ کرنے کے لیے کہا تو انہوں نے مجھ سے توقع کی کہ میں بغیر کوئی سوال کیے اسے فوراً کر دوں					
۷	جب کبھی مجھے لگا کہ خاندان کے اصول اور پابندیاں بے معنی ہیں تو میری امی نے ہمیشہ ان پر بات چیت کرنے میں میری حوصلہ افزائی کی					
۸	جب میں اپنے فیصلے کر رہا تھا تو میری امی نے ہمیشہ لا پرواہی ظاہر کی					
۹	میری امی ایسا نہیں سوچتیں کہ مجھے کردار سے متعلقہ قوانین و ضوابط کی پابندی صرف اس لیے کرنی چاہیے کہ انہیں کسی اتھارٹی رکھنے والے نے بنایا ہے					
۱۰	میری امی نے کبھی مجھے اجازت نہیں دی کہ میں انکے کیے گئے کسی فیصلے کے متعلق سوال کروں					
۱۱	میری امی نے خاندان میں بچوں سے متعلقہ فیصلوں اور سرگرمیوں کو نظم و ضبط اور سوچ بچار سے طے کیا					
۱۲	میری امی نے شاذ و نادر ہی میرے رویے کیلئے توقعات رکھیں یا رہنمائی دی					

۵	۴	۳	۲	۱		
					میری امی نے ہمیشہ یہ محسوس کیا کہ ماں کو طاقت کا استعمال کر کے اپنے بچوں کے کردار کی تشکیل کرنی چاہیے	۱۳
					میں جانتا ہوں میری امی خاندان میں مجھ سے توقعات رکھتی ہیں لیکن میں یہ بھی محسوس کرتا ہوں کہ میں مکمل آزادی سے ان توقعات کو جو مجھے غیر مناسب لگتی ہیں ان پر اپنی امی سے بات کر سکتا ہوں	۱۴
					میری امی نے کبھی میری پڑھائی یا کیریئر میں دلچسپی ظاہر نہیں کی	۱۵
					اکثر اوقات میری امی نے خاندان کے لیے فیصلے کرتے ہوئے وہ فیصلے کیے جو بچے چاہتے تھے	۱۶
					میری امی سمجھتی ہیں کہ عقلمند ماں کو اپنے بچوں کو ابتدائی عمر میں ہی بتا دینا چاہیے کہ گھر کا سربراہ کون ہے	۱۷
					میری امی نے ہمیشہ عقلمندی اور سوچ سمجھ کر ہمیں ہدایات اور رہنمائی فراہم کی	۱۸
					میری امی یہ محسوس کرتی ہیں کہ معاشرے کے زیادہ تر مسائل حل ہو جائیں اگر ماں بڑے ہوتے ہوئے بچوں کی سرگرمیوں اور ان کے فیصلوں اور خواہشات پر پابندی نہ لگائیں	۱۹
					میری امی بہت پریشان ہو جائیں گی اگر میں نے ان سے کسی بات میں اختلاف کرنے کی کوشش کی	۲۰
					میری امی نے گھر میں فیصلے کرتے ہوئے بچوں کی آراء کو بھی اہمیت دی لیکن انہوں نے کسی بات کا فیصلہ صرف بچوں کے چاہنے کی بنیاد پر نہیں کیا	۲۱
					جب کبھی مجھے کوئی مسئلہ ہوا تو نہ ہی میری امی نے اس پر کوئی توجہ دی اور نہ کسی مدد کی پیشکش کی	۲۲
					میری امی نے بغیر ہدایات کے اکثر مجھے اپنی چیزوں کے بارے میں فیصلے کرنے کی اجازت دی	۲۳
					میری امی نے مجھے یہ بتایا کہ وہ مجھ سے کس طرح کا کردار متوقع رکھتی ہیں اور اگر میں نے کبھی انکی توقعات کو پورا نہیں کیا تو انہوں نے مجھے سزا دی	۲۴
					میری امی نے ہمارے گھر میں واضح طور پر بچوں کے کردار کیلئے معیار مقرر کیے لیکن وہ اس بات پر آمادہ تھیں کہ وہ ان معیار کو ہرنچے کی انفرادی ضرورت کے مطابق ترتیب دیں	۲۵

۵	۴	۳	۲	۱	
					میری امی نے کبھی بھی میرے رویہ کی بہتری اور رہنمائی کیلئے خود کو ذمہ دار نہیں سمجھا
					میری امی نے ہمیشہ یہ محسوس کیا کہ معاشرے کے بہت سے مسائل حل ہو سکتے ہیں اگر ماں اپنے بچوں کے ساتھ سختی سے پیش آئیں جب وہ ویسا نہ کریں جیسا انھیں کرنا چاہیے
					میری امی مجھے میرے اعمال و کردار کیلئے ہدایات دیتی رہی ہیں اور مجھ سے یہ توقع بھی کرتی رہی ہیں کہ میں ان ہدایات پر عمل کروں لیکن وہ میرے معاملات کو سننے اور ان ہدایات کو میرے ساتھ زیر بحث لانے پر ہمیشہ آمادہ رہی ہیں
					میری امی نے میری زندگی میں دخل اندازی نہیں کی اور میں نے جو کچھ بھی کیا اسکا انہوں نے بہت سرسری جائزہ لیا
					میری امی نے مجھے اجازت دی کہ میں خاندان کے معاملات میں اپنا نقطہ نظر بنا سکوں اور انہوں نے مجھے یہ بھی اجازت دی کہ میں اپنے متعلق خود فیصلے کر سکوں جو میں کرنا چاہتا تھا
					میری امی نے اکثر مجھے وہی بتایا جو وہ مجھ سے کروانا چاہتی تھیں اور یہ بھی کہ وہ مجھ سے کیسے کروانا چاہتی تھیں
					میری امی نے مجھے میری سرگرمیوں اور اعمال و کردار کے لیے واضح ہدایات دیں لیکن جب میں نے ان سے اختلاف کیا انہوں نے اس کو بھی سمجھا
					میری امی نے خاندان کے بچوں کے رویے سرگرمیوں اور خواہشات کے لیے کبھی رہنمائی نہیں دی
					میں جانتا تھا کہ میری امی گھر میں مجھ سے کیا چاہتی ہیں اور انہوں نے مجھے ان توقعات پر پورا اترنے کیلئے صرف اس لیے زور دیا کہ یہ ان کی حاکمیت کے احترام میں ضروری تھا
					اگر میری امی نے گھر میں کوئی ایسا فیصلہ کیا جس سے مجھے تکلیف ہو تو وہ اس فیصلے کو میرے ساتھ زیر بحث لانے پر یا اپنی غلطی کو ماننے پر آمادہ بھی تھیں
					میری امی میرے معاملات سے زیادہ اپنے معاملات میں دلچسپی رکھتی تھیں

والد کی اتھارٹی کا سوالنامہ

برائے مہربانی نیچے دیئے گئے سوالات کو پڑھیں اور دی گئی پانچ آپشنز میں سے کسی ایک کا انتخاب اپنے اور اپنے والد کے رویے کو سامنے رکھ کر کریں

نمبر شمار	بیانات	۱- انتہائی غیر متفق	۲- غیر متفق	۳- غیر جانبدار	۴- متفق	۵- انتہائی متفق
۱	میرے ابو نے اکثر میرے رویہ کو نظر انداز کیا چاہے وہ اچھا ہو یا برا					
۲	میرے ابو نے محسوس کیا کہ ایک اچھی طرح سے چلتے ہوئے گھر میں بچوں کے اپنے طور طریقے ہونے چاہیے جیسا کہ اکثر وہ خود کرتے ہیں					
۳	جب ہم بچے اپنے ابو سے کسی بات پر متفق نہ ہوتے تو میرے ابو یہ محسوس کرتے کہ اگر ہم بچوں کو ویسا کرنے پر مجبور کیا جاتا جیسا وہ چاہتے تھے تو یہ ہمارے لیے اچھا ہوتا					
۴	جب ایک گھریلو قانون مقرر ہو جاتا تو میرے ابو اس قانون کے پیچھے موجود وجہ کو گھر میں بچوں کے ساتھ زیر بحث لاتے					
۵	میرے ابو نے ہمیشہ یہ محسوس کیا کہ بچوں کو ہمیشہ اپنے خواب بننے اور وہ سب کرنے کیلئے جو وہ کرنا چاہتے ہیں آزادی ہونی چاہیے اگرچہ وہ اس سے مختلف ہی کیوں نہ ہوں جو ہمارے ابو چاہتے ہیں					
۶	جب بھی میرے ابو نے مجھے کچھ کرنے کے لیے کہا تو انہوں نے مجھ سے توقع کی کہ میں بغیر کوئی سوال کیے اسے فوراً کر دوں					
۷	جب کبھی مجھے لگا کہ خاندان کے اصول اور پابندیاں بے معنی ہیں تو میرے ابو نے ہمیشہ ان پر بات چیت کرنے میں میری حوصلہ افزائی کی					
۸	جب میں اپنے فیصلے کر رہا تھا تو میرے ابو نے ہمیشہ اپرا وہی ظاہر کی					
۹	میرے ابو ایسا نہیں سوچتے کہ مجھے کردار سے متعلق قوانین و ضوابط کی پابندی صرف اس لیے کرنی چاہیے کہ انہیں کسی اتھارٹی رکھنے والے نے بنایا ہے					
۱۰	میرے ابو نے کبھی مجھے اجازت نہیں دی کہ میں انکے کیے گئے کسی فیصلے کے متعلق سوال کروں					
۱۱	میرے ابو نے خاندان میں بچوں سے متعلق فیصلوں اور سرگرمیوں کو نظم و ضبط اور سوچ بچار سے طے کیا					
۱۲	میرے ابو نے شاذ و نادر ہی میرے رویے کیلئے توقعات رکھیں یا رہنمائی دی					

۵	۴	۳	۲	۱	
					۱۳ میرے ابو نے ہمیشہ یہ محسوس کیا کہ باپ کو طاقت کا استعمال کر کے اپنے بچوں کے کردار کی تشکیل کرنی چاہیے
					۱۴ میں جانتا ہوں میرے ابو خاندان میں مجھ سے توقعات رکھتے ہیں لیکن میں یہ بھی محسوس کرتا ہوں کہ میں مکمل آزادی سے ان توقعات کو جو مجھے غیر مناسب لگتی ہیں ان پر اپنے ابو سے بات کر سکتا ہوں
					۱۵ میرے ابو نے کبھی میری پڑھائی یا کیریئر میں دلچسپی ظاہر نہیں کی
					۱۶ اکثر اوقات میرے ابو نے خاندان کے لیے فیصلے کرتے ہوئے وہ فیصلے کیے جو بچے چاہتے تھے
					۱۷ میرے ابو سمجھتے تھے کہ عقلمند باپ کو اپنے بچوں کو ابتدائی عمر میں ہی بتا دینا چاہیے کہ گھر کا سربراہ کون ہے
					۱۸ میرے ابو نے ہمیشہ عقلمندی اور سوچ سمجھ کر ہمیں ہدایات اور رہنمائی فراہم کی
					۱۹ میرے ابو یہ محسوس کرتے ہیں کہ معاشرے کے زیادہ تر مسائل حل ہو جائیں اگر باپ بڑے ہوتے ہوئے بچوں کی سرگرمیوں اور ان کے فیصلوں اور خواہشات پر پابندی نہ لگائیں
					۲۰ میرے ابو بہت پریشان ہو جائیں گے اگر میں نے ان سے کسی بات میں اختلاف کرنے کی کوشش کی
					۲۱ میرے ابو نے گھر میں فیصلے کرتے ہوئے بچوں کی آراء کو بھی اہمیت دی لیکن انہوں نے کسی بات کا فیصلہ صرف بچوں کے چاہنے کی بنیاد پر نہیں کیا
					۲۲ جب کبھی مجھے کوئی مسئلہ ہوا تو نہ ہی میرے ابو نے اس پر کوئی توجہ دی اور نہ کسی مدد کی پیشکش کی
					۲۳ میرے ابو نے بغیر ہدایات کے اکثر مجھے اپنی چیزوں کے بارے میں فیصلے کرنے کی اجازت دی
					۲۴ میرے ابو نے مجھے یہ بتایا کہ وہ مجھ سے کس طرح کا کردار متوقع رکھتے ہیں اور اگر میں نے کبھی انکی توقعات کو پورا نہیں کیا تو انہوں نے مجھے سزا دی

۵	۴	۳	۲	۱	
					۲۵ میرے ابو نے ہمارے گھر میں واضح طور پر بچوں کے کردار کیلئے معیار مقرر کیے لیکن وہ اس بات پر آمادہ تھے کہ وہ ان معیار کو ہرنچنے کی انفرادی ضرورت کے مطابق ترتیب دیں
					۲۶ میرے ابو نے کبھی بھی میرے رویہ کی بہتری اور رہنمائی کیلئے خود کو ذمہ دار نہیں سمجھا
					۲۷ میرے ابو نے ہمیشہ یہ محسوس کیا کہ معاشرے کے بہت سے مسائل حل ہو سکتے ہیں اگر باپ اپنے بچوں کے ساتھ سختی سے پیش آئیں جب وہ ویسا نہ کریں جیسا انھیں کرنا چاہیے
					۲۸ میرے ابو نے مجھے میرے اعمال و کردار کیلئے ہدایات دیتے رہے ہیں اور مجھ سے یہ توقع بھی کرتے رہے ہیں کہ میں ان ہدایات پر عمل کروں لیکن وہ میرے معاملات کو سننے اور ان ہدایات کو میرے ساتھ زیر بحث لانے پر ہمیشہ آمادہ رہے ہیں
					۲۹ میرے ابو نے میری زندگی میں دخل اندازی نہیں کی اور میں نے جو کچھ بھی کیا اسکا انہوں نے بہت سرسری جائزہ لیا
					۳۰ میرے ابو نے مجھے اجازت دی کہ میں خاندان کے معاملات میں اپنا نقطہ نظر بنا سکوں اور انہوں نے مجھے یہ بھی اجازت دی کہ میں اپنے متعلق خود فیصلے کر سکوں جو میں کرنا چاہتا تھا
					۳۱ میرے ابو نے اکثر مجھے وہی بتایا جو وہ مجھ سے کروانا چاہتے تھے اور یہ بھی کہ وہ مجھ سے کیسے کروانا چاہتے تھے
					۳۲ میرے ابو نے مجھے میری سرگرمیوں اور اعمال و کردار کے لیے واضح ہدایات دیں لیکن جب میں نے ان سے اختلاف کیا انہوں نے اس کو بھی سمجھا
					۳۳ میرے ابو نے خاندان کے بچوں کے رویے سرگرمیوں اور خواہشات کے لیے کبھی رہنمائی نہیں دی
					۳۴ میں جانتا تھا کہ میرے ابو گھر میں مجھ سے کیا چاہتے ہیں اور انہوں نے مجھے ان توقعات پر پورا اترنے کیلئے صرف اس لیے زور دیا کہ یہ ان کی حاکمیت کے احترام میں ضروری تھا
					۳۵ اگر میرے ابو نے گھر میں کوئی ایسا فیصلہ کیا جس سے مجھے تکلیف ہو تو وہ اس فیصلے کو میرے ساتھ زیر بحث لانے پر اپنی غلطی کو ماننے پر آمادہ بھی تھے
					۳۶ میرے ابو میرے معاملات سے زیادہ اپنے معاملات میں دلچسپی رکھتے تھے

سیلف رپورٹ ڈیلیقونسی سکیل

برائے مہربانی نیچے دیے گئے سوالات کو پڑھیں اور دی گئی پانچ آپشنز میں سے کسی ایک کا انتخاب کریں

نمبر شمار	بیانات یا سوالات	کبھی نہیں	ایک دفعہ	دو سے پانچ دفعہ	پانچ سے دس دفعہ	دس یا زیادہ دفعہ
۱	میں نے گھر کی کوئی چیز سستے داموں بیچ دی۔					
۲	میں نے کئی بار دوستوں کے ساتھ شغل میں نشہ آور چیز کا مزہ چکھا					
۳	میں نے اپنی خوشی کے لیے دوسروں کو ڈرایا دھمکایا					
۴	میں نے بس اور ٹرین پر بغیر کرایہ سفر کیا					
۵	میں نے اکیلے یا دوستوں کے ساتھ مل کر گندی فلم دیکھی					
۶	میں نے والدین کو بتائے بغیر ساری رات دوستوں کے ساتھ آوارہ گردی کی					
۷	میں نے کسی کو اس کی چیز چھین لینے کی دھمکی دی					
۸	میں نے ایک سے زیادہ نشہ آور اشیاء (سیگریٹ صمد بونڈ چرس اور پیروٹین) کا استعمال کیا					
۹	میں نشے کے کاروبار میں پوری طرح ملوث رہا					
۱۰	میں نے سرراہ پڑی ہوئی قیمتی چیز کو نظر بچا کر اٹھایا					
۱۱	میں نے شرط لگا کر کوئی بھی کھیل (تاش بلیئرڈ) کھیلا					
۱۲	میں نے کسی عزیز اور پیارے شخص کو نقصان پہنچانے کی دھمکی دی					
۱۳	میں نے قانون کی خلاف ورزی کرنے کے بعد پولیس سے چھپنے اور نکلنے کی کوشش کی					
۱۴	میں نے خواتین کو چھیڑنے یا تنگ کرنے کی کوشش کی					
۱۵	میں نے کسی دوسرے کو اس کی مرضی کے بغیر چھوا یا تنگ کرنے کی کوشش کی					
۱۶	میں نے موقع ملنے پر کسی دوسرے شخص کی جیب سے پیسے نکالے					
۱۷	میں نے ہوٹل دوکان ورکشاپ یا فیکٹری میں پڑی ہوئی قیمتی چیز کو نظر بچا کے اٹھا یا					
۱۸	میں نے تفریحا بغیر کسی مقصد کے جھوٹ بولا					
۱۹	میں نے بازار یا مارکیٹ میں کسی کو زخمی کیا					
۲۰	میں نے ماں باپ کو پلٹ کر جواب دیا یا بدتمیزی کی					

					۲۱ میں بغیر ٹکٹ خریدے فلم دیکھنے گیا
					۲۲ میں نے سائیکل موٹر سائیکل یا گاڑی کے مالک کو بتائے بغیر اس کی سواری کی
					۲۳ میرا غیر قانونی کام کرنے پر پولیس سے واسطہ پڑا
					۲۴ میں نے جان بوجھ کر بازار فٹ پاتھ اور سڑک پر شیشے کی بوتلوں یا جوس کے ڈبوں یا کوزے کے کنستروں کو توڑا
					۲۵ میں نے خود کو جانی نقصان (زخمی یا مارنے) پہچانے کی کوشش کی

7.3 Questionnaires (Second stage field research)

والدین کی اٹھارٹی کا سوالنامہ

برائے مہربانی نیچے دیئے گئے سوالات کو پڑھیں اور دی گئی پانچ آپشنز میں سے کسی ایک کا انتخاب بچوں کے ساتھ اپنے رویے کو سامنے رکھ کر کریں

نمبر شمار	بیانات	۱- انتہائی غیر متفق	۲- غیر متفق	۳- غیر جانبدار	۴- متفق	۵- انتہائی متفق
۱	میں نے اکثر اپنے بچوں کے رویے کو نظر انداز کیا چاہے وہ اچھا ہو یا برا					
۲	میں نے محسوس کیا کہ ایک اچھی طرح سے چلتے ہوئے گھر میں بچوں کے اپنے طور طریقے ہونے چاہیے جیسا کہ اکثر میں خود کرتا کرتی ہوں					
۳	اگر میرے بچے مجھ سے کسی بات پر متفق نہیں ہوتے تو میں یہ محسوس کرتا کرتی ہوں کہ اگر میں بچوں کو ویسا کرنے پر مجبور کرتا کرتی جیسا میں چاہتا تھا تو یہ انکے لیے اچھا ہوتا					
۴	جب ایک گھریلو قانون مقرر ہو جاتا تو میں اس قانون کے پیچھے موجود وجہ کو گھر میں بچوں کے ساتھ زیر بحث لاتا / لاتی					
۵	میں نے ہمیشہ یہ محسوس کیا کہ بچوں کو ہمیشہ اپنے خواب بننے اور وہ سب کرنے کیلئے جو وہ کرنا چاہتے ہیں آزادی ہونی چاہیے اگرچہ وہ اس سے مختلف ہی کیوں نہ ہوں جو میں چاہتا / چاہتی ہوں					
۶	جب بھی میں نے اپنے بچوں سے کچھ کرنے کے لیے کہا تو میں نے ان سے یہ توقع کی کہ وہ بغیر کوئی سوال کیے اسے فوراً کر دیں					
۷	جب کبھی مجھے لگا کہ خاندان کے اصول اور پابندیاں بے معنی ہیں تو میں نے ہمیشہ ان پر بات چیت کرنے میں اپنے بچوں کی حوصلہ افزائی کی					
۸	جب میرے بچے اپنے فیصلے کر رہے ہوتے تھے تو میں نے ہمیشہ لاپرواہی ظاہر کی					
۹	میں ایسا نہیں سوچتا / سوچتی کہ میرے بچوں کو کردار سے متعلق قوانین و ضوابط کی پابندی صرف اس لیے کرنی چاہیے کہ انہیں کسی اتھارٹی رکھنے والے نے بنایا ہے					
۱۰	میں نے کبھی اپنے بچوں کو اجازت نہیں دی کہ وہ میرے کیے گئے کسی فیصلے کے متعلق سوال کریں					
۱۱	میں نے خاندان میں بچوں سے متعلق فیصلوں اور سرگرمیوں کو نظم و ضبط اور سوچ بچار سے طے کیا					

۵	۴	۳	۲	۱		
					میں نے شاذ و نادر ہی اپنے بچوں کے رویے کے لیے توقعات رکھیں یا رہنمائی دی	۱۲
					میں نے ہمیشہ یہ محسوس کیا کہ والدین کو طاقت کا استعمال کر کے اپنے بچوں کے کردار کی تشکیل کرنی چاہیے	۱۳
					میں خاندان میں اپنے بچوں سے توقعات رکھتا / رکھتی ہوں لیکن میں یہ بھی محسوس کرتا / کرتی ہوں کہ میرے بچے مکمل آزادی سے ان توقعات کو جو انہیں غیر مناسب لگتی ہیں ان پر مجھ سے بات کر سکتے ہیں	۱۴
					میں نے کبھی اپنے بچوں کی پڑھائی یا کیریئر میں دلچسپی ظاہر نہیں کی	۱۵
					اکثر اوقات میں نے خاندان کیلئے فیصلے کرتے ہوئے وہ فیصلے کیے جو بچے چاہتے تھے	۱۶
					میں سمجھتا / سمجھتی ہوں کہ عقلمند والدین کو اپنے بچوں کو ابتدائی عمر میں ہی بتا دینا چاہیے کہ گھر کا سربراہ کون ہے	۱۷
					میں نے ہمیشہ عقلمندی اور سوچ سمجھ کر اپنے بچوں کو ہدایات اور رہنمائی فراہم کی	۱۸
					میں یہ محسوس کرتا / کرتی ہوں کہ معاشرے کے زیادہ تر مسائل حل ہو جائیں اگر والدین بڑے ہوتے ہوئے بچوں کی سرگرمیوں اور انکے فیصلوں اور خواہشات پر پابندی نہ لگائیں	۱۹
					میں بہت پریشان ہو جاؤں گا / گی اگر میرے بچوں نے میری کسی بات سے اختلاف کرنے کی کوشش کی	۲۰
					میں نے گھر میں فیصلے کرتے ہوئے بچوں کی آراء کو بھی اہمیت دی لیکن میں نے کسی بات کا فیصلہ صرف بچوں کے چاہنے کی بنیاد پر نہیں کیا	۲۱
					جب کبھی میرے بچوں کو کوئی مسئلہ ہوا تو نہ ہی میں نے اس پر کوئی توجہ دی اور نہ کسی مدد کی پیشکش کی	۲۲
					میں نے بغیر ہدایات کے اکثر اپنے بچوں کو اپنی چیزوں کے بارے میں فیصلے کرنے کی اجازت دی	۲۳
					میں نے اپنے بچوں کو یہ بتایا کہ میں ان سے کس طرح کا کردار متوقع رکھتا / رکھتی ہوں اور اگر انہوں نے کبھی میری توقعات کو پورا نہیں کیا تو میں نے انکو سزا دی	۲۴

۵	۴	۳	۲	۱	
					میری امی نے کبھی بھی میرے رویہ کی بہتری اور رہنمائی کیلئے خود کو ذمہ دار نہیں سمجھا
					میری امی نے ہمیشہ یہ محسوس کیا کہ معاشرے کے بہت سے مسائل حل ہو سکتے ہیں اگر ماں اپنے بچوں کے ساتھ سختی سے پیش آئیں جب وہ ویسا نہ کریں جیسا انھیں کرنا چاہیے
					میری امی مجھے میرے اعمال و کردار کیلئے ہدایات دیتی رہی ہیں اور مجھ سے یہ توقع بھی کرتی رہی ہیں کہ میں ان ہدایات پر عمل کروں لیکن وہ میرے معاملات کو سننے اور ان ہدایات کو میرے ساتھ زیر بحث لانے پر ہمیشہ آمادہ رہی ہیں
					میری امی نے میری زندگی میں دخل اندازی نہیں کی اور میں نے جو کچھ بھی کیا اسکا انہوں نے بہت سرسری جائزہ لیا
					میری امی نے مجھے اجازت دی کہ میں خاندان کے معاملات میں اپنا نقطہ نظر بنا سکوں اور انہوں نے مجھے یہ بھی اجازت دی کہ میں اپنے متعلق خود فیصلے کر سکوں جو میں کرنا چاہتا تھا
					میری امی نے اکثر مجھے وہی بتایا جو وہ مجھ سے کروانا چاہتی تھیں اور یہ بھی کہ وہ مجھ سے کیسے کروانا چاہتی تھیں
					میری امی نے مجھے میری سرگرمیوں اور اعمال و کردار کے لیے واضح ہدایات دیں لیکن جب میں نے ان سے اختلاف کیا انہوں نے اس کو بھی سمجھا
					میری امی نے خاندان کے بچوں کے رویے سرگرمیوں اور خواہشات کے لیے کبھی رہنمائی نہیں دی
					میں جانتا تھا کہ میری امی گھر میں مجھ سے کیا چاہتی ہیں اور انہوں نے مجھے ان توقعات پر پورا اترنے کیلئے صرف اس لیے زور دیا کہ یہ ان کی حاکمیت کے احترام میں ضروری تھا
					اگر میری امی نے گھر میں کوئی ایسا فیصلہ کیا جس سے مجھے تکلیف ہو تو وہ اس فیصلے کو میرے ساتھ زیر بحث لانے پر اپنی غلطی کو ماننے پر آمادہ بھی تھیں
					میری امی میرے معاملات سے زیادہ اپنے معاملات میں دلچسپی رکھتی تھیں

انتقارمینٹ رپورٹ ڈیلیقونسی سکیل

برائے مہربانی نیچے دیے گئے سوالات کو پڑھیں اور دی گئی پانچ آپشنز میں سے کسی ایک کا انتخاب کریں

نمبر شمار	بیانات یا سوالات	کبھی نہیں	ایک دفعہ	دو سے پانچ دفعہ	پانچ سے دس دفعہ	دس یا زیادہ دفعہ
۱	اس نے گھر کی کوئی چیز سستے داموں بیچ دی۔					
۲	اس نے کئی بار دوستوں کے ساتھ شغل میں نشہ آور چیز کا مزہ چکھا					
۳	اس نے اپنی خوشی کے لیے دوسروں کو ڈرایا دھمکایا					
۴	اس نے بس اور ٹرین پر بغیر کرایہ سفر کیا					
۵	اس نے اکیلے یا دوستوں کے ساتھ مل کر گندی فلم دیکھی					
۶	اس نے والدین کو بتائے بغیر ساری رات دوستوں کے ساتھ آوارہ گردی کی					
۷	اس نے کسی کو اس کی چیز چھین لینے کی دھمکی دی					
۸	اس نے ایک سے زیادہ نشہ آور اشیاء (سیگریٹ صمد بونڈ چرس اور پیروٹین) کا استعمال کیا					
۹	وہ نشہ کے کاروبار میں پوری طرح ملوث رہا					
۱۰	اس نے سرراہ پڑی ہوئی قیمتی چیز کو نظر بچا کر اٹھایا					
۱۱	اس نے شرط لگا کر کوئی بھی کھیل (تاش بلیئرڈ) کھیلا					
۱۲	اس نے کسی عزیز اور پیارے شخص کو نقصان پہچانے کی دھمکی دی					
۱۳	اس نے قانون کی خلاف ورزی کرنے کے بعد پولیس سے چھپنے اور نکلنے کی کوشش کی					
۱۴	اس نے خواتین کو چھیڑنے یا تنگ کرنے کی کوشش کی					
۱۵	اس نے کسی دوسرے کو اس کی مرضی کے بغیر چھوا یا تنگ کرنے کی کوشش کی					
۱۶	اس نے موقع ملنے پر کسی دوسرے شخص کی جیب سے پیسے نکالے					
۱۷	اس نے ہوٹل دوکان ورکشاپ یا فیکٹری میں پڑی ہوئی قیمتی چیز کو نظر بچا کے اٹھا یا					
۱۸	اس نے تفریحا بغیر کسی مقصد کے جھوٹ بولا					
۱۹	اس نے بازار یا مارکیٹ میں کسی کو زخمی کیا					
۲۰	اس نے ماں باپ کو پلٹ کر جواب دیا یا بدتمیزی کی					

					وہ بغیر ٹکٹ خریدے فلم دیکھنے گیا	۲۱
					اس نے سائیکل موٹر سائیکل یا گاڑی کے مالک کو بتائے بغیر اس کی سواری کی	۲۲
					اس کا غیر قانونی کام کرنے پر پولیس سے واسطہ پڑا	۲۳
					اس نے جان بوجھ کر بازار فٹ پاتھ اور سڑک پر شیشے کی بوتلوں یا جوس کے ڈبوں یا کوزے کے کنستروں کو توڑا	۲۴
					اس نے خود کو جانی نقصان (زخمی یا مارنے) پہچانے کی کوشش کی	۲۵

8. Curriculum Vitae

PERSONAL INFORMATION	
PROFESSION	Lecturer / Clinical Psychologist
DATE OF BIRTH	01,03,1979
GENDER	Female
NATIONALITY	Pakistani
QUALIFICATIONS	
ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS	MS (Clinical Psychology) Govt. College University, Lahore
	M.Sc. (Psychology) University of the Punjab, Lahore
	BA (Psychology, English) University of the Punjab, Lahore
	Higher Secondary School (FA) (Psychology, English, Islamic Studies) Board of Intermediate & Secondary Education, Lahore
	Secondary School Certificate (Metric) (English, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry) Board of Intermediate & Secondary Education, Lahore
LANGUAGE SKILLS	Urdu, English, Punjabi
THESIS	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • MS Thesis: A Comparison of Public and Private School Children of 6th and 7th Class on Information and Arithmetic Subtests: A Normative Approach • MSc. Thesis: Stress Level among Hospitalized Cancer and Heart Patients 	
EXPERIENCE	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Four years' experience as a Student Counselor in University of Gujrat, Pakistan • Three years' experience as a Lecturer/Demonstrator of Behavioral Sciences in Nawaz Sharif Medical College, Pakistan • Six months work experience with child and family psychiatric department, in Mayo Hospital, Lahore, Pakistan 	
RESEARCH PUBLICATIONS	
<p>Higher Longevity and Post Retirement Productive Engagements of Retired University Faculty, Middle East Journals of Age & Aging vol.7, issue 5 (2010)</p> <p>Crime Trends among Youth (15-29) in Gujrat, Pakistan, African Journal of Law and Criminology, Volume 1 Number 2 (2011)</p> <p>Brain Drain of Doctors; Causes & Consequences in Pakistan presented in "International Conference on Migration, Development and Human Security, Bangkok" March 29-31 2011, First Hotel Bangkok.</p>	

9. Erklärung

Ich versichere, dass ich meine Dissertation

“Perceived Parenting Styles and Juvenile Delinquency in Pakistan”

Selbständig ohne unerlaubte Hilfe angefertigt und mich dabei keiner anderen als der von mir ausdrücklich bezeichneten Quellen und Hilfen bedient habe.

Die Dissertation wurde in der jetzigen oder einer ähnlichen Form noch bei keiner anderen Hochschule eingereicht und hat noch keinen sonstigen Prüfungszwecken gedient.

Marburg an der Lahn, Januar, 2017

Rubina Kauser