

## Perceived Parenting, Self-Efficacy, and Resilience in Indian Youth

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### ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to understand the relationship between perceived parenting, self-efficacy, and resilience in Indian Youth, as well as to assess the factors which influence levels of perceived parenting in the domains of involvement, warmth, and autonomy support, along with self-efficacy and resilience in youth. The sample consisted of 154 men and women in the age group of 15-29, based in urban areas of India (mostly Delhi NCR). Perceived parenting, self-efficacy, and resilience were assessed on the basis of gender, parental gender, parental employment, and family structure using the Perception of Parents Scale, General Self-Efficacy Scale, and Brief Resilience Scale. Significant correlations were found between perceived parenting, self-efficacy, and resilience. Significant differences were also found in the perception of mothers and fathers in the domains of involvement, warmth, and autonomy support. Differences were also found in the perception of working and non-working parents (particularly mothers) in the domain of involvement.

**Keywords:** Parenting, Perceived Parenting, Parenting Dimensions, Self-Efficacy, Resilience

### Parenting

Parenting practices across cultures are widely influenced by the set of beliefs held about ideal parental behavior and the values that are prioritized by the culture in question. The cultural beliefs and values influence the parenting style and mould it into one that is accepted within the culture. These beliefs and values are represented in routine activities and interactions between the parent and the child (Tuli, 2012). Thus, parenting styles are nested within and influenced by particular “cultural scripts” (Super & Harkness, 1986).

These scripts and beliefs, in turn, are the foundation of parental behaviors that go on to influence developmental outcomes for the children (Lightfoot & Valsiner, 1992). These beliefs, however, are not static. As cultures shift and grow with increasing globalization,

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## Perceived Parenting, Self-Efficacy, and Resilience in Indian Youth

parents and children not only influence the culture but also imbibe it within themselves (Goodnow, 1988; Harkness & Super, 1996; Valsiner, 2007).

Parents play a pivotal role in the identity formation of an individual and provide the context and environment in which children grow up and form their initial sense of self and attitudes (Whitchurch and Constantine, 2009). While negative childhood experiences can lead to adverse outcomes, positive factors such as warmth and trust are important for healthy youth development (Chauhan et al., 2014; Khaleque, 2013).

One of the first people to categorically define parenting styles through experimental methods was Baumrind (1967, 1971), who proposed three parenting styles – authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive. The uninvolved parenting style was later introduced by Maccoby and Martin (1986) and added to the Baumrind parenting style as the neglectful parenting style (Baumrind, 1991). Baumrind's parenting styles based on the dimensions of control and warmth have been found to be present across cultures, both collectivistic and individualistic (Sorkhabi, 2005).

Parenting styles were later defined as “a constellation of attitudes toward the child that are communicated to the child and that, taken together, create an emotional climate in which the parent's behaviors are expressed” by Darling and Steinberg (1993).

### Parenting in India

Parents and family are considered the chief socialization agents for individuals in India, influencing social interactions and relationships at all levels (Tuli, 2012). Joint families have traditionally represented the majority family structure, and individuals are influenced in their developmental period by parents, grandparents, other extended family members, and even neighbors (Chaudhary, 2004; Kakar & Kakar, 2007; Keller, 2007; Seymour, 1999).

The scenario appears to be changing, however, with increasingly nuclear households in urban India and reduced roles of extended family (Tuli, 2012), as well as a re-negotiation of gendered parental identities and parental role expectations, particularly due to higher rates of maternal employment (Bhatia, 2006; Uberoi, 2007).

Mothers in Asian societies have been reported to adopt authoritarian parenting styles, as well as corporal punishment (Jambunathan & Counselman, 2002). However, with the influence of Western culture, this may no longer be fully applicable. Working and non-working women in India employ a range of styles and techniques (Singh & Sharma, 1975) such as explaining and scolding, as well as ignoring and discouraging certain behaviors by the child, depending on the context (Singh & Kaur, 1981). Parenting differs from culture to culture, with differing socialization goals and parenting styles, depending on the gender of the child (Chao, 2000).

Compared to Western societies where the emphasis is on autonomous socialization and promoting independence and self-expression, Eastern/Asian societies such as India focus on promoting obedience and respect toward authority and elders, as well as interdependence (Keller & Otto, 2009).

Parents in Indian societies influence all facets of their child's life, and this influence asserts itself all throughout life, continuing into young adulthood, which is seen as a phase not of independence as much as a phase of increased responsibility (Seiter & Nelson 2011). Indian

children often continue to live with and experience parental influence well into early adulthood, as they pursue higher education or search for job prospects and stabilize their careers (Brar et al., 2018).

While many studies have unanimously shown that a parenting style characterized by high control and warmth (authoritative) is best suited for American and European families, i.e. greater competency in social skills, better emotional regulation, and higher autonomy and independence (Baumrind, 1966, 1971; Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Lamborn et al., 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983), there is mixed evidence in Asian societies. Some studies show that parenting styles associated with high levels of control and low levels of warmth (authoritarian) lead to lower levels of life satisfaction and self-esteem in individuals (Shek, 1999), thus solidifying the findings from Western societies.

On the other hand, studies also show that authoritarian parenting has been linked to better academic outcomes (Leung et al., 1998) and adequate self-esteem (Rudy & Grusec, 2006). Authoritarian parenting style also appears to be aligned with the dominant Indian Hindu values (Saraswati & Pai, 1997).

### **Parenting Styles and Parenting Dimensions**

The concept of parenting styles was first put forth by Baumrind as a way of denoting varied mutually interlinked behaviors typically displayed by parents of a certain parenting style, such as low control and low warmth in dismissive parenting, low control and high warmth in permissive parenting, low warmth and high control in authoritarian parenting, and high warmth and high control in authoritative parenting. These parenting styles were thus viewed as relatively stable and consistent patterns of behavior.

However, parenting, like all human behaviors, is contextual in nature. A parent may not always fit a particular “style” across situations or even across various developmental stages of the child. This context-dependent facet is particularly powerful in collectivist cultures like India, where parents may constantly mold their parenting behaviors as per the social influence exerted by extended family and community at large.

Parenting thus began to be studied in two ways - a typological (parental style-based) approach, and a dimensional (parenting dimension-based) approach. For the purposes of this study, an attempt has been made to understand parenting not in terms of rigid styles, but fluid dimensions. These dimensions have been defined as “the features, the qualities, the descriptive scheme used to capture the nature of parenting” (Skinner, Johnson, & Snyder, 2005). This will allow for a more in-depth and closer understanding of the components that contribute to perceived parenting by the youth. This approach is also in alignment with recent studies, which seem to be shifting their focus from parenting styles to parenting dimensions instead.

### **Perceived Parenting**

Various researches have been conducted in the field of parenting over the years. Many researchers have studied the perception of parenting by the child, rather than directly obtaining self-reports from the parents (Barnhart et al., 2012). While it may be assumed that direct reports from the parent will act as the most authentic source, there has been consistency between perceived and self-reported parenting (Garg et al., 2005). A similar approach has been utilized in the present study as well.

## Perceived Parenting, Self-Efficacy, and Resilience in Indian Youth

Moreover, given the objectives of this study, compared to what the parents themselves think of their parenting, perceived parenting may play a much more important role in influencing one's self-efficacy and resilience, both of which are very belief-driven. When it comes to the same task or obstacle, two individuals may deal with them very differently depending on how they perceive the situation and their skillset, rather than how the situation objectively is.

### Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977) refers to “confidence in accomplishing set goals” (Pathirathna et al., 2023). Bandura also defines self-efficacy as “people's beliefs in their capabilities to produce desired effects by their actions” (Bandura, 1997). The theory of self-efficacy takes into account the natural agency present in each person, and the ways in which they are not only influenced by but are also influential in their environments. The belief that one can control the outcomes of their life also fosters a perceived predictability and greater psychological safety, in turn enhancing motivation.

When there is a lack of perceived efficacy or power to bring about outcomes, individuals are more likely to feel demotivated and struggle to push past obstacles. Bandura proposed 4 dimensions of self-efficacy in individuals – enactive mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological indexes.

Enactive mastery experience provides the most direct evidence of an individual's ability and presence of relevant skills to perform a specific task or to be in control of a given situation. It is shaped by experiences of both success and failure, wherein easy successes lead to weaker resilience in the face of failures, and frequent failures occurring before the establishment of a stable sense of efficacy can undermine an individual's belief in their abilities. The availability of adequate resources significantly influences the impact of adversities on an individual, with those with adequate resources coming out of the adversity more resilient and self-efficacious.

Vicarious experience or modeling is another factor contributing to personal efficacy. Vicarious experience is a particularly relevant factor for skills that do not have a clear, objective measure of adequate attainment, and thus are best appraised in relationship to others' skill attainment. The social comparison thus acts as a primary source of efficacy estimation when abilities are to be judged in relationship to others. Since this appraisal is done in comparison to other individuals, it fluctuates depending on the level of skill attainment of the comparison group.

A third contributing factor is social/verbal persuasion, which refers to verbal support and affirmation of one's abilities by significant others. Although verbal persuasion has a limited ability to increase efficacy, it can strengthen one's motivation for realistic levels of skill attainment.

Individuals also rely on the information conveyed by physiological and affective states to form self-efficacy. Such indexes are particularly relevant for tasks related to health and physical functioning. For example, high levels of physiological activation in stressful situations would generally lead to a negative appraisal of one's efficacy in dealing with such circumstances. Similar to physiological indexes, affective states also influence self-efficacy beliefs.

Bandura (1977; 1982) has elaborated on two types of expectancies in self-efficacy – efficacy expectancy and outcome expectancy. Outcome expectancy refers to the possibility of attaining a particular goal or outcome. Efficacy expectancy is one's confidence in their ability to perform a task (Sanna, 1992).

### **Resilience**

Resilience has long been seen as an extraordinary quality, but recent researchers have pointed out how it is, in fact, an outcome of a normal adaptation system in humans. If adequate levels of support and protection is provided to these systems in the early years, most people can be expected to bounce back from adverse circumstances. However, impaired adaptation systems increase the likelihood of developmental problems, particularly in coping with obstacles. The likelihood of impaired resilience systems is much higher in case of prolonged or chronic adversities (Masten, 2001).

According to Strumpfer (2001), resilience can be characterized as a pattern of psychological processes involving a determination to remain strong when faced with significant challenges, the purposeful actions of coping and bouncing back, and the associated emotions and thoughts. Another definition of resilience, as proposed by Luthar et al. (2000) and Connor & Davidson (2003), describes it as achieving positive developmental results despite encountering adversity. Similarly, Sandler, Wolchik, Mackinnon, Ayers, & Roosa (1997) define resilience as the process, capacity, or outcome of successfully adapting to difficult or threatening circumstances.

Zautra et al. (2010) define resilience as “an outcome of successful adaptation to adversity.” Resilience can be further defined in terms of recovery, or the ability to overcome adversity (Masten, 2001; Rutter, 1987), and sustainability, or the ability to maintain a resilient outlook in spite of difficulties (Bonanno, 2004).

Resilience in an individual is multifaceted and is influenced both by internal personality traits and by external life experiences (Kritzas & Grobler, 2005). It also positively affects life satisfaction (Gable & Haidt, 2005) and well-being (Brunwasser et al., 2009; Burton et al., 2010; Seligman et al., 2009), thus making it a construct worth studying in greater detail.

### **Self-Efficacy and Parenting**

Self-efficacy is influenced by a broad range of factors, both internal and external to an individual. It is largely a socio-cultural construct and is primarily influenced by the family environment in the early years.

The earliest sense of efficacy is thus formed during infancy, in relationship to parents and caregivers through the exercise of “proxy control” (Bandura, 1997), wherein the infant seeks to produce outcomes by influencing adults. Parents significantly influence this development of early efficacy by being responsive to the infant and providing an enriching environment.

Based on Baumrind's theory, studies have shown a positive relationship between authoritative parenting and self-efficacy, and no relationship between authoritarian or permissive parenting and self-efficacy (Tam et al., 2012). Individuals raised by parents with an authoritative style experience high control as well as warmth, which has been linked to positive outcomes such as assertiveness and independence.

## Perceived Parenting, Self-Efficacy, and Resilience in Indian Youth

On the other hand, those raised with an authoritarian style report low warmth and high control, leading to withdrawn and discontented behaviors. A permissive style, involving low control and high levels of warmth, has been associated with poor self-regulation and dependence (Baumrind, 1967).

### Resilience and Parenting

Various studies have indicated that positive parenting behaviors can foster better mental health in individuals (Sandler et al., 1997; Roosa et al., 1997), and significantly influence the development of healthy self-esteem and resilience (Joseph, 1994).

Individuals who have been maltreated by family and caregivers typically display lower levels of resilience compared to those without any history of maltreatment (Cicchetti & Rogosch, 2012). Strong familial ties, especially those with parents, foster resilience in individuals by acting as a source of support (Smokowski et al., 1999).

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A study conducted on parental beliefs in India (Tuli, 2008; Tuli & Chaudhary, 2010) involved extensive interviews of mothers, along with a few fathers and grandmothers. The study primarily assessed maternal beliefs on various topics ranging from pregnancy, breastfeeding & eating behavior of children, to behavioral regulation and agency in children. The findings revealed that bearing children is seen as a positive, even expected act. For married couples, it is seen as an obligation towards the family and society, and women who are pregnant experience social support, and even lack thereof in case of not becoming a mother before the age of 30.

In the domain of eating, all mothers reported feeling that their child did not eat enough or ate unhealthy food. Interestingly, the findings also showed that while all mothers believed that the child should learn to eat independently, they continued to feed the child themselves because they felt that this was “easier, less time consuming and ensured that a certain amount of food was consumed by the child” (Tuli, 2012).

There was an emphasis on control and regulation of behaviour in all domains, with mothers being the primary figure in charge and fathers and grandparents being secondary to the mother. However, mothers also reported being unable to uphold their beliefs at certain times due to situational factors.

While support was expressed for the idea of self-reliance in children, such independence was approved of only in situational contexts and only in certain domains. Parental behavior also seems to differ on the basis of the parent’s gender (Russel & Aloa, 1998; Winsler et al., 2005). Self-reported parenting styles of mothers generally tend to be more authoritative, while fathers tend to be either authoritarian or permissive. In contrast, however, mothers tend to be perceived as more authoritative and/or permissive than fathers (Conrade & Ho, 2001).

Another commonly shared belief was that girls and boys are inherently different and that the way they are raised and the methods employed by parents to regulate their behavior must also be different. While some studies report that the male child experiences greater nurturance and is seen as more preferable in Indian society (Bhogle, 1991; Gupta, 1964), others report that the female child is usually raised with an authoritative parenting style and

## Perceived Parenting, Self-Efficacy, and Resilience in Indian Youth

the male child is raised with authoritarian parenting style (Lytton & Romney, 1991). Daughters also report experiencing greater parental warmth (Someya et al., 2000).

A study on resilience conducted by Smowkowski et al. (1999) showed that individuals who report having parents who act as positive role models and provide consistent care and support, also report having higher resilience. This is particularly true for families living in situations of financial difficulties or other adverse conditions. Having supportive family environments also plays a positive role in enhancing self-esteem and motivating the individual to create strong, nurturing relationships outside the family.

Another study conducted by Wagner et al. (1996) showed that warm parenting can reduce the likelihood of depression as a reaction to stressful life events, thus leading to higher resilience, compared to parents who employ harsher disciplinary measures.

Gardner (2011) reports a positive correlation between parental social self-efficacy and child social self-efficacy. Parents play a pivotal role in the development of self-efficacy in children by providing opportunities for the child to perform various tasks and also providing feedback to help the child improve. This, in turn, fosters a realistic estimate of abilities, that is, self-efficacy in the child. Parents particularly influence the vicarious experience and verbal persuasion dimensions of self-efficacy (Schunk & Meece, 2006).

Hamill (2003) conducted a study assessing resilience and self-efficacy in adolescents. The analysis identified four distinct groups: resilient, competent, maladaptive, and a group with low adversity and competence levels. Resilient and competent adolescents showed similarities in self-efficacy and coping strategies, whereas maladaptive and low competence/low adversity individuals scored lower on these measures compared to the resilient and competent groups.

Self-efficacy and the ability to express coping strategies were crucial factors distinguishing the resilient from maladaptive youths. However, traits such as internal control, stress response, persistence, and the ability to choose positive coping methods did not differ significantly across the four groups. This suggests these traits might play a lesser role in developing competence amid adversity when compared to self-efficacy.

### ***Rationale of the Study***

Self-efficacy and resilience are essential components of psychological well-being and adaptive functioning in youth. Understanding how these qualities are nurtured within the family environment, particularly due to the influence of parenting, can inform efforts to enhance youth well-being and mental health outcomes.

The understanding of the effect of parenting styles and behaviors on the development of self-efficacy and resilience in youth can also provide insights into the optimal developmental trajectory of children and adolescents. This can facilitate interventions aimed at fostering positive development and can be useful for parents and developmental research.

### ***Research Questions***

- “Is there a relationship between parenting, self-efficacy, and resilience?”
- “How does the perception of parenting, self-efficacy, and resilience differ in individuals based on their gender, employment status of parents, and family structure?”

## Perceived Parenting, Self-Efficacy, and Resilience in Indian Youth

- “Do mothers and fathers differ in how they are perceived by their children?”

### *Objectives*

1. To understand perceived parenting, resilience, and self-efficacy in Indian youth.
2. To study the relationship between perceived parenting, self-efficacy, and resilience.
3. To study perceived parenting, resilience, and self-efficacy on the basis of gender, parental gender, parental employment, and family structure.

### *Hypotheses*

- H1 - There will be a positive relationship between perceived parenting, self-efficacy, and resilience.
- H2 - There will be differences in perceived parenting, self-efficacy, and resilience on the basis of gender.
- H3 - There will be differences in perceived parenting on the basis of parental gender.
- H4 - There will be differences in perceived parenting on the basis of parental employment.
- H5 - There will be differences in perceived maternal parenting on the basis of employment.
- H6 - There will be differences in self-efficacy on the basis of parental employment.
- H7 - There will be differences in resilience on the basis of parental employment.
- H8 - There will be differences in perceived parenting, self-efficacy, and resilience on the basis of family structure.

## **METHOD**

### *Design of Study*

The present study is quantitative in nature and involved the use of three self-report questionnaires to measure perceived parenting, self-efficacy, and resilience. The total sample consisted of 154 participants, and the data was collected using purposive and snowball sampling techniques. Correlational and inferential statistics in the form of t-tests were used.

### *Sample*

The sample of this study consisted of Indian men and women in the age group of 15 to 29, who have been raised by both their parents (N=154; 102 women and 52 men). The theoretical bases for this age selection were two-fold:

- The National Youth Policy (2014) defines youth as the age group between 15-29 years of age. While the United Nations defines youth as the age group of 15-24, it is important to take into account the prolonged period of parental influence of parents on young adults in India, which may last well into the late 20s (Brar et al, 2018).
- Individuals raised in single-parent households were excluded to ensure the presence of parental influence of both mother and father. This data was further categorized into demographic factors such as socioeconomic status, family setup, parental employment status, and the number of siblings. The participants belong to urban areas, primarily Delhi NCR. To expedite data collection through convenience sampling, participants were sought in person as well as through Google Forms.

### *Tool Description*

**The Perception of Parents Scale (POPS).** The Perception of Parents Scale (POPS) was developed by Robbins (1994) and further updated by Grolnick, Deci, & Ryan in 1997, based



## Perceived Parenting, Self-Efficacy, and Resilience in Indian Youth

on the ideas of self-determination theory. POPS measures perceived paternal and maternal parenting in three dimensions - autonomy support, warmth, and involvement.

The scale has 42 items: 21 for mothers and 21 for fathers. From these items, 6 subscale scores are calculated: Mother Autonomy Support, Mother Involvement, and Mother Warmth, as well as Father Autonomy Support, Father Involvement, and Father Warmth. Dimension-wise Cronbach's alphas were .53 for maternal autonomy support, .56 for maternal involvement, .67 for paternal autonomy support; and .64 for paternal involvement.

Warmth has also been referred to as "responsiveness" in the literature. It typically refers to the affective quality of the parent-child relationship, involving aspects such as emotional availability, affection, and support (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

While parental involvement is often clubbed under the dimension of parental warmth, this scale differentiates between the two by referring to parental involvement as simply the amount of time and attention the parent provides the child.

The concept of autonomy support was initially seen in terms of the absence of coercion or control (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010). However, there has been a shift in the definition towards the presence of supportive control (Skinner et al., 2005), rather than the absence of coercive control. Autonomy support by parents is now seen as an encouragement of independence, and allowing the child to think freely and make their own choices (Gralewski & Jankowska, 2020).

**The General Self-Efficacy (GSE) Scale.** The General Self-Efficacy (GSE) Scale developed by Schwarzer & Jerusalem in 1995 is a 10-item self-report measure of self-efficacy. GSE is correlated to emotion, optimism, work satisfaction. Negative coefficients were found for depression, stress, health complaints, burnout, and anxiety.

The scale follows a Likert-type scoring, ranging from 1 (Not at all true) to 4 (Exactly true). The total score is calculated by finding the sum of the all items. For the GSE, the total score ranges between 10 and 40, with a higher score indicating more self-efficacy. The Cronbach's alpha value of GSE according to the original authors indicates an internal reliability between .76 and .90.

**The Brief Resilience Scale (BRS).** The Brief Resilience Scale (BRS) was developed by Smith et al. in 2008. It is a simple 6-item scale used to measure resilience level in individuals, with higher scores indicating higher resilience. The Cronbach's alpha value of GSE according to the original authors indicates internal reliability ranging from .80 to .91.

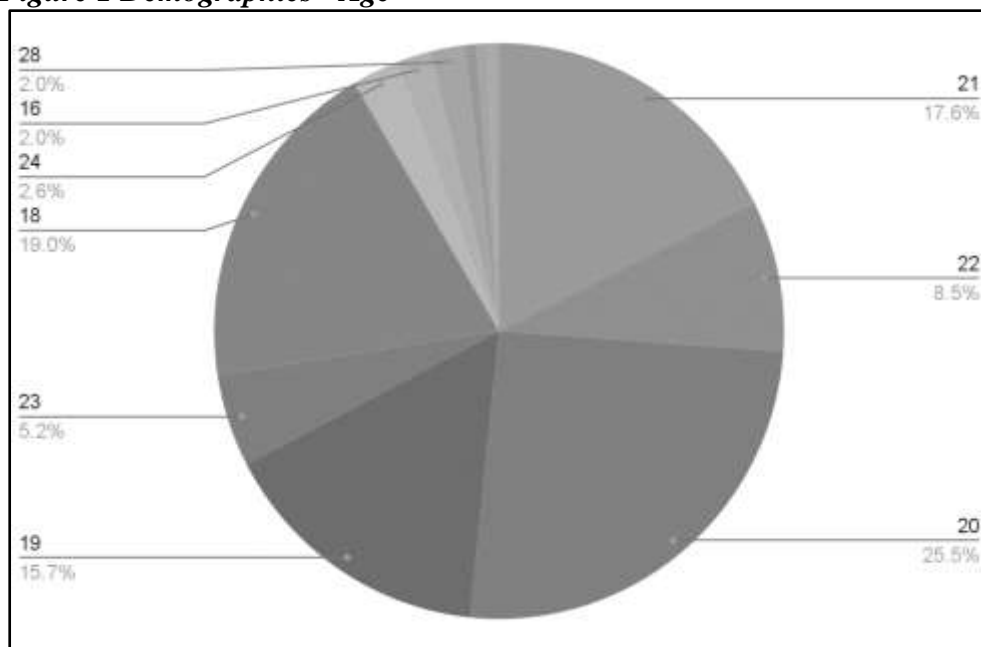
## RESULTS

### *Descriptive Analysis*

Participants were asked about demographic information, such as age, sex, family setup while growing up, employment status of parents (single or both parents working), whether they are an only child or have siblings, and annual family income.

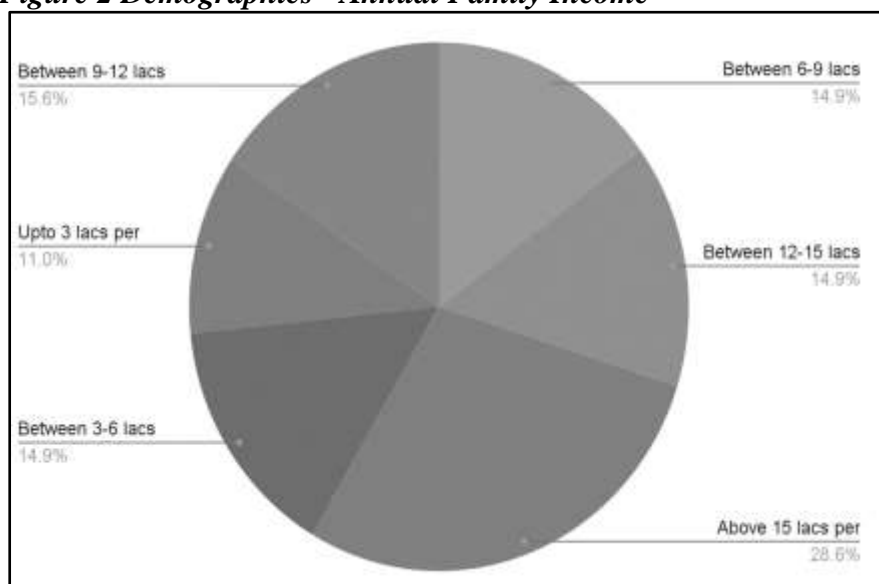
The sample belonged to the age group of 16-28 (selection criteria was 15-29). Family income ranged from below 3 lakhs per annum to above 15 lakhs per annum.

**Figure 1 Demographics - Age**



*Note. Demographic representations of data as per age.*

**Figure 2 Demographics - Annual Family Income**

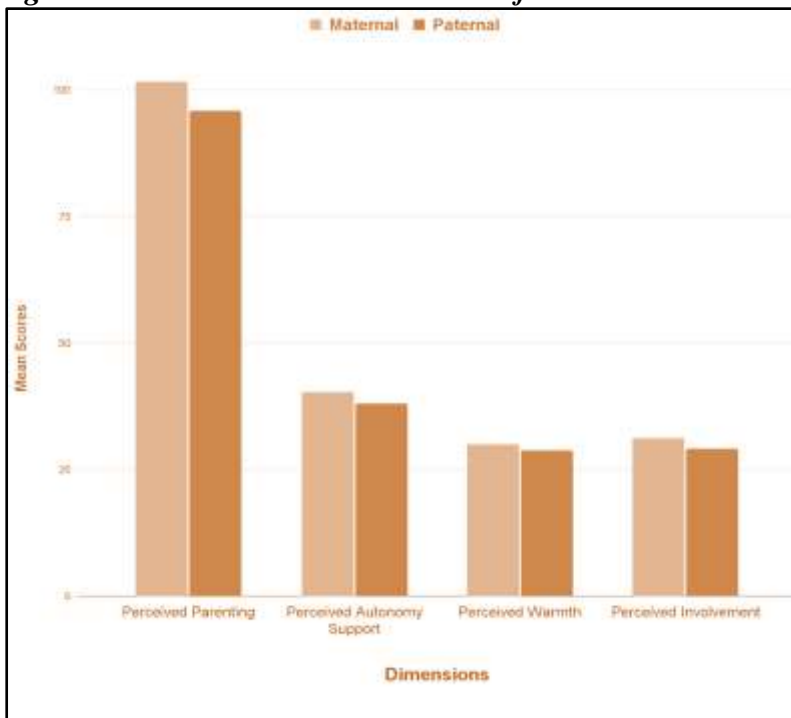


*Note. Demographic representation of data as per annual family income.*

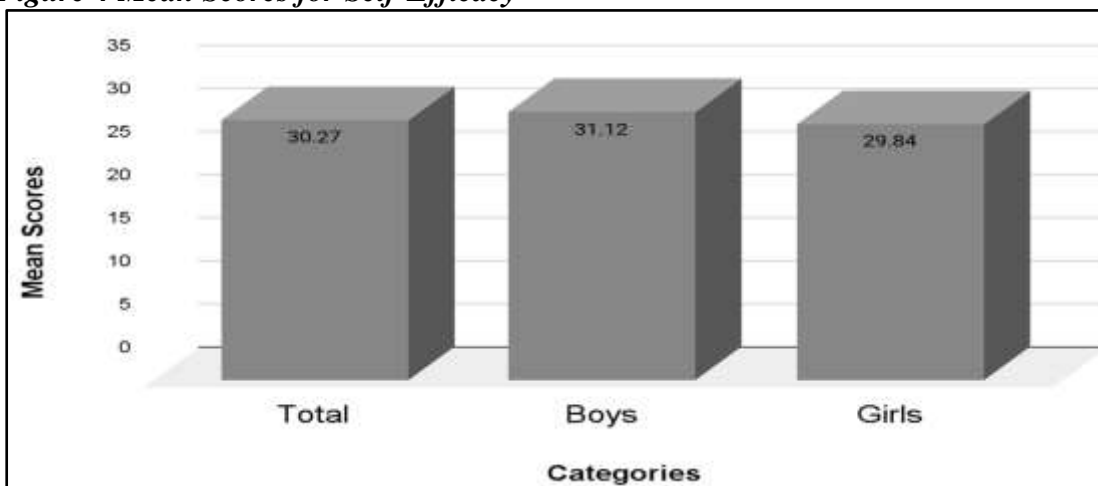
The first objective of this study was to understand perceived parenting, resilience, and self-efficacy in youth. Mean scores and SD were computed for each dimension.

## Perceived Parenting, Self-Efficacy, and Resilience in Indian Youth

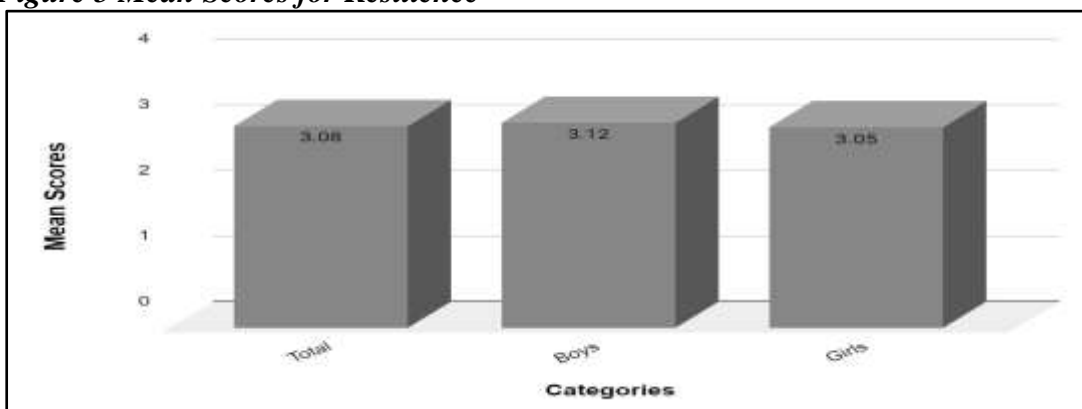
**Figure 3 Dimension-wise Mean Scores for Perceived Parenting**



**Figure 4 Mean Scores for Self-Efficacy**



**Figure 5 Mean Scores for Resilience**



## Perceived Parenting, Self-Efficacy, and Resilience in Indian Youth

Before analyzing the data, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated for each scale to establish its reliability for the current sample. The reliability values for the Perception of Parents Scale, General Self-Efficacy Scale, and Brief Resilience Scale were found to be .95, .89, and .73, respectively.

Dimension-wise Cronbach's alpha values for perceived autonomy support, warmth, and involvement were found to be .90, .89, and .88, respectively.

Further, Cronbach alpha values were calculated for the domains of maternal autonomy support, maternal warmth, maternal involvement, paternal autonomy support, paternal warmth, and paternal involvement.

**Table 1 Dimension-wise Cronbach's Alpha for POP, GSE, and BRS Scales**

Dimension	Cronbach's Alpha
Maternal Autonomy Support	.84
Maternal Warmth	.81
Maternal Involvement	.77
Paternal Autonomy Support	.84
Paternal Warmth	.81
Paternal Involvement	.81
Self-Efficacy	.89
Resilience	.73

The second objective was to understand the relationship between perceived parenting, self-efficacy, and resilience in youth.

**Table 2.1 Coefficient of Relationship between Perceived Paternal Parenting, Resilience, and Self-Efficacy**

Dimensions	Paternal Autonomy Support	Paternal Warmth	Paternal Involvement	Perceived Paternal Parenting	Self-Efficacy	Resilience
Paternal Autonomy Support	1.00	.77***	.68***	.92***	.317***	.303***
Paternal Warmth		1.00	.78***	.92***	.223**	.251**
Paternal Involvement			1.00	.88***	.158*	.225**
Perceived Paternal Parenting				1.00	.267***	.291***
Self-Efficacy					1.00	.556***
Resilience						1.00

Note. \* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$ , \*\*\* =  $p < .001$

## Perceived Parenting, Self-Efficacy, and Resilience in Indian Youth

**Table 2.2 Coefficient of Relationship between Perceived Maternal Parenting, Resilience, and Self-Efficacy**

Dimensions	Maternal Autonomy Support	Maternal Warmth	Maternal Involvement	Perceived Maternal Parenting	Self- Efficacy	Resilience
Maternal Autonomy Support	1.00	.74***	.63***	.91***	.327***	.315***
Maternal Warmth		1.00	.75***	.91***	.253**	.249**
Maternal Involvement			1.00	.85***	.190*	.236**
Perceived Maternal Parenting				1.00	.299***	.305***
Self- Efficacy					1.00	.556***
Resilience						1.00

Note. \* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$ , \*\*\* =  $p < .001$

The correlation between dimensions of perceived parenting, self-efficacy, and resilience was found to be significant at varying levels, with the relationship between overall maternal and paternal parenting, self-efficacy, and resilience being significant at .001. The correlation coefficients ranged from low to moderate levels of correlation. H1 was thus retained.

The third objective was to understand differences in perceived parenting, self-efficacy, and resilience on the basis of gender, parental gender, parental employment, and family structure.

**Table 3 Dimension-wise Mean, SD, and t-value of Perceived Parenting across Parental Gender**

Dimension	Mother (n = 154)		Father (n = 154)		t value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Perceived Parenting	101.77	22.65	95.94	24.29	4.36***
Perceived Autonomy Support	40.39	11.00	38.01	11.16	3.68***
Perceived Warmth	30.12	7.51	29.17	7.81	3.30***
Perceived Involvement	31.26	6.67	29.17	7.71	4.88***

\*\*\* =  $p < .001$

Significant differences ( $p < .001$ ) were found in perceived parenting on the basis of parental gender. H3 was thus retained.

## Perceived Parenting, Self-Efficacy, and Resilience in Indian Youth

**Table 4.1 Dimension-wise Mean, SD, and t-value of Perceived Maternal Parenting across Parental Employment**

Dimension	Single Parent Employed (n = 94)		Both Parents Employed (n = 60)		t value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Perceived Maternal Parenting	103.07	23.06	99.72	22.03	.90
Perceived Maternal Autonomy Support	40.72	11.36	39.87	10.49	.47
Perceived Maternal Warmth	30.24	7.64	29.92	7.37	.26
Perceived Maternal Involvement	32.11	6.20	29.93	7.20	1.99*

\* =  $p < .05$

**Table 4.2 Dimension-wise Mean, SD, and t-value of Perceived Paternal Parenting across Parental Employment**

Dimension	Single Parent Employed (n = 94)		Both Parents Employed (n = 60)		t value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Perceived Paternal Parenting	98.09	22.41	92.58	26.84	1.37
Perceived Paternal Autonomy Support	38.68	10.71	36.95	11.83	.94
Perceived Paternal Warmth	29.22	7.45	28.05	8.37	.91
Perceived Paternal Involvement	30.18	6.67	27.58	8.93	2.06*

\* =  $p < .05$

On the basis of parental employment, significant differences were only found for the dimension of perceived involvement for both mother and father. Thus, H4 was partially retained.

No significant differences were found in perceived parenting, self-efficacy, and resilience across gender and family structure. No significant differences were found in self-efficacy and resilience on the basis of parental employment. H2, H5, H6, and H7 were thus rejected.

## DISCUSSION

Parents are an integral part of an individual's typical socialization in the ways of the world, and particularly one's culture. This is why parenting has been a major area of interest for decades, with parenting being studied in various ways, be it in the context of particular parenting styles (Bandura 1967, 1971) or dimension-wise evaluations (Skinner et al., 2005). There have also been a multitude of studies assessing parenting and its influence from both

## Perceived Parenting, Self-Efficacy, and Resilience in Indian Youth

sides - as reported by the parents themselves, or as perceived by the child (Bogels & Melick, 2004, Barnhart et al., 2012).

Psychodynamic theories have emphasized for decades that it is through the relationship with the parents, that the child comes to form a stable sense of own self, and this early relationship is internalized and carried forward into adulthood (Kernberg, 1999), wherein it influences almost every other relationship in life through the formation of attachment styles (Bowlby, 1969).

Two key components of the sense of self are self-efficacy and resilience. Resilience and self-efficacy have consistently been associated with positive outcomes, and are important predictors of success in life (Bandura et al., 2001; Luthar, 2015). An attempt has been made to explore the inter-relationship between parenting dimensions and the development of resilience and self-efficacy in this study. It was found that the perception of parents, self-efficacy, and resilience are significantly and positively correlated to each other. This means that all three of these components influence each other.

In particular, it can be said that more positively perceived parenting is likely to positively influence the level of self-efficacy and resilience in the individual, which may lead to better long-term outcomes in life.

The present study also aimed to find out the various aspects of an individual's psychosocial environment that influence their perception of their parents, resilience, and self-efficacy. Some of the factors taken into consideration included gender (Lytton & Romney, 1991; Someya et al., 2000), parental gender (Russel & Aloa, 1998; Winsler et al., 2005), parental employment (Nomaguchi & Milkie, 2006; Gürsoy & Biçakçi, 2007), and family structure (Khurshid, Parveen, & Yousuf, 2014; Gera & Kaur, 2015).

Perceived parenting was assessed in three dimensions - warmth, involvement, and autonomy support. All three of these dimensions contribute to the overall quality of the relationship shared by the parent and the child and are discussed in detail below.

### **Warmth**

One of the hallmarks of a healthy parent-child relationship is affection or warmth, commonly talked about as "love" in everyday conversations. Warmth is the affective dimension of a relationship, which characterizes the level of expressed and felt affection in the dynamic, as well as a general sense of liking for each other. Parents high in warmth can typically be expected to express acceptance for their children, convey love and affection through words and actions, and put in effort to make their children feel special.

### **Involvement**

Warmth cannot be expressed in the absence of actual presence, termed as involvement for the purposes of this study. Involvement as a dimension indicates the level of interest a parent may be taking in their child's life.

It can be expressed and inferred on the basis of the time spent by the parent with the child (be it in terms of doing activities together or taking out the time to talk to them), as well as how much the parent seems to think of the child on an everyday basis. Involved parents are also more likely to expend time and energy into helping their children.

## Perceived Parenting, Self-Efficacy, and Resilience in Indian Youth

In today's busy and fast-paced world, where both parents and children are busy and caught up in their own lives, the extent to which parents are available and involved in their children's lives may make a major difference in the quality of the relationship.

### Autonomy Support

Along with the two factors mentioned above, another critical dimension that separates a positive, healthy parent-child relationship from one filled with resentment on either end is the level of independence and autonomy given to the child.

Autonomy support is characterized by the level of independence given to the child, as well as the encouragement to become self-sufficient and able to make one's own decisions. Parents who are supportive of their child's autonomy tend to allow their children to make their own choices, find their own direction and purpose in life and are generally open to seeing things from their child's point of view.

Such parents may be less likely to enforce their ideas or be rigid when it comes to the trajectory of their child's life. Due to increased globalization, Indian youth may be more likely to prefer greater levels of independence and autonomy.

On the basis of parental gender, it was found that there is a significant difference in the way fathers and mothers are perceived in the dimensions of autonomy support, warmth, and involvement (Table 3). Mothers were perceived to be higher in all three dimensions compared to fathers (Figure 3).

In the Indian social context, mothers have traditionally been the primary caregivers to their children (Jambunathan & Counselman, 2002; Gupta, 1964), and in many families, this trend may last into the child's later years as well, with the fathers taking on a slightly less direct and more distant role in their child's life. This difference may show up in the form of mothers playing a more prominent role in supporting children, looking after their immediate needs, providing affection in a more emotionally and physically expressive way, and encouraging them to become independent.

Studies in other countries have shown that mothers and fathers tend to also differ in self-reported parenting (Russel & Aloa, 1998; Winsler et al., 2005), with mothers taking on a more "active" role compared to fathers, be it in terms of exerting control or providing warmth and autonomy (Conrade & Ho, 2001).

Sriram & Navalkar (2012) conducted a qualitative study on paternal parenting and found that fathers are typically influenced by their own parents when it comes to being an "ideal father", as well as by media and society at large. It is then very likely that men raised by fathers who are less involved, affectionate, or supportive of autonomy than their mothers may find themselves repeating the same pattern.

Another important finding was the lower level of perceived involvement in cases where both parents are employed, compared to only one parent (usually the father) being employed (Table 4.1 and 4.2). Working mothers often struggle with meeting family and work demands and balancing their time. Irrespective of their field of work, being the primary caregivers, mothers often feel intense "time pressure" (Rose, 2017).



## Perceived Parenting, Self-Efficacy, and Resilience in Indian Youth

This pressure often results not only from the paucity of time but also from the multi-tasking that working mothers often have to undertake in the limited time they have. Interestingly, no differences were found in levels of warmth or autonomy support.

This indicates that while there are real, logistical constraints in the involvement of working parents (particularly mothers) who may simply be unable to spend as much time with their children and get involved in their lives as much as non-working parents, this does not significantly hinder them from providing affection or encouraging their children to be independent.

This difference in perceived levels of involvement but lack of difference in perceived warmth and autonomy support may be indicative of the fact that while working parents (especially mothers, who are seen as primary caregivers) are unable to devote as much time to their children, the time which they are able to spend with their children may be qualitatively enriching.

In other words, working parents may make up for the reduced quantity of time spent with children with enhanced quality, thus making the objectively low levels of involvement more subjectively rich in terms of warmth and supportiveness.

Some researchers such as Morehead (2001) also draw our attention to the fact that the role of working mothers is not so black and white as to divide their time into “spent at work and “spent with family”. Rather, women are often doing multiple things at once. While at work, a woman may continue to play the role of a mother in indirect ways, and while at home, she may be involved in work-related tasks as well.

Thus, the perceived involvement needs to be seen not only in the context of the amount of time spent but rather the type of time spent with children.

In conclusion, the present study highlights the influence of parental gender and employment on the perception of parental involvement and support in the lives of their children, as well as the contribution of parenting to the enhancement of self-efficacy and resilience. The dynamics of warmth, autonomy support, and involvement play crucial roles in shaping the quality of the parent-child relationship.

The findings underscore the traditional role of mothers as primary caregivers in the Indian social context, emphasizing their greater prominence in providing emotional expression and support to their children. Additionally, there is an indication to the compensatory qualitative richness in interactions of working parents, especially mothers, when faced with time constraints due to employment (Morehead, 2001; Rose, 2007).

### ***Limitations and Future Implications***

- There may be gaps and discrepancies in gaining a complete understanding of the parent-child relationship through perceived parenting only when compared with parental self-report. Parents may consider themselves as leaning towards a particular parenting style or being high or low in one dimension or the other, while the child may see them as being completely opposite (Smetana, 1995).
- The results would be more robust and reliable if they could be corroborated with parental self-reports. Due to paucity of time and field constraints, the sample could not be more representative of non-urban youth.

## Perceived Parenting, Self-Efficacy, and Resilience in Indian Youth

- The findings of this study indicate that parenting continues to play an influential role in an individual's sense of self and life trajectory well into adulthood. Resilience and self-efficacy not only enhance the likelihood of success and overall well-being but may also act as protective forces against the negative effects of adverse life events.
- Overall, this study aims to provide valuable insights into the complexities of parent-child relationships and the multifaceted influence of parental gender and employment dynamics. These insights may have practical implications for family interventions and support programs aimed at enhancing the quality of parent-child relationships in diverse sociocultural contexts. The difference in the quality of time spent with children by working and non-working parents may also be studied further.

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