Impact of Parenting on Emotional Awareness of Children

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Abstract: The aim of this study is to examine the impact of parenting on emotional awareness of children. For this study a sample of 100 was taken between the ages of 14 years to 18 years and was assessed on perception of parenting scale (POPS), and emotional awareness questionnaire (EAQ). The correlation was made to see the relationship between the two variables. The result showed that there is no significant correlation between the two variables.

Keywords: Parenting, Parenting Style, Emotional Awareness

1. Introduction

Morrison defined parenting as "the process of developing and utilising the knowledge and skills appropriate to planning for, creating, giving birth to, and rearing and/or providing care for offspring". There are several features of parenting. Firstly, with the advancement in the medical field, parenting has become a choice in life. Secondly, choosing to be a parent is a life-long commitment. Thirdly, parenting involves responsibilities, as parents are responsible of taking good care of their children physically as well as psychologically. Lastly, parenting encompasses not just the couple but all the family members as the birth of a child has an impact on the whole family. The quality of parenting depends on several factors. Firstly, the basic factor of good quality parenting is the mature personality of the parents, as it also has an impact on the stable and intimate marital relationship, which is also the second factor of good quality parenting. Thirdly, the parents’ motivation of having a child would affect their way of parenting. Fourthly, whether the pregnancy is planned or accidental is also an important factor as planned pregnancy implies better preparation to be a good parent. Whether the parents’ level of expectation on the child is appropriate will certainly affect their parenting quality. Parents’ unrealistic expectation will exert pressure on children. Lastly, the child’s temperament and physical attributes is also a factor of good quality parenting.

During the early 1960s, psychologist Diana Baumrind conducted a study on more than 100 preschool-age children. Using naturalistic observation, parental interviews, and other research methods, she identified some important dimensions of parenting. These dimensions include disciplinary strategies, warmth and nurturing, communication styles, and expectations of maturity and control. Based on these dimensions, Baumrind suggested that the majority of parents display one of three different parenting styles. Further research by Maccoby and Martin also suggested adding a fourth parenting style to these original three. Authoritarian Parenting: One of the three major styles identified by Baumrind was the authoritarian style. In this style of parenting, children are expected to follow the strict rules established by the parents. Failure to follow such rules usually results in punishment. Authoritarian parents don’t explain the reasoning behind these rules. If asked to explain, the parent might simply reply, "Because I said so.” While these parents have high demands, they are not very responsive to their children. They expect their children to behave exceptionally and not make errors, yet they provide very little direction about what their children should do or avoid in the future. Mistakes are punished, often quite harshly, yet their children are often left wondering exactly what they did wrong. According to Baumrind, these parents "are obedience- and status-oriented, and expect their orders to be obeyed without explanation.” Parents who exhibit this style are often described as domineering and dictatorial. Their approach to parenting is one of “spare the rod, spoil the child.” Despite having such strict rules and high expectations, they do little to explain the reasoning behind their demands and simply expect children to obey without question. Authoritative Parenting: A second major style identified by Baumrind was the authoritative style. Like authoritarian parents, those with an authoritative parenting style establish rules and guidelines that their children are expected to follow. However, this parenting style is much more democratic. Authoritative parents are responsive to their children and willing to listen to questions. These parents expect a great deal of their children, but they provide warmth, feedback, and adequate support. When children fail to meet the expectations, these parents are more nurturing and forgiving rather than punishing. Baumrind suggested that these parents "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." It is this combination of expectation and support that helps children of authoritative parents develop skills such as independence, self-control, and self-regulation. Permissive Parenting: The final style identified by Baumrind was what is known as the permissive style of parenting. Permissive parents, sometimes referred to as indulgent parents, have very few demands to make of their children. These parents rarely discipline their children because they have relatively low expectations of maturity and self-control. According to Baumrind, permissive parents "are more responsive than they are demanding. They are non-traditional and lenient, do not require mature behavior, allow
considerable self-regulation, and avoid confrontation." Permissive parents are generally nurturing and communicative with their children, often taking on the status of a friend more than that of a parent. Uninvolved Parenting: In addition to the three major styles introduced by Baumrind, psychologists Eleanor Maccoby and John Martin proposed a fourth style that is known as uninvolved or neglectful parenting. An uninvolved parenting style is characterized by few demands, low responsiveness, and very little communication. While these parents fulfill the child's basic needs, they are generally detached from their child's life. They might make sure that their kids are fed and have shelter, but offer little to nothing in the way of guidance, structure, rules, or even support. In extreme cases, these parents may even reject or neglect the needs of their children.

The Impact of Parenting Styles: In addition to Baumrind's initial study of 100 preschool children, researchers have conducted other studies that have led to a number of conclusions about the impact of parenting styles on children. Among the findings of these studies:

Authoritarian parenting styles generally lead to children who are obedient and proficient, but they rank lower in happiness, social competence, and self-esteem. Authoritative parenting styles tend to result in children who are happy, capable, and successful. Permissive parenting often results in children who rank low in happiness and self-regulation. These children are more likely to experience problems with authority and tend to perform poorly in school. Uninvolved parenting styles rank lowest across all life domains. These children tend to lack self-control, have low self-esteem, and are less competent than their peers.

Authoritative parents are more likely to be viewed as reasonable, fair, and just so their children are more likely to comply with the requests that these parents make. Also, because these parents provide rules as well as explanations for these rules, children are much more likely to internalize these lessons. Rather than simply following the rules because they fear punishment (as they might with authoritarian parents), the children of authoritative parents are able to see why the rules exist, understand that they are fair and acceptable, and strive to follow these rules to meet their own internalized sense of what is right and wrong. Of course, the parenting styles of individual parents also combine to create a unique blend in each family. For example, the mother may display an authoritative style while the father favors a more permissive approach. This can sometimes lead to mixed signals or even situations where a child seeks approval from the more permissive parent to get what they want. In order to create a cohesive approach to parenting, it is essential that parents learn to cooperate as they combine various elements of their unique parenting styles.

Emotional Awareness:

Emotions: Researchers have also tried to identify and classify the different types of emotions. In 1972, psychologist Paul Eckman suggested that there are six basic emotions that are universal throughout human cultures: fear, disgust, anger, surprise, happiness, and sadness. In 1999, he expanded this list to include a number of other basic emotions including embarrassment, excitement, contempt, shame, pride, satisfaction, and amusement. During the 1980s, Robert Plutchik introduced another emotion classification system known as the "wheel of emotions." This model demonstrated how different emotions can be combined or mixed together, much the way an artist mixes primary colors to create other colors. Plutchik suggested that there are 8 primary emotional dimensions: happiness vs. sadness, anger vs. fear, trust vs. disgust, and surprise vs. anticipation. Emotional development in children: The theoretical perspective taken toward emotional development in childhood is a combination of functionalist theory and dynamical systems theory. A child’s encounters with an environment can be seen as dynamic transactions that involve multiple emotion-related components (e.g., expressive behaviour, physiological patterning, action tendencies, goals and motives, social and physical contexts, appraisals and experiential feeling) that change over time as the child matures and in response to changing environmental interactions.

Emotional awareness: Emotional awareness is the ability to recognize and make sense of not just your own emotions, but also those of others. This awareness is a big component of what is referred to as ‘emotional intelligence’ (E.I.), which also includes being able to solve problems in life by understanding emotions, such as being able to regulate your own emotions and cheer others up when they are feeling low. People who are emotionally aware tend to access more joy and fulfillment. Researchers Lane and Schwartz suggest the existence of five levels of emotional awareness, called the Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale (LEAS). The five levels of emotional awareness are:

- Physical sensations: Your awareness is limited to the physiological changes that are associated with an emotion, such as a change in your heartbeat or temperature, or that 'your stomach feels tense.'
- Action tendencies: This is fancy wording to mean you know that your emotions work at the level that you know whether or not you want to go to awards or away from a situation because you can see it makes you feel 'good' or 'bad'.
- Single emotions: You are aware of having one emotion at a time, such as happiness and sadness.
- Blend of emotions: You can make sense of different kinds and intensities of emotions and the contrasting feelings that may occur simultaneously, but you don’t really understand how other people feel.
- Blends of blends of emotions: You can experience different emotions and describe them in ways maybe others haven’t, using metaphors that make sense to you. And they have a good emotional awareness of the inner states of others.

Grolnick, et al (1991) examined a process model of relations among children's perceptions of their parents, their motivation, and their performance in school. Three motivation variables (control understanding, perceived competence, and perceived autonomy) were hypothesized to mediate between children's perceptions of their parents and their school performance. Analyses indicated that perceived maternal autonomy support and involvement were positively associated with perceived competence, control understanding, and perceptions of autonomy. Perceived paternal autonomy support and involvement were related to perceived competence and autonomy. In turn, the 3
motivation variables, referred to as inner resources, predicted children's performance.

Paulson S.E. (1994) explored the influence of both parenting style (demandingness and responsiveness) and parental involvement on the achievement outcome of early adolescents and to explore the relations both adolescents' and their parents' perceptions of parenting, and to compare the influence that the different perceptions have on adolescents' achievement. Subjects were 247 ninth-grade boys and girls and their parents from urban, suburban, and rural communities in the southeast and the mid-west. Adolescents' reports of parenting were found to correlate only moderately with parents' reports. Adolescents' (both boys' and girls'), but not parents', reports of parenting significantly predicted their achievement outcome, with parental involvement significantly predicting achievement above and beyond dimensions of parenting style.

Punamäki R.L., et al (1997) explored the associations between traumatic events, children’s gender and political activity, and parenting styles were examined among 108 sample of 11-12 years of age children. The results showed that the more the children were exposed to traumatic events, the more they perceived both their parents as strictly disciplining, rejecting, and hostile, and their mothers as more negatively evaluating. The boys perceived both their parents as treating them more negatively than the girls did. Affectionate parenting, such as intimacy and love, for its part, was not associated with traumatic events, and did not vary according to the child’s gender or political activity. The gender of the child affected the association between traumatic events, political activity, and perceived parenting. Traumatic events increased perceived parental rejection and hostility only among the boys, and perceived strict disciplining only among the girls. Although politically active children perceived both of their parents as more negative in general, in the families exposed to a high level of traumatic events, passive boys perceived their fathers as more rejecting and hostile than active boys did. It is suggested that mothers and fathers rear girls restrictively and with greater attention, and boys with rejection, when the family faces traumatic events.

Yahav R. (2006) examined the relationship between children’s and adolescents’ external (aggression or delinquent behaviour) and internal (depression and anxiety, somatic complaints or depressive behaviour) symptoms and their perceptions of parenting behaviour. Participants were 159 children (83 boys and 76 girls) aged 10–17 years and were categorized into five groups. No effects of age or gender were found. Externalizing children obtained the highest scores, while internalizing children obtained intermediate scores.

Gaylord N.K. et al (2009) examined the correspondence in parents' and children's perceptions of parenting and associations between these perceptions and children's social adjustment in the classroom. The sample included 214 children (M age = 9) from third to fifth grades and their parents. Children and parents reported on parenting behavior. The Parents’ self-reports and children's reports about parents showed systematic differences, with parents perceiving themselves as more supportive than children perceived them to be.

Berkien M., et al (2012) examined the relationship between children’s perception of dissimilarity in parenting styles, and internalizing and externalizing problems in children. Children from the general population (n = 658) reported on the level of emotional warmth, rejection, and overprotection of both parents by filling out the child version of the EgnaMinnenBeträffandeUppfostran (EMBU-C) and mothers completed the child behavior checklist (CBCL). The results highlight the negative consequences of perceived dissimilarity between parents. To conclude, children have more internalizing and externalizing problems when they perceive their parents as more dissimilar in parenting styles.

2. Methodology

Objective
To see the relationship between the parenting and emotional awareness of children.

Hypothesis
There is a significant relationship between the perception of parenting and emotional awareness of the children.

Design
The present research is a quantitative research. The descriptive and Correlation of non-experimental research design was used. A sample of 100 was taken and selected subjects were tested with the help of questionnaire method.

Sample
A sample of 100 school students was purposely selected for the present study fulfilling the inclusion and exclusion criteria.

Inclusion Criteria:
1) Age criteria of 14 years to 18 years.
2) School students who were cooperative were taken.

Exclusion Criteria:
1) Children below the age of 14 years and above the age of 18 years.

Tools
1) Social- demographic data sheet.
2) Perception of parenting scale (POPS).
3) Emotional awareness questionnaire (EAQ).

Perception of parenting scale (POPS):
The child POPS was developed, by Grolnick, Ryan, and Deci (1991). It has 22 items, 11 mother items and then the same 11 items for fathers. These items form an autonomy support subscale for each parent and an involvement subscale for each parent. The scale is often used in classroom settings, the children respond right on the questionnaire by circling a letter in front of the one (out of four) description of a parent that is most like their own parent.
Emotional awareness questionnaire (EAQ):

The Emotion Awareness Questionnaire (EAQ) was developed with the aim of identifying how children and adolescents feel or think about their feelings. The current version of the EAQ is designed with a six-factor structure describing six aspects of emotional functioning: Differentiating Emotions, Verbal Sharing of Emotions, Bodily Awareness of Emotions, Not Hiding, Analyses of Emotions, attention to Others’ Emotions. The EAQ consists of a total of 30 items.

3. Procedure

In this study 100 school students who fulfilled the inclusion and exclusion criteria were selected purposely for the study. The subjects were called in the room and was welcomed and made to sit comfortably and after developing the good rapport with the students, their socio-demographic details were collected with their concerns. After that the following instructions were given perception of parenting scale “We are interested to know more about your mother and your father. First we will ask about your mother, and then we will ask about your father. Each number is followed by four statements that describe four different types of parents. For some, there will be a description of four types of mothers, and for others there will be descriptions of four types of fathers. In either case, read the four statements about the four types of mothers or fathers, and decide which one is the best description of your own mother or father. Different people’s mothers and fathers are different, and we want to know about yours. Now please think about your mother and compare her to these descriptions of people’s mothers. If you do not ever spend time with your mother but another woman lives in your household instead, please respond about that woman. So, begin with number 1, and read the four descriptions. If your mother is most like the mothers in the first statement, then circle the letter a in front of that statement. If she is most like the mothers in the second statement, then circle the letter b in front of that statement. If she is most like the mothers in the third statement, then circle the letter c in front of that statement. If she is most like the mothers in the fourth statement, then circle the letter d in front of that statement.”

4. Result

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<th>Table 1: Descriptive</th>
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<td>Variables</td>
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<tr>
<td>Perception of parents</td>
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<td>Emotional awareness</td>
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The table shows the mean and standard deviation of school students on perception of parents and emotional awareness.

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<th>Table 2: Correlation</th>
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<td>Variables</td>
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<td>Perception of parents Emotional awareness</td>
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This table shows the correlation value of perception of parenting and emotional awareness. The correlation value is not significant, which suggests that there is no relationship between the variables in this study.

5. Discussion

The study was conducted to see the impact of parenting on emotional awareness of children. One hypothesis were formed, there is a significant relationship between the perception of parenting and emotional awareness of the children. A sample of 100 was taken who fulfilled the inclusion and exclusion criteria, inclusion criteria: Age criteria of 14 years to 18 years. School students who were cooperative were taken. Exclusion criteria: Children below the age of 14 years and above the age of 18 years. The tool used was Socio-demographic data sheet, perception of parenting (POPS) and Emotional awareness questionnaire (EAQ). The value of correlation between the variables was come out to be .164. The result showed that there is no significant correlation between the two variables.

6. Conclusion

In this research the variables tested were Perception of parenting and emotional awareness. Parenting is the process of developing and utilising the knowledge and skills appropriate to planning for, creating, giving birth to, and rearing and/or providing care for offspring. Emotional awareness is the ability to recognise and make sense of not just your own emotions, but also those of others. This awareness is a big component of what is referred to as ‘emotional intelligence’ (E.I.), which also includes being able to solve problems in life by understanding emotions. The research was conducted to see how children perceive parenting and its impact on their emotional awareness. The results concluded that there was no significant correlation between the two variables.

7. Implication

- The sample size can be increased.
- Sample can be taken from different places.
- Indian version questionnaire can be used.
8. Limitation

- The study was conducted on school students on perception of parents and emotional awareness, who were present in the premises.
- The sample size was small.
- Socio-culture difference was present in the research.

References


