



Investigating The Relationship Of Parenting Styles With Neuroticism And Perfectionism

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to explore the relationship between parenting styles and traits of personality like neuroticism and perfectionism in young people i.e. from 18-30. Parenting style is operationally defined as a set of attitudes or a pattern of authority that parents exercise over their children, consequently shaping the emotional landscape within which their behaviors manifest. It is postulated that parenting styles play a pivotal role in melding a child's personality, including developing perfectionism and neuroticism. The study hypothesizes a positive correlation between parenting style, perfectionism, and neuroticism. The research methodology involves the utilization of three key measurement instruments: the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire-Revised Short Scale (EPQR-S), the Perceived Parenting Style Scale (PPSS), and the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (FMPS). Additionally, the study incorporates demographic variables such as personal information encompassing sex, age, area of residence, family structure, occupation, and socioeconomic status. Statistical analyses including correlation, t-tests to examine gender differentials, and regression to compare subgroups were employed to assess the relationships and differences among the variables. Results suggested that there is a positive relation among parenting styles, perfectionism, and neuroticism, and statistically significant difference between both age groups, and a marginal difference between males and females.

Keywords: Parenting, neuroticism, perfectionism, personality traits, parent, psychological well-being, parenting styles

Introduction

According to Coplan, Hastings, Lagace-Seguin, & Moulton (2002), parenting styles aid in characterizing the level of engagement between a parent and kid. These interactions might include warmth, compassion, support, and discipline. According to Fletcher et al. (2008), there are two main elements of parenting: responsiveness and demandingness. The term "parental demandingness" describes the stringent rules and disciplining methods parents use with their kids. Parental responsiveness, on the other hand, relates to the emotional side of parenting, such as how much a parent supports and looks out for their child.

Types of parenting styles

Parenting style combines all three aspects i.e., warmth and nurturing, communication styles, expectations of control and maturity, and disciplinary tactics rather than the product of just one of them alone. Based on these dimensions, Baumrind proposed three parenting philosophies: permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative. These philosophies represent the majority of parental approaches. According to an additional study, a fourth parenting style, known as rejecting-neglecting parenting, may also be included (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Authoritarian parenting

Authoritarian parents, according to Baumrind (1991, 1997, 2012), are concerned with status and obedience and want their commands to be followed without question. Although certain research indicates that in conservative and collectivistic communities, authoritarian parenting may not always be harmful, it is typically linked to unfavourable consequences for kids and teenagers (Baumrind, 1966; Maccoby and Martin, 1983; Gorostiaga et al., 2019). In addition to being extremely strict, authoritarian parents are typically cold and unresponsive to their kids. They maintain emotional distance and impose harsh discipline on their kids, with little room for compromise. Authoritarian parents tend to be highly controlling and have a low degree of warmth and responsiveness toward their children. This can cause the children to become too sensitive to emotions, which can make it harder for them to control their emotions later on (Sroufe 1996). Parents who exhibit excessive control over their children may prevent them from considering their expectations or may prevent them from having the chance to independently acquire self-regulation skills (Grolnick et al. 1991). According to Rice et al. (2005), there is a link concerning maladaptive perfectionism and authoritarian parenting practices.

Authoritative parenting

According to Pinquart and Kauser (2018), authoritative parenting is a good parenting style in a variety of child development scenarios because of its qualities of being extremely attentive and demanding. Authoritative parents are recognized for their ability to provide psychological autonomy while combining warmth and support with behavioural regulation (Maccoby and Martin, 1983; Steinberg, 1990). These parents, as suggested by Baumrind, keep an eye on their kids and set clear expectations for their behaviour. They are supportive rather than harsh in their disciplinary strategies, assertive but not overbearing, and they want their kids to be cooperative and self-reliant as well as socially responsible (1991). Empirical studies have consistently demonstrated that kids raised by parents in charge are typically more competent, content, and successful.

Permissive parenting

As to Baumrind's (1991) account, permissive parenting, which is sometimes referred to as indulgent or laissez-faire parenting, is a parenting approach that grants children considerable autonomy to act in a way that suits them with few expectations placed on them. According to research, permissive parenting is associated with increased alcohol consumption among teenagers, as well as greater instances of school misbehavior and reduced levels of academic achievement (Baumrind, 1991). Metsäpelto & Pulkkinen's (2002) study discovered that although permissive parents were loving (moderate nurturance), they were uninformative (low restrictiveness and knowledge) and had high personality characteristics related to neuroticism (N), extraversion (E), and openness to experience (O).

Uninvolved parenting

An uninvolved or indifferent parenting style is characterized by low expectations, inadequate responsiveness, and a lack of interaction. These parents are emotionally detached from their children and do not pay enough attention to their needs. They lead a parent-centered lifestyle, prioritizing their wants and interests over those of their kid and failing to enforce rules or standards to maintain control over their behavior. Although strong and self-sufficient, children with absentee parents may have trouble managing their emotions, employ ineffective coping mechanisms, have difficulties in school, and struggle to establish and foster social interactions (Mendez & Sanvictores, 2022).

Both Mastrotheodoros et al. (2019) and McKinney and Renk (2008) have discovered that discrepancies in parenting styles between men and women might be impacted by societal gender norms, such as how much time fathers and mothers devote to childcare and other home chores, as well as gender stereotypes and male and female behaviors. Consequently, fathers' approach would be different than mothers in their discipline strategies and control based on gender. However, a systematic review by Russell and Saebel (1997) challenges this notion, suggesting that parental relationships, both parents' and children's sex are not a crucial issue.

Perfectionism

According to Burns (1980), perfectionists maintain unreasonable standards, work obsessively and relentlessly toward their goals, and rely their self-worth primarily on their production and successes. Perfectionism was characterized as an overly high level of self-expression combined with an excessively critical self-evaluation by Frost, Marten, Lahart, and Rosenblatt (1990), while Flett, Hewitt, and Dyck (1989) described it as a ubiquitous neurotic style. Hewitt and Flett (1991) argue that perfectionism is primarily caused by faulty cognitive deception of the ideal self. Hamachek (1978), perfectionism is a two-fold motivator that may be both a beneficial inner drive and a harmful, illogical idea. Normal perfectionists are capable of setting objectives based on their advantages and disadvantages, experiencing satisfaction upon reaching them, and reacting adaptably in certain circumstances. They are free to relax their requirements or not ask for as much precision. But neurotic perfectionists never seem to be content with their work because they establish unattainable objectives for themselves. They are not accommodating and never let their standards drop. From a multidimensional approach, perfectionism may be categorized into six aspects (Frost et al., 1990). Concern over Mistakes (CM), Personal Standards (PS), Doubts about Actions (DA), Parental Criticism (PC), Parental Expectations (PE), and Organization (O) are the prescribed subdimensions. The authors contend that where personal standards and Organization reflect the advantageous aspects of perfectionism in the quest for great success, concern over

mistakes is the fundamental feature of pathological perfectionism. Frost et al. created the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (FMPS) to validate these dimensions. Bell (2010) posits that perfectionism has a restrictive relation to emotions such as wrath, anxiety, helplessness, disappointment, and failure all of which are linked to suicidal thoughts and despair. Self-centred and socially mandated perfectionism is linked to stress and sadness (Eum & Rice, 2011). Carmo et al. (2021) claim that parenting styles, particularly those of women, have a stronger effect on maladaptive kinds of perfectionism than those of men. The relationship between parenting techniques in various ethnic groups and perfectionism was investigated by Kawamura et al. (2002). Their results are consistent with other studies, which found that children of strict and controlling parents are more prone to be concerned about making mistakes and mistrust their ability, but not necessarily to have lower expectations for themselves.

Neuroticism

Neuroticism is a personality trait that was first coined by Eysenck in 1947. It describes a person's propensity to feel strong negative emotions in reaction to various forms of stress. A tendency for negative emotions in reaction to threat, frustration, or loss, such as anger, fear, impatience, and melancholy, is the hallmark of neuroticism, which is strongly associated with emotional instability (Costa & McCrae, 1992a; Eysenck, 1947; Lahey, 2009). The term "neurosis" was originally used in psychoanalytic circles to describe psychopathology without delusions or hallucinations. In psychoanalytic circles, the word "neurosis" was initially used to characterize psychopathology in the absence of delusions or hallucinations. The majority of personality models, including the well-known three- and five-factor models, incorporate neuroticism, which is seen as an essential aspect of personality (Miller and Pilkonis 2006). Anxiety, hostility, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness, and vulnerability are the six non-independent characteristics that make up the broad personality dimension known as neuroticism, according to the Five-Factor Model (FFM) (Costa & McCrae, 1992b; Goldberg, 1993). Moody, sensitive, irritable, emotional, afraid, worried, and insecure are characteristics of high neurotic people (Saucier & Goldberg, 1996; Thompson, 2008). Furthermore, it is probable that they will harbor maladaptive coping mechanisms in response to stressful circumstances and maintain dysfunctional beliefs (Pervin et al., 2005; Stoeber et al., 2018). In addition to the unique neurobiological functioning linked to neuroticism, genetically inherited risk is included in the concept of generic biological sensitivity. Negative parenting practices, on the other hand, including abuse or neglect, might raise neurotic traits. This is since these actions provide the youngster an atmosphere that is unexpected or even punitive. Overprotective parenting can also lead to neuroticism by instilling in children that their emotions are hazardous and should be protected. It's crucial to remember that these early learning experiences may alter how the brain functions, increasing the child's biological vulnerabilities in a vicious cycle. capacity for rational thought, sound judgment, and stress management. Conversely, those with low neuroticism tend to be less emotionally reactive and less prone to become disturbed. They often exhibit emotional stability, calmness, and a lack of enduringly bad emotions. However, being devoid of unpleasant sentiments does not imply that low scorers have a lot of happy emotions. The frequency of happy feelings is part of the Extraversion domain (Savitha K & Venkatachalam J, 2016). Research revealed that an authoritative parenting style was negatively connected with neuroticism but had a positive correlation with conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and openness to new experiences. Additionally, a favourable correlation was discovered between neuroticism and an authoritarian parenting style Metsäpelto & Pulkkinen's (2002). Averina et al. (2021) demonstrated that those who had affectionless control—a cold, emotionless upbringing from their parents—scored higher on neuroticism tests than those who had supportive, caring parents, or ideal parenting. Remarkably, the study also discovered a connection between neuroticism scores and the degree of parental protection and care.

Perfectionism and neuroticism are linked to some adverse effects in multiple facets of life, including mental health, relationships, learning and employment. (Damian et al., 2017; Malouff et al., 2010; McCann, 2018; Philip et al., 2012; Sherry et al., 2013; Smith et al., 2017; Stoeber, 2012; Verner-Filion & Gaudreau, 2010; Vittengl, 2017). Studies have indicated a correlation between neuroticism and perfectionistic features, also referred to as perfectionistic concerns, and depressive symptoms, anxiety symptoms, burnout, and low life satisfaction (Schimmack et al., 2004; Smith et al., 2017). Furthermore, those with high levels of neuroticism and perfectionistic worries also report being less satisfied with their jobs, personal relationships, and academic environments (Trapmann et al., 2007; Verner-Filion & Gaudreau, 2010; Fairlie & Flett, 2003; McCann, 2018). Several research shows a moderate to significant correlation between neuroticism and perfectionistic concerns (Dunkley et al., 2012). Although neuroticism and perfectionistic worries have similar genetic origins, they are not the same. According to this study (Burcaş & Creţu, 2021), certain people may be predisposed to both by particular genes. Nevertheless, distinct genetic and environmental variables also impact each trait independently. Said another way, they are not the same thing, even though there is some overlap.

Methodology

Participants

The present study was conducted on a sample of 140 adults, subdivided based on gender (male and female) and age (18-24 and 25-30 years). This data was further subdivided according to residential (urban and rural), type of family (joint and nuclear), and income (below 5 lakh, 5-10 lakh, and above 10 lakhs) selected through

the purposive sampling method.

Measures

The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire-Revised Short Scale (EPQR-S) (H. J. Eysenck & S. B. G. Eysenck, 1992) It is a 48-item self-reported personality questionnaire to assess an individual's level of extraversion (vs. introversion) and neuroticism. Each question has a dichotomous answer: 'yes' or 'no', scored as 1 or 0, and each scale had a maximum score of 12 and a minimum of zero. It comprises four subscales, each with 12 items: extraversion, neuroticism, psychoticism, and lie. Eysenck et al. (1985) found that males and females had reliabilities of 0.84 and 0.80 for neuroticism, 0.88 and 0.84 for extraversion, 0.62 and 0.61 for psychoticism, and 0.77 and 0.73 for lying scale.

The Perceived Parenting Style Scale (PPSS)

The Perceived Parenting Style Scale (Divya and Manikandan, 2013), examines children's perceptions of their parents' conduct. It assesses the subject's perceived parenting style on three dimensions: authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive. It comprises 30 items for which responses were solicited on a five-point Likert scale, including Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Neutral (3), Disagree (2), and Strongly Disagree (1). The Alpha coefficients for authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive styles were determined to be 0.79, 0.81, and 0.86 respectively. All of the styles on the perceived parenting style scale have an adequate level of dependability. The authors argue that the scale has face validity.

The Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (FMPS)

The Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism assessment (FMPS) is a 35-item self-report assessment of perfectionism. These are divided into the following six subscales: Concern about Mistakes (CM; 9 items), Personal Standards (PS; 7 items), Parental Expectations (PE; 5 items), Parental Criticism (PC; 4 items), Doubts about Actions (D; 4 items), and Organization (O; 6 items). The FMPS total score has strong internal consistency, with Cronbach's alphas ranging from .87 (Parker & Stumpf, 1995) to .91 (Frost, Lahart, & Rosenblate, 1991). Additionally, the subscales have demonstrated excellent internal consistency. In a large student sample, Stober (1998) discovered Cronbach's alphas of .87 (CM), .78 (PS), .88 (PE), .81 (PC), .73 (D), and .86 (O).

Variables description

There are 3 variables in this study i.e. parenting styles, neuroticism, and perfectionism. This study explores the influence of independent variables i.e. parenting styles on dependent variables, that is, neuroticism and perfectionism, which can shape personality to a larger extent and might lead to challenges in adulthood. It is assumed that parenting styles can lead to the development of perfectionism and neuroticism in young adults.

Procedures

Data collection was collected through purposive and convenience sampling method.

The participants were first introduced with the purposes and procedures of the study. The participants were assured that all the information collected was strictly confidential and used for research purposes only. They reserved the right to withdraw from the study without any negative consequences. Subsequently, the participants completed the questionnaire with approximately 10-15 minutes on average. The participants were instructed to complete the measures in the following order: demographic questions, EPQR-S and Frost multidimensional questionnaire.

Data analysis

Statistical measures applied are ANOVA for studying the inter-relationship of all 3 variables, Regression analysis, Correlation, and standard deviation. Further, the data was analyzed using SPSS.

Result

Table 1 Descriptives

	N	Missing	Mean	SD
Gender	137	0	1.35	0.479
Age	137	0	1.14	0.347
Residence	137	0	1.25	0.434
Family income	137	0	1.78	0.745

Table 1 shows the socio-demographic variables for a sample size of 137 considered in a study, they are Gender (Male and female), Age (18-25 and 25-30 years), Residence (Urban and rural), and family income (below 5, 5-10 and 10 above lakh).

Table 2

Gender	Counts	% of Total	Cumulative %
Female	89	65.0 %	65.0 %
Male	48	35.0 %	100.0 %

Table 2 suggests out of a sample size of 137 among them there are 89 females (65%) and 48 males (35%).

Table 3 Frequencies of Age

Age (years)	Counts	% of Total	Cumulative %
18-25	118	86.1 %	86.1 %
25-30	19	13.9 %	100.0 %

As it can be seen in Table 3 there are 2 age groups based on which sample size was divided i.e., 18-25 (N=118, 86%) and 25-30 (N=19, 13.9%).

Table 4 Frequencies of Residence

Residence	Counts	% of Total	Cumulative %
1	103	75.2 %	75.2 %
2	34	24.8 %	100.0 %

Table 4 shows that the sample was collected from 2 residential localities i.e., Urban (n=103, 75.2%) and rural (N=34, 24.8%).

Table 5 t-test

		N	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard Error Mean	t	d.f.	Sig.(2-tailed)
Parenting style	Male	48	87.56	10.95	1.581	1.137	135	0.257
	Female	89	85.1	12.649	1.341			
Perfectionism	Male	48	102.42	14.509	2.094	-0.084	135	0.933
	Female	89	102.66	17.218	1.825			
Neuroticism	Male	48	18.4	2.826	0.408	3.57	135	0
	Female	89	16.42	3.233	0.343			

As shown in Table 5, there is a significant difference in perceived parenting styles, perfectionism, and neuroticism between female and male participants. The difference in parenting styles between the two groups was significant ($t = 1.137, p = 0.257$), with the mean score for Female ($M = 85.1, SD = 12.649, SEM = 1.341$) being lower than Male ($M = 87.56, SD = 10.95, SEM = 1.581$). There was a marginally significant difference in perfectionism between the two groups ($t = -0.084, p = 0.933$), with Female ($M = 102.66, SD = 6.99, SEM = 1.27$) having a higher score than Male ($M = 6.60, SD = 17.218, SEM = 1.825$). Also, there is a significant difference in neuroticism between both groups ($t = 3.57, p = 0$), with the mean score for females ($M = 16.42, SD = 3.233, SEM = 0.343$) being lower than Male ($M = 18.4, SD = 2.826, SEM = 0.408$).

Table 6 ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11767.435	2	5883.717	32.555	.000 ^b
	Residual	24218.011	134	180.731		

Total	35985.445	136			
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a. Dependent Variable: Total Of Perfectionism

b. Predictors: (Constant), Neuro, Total of Parenting style

Based on Table 6, the F-statistic is significant ($F = 32.555$, $p = .000$), which means we can reject the null hypothesis. This suggests that there is a statistically significant relationship between total perfectionism and the two predictor variables, neuroticism and parenting style.

Table 7 Correlations

		Total of Parenting style	Neuroticism	Perfectionism
Total of Parenting style	Pearson Correlation	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			
Neuroticism	Pearson Correlation	-.032	1	
Perfectionism	Pearson Correlation	.504**	-.286**	1

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

Table 7 suggests, that the correlation between total parenting style and total perfectionism is .504, which is a moderate positive correlation. This means that there is a positive relationship between parenting style and perfectionism scores. The correlation between neuroticism and total perfectionism is -.286, which is a negative correlation. This means that there is a negative relationship between perfectionism and neuroticism scores. People with higher neuroticism scores tend to have lower perfectionism scores. The correlation between total parenting style and neuroticism is -.032, which is a very weak negative correlation. There is practically no relationship between overall parenting style and neuroticism scores.

Table 8 Correlations

		Authoritative	Authoritarian	Permissive	Neuroticism	Perfectionism
Authoritative	Pearson Correlation	1				
Authoritarian	Pearson Correlation	-.557**	1			
Permissive	Pearson Correlation	-.320**	.648**	1		
Neuroticism	Pearson Correlation	.157	-.204*	.009	1	
Perfectionism	Pearson Correlation	-.207*	.550**	.439**	-.286**	1

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

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

Table 8 shows the correlation between different types of parenting styles, neuroticism, and perfectionism. The correlation between the authoritative parenting and authoritarian parenting styles is negative and moderate (. -557, significant at the 0.01 level). This means that people high in perceived authoritarian parenting tend to be low in authoritative parenting style. The correlation between authoritative parenting and permissive parenting is negative and weak (. -320, significant at the 0.05 level). This means that people high in authoritative parenting tend to be low in permissive parenting style. The correlation between authoritative parenting style and neuroticism is positive but weak (.157, not significant). The correlation between authoritative parenting style and perfectionism is negative and weak (. -207, significant at the 0.05 level). The correlation between authoritarian parenting and permissive parenting style is positive and moderate (.648, significant at the 0.01 level). This means that people high in authoritarian parenting tend to also be high in permissive parenting style. The correlation between authoritarian parenting and neuroticism is negative and weak (. -204, not significant). There is practically no relationship between authoritarian parenting and neuroticism. The correlation between authoritarian parenting style and perfectionism is positive and strong (.550, significant at the 0.01 level). The correlation between permissive parenting style and neuroticism is very weak and positive (.009, not significant). There is practically no relationship between permissive parenting and neuroticism. The correlation between permissive personality and perfectionism is positive and moderate (.439, significant at the 0.01 level). This means that people high in perceived permissive parenting tend to also be high in perfectionism. There is practically no relationship between authoritarian parenting and neuroticism. The correlation between authoritarian parenting style and perfectionism is positive and strong.

Table 9 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.572 ^a	.327	.317	13.444

a. Predictors: (Constant), Neuro, Total of Parenting style

From Table 9, it can be seen that the beta coefficient for neuroticism is positive and significant (beta = .310, sig. = .003), and the beta coefficient for total parenting style is positive and significant (beta = .222, sig. = .012). This suggests that both neuroticism and parenting style are positively related to the dependent variable, even after controlling for each other.

Table 10 Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	68.551	10.442		6.565	.000
	Total of Parenting style	.666	.095	.496	6.991	.000
	Neuroticism	-1.360	.357	-.270	-3.806	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Total of Perfectionism

From Table 10, it can be seen that there is a significant influence of parenting style and neuroticism upon perfectionism (N= 137, t=6.565, p value=.000)

Table 11 a Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Authoritative	Male	48	38.21	6.835	.987
	Female	89	39.21	6.543	.694
Authoritarian	Male	48	23.23	7.413	1.070
	Female	89	22.24	7.282	.772
Permissive	Male	48	26.13	7.838	1.131
	Female	89	23.65	7.777	.824

Table 11 b Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
Authoritative	Equal variances assumed	0.279	0.599	-.0845	135	0.4	-1.005	1.19	-3.359
	Equal variances not assumed			-.0833	92.82	0.407	-1.005	1.206	-3.4
Authoritarian	Equal variances assumed	0.045	0.832	0.757	135	0.45	0.993	1.312	-1.602
	Equal variances not assumed			0.753	94.921	0.453	0.993	1.319	-1.626
Permissive	Equal variances assumed	0.036	0.849	1.771	135	0.079	2.473	1.396	-0.288
	Equal variances not assumed			1.767	95.745	0.08	2.473	1.4	-0.305

From Table 11a and b, it can be interpreted that there is no statistically significant difference (t = -0.845, Sig. > 0.05) between the mean scores for males (M = 38.21) and females (M = 39.21) on perceived Authoritative Parenting Style. Levene's test might indicate unequal variances. However, the t-test shows a significant difference (t = -0.833, Sig. > 0.05) between genders on perceived Authoritarian Parenting Style. Levene's test might indicate unequal variances. The t-test shows a significant difference (t = 1.771, Sig. < 0.05) between genders on perceived Permissive Parenting Style.

Table 12 a Group Statistics

	Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Authoritative	18-25	118	38.41	6.652	.612
	25-30	19	41.68	5.973	1.370
Authoritarian	18-25	118	22.86	7.365	.678
	25-30	19	20.84	6.938	1.592
Permissive	18-25	118	24.95	7.713	.710
	25-30	19	21.84	8.441	1.937

Table 12 b Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper

Authoritative	Equal variances assumed	1.075	.302	-2.020	135	.045	-3.277	1.623	-6.487	-.068
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.184	25.749	.038	-3.277	1.501	-6.364	-.191
Authoritarian	Equal variances assumed	.034	.853	1.119	135	.265	2.022	1.807	-1.551	5.596
	Equal variances not assumed			1.169	24.997	.253	2.022	1.730	-1.541	5.586
Permissive	Equal variances assumed	.016	.901	1.609	135	.110	3.107	1.932	-.713	6.927
	Equal variances not assumed			1.506	23.100	.146	3.107	2.063	-1.159	7.373

Table 12 a and b show the differences and changes in perception of parenting styles with age. For the Authoritative style, the mean score is 38.41 for the 18-25 age group (N=118) with a standard deviation (SD) of 6.652, and the mean score for the 25-30 age group (N=19) is 41.68 with an SD of 5.973; the Authoritarian style, the mean score is 22.86 for the 18-25 age group (N=118) with an SD of 7.365, and the mean score for the 25-30 age group (N=19) is 20.84 with an SD of 6.938; and Permissive style, the mean score is 24.95 for the 18-25 age group (N=118) with an SD of 7.713, and the mean score for the 25-30 age group (N=19) is 21.84 with an SD of 8.441. Further, table 10.1, presents the results of two statistical tests: Levene's Test for Equality of Variances and the t-test for Equality of Means.

For the Authoritative parenting style, Levene's Test is not significant ($F=1.075$, $Sig.=.302$), suggesting equal variances between age groups; the t-test is also not significant ($t=0.202$, $Sig.=.845$), suggesting no mean difference between age groups. For the Authoritarian parenting style Levene's Test is not significant ($F=.034$, $Sig.=.853$), indicating equal variances between age groups, and the t-test is not significant for equal variances assumed ($t=1.119$, $Sig.=.265$) and not assumed ($t=1.169$, $Sig.=.253$), suggesting no mean difference between age groups. For the Permissive parenting style Levene's Test is not significant ($F=.016$, $Sig.=.901$), again indicating equal variances between age groups, the t-test is not significant for equal variances assumed ($t=1.609$, $Sig.=.110$), and not assumed ($t=1.506$, $Sig.=.146$), suggesting no mean difference between age groups.

Discussion

The current study seeks to better understand the association between parenting styles and perfectionism and neuroticism. It has been suggested that parenting styles correlate positively with perfectionism and neuroticism, implying that H1 and H2 are accepted. H3 hypothesizes that differences in socioeconomic variables can lead to various parenting styles; hence, H3 is partially accepted, as there is a mean difference across age groups but no difference in gender.

Parenting styles, such as discipline, support, warmth, and compassion, assist to explain the level of engagement between a parent and their kid. The current study focused on three parenting styles: authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive; the tool utilized was the Perceived parenting style scale.

Neuroticism is associated with emotional instability, or the tendency to react negatively (e.g., anxiety, irritation, wrath, and melancholy) to threat, frustration, or loss (Costa & McCrae, 1992a; Eysenck, 1947; Lahey, 2009). Hollender (1965) described perfectionism as an essentially negative personality characteristic characterized by an unreasonable expectation of oneself or others to do well at all times and in all places.

In the current study, a sample size (N= 137) was collected, which was subdivided into age (18-25 N=118, 25-30 N=19) and gender (Male=48, Female N=89).

Results of the independent samples t-test showed that there is a significant difference in perceived parenting styles, perfectionism, and neuroticism between male and female participants. Females had a lower mean score for perceived parenting styles, indicating that they may perceive their parents as less strict or controlling compared to males. Among genders, there were no significant differences found for perceived parenting styles, such as for authoritarian parenting styles, whereas there was a significant difference found for authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. According to Hosley and Montemayor (1997) and McKinney and Renk (2008), the role theory also suggests that different gender-based socialization experiences (e.g., socialization agents highlight and simulation differentiated social and moral values for girls and boys) later in life lead parents to adopt different parental attitudes and styles in their relations with their descendants.

The study conducted by Russell and Saebel (1997) found only limited evidence to support the idea that the gender of the parent and child plays a significant role in the parent-child relationship. The study concluded that the differences among the four parent-child dyads (mother-daughter, mother-son, father-daughter, and father-son) were small and unreliable, suggesting that the gender effect on parent-child relationships is relatively minor. However, there is still a need for further research on this topic, particularly regarding gender differences in parenting styles and practices, which are important components of the study of parent-child relationships and children's socialization.

In terms of perfectionism, although the difference was marginally significant, females had higher scores than males. The study by Stoeber and Stoeber (2009) found women were more often perfectionistic in spelling, hygiene, dress, orderliness, time management, and domestic chores. Further research is needed to better

understand the nature of perfectionism and its impact on individuals' well-being. This suggests that females may be more prone to having high standards and being self-critical.

Additionally, the significant difference in neuroticism between the two groups, with females scoring lower than males, implies that females may be less prone to experiencing negative emotions such as anxiety and depression; which is in contrast with existing literature. It can be due to various reasons might be extraneous variables, or subjective bias. However, the sex difference was larger in young and middle-aged individuals than in children or the extremely old (Jorm, 1987), with females having higher neuroticism scores. However, further research is needed to explore the underlying mechanisms and factors that contribute to these gender differences.

In line with age groups, the results showed that for the Authoritative style, there was no significant difference in mean score between the 18-25 age group and the 25-30 age group, indicating that age did not affect this parenting style. Whereas for the Authoritarian and Permissive styles, there was a slight difference in mean scores between the two age groups, suggesting that the age group of 18-25 gets influenced or perceived by these parenting styles. Moreover, the statistical tests conducted for all three parenting styles indicated that there were no significant but slight differences in variances between the two age groups. These findings suggest that parenting styles may remain consistent across different age groups, and age may not be a significant factor in determining parenting styles.

The findings revealed a favorable association between parenting style and perfectionism scores. The relationship between authoritarian parenting style and perfectionism is both good and significant. Research also indicates that the perception of an authoritarian parenting style is related to both perfectionism dimensions (socially prescribed and self-oriented) in children, regardless of gender (Carmo et al., 2021). There is evidence indicating a favorable relationship between authoritarian parenting and maladaptive perfectionism (Rice et al., 2005). However, the correlation between authoritative parenting style and perfectionism is negative and weak. People high in perceived permissive parenting tend to also be high in perfectionism.

The relationship between authoritarian parenting style and neuroticism is favorable, albeit weak. The relationship between authoritarian parenting and neuroticism is negative and weak. There is hardly any correlation between authoritarian parenting and neuroticism. The connection between permissive parenting style and neuroticism is small but positive (.009, not significant).

The correlation between neuroticism and perfectionism is $-.286$, indicating a mild negative association. According to the findings, there may be a negative association between perfectionism and neuroticism scores. It might be owing to the effect of extraneous factors or subjective bias, as current data reveals the opposite result: self-oriented and socially enforced perfectionism is connected with despair and anxiety. Numerous research show a moderate to high correlation between neuroticism and perfectionistic concerns (Dunkley et al., 2012).

Kids learn and inculcate what they get exposed to, it's on us being a parents to create a positive environment that helps them to grow as compassionate individuals with respect towards others and tasks they take up, self-compassion, empathy, and realizing things they are passionate about doing. Last but not least spend time with them, understand them, give importance to their thoughts, invest trust, and help them to build confidence. (Pasumarthy, 2023)

One of the major limitations of the present study was that there is an unequal ratio among both age groups and gender. Secondly, the study relied on self-report measures, which may be subject to response bias. Another limitation was the limited sample size. Further research would be needed to determine whether neuroticism and parenting style cause changes in the dependent variable i.e., Perfectionism or if they are simply correlated with it. Other than this, in the future other personality traits can be focused too, along with socio-demographic factors in detail. Longitudinal studies could also be conducted to track the development of personality traits over time and their relationship with parenting styles. Finally, interventions could be developed to help parents adopt more effective parenting styles that foster positive personality development in their children.

Conclusion

The present study explored the associations between parenting styles, perfectionism, and neuroticism. Gender differences emerged in perceived parenting style, with females reporting less strictness. However, gender did not significantly impact parenting styles themselves. Age also exhibited minimal influence. Interestingly, weak and potentially conflicting relationships were observed between parenting styles and both perfectionism and neuroticism. The negative correlation between perfectionism and neuroticism requires further investigation, as it contradicts existing literature. These findings underscore the intricate nature of parenting styles and their influence on personality development, highlighting the need for additional research to elucidate these connections.

Open Science

The study materials, graphical abstract, methods, and analysis scripts used for this article can be accessed at https://osf.io/nrhdb/?view_only=d97b306b9c7a4b67a42c2e3649950bb2, whereas data cannot be shared as its kept confidential.

We report our hypotheses were preregistered, and available at https://osf.io/nrhdb/?view_only=d97b306b9c7a4b67a42c2e3649950bb2

The research was exploratory, as it explores the relationship of type of parenting styles with neuroticism and perfectionism in young adults using standardized questionnaires.

Exclusion criteria were used to focus on the Indian population, as well as it's done on young adults only.

We describe the demographic composition of our sample(s).

We provide information regarding all procedures and measures used in this study, both in the manuscript and by referring to openly accessible material. We disclose if the data have been used in other paper(s), but it is not.

Method section(s) is sufficiently detailed to allow the research to be directly replicated in principle. If still need more info it can be requested further at tanishagarwal2001@gmail.com

The results are open, along with information on how to access them. However, data are not made openly accessible as it has been kept confidential.

We provide openly accessible data analysis scripts that allow reproduction all reported results.

Transformation and non-standard scoring statement: We describe any data transformations (e.g., collapsing values or otherwise changing their distribution) and have conducted analyses with both the transformed and raw data (e.g., in Supplemental Material). We describe and provide rationale for any deviations from standard scoring procedures (e.g., aggregating measurements in non-typical ways), and also report analyses with the standard procedures (e.g., in Supplemental Material).

We provide a rationale for including covariates and tested models with and without the covariates.

We report basic descriptive statistics, effect sizes, exact p-values, and 95% (or other reasonable) confidence (credible) intervals.

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