CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Research takes the advantage of the knowledge, which has accumulated in the past as a result of constant human endeavor. It can never be undertaken in isolation of the work that has already been done on the problem, which is directly or indirectly related to the study. The review of related literature discusses published information in a particular subject area within a certain time period. It is relevant to a particular issue, area of research or theory, providing a description, summary and critical evaluation of each work. The review of literature provides an opportunity of gaining insight into the methods, measures, subjects and approaches employed by other research workers.

This in turn will lead to significant improvement of research design. A brief review of related literature is necessary before going to deal with the actual problem in detail. It avoids unintentional replication of previous studies and keeps the researcher in a better position of results. In this chapter, the researcher presents a brief review of the studies done in the areas of single-parent family and intact family in relation to self-esteem, peer-group relationship, adjustment ability and academic achievement.

2.2 RELATED STUDIES

According to Forum on Child and Family Statistics (2013) The composition of families is dynamic and has implications for critical parental and economic resources. A long-term shift in family composition has decreased the share of children living with two married parents, while single-parent households have become more common for children.
Although most children spend the majority of their childhood living with two parents, some children have other living arrangements. Information about the presence of parents and other adults in the household, such as unmarried partners, grandparents, and other relatives, is important for understanding children's social, economic, and developmental well-being. From the statistics it was observed that, Among children living with two parents, 92 percent lived with both of their biological or adoptive parents, and 8 percent lived with a biological or adoptive parent and a stepparent. About 70 percent of children in stepparent families lived with their biological mother and stepfather. Six percent of children who lived with two biological or adoptive parents had parents who were not married. The majority of children living with one parent lived with their single mother. About 14 percent of children living with one parent lived with their single father. Some single parents had cohabiting partners. Twenty-six percent of children living with single fathers and 11 percent of children living with single mothers also lived with their parent's cohabiting partner. Out of all children ages 0–17, about 5.6 million (8 percent) lived with a parent or parents who were cohabiting. Among the 2.6 million children (4 percent of all children) not living with either parent in 2012, about 55 percent (1.5 million) lived with grandparents, 22 percent lived with other relatives only, and 22 percent lived with nonrelatives. Of children in nonrelatives' homes, 33 percent (193,000) lived with foster parents. Older children were less likely to live with two parents: 65 percent of children ages 15–17 lived with two parents, compared with 67 percent of children ages 6–14, and 72 percent of those ages 0–5. Among children living with two parents, older children were more likely to live with a stepparent and less likely to live with cohabiting parents.
Abesha (2012) purpose of the study was to propose and test an integrated parental and social-cognitive model of academic achievement and examine the effects of parenting styles, academic self-efficacy, and achievement motivation on academic achievement by employing an ex-post facto prospective research design. The data on demographic characteristics, parenting styles, academic self-efficacy and achievement motivation were collected through self-report questionnaires from a sample of 2116 (763 females and 1353 males) undergraduate first year students selected via multi-stage cluster random sampling technique from Addis Ababa University, Kotebe College of Teacher Education, and Wolayta Soddo University in Ethiopia and accessing their second semester Grade-Point-Averages (GPAs) of 2008/09 academic year from the Registrars’ Offices of the respective Higher Education Institutions.

The results of preliminary analyses pertaining to the most predominantly practiced parenting style in the families of Ethiopia revealed that authoritative parenting was the most commonly adopted parenting style; however, parenting styles varied as a function of late adolescent and young adult children’s sex (i.e., parents were authoritative for their daughters but neglectful for their sons). The results from tests of the proposed parental and social-cognitive model of academic achievement showed that the hypothesized model provided a good fit to the empirical data for both the overall sample and the sub-samples of female and male students. The results of the path analyses provided partial support for the hypothesized model, in that, irrespective of students’ sex, parenting styles had a significant and positive direct effect on academic self-efficacy, as well as significant and positive mediated effects on achievement motivation (i.e., via academic self-efficacy) and academic achievement (i.e., via achievement motivation for female students and via academic self-
efficacy for male students). Parenting styles had also a significant and positive direct effect on achievement motivation for female students, but not for male students.

Mathiasen (2012) studied and reviewed over 60 studies and found to investigate the predictors of college academic achievement. Current research in this area appears to focus on high school performance, college entrance examinations, study behaviors and attitudes, and personality traits. Findings indicate that, in general, successful college students excelled in high school; obtained high scores on college entrance examinations; possess good study habits; and appear to be more introverted, more responsible, more academically motivated, and more achievement oriented than most college students. It is suggested that continued research in this area will strengthen the theoretical base of college admission procedures and policies and will provide insights for the prospective college student into the characteristics of the successful college student.

Barajas (2011) made a critical review on academic achievement of children in single parent homes. In the United States, almost half of all children by age 15 will have lived in a single parent family (Andersson, 2002). The percentage of single-parent families has tripled in the past 50 years and has continued to be larger among Latino and African American families when compared to the general population (US Census, 2010). In 2000, 27% of all U.S. children were living in single-parent families; among African American children, 53% were living with only one parent (Sigle-Rushton & McLanahan, 2004). The vast majority of these single-parent homes are headed by women. DeBell (2008) reported that single-father homes represent only 7% of the total single-parent homes in the country. The majority of research concerning single parenthood has focused on the disadvantages faced by children raised in the absence of their father. However, understanding the
disadvantages focuses only on half of the issue: the other half is to understand the strengths and resiliency factors exhibited by children raised in a FA home. Although children raised in a home where a father is present graduate from high school and attend college at much higher rates than children raised in a fatherless home, nearly 70% of children from FA homes do graduate from high school and 50% of them attend college (Sigle-Rushton & McLanahan, 2004). There is a great need for research focusing on the strengths of these academic achievers from FA homes. This paper will summarize current research, discuss problems with that body of work, and suggest areas for further study. Most of the studies reviewed are from the past twenty years and most are concerned with the academic achievement of children raised in SP homes. Although there is a large body of research, many studies have been flawed by similar factors and by the nature of the difficulty in measuring intrapersonal issues. Because there are flaws, there are many opportunities for further research and areas for growth.

Fomby & Cherlin (2011) investigated on family instability and child well-being. The instability of family structure has become an increasingly salient part of children’s lives in the United States over the past half-century. However, Past research suggests that children who experience multiple transitions in family structure may face worse developmental outcomes than children raised in stable two-parent families and perhaps even children raised in stable, single-parent families. Multiple transitions and negative child outcomes may be associated because of common causal factors such as parents’ antecedent behaviors and attributes. Using a nationally-representative, two-generation longitudinal survey that includes detailed information on children’s behavioral and cognitive development, family history, and mother’s attributes prior to the child’s birth, we
examine these alternative hypotheses. Results suggest that, for white children, the association between the number of family structure transitions and cognitive outcomes is largely explained by mother’s prior characteristics but that the association between the number of transitions and behavioral outcomes may be causal in part.

Ashley (2010) conducted a Quasi-Experimental study, examined and compared participants coming from single verses dual parent homes. The participants were forty-five students from the University of Central Missouri. Students coming from single parent homes were compared to students coming from dual parent homes on four different levels. The four levels were parenting styles, economic status, friendship, and self-esteem. According to him, research study revealed to him the following fact that the absence of a parent through death, divorce or a time-demanding job contributes to the many forms of emotional disorders, especially low self esteem, anger rebelliousness, depression and anti social behavior. Research studies clearly indicate that a broken home with the resultant loss or absence of a parent predisposes a child to a variety of emotional disorders that manifest themselves immediately or later in the children’s lives and adulthood. Occupation and the type of home participants came from also showed a significant difference. Although a significant difference was found in family income and occupation, no significance was found in the quality of friends, time spent with friends, and family importance.

Walsh (2010) investigated the effects of divorce on children. 75% of teenagers who commit suicide and 70% of juvenile delinquents were children belonging to fatherless homes. Single parents have brought up successful and happy children. But this was not the case in majority of the situations. Nature has intended that children being raised by both the parents. A single parent cannot satisfactorily fulfill the role of two. Both the parents
are important in the life of a child. Neither parent can duplicate the role of the other. Unfortunately, the increase in divorce rates has created an increase in children from fatherless families as the mother was often given custodial rights. Aggressive children are 50% more likely to have problems with their teachers. Subsequently, these children turn school dropouts. The low educational qualifications of these school dropouts fetch them only low paid jobs. Low paid jobs are a direct route to job dissatisfaction and unemployment. Predictably, their indulgence in crime or other risky behavior is also quite high. Lone mothers are more likely to suffer stress-related depression. Their emotional state affects their relationship with their children. Lack of attention creates behavioral problems in children. Unruly behavior of children was a cause for concern for 30% of single mothers. 90% of the runaway children were from single-parent families.

Esbensen et al. (2010) analyzed that emotional distress; delinquent behaviour, academic failure, and gang membership have been associated with father absence. The research does not prove a cause and effect association between the conditions of growing up in a father-absent home and these emotional and social concerns; however, it does support that father absence can contribute to instability on the part of a child/adolescent, and these difficulties may continue well into adulthood. According to the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, the percentage of boys and girls who reside with both parents dropped from 85% to 68% during the period from 1970 to 1997 (Snyder & Sickmund, 1999). Lamb (2001) stated that marriages ending in divorce have doubled during the period of 1965 and 1980, rising to 45%. This has affected about 1 million children each year. Children born outside of the union of marriage has surpassed divorce as the primary antecedent of father absence.
Kapoor (2010) edited by Chandvani investigated that single-parent children were more likely to face behavioral problems. An alarming new study revealed that nearly 12 percent of the kids who have been brought up by a single parent were found to possess behavioral problems by age 7. This was almost double compared to children living with both parents, as only 6 percent of them were found to have psychological disorders, at the same age. According to the research that forms a part of the Millennium Cohort Study initiated by researchers from London University’s Institute of Education, family structure, parental educational qualifications and the household income played a major role in shaping the behavior of the child at a young age and if any of these factors was on the lower side, it can have a “damaging long-term consequences.” Research has also found that kids having younger mothers also faced more difficulties in their growing years than those children, who had a mother aged 30 or above.

Cheung & Liu (2010) made a coercion model and explained reciprocal relationships between parents' and children's adjustment problems, with the mediation of parenting behavior and social relationships. A survey of 301 single parents in Guangzhou, China, was performed to test such a model with reference to parental distress, perceived behavioral problems and anxiety of the eldest child, acceptance of the child, and experienced social pressure and social support. Structural equation modeling demonstrated a good fit of the coercion model as a theoretically based and simplified representation of the relationships, supporting the hypotheses that (a) the parent's acceptance helps to prevent the child's behavioral problems, (b) the child's behavioral problems and anxiety contribute to the parent's distress, (c) the child's behavioral problems and anxiety invite social pressure on the parent, (d) social pressure on the parent aggravates and social
support for the parent attenuates the parent's distress, (e) social pressure and social support for the parent facilitate the parent's acceptance of his or her child. However, the effect of parental distress on acceptance of the child was not significant.

Paton (2010) investigated on children from single-parent families. Children raised by single mothers were twice as likely to misbehave as those born into traditional two parent families. According to the research, Children raised by one parent were more likely to display serious problems. Some 12 per cent of children brought up by one parent displayed serious behavioral problems by the age of seven; it was disclosed, compared with just six per cent of youngsters raised by both natural parents. The study found that family make-up, parental qualifications and household income had a major effect on children’s behavior at a young age, which could have “damaging long-term consequences”. Behavioral problems were less likely among children living in families with higher levels of parental qualifications.

Selnow (2010) examined the relationship between substance usage and parent-child relationships and the number of parents with whom the child lives. These relationships were examined through initial and cross-validation studies. Findings disclosed that youngsters who lived with both parents were less likely to report higher substance usage than those who lived with one parent. Also, youngsters who reported better parent-child relationships were more likely to report lower substance usage. Evidence was offered that parent-child relationships may be more important in predicting substance usage than the number of parents at home.
Xiangyan (2010) investigated on single-parent families’ adolescent mental health and social work intervention. Single-parent families, children often families did not have a sense of security, without warmth, without the spiritual support, their psychological state was more fragile than the average child. Therefore, the family, the school should be double the love of common concern a child’s psychological health of single-parent families. As the parents were divorced to his children’s heart caused tremendous trauma, to break their psychological and emotional balance, in recent years, the phenomenon of runaways and suicides were increasing daily.

Kelly (2010) studied that the face of single parenting has changed in recent decades. The study found that children from single-parent families had twice the incidence of psychiatric illness, suicide attempts and alcohol abuse problems compared with those from two parent homes. Compared to kids from two parent families, they tend to get lower grades, suffer more absenteeism, and have more problems relating to peers and teachers. Their drop-out rate was higher, and they're less likely to attend college. Children raised by one parent were also more likely than their peers to exhibit problems like increased aggression and anxiety and to have trouble getting along with their parents.

Deborah (2010) examined the effects of single parent home on a child’s behavior. According to the U.S. Census Bureau, the numbers of children who grow up in single-parent homes continue to rise. Children with two parents grow up with more financial and educational advantages, according to the bureau. The effects of a single-parent home on a child's behavior can be far-reaching and include many areas of life, from academic achievement to social habits. Knox found that children with single mothers who have contact and emotional support from their fathers tend to do better in school than children
who have no contact with their fathers. Living in poverty was stressful and can have many emotional effects on children, including low self-esteem, increased anger and frustration and an increased risk for violent behavior. Besides financial constraints, other emotional effects of growing up in a single parent household may include feelings of abandonment, sadness, loneliness and difficulty in socializing and connecting with others.

Pike (2010) investigated the adjustment of Australian children growing up in single-parent families as measured by their competence and self-esteem. The article described a study that examined the competence and self-esteem of 136 Australian single-parent primary school-aged children growing up in different single-parent residency. Child competence was assessed across a range of domains (academic, physical, social, behavioral and everyday life skills). The analysis revealed that overall; the single-parent children were not significantly different from the two parent children in competence levels and self-esteem.

Ogbuja (2010) focused on the crisis of single parent homes and discussed that American families suffer because one or both parents were frequently absent (Lamb, 1990). Research indicated that tens of millions of American fathers struggled as adult parents because they lacked a model of effective fathering in their own lives. Studies have shown that children who experienced early father absence inevitably had weaker mathematical than verbal skills and usually found it difficult to adjust well with others although fatherlessness alone does not cause for poor adjustment (Adam et al. 1984). Research indicated that in Western societies, children from father absent households manifested a number of internalizing and externalizing problem behaviors, including sadness and depression, delinquency, aggression, sex role difficulties, early initiation of
sexual activities and teen pregnancy, as well as poor social and adaptive functioning and low self-esteem. Behavioral problems associated with the absent of a father in the household included poor school functioning with poorer performance on academic and cognitive tests, school disciplinary problems, high school absenteeism and drop out rates and lower occupational attainment.

Mather (2010) focused on U.S children in single-mother families. In the United States, the number of children in single-mother families has risen dramatically over the past four decades, causing considerable concern among policymakers and the public. Researchers have identified the rise in single-parent families (especially mother-child families) as a major factor driving the long-term increase in child poverty in the United States. Although many children growing up in single-parent families succeed, others would face significant challenges in making the transition to adulthood. Children in lower-income, single-parent families faced the most significant barriers to success in school and the work force.

Salami & Alawode (2009) presented a longitudinal study at Department of Guidance and Counselling by Ibaden. The purpose of the study was to investigate the effects of single-parent family, an emerging family pattern in Nigeria Peer group influence and selection in Adolescent’s school burnout. Results indicated that students from intact homes had significantly better academic achievement than those from single parenting homes. Significant difference was found between the academic achievement of Christian and Muslim students from intact homes whereas none was found between the Christian and Muslim students from single parenting homes and also significant difference was
found between the academic achievement of males and females from single parenting homes but none between those from intact homes.

Roberts (2009) investigated that there were numerous, well-documented studies which indicated that families were changing on a global level. Single women of different backgrounds were raising their children without the assistance of a father. Reports indicated that one in every four children was born out of wedlock, many of them being born to teenage mothers. Although most women still wanted to marry, the new realization was that they do not need to be married to have children. Many single mothers reported that they acquired the status unintentionally. Nevertheless, once a woman becomes a single mother, the complexity of her life increases. Due to the transition from having two incomes to one income many single mothers experienced economic struggles. Absentee fathers’ refusal to provide financial or childcare support further compounds this situation. As a result, single mothers were usually the sole breadwinner and caregiver for their families, and often struggled with the dilemma of how to balance work and family. Single mothers also reportedly faced a plethora of economic inequalities that fuel their economic hardships, and compromise their financial independence.

Hughes (2009) studied that children from divorced families were not overwhelming worse off psychologically. Billings & Emery (2000) reported that young adults in the early 20s who experienced the divorce of their parents still reported pain and distress over their parents’ divorces ten years later. Feeling of loss about the relationship with their fathers was the most common report. Those young people who reported high conflict between their parents were more likely to have feelings of loss and regret. The overall results of
these studies suggested that while children from divorced families may, on average, experience more major psychological and behavioral problems than children in intact families, there were more similarities than differences. Current evidence suggests that the loss of contact with parents, economic difficulties, stress, parental adjustment and competence, and interparental conflict all contributed at least to some degree to the difficulties of children.

Dhanyasree (2008) focused on the myths behind single-parent families. In India itself around 49% children were living in single-parent homes and despite the divorce or remarriages, both the parents may actively be involved in parenting or offering their children two separate families. The children in the single-parent families were believed to have emotional or behavioral problems. Society expects those children to do poorly at schools and possess a low self-esteem. Children in single parents may possess the accused problems as their counterparts in two parent families. The low esteem of children in single-parent families mostly related to the low income in the families. However this syndrome could be seen in children from low financial two parent families also.

Encyclopedia Britannica (2008) did a Demographic Research. Logistic regression analyses showed that students with a divorced single parent, regardless of gender of the parent, were much less likely to aspire to four-year University education and more likely to be disengaged than their counterparts with two parents. Single parenthood was negatively associated with children’s educational outcomes in most Western countries; recently comparative studies showed that the strength of the negative relationship varied significantly across countries (Thompson & Pong, 2005). Lloyd & Blanc (1996) found that in Sub-Saharan African countries, children in female-headed households tend to have
greater educational opportunities in terms of school enrollments and attainment relative to children in male-headed households.

Children’s Medical Center Dallas (2007) research conducted for the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services and the American Educational Research Association showed that children in single-parent families score worse on measures of health, education, emotional and behavioral problems than children living with both parents. Research suggested that approximately 90 percent of single-parent families were headed by females. Sixty percent of children in this country who lived in female headed single-parent families fell below the poverty line, compared with only 12 percent of children in two parent families. Children who lived in female headed single-parent homes were more likely to live in poverty due to the limited earning potential of women, inadequate childcare assistance and lack of child-support payments.

Barton & Coley (2007) briefed on the failure of the single-parent family. In the Unites States today, too many children were left behind- not by government, but by those who should care for them. In 2003-04, 44 percent of births to women under 30- about one million babies- were born to unmarried women. Among African-Americans, over three-quarters of births were to single mothers. Moreover, over 30 percent of children were being raised in single-parent families; among African-Americans, only 35 percent of children were being raised in two parent homes. Children raised in two parent families tend to exhibit behavior that better prepares them to be positive contributors to society, and this was borne out by comparisons of adults based on family structure. A variety of negative factors were associated with single-parent families. For example, single parents tend to be less educated and to have fewer financial resources than married parents. In fact, among
women under 30 with less than a high school diploma, more than 60 percent of births were outside marriage.

Lifesitenews.com (2006) reported that broken family structure leads to educational difficulties of children. The report found out that children from non-intact families (children living in a situation other than with their own married father and mother) have significantly higher rates of difficulty with all levels of education, from pre-kindergarten to primary, secondary, and college levels. The study found that preschool children from broken homes were three times more likely to suffer from attention deficit disorders than children from intact homes. In particular, boys from broken marriages showed a higher rate of classroom misbehavior. For teenagers, students from broken homes were 30 percent more likely to miss school, be late, or cut class than students from intact homes, because single parents faced more difficulty in monitoring their children.

Rita & Rubul (2006) studied the emotional, social and educational adjustment of elementary school children of single-parent and intact parent families. A sample of 100 students studying in 6th, 7th and 8th grades was taken from six elementary schools of Kurukshetra district. Wallerstein (1991), Gallagher (1989), Langua et al. (2000) in their studies indicated that parenting had direct effects on children’s adjustment. They also reported that disturbed adolescent functioning was much more common in single-parent families than in intact parent families.

Papp (2005) studied on participants which included 116 families (i.e., fathers, and a target child between the ages of 8 and 16) recruited from the community who completed detailed records of marital conflict situations in the home. Results indicated that multiple
symptom dimensions were implicated in the expression of question examined associations between child adjustment and marital conflict processes. Associations did emerge and child age moderated some of children’s ratings of adjustment. Interaction tests that included marital conflict and parent symptoms as a predictor of child adjustment were significant for husbands’ depressive symptoms and child internalizing and husbands reported higher levels of depressive and destructive conflict.

Linda (2005) focused on single parent household which have been on the rise since the 1970s and in many areas it represents the norm; rather than the exception. The research was a case study comparing the experiences of four men with earned doctorates or terminal degrees and four male college students all of whom were raised by single mothers. The study focused on academic performance and self-esteem of the participants. The ultimate goal of the study was to consider various positive and negative influences that the single mothers of the four men with earned doctorates and the four male college students may have had on their sons academic performance and self-esteem, and how the described relationship experience exist and ultimately the outcomes of their academic performance and self-esteem.

Lin (2005) described a number of theories and studies in sociology and psychology which have asserted that self-efficacy was both the consequence and cause of our everyday life experiences. Parents also reported several aspects of their adulthood conditions and behaviors, including their occupation, substance use, parenting behaviors, educational expectation upon their children, and their self-efficacy in adulthood. The results suggested that there existed intergenerational parallelism of self-efficacy, and parent generation’s self-efficacy (in adolescence) was associated with parents’ choice of conventional
pathways towards adulthood. These conventional pathways that self-efficacious parents choose in turn exhibit a strong influence on the development of the child’s self-efficacy. These findings were independent of other influences, e.g. the family’s social economic status, race/ethnicity, ages of both generations, and family structure.

Swafford & Melinda (2005) explained a study of single-parent families and family centeredness. Family centered practices have emerged from a history of research in early intervention. The purpose of the study was to investigate from the family’s perspective and how single-parent families were receiving early intervention services experience, those services specific to family-centeredness and empowerment. The results of the study indicated that the professional were competent in providing the relational skills of the three-component empowerment construct. Careful analysis of the data indicated that early intervention professionals need to improve their participatory skills with families.

Belove (2004) studied on the divorce and its effects on the children. Wallerstein had done the best long term studies of children after divorce. The role model in single-parent families were still both parents. Children of divorce were pessimistic about marriage and, of course, they have never seen one work. Today the average age of marriage in the United States was 28. The divorce rate still holds at 50%. They do not rise but they have fallen slightly but not significantly. In a recent study it was found that the single best predictor of success in school was family dinner conversations.

Schudlich (2004) examined among parental dysphoria family processes, and child adjustment. Dimensions of parenting style, parents’ marital conflict tactics and children’s emotional security regarding interparental conflict were examined as potential mediators of
the parental dysphoria-child adjustment relationship. Two hundred and sixty-seven families with a child between the ages of 8; and 16 participated. Differences were also found in indirect pathways for mothers and fathers. Those results underscore the importance of assessing and addressing different family processes depending on the type of adjustment problem children were experiencing. Addressing the marital difficulties and children’s feelings of insecurity regarding the marriage may help reduce children’s internalizing problems in families with parental dysphoria, whereas for children’s behavioral problems, addressing parenting and or parent-child difficulties may decrease children’s risk.

Kathleen (2004) explored a non-experimental research study, used correlation methods to analyze and search for relationships between demographic characteristics of adolescent girls, their particular family structure and their ethnic backgrounds and their levels of self-esteem. The levels of self-esteem were determined by the Rosenberg Self-esteem scale (1965, 1989). The study found out that statistically significant relationships (lower self-esteem) exist between adolescent girls from nuclear families. No significant relationships were found in the levels of self-esteem when comparing adolescent girls from the dominant (white) culture as compared to adolescent girls from all other ethnic backgrounds.

Wilson (2004) studied to reevaluate and assess the relative contributions of academic performance, academic achievement, and social acceptance to the self-esteem of children in the third and sixth grades. The study was a replication of the Henderson (1991) study of analogous aspirations. The sample of the study consisted of 132 students from two convenience samples. Significant findings were revealed for specific sub-domains of self-
esteem, including behavior, motivation, disposition, self-control, intellectual status, institutional status, physical attributes and popularity. The findings indicated that the sixth grade students, achieved more than third grade students, self-esteem was influenced both by acceptance from their peer group and academic success.

Spomer (2003) investigated longitudinally on relationships between parenting and youth acting-out, shy-anxious, and learning problems varied as a function of child temperament and early parent-child separations. The main effects of these variables on youth adjustment were also examined in a sample of 88 children and families from urban, ethnically diverse backgrounds (primarily African-American and Caucasian) who had been exposed to chronic psychosocial adversity. Parenting practices were found to predict youth shy-anxious and learning problems even after taking into account the role of negative emotionality and parent-child separations, which, counter to study hypotheses which were weakly and inconsistently related to adjustment. Additional analyses showed that factors such as parent mental health, and emotional or drug/alcohol problems among family members could not account for the moderating effects of parent-child separations found in the study. The current study finding advanced knowledge regarding parenting effects in non-traditional samples, and identified children exposed to poor parenting who were the most vulnerable to develop adjustment problems.

Whitehead et al. (2003) investigated that divorce and out-of-wedlock childbirth are transforming the lives of American children. A 1988 survey by the National Center for Health Statistics found that children in single-parent families were two to three times as likely as children in two-parent families to have emotional and behavioral problems. They were also more likely to drop out of high school, to get pregnant as teenagers, to abuse
drugs, and to be in trouble with the law. Compared with children in intact families, children from disrupted families were at higher risk for physical or sexual abuse. Research showed that many children from disrupted families had a harder time achieving intimacy in relationship, forming a stable marriage, or even holding a steady job.

Gloria (2003) examined the perceptions of African-American students and their parents about the academic achievement gap between African-American students and their white counterparts at the elementary school level in urban school districts. A survey of African-American students and their parents was conducted to collect data for the study. The findings indicated that the existing achievement gap between African-American and White students was primarily impacted by a number of socioeconomic factors including single-parent family structure, lack of equal educational opportunities, lack of appropriate self-esteem and necessary self-confidence among African-American children, peer pressure, and little participation of African-American parents in their children’s educational accomplishment due to financial restraints, job-related obligations, and other family commitments.

Sue (2003) discussed the functional variables of the family (adaptability, cohesion, and communication) and the structural variables of the family and family type (married or single parent) in relationship to adolescent pregnancy. Additionally, two personal individual adolescent variables (self-esteem and attachment) and their relationship to the family of origin were investigated. The participants were 100 students enrolled in two high public high schools and one mentoring program for adolescent mothers. Results indicated that pregnant/parenting adolescents differed from non-pregnant/non-parenting adolescents
in five areas. They tend to believe that their families were less adaptive and less cohesive. They felt that their communication style with their mother was less effective.

Croucher (2003) studied about the facts on fatherlessness. Fatherlessness was a growing problem in Australia and the Western world, whether caused by divorce and broken families, or by deliberate single parenting, more and more children grow up without fathers. Rodgers of the Australian National University had recently re-examined and shown that parental divorce to be a risk factor for a wide range of social and psychological problems in adolescence and adulthood, including poor academic achievement, low self-esteem, psychological distress, delinquency and recidivism, substance use and abuse, sexual precocity, adult criminal offending, depression, and suicidal behavior.

Mindy (2003) tested to find out the differences in a child’s self-esteem based on family status (single parent or two parents), ethnicity, gender, or age. The Rosenberg Self-esteem scale was used to measure self-esteem and was given a self-administered questionnaire. The findings of the study indicated that there was a significant difference in self-esteem based on gender with males scoring higher on the self-esteem measurement. These results were consistent with previous literature that has found that boys score higher on self-esteem measures. For ethnicity, age and family status, no significant difference in self-esteem were reported.

Neill (2002) recognized that children growing up in lone-mother households were more likely to have emotional, academic, and financial problems and were more likely to engage in behavior associated with social exclusion, such as offending, teenage pregnancy,
alcohol and drug abuse or worklessness. Children from lone-mother households tend to experience more poverty than children from two parent families. Families with existing problems and disadvantages might be ‘selected into’ lone-parent families. On the other hand, people who have had many advantages such as a stable and loving family background, economic security, and good education may be more likely to marry and maintain a parental partnership than those who had fewer advantages.

Criss et al. (2002) studied and examined that peer acceptance and friendships as moderators in the link between family adversity and child externalizing behavioral problems. Data on family adversity (i.e., ecological disadvantage, violent marital conflict, and harsh discipline) and child temperament and social information processing were collected during home visits from 585 families with 5 year-old children. Examination of regression slopes indicated that family adversity was not significantly associated with child externalizing behavior at high levels of positive peer relationships.

Freed (2001) studied that one in five emotional problems in children was going to come out, where the parents were separated or divorced. 68% of all child suicides happened in a single parent home. Sixty-three percent of all children born after 1987 would have lived part of their childhood in a single parent home, each year spent in a single parent family would reduce a preschooler’s educational attainment by one fourth of a year. In other words if a child spends eight years in a single parent home, he or she would be two full grade levels below their peers on average.

Colwell et al. (2001) examined the variations in amounts of nonparent care across infancy, preschool, early elementary school and early adolescence in a longitudinal sample
Correlations among overall amounts of care provided little evidence of cross-time continuity. Consistent with the cumulative risk perspective, Grade 1 self-care and Grade 6 unsupervised peer contact incrementally predicted Grade 6 externalizing problems. Most of the predictive associations were accounted for by family background and social relationship factors.

Laird et al. (2001) used a longitudinal, prospective design to examine the roles of peer rejection in middle childhood and antisocial peer involvement in early adolescence in the development of adolescent externalizing behavior problems. Results indicated that experiencing peer rejection in elementary school and greater involvement with antisocial peers in early adolescent were correlated but these peer relationship experiences may represent two different pathways to adolescent externalizing behavior problems. Peer rejection experiences, but not involvement with antisocial peers, predict later externalizing behavior problems when controlling for stability in externalizing behavior. Externalizing problems were most common when rejection was experienced repeatedly. Early externalizing problems have not appear to moderate the relation between peer rejection and later problem behavior.

Pettit et al. (2001) examined the early antecedents and behavior problem outcomes of parental monitoring and psychological control in early adolescence. Parenting data were collected during home visit interviews with 440 mothers and their 13 year old children. High levels of psychological control were associated with more delinquent problems for girls and for teens who were low in preadolescent delinquent problems, and with more anxiety/depression for girls and for teens who were high in preadolescent anxiety/depression.
Keiley et al. (2000) assessed a sample of 405 kindergarten children through the seventh grade, to determine the basic development trajectories of mother-reported and teacher-reported externalizing and internalizing behaviors using cross-domain latent growth modeling techniques and also investigated the effects of race, socioeconomic level, gender, and sociometric peer-rejection status in kindergarten on these trajectories. African-American children had lower levels of externalizing behavior in kindergarten as reported by mothers than did European-American children but they had greater increase in these behaviors when reported by teachers. Males showed greater increase in teacher-reported externalizing behavior over time than did the females. Rejected children had trajectories of mother-reported externalizing and internalizing behavior that began at higher levels and either remained stable or increased more rapidly than did the trajectories for non-rejected children who had decreased over time.

Schwartz et al. (2000) portrayed on two prospective investigations of the moderating role of friendship in the developmental pathway to peer victimization. In study 1, the preschool home environments (i.e., harsh discipline, marital conflict, stress, abuse and maternal hostility) of 389 children were assessed by trained interviewers. These children were then followed into the middle years of elementary school, with peer victimization, group social acceptance, and friendship assessed annually with a peer nomination inventory. In study 2, the home environments of 243 children were assessed in the summer before 1st grade, and victimization, group acceptance, and friendship were assessed annually over the next 3 years. In both studies, early harsh, punitive, and hostile family environments predicted later victimization by peers for children who had a low
number of friendships. However, the predictive associations did not hold for children who had numerous friendships.

Laird et al. (1999) found out the correlations between adolescents’ own antisocial behavior and adolescents’ perceptions of the antisocial behavior of their best friends and friendship groups. The strength of those correlations was expected to vary as a function of the qualities of the friendships and group relationships. Perceptions of peers’ antisocial behavior and friendship and group relationship qualities were collected through interviews with 431, 12 through 13 years old adolescents. Adolescents who perceived their friends and groups as participating in antisocial behavior had higher self-reported and teacher reported anti-social ratings. Perceptions of best friend antisocial behavior were correlated more strongly with adolescents’ own concurrent, but not subsequent, antisocial behavior when high levels of help, companionship, and security characterized friendships.

Pettit et al. (1999) examined unsupervised peer contact in the after-school hours which was a risk factor in the development of externalizing problems in a longitudinal sample of early adolescents. Parental monitoring, neighborhood safety and adolescents’ preexisting behaviors problems were considered as possible moderators of the risk factor. Interviews with mothers provided information on monitoring, neighborhood safety and demographics. Early adolescent (ages 12-13 years) after school time use was assessed via a telephone interview in grade 6 (N=438); amount of time spent with peers was tabulated. Teacher ratings of externalizing behavior problems were collected in grades 6 and 7. Unsupervised peer contact, lack of neighborhood safety, and low monitoring incrementally predicted grade 7 externalizing problems, after controlling for family background factors and grade 6 problems. The greatest risks were for those unsupervised adolescents living in
low-monitoring homes and comparatively unsafe neighborhoods. The significant relation between unsupervised peer contact and problem behavior in grade 7 held only for those adolescents who already were high in problem behavior in grade 6.

Schwartz et al. (1998) reported a short-term prospective investigation of the role of peer group victimization in the development of children’s behavior problem at home and school. Sociometric interviews were utilized to assess aggression, victimization by peers and peer rejection, for 330 children who were in either the third or forth grade (approximate mean ages of 8-9 years old). Behavior problem were assessed using standardized behavior checklists completed by mothers and teachers. A follow-up assessment of behavior problem was completed 2 years later, when the children were in either the fifth or sixth grade (approximate mean ages of 10-11 years old). Victimization was both concurrently and prospectively associated with externalizing, attention dysregulation and immature, development behavior. Victimization also predicted increase in these difficulties overtime, and incremented the prediction in later behavior problem associated with peer rejection and aggression. The results of this investigation demonstrate that victimization in the peer group is one important predictor of later behavior maladjustment.

Deater et al. (1998) aimed to test whether the individual risk factors as well as the number of risk factors (cumulative risk) predicted a child’s externalizing behavior over middle childhood. A sample of 466 European American and 100 African American boys and girls from a broad range of socioeconomic levels was followed from age 5 to 10 years. Particular risks accounted for 36% to 45% of the variance, and the number of risks present accounted for 19% to 32% of the variance in externalizing outcomes. Cumulative risk was
related to subsequent externalizing even after initial levels of externalizing had been statistically controlled. All 4 domains of risk variables made significant unique contributions to this statistical prediction and there were multiple clusters of risks that led to similar outcomes. There was also evidence that this prediction was moderated by ethnic group status, most of the prediction of externalizing being found for European American children.

Schwartz et al. (1997) reported the first prospective investigation of the early family experience of boys who later emerged as both aggressive and bullied during their middle childhood years. Interviews with mothers of 198, 5 year old boys assessed preschool home environments. 4 to 5 years later, aggressive behavior and peer victimization were assessed in the school class room. The early experiences of 16 aggressive victims were contrasted with those of 21 passive victims, nonvictimized aggressors and 128 normative boys. Analysis indicated that the aggressive victim group had experienced more punitive, hostile and abusive family treatment than the other groups.

Pettit et al. (1996) examined the stability and change in peer rejected status. Antecedents and correlates of peer rejection in kindergarten and first grade were examined. Interviews with 585 mothers provided data on parenting and family ecology child behavior was indexed by peer and teacher ratings. Children were classified as socio-medically accepted in both grades, rejected in only one grade or rejected in both grades. Compared to accepted children, rejected children were more likely to come from lower families in which restrictive discipline occurred at a high rate and were more aggressive and less socially and academically skilled. Children rejected in both grades were more aggressive than children rejected in one grade. Decrease in aggression and increase in academic performance were
shown by children whose status improved across grades, with the opposite pattern shown by children whose status worsened.

Gringlas (1995) investigated maternal/preschool child functioning in families of solo mothers. Solo mothers differed from married counterparts in stress and social support, yet no differences in child outcome were observed. Reassessed 28 families as children entered preadolescence. Teachers reported preadolescents of solo mothers had more behavior problems, lower social competence, and poorer school performance than children of married mothers.

Kurtz (1994) studied on relationships between maternal coping efforts and children’s adaptive processes in divorced and intact families. The overall sample consisted of 112 women with elementary school age children. Half of the sample of mother-child was from married families and the reminders of mother-child were from single-parent families. The findings suggest that mother coping efforts characterized by escape-avoidant and social support-seeking behaviors were more likely to be associated with children’s behaviors problems, especially in divorced families.

Kruk (1994) examined impact of divorce on non-custodial fathers’ disengagement. Results from 80 non-custodial fathers generated two distinct profiles of non-custodial fathers and marked discontinuity between pre and post divorce father-child relationships. Findings suggest transition period from point of divorce to 6-12 months after divorce strongly influences nature of post divorce father-child relationship.

Bates et al. (1994) portrayed on child care history and kindergarten adjustment. Parents gave histories of 589 children just before kindergarten. Children with higher day
care amount in each of 3 eras (0-1, 1-4 and 4-5 years scored higher on the composite negative adjustment and lower on positive adjustment (however, they also scored lower on teacher rated internalizing problem). Day care predicted even after statistical control for measures representing alternative explanations, such as family stress and socio-economic status accounting for 2.7% of variance in negative adjustment and 2.9% of positive adjustment.

White (1994) studied data on 3,625 respondents from National survey of families and households to examine long-term consequences of childhood family structure for adult relationships with parents and siblings. It was found that divorced single-parent families were associated with reduced solidarity between parents and children. Custodial mothers’ remarriages were associated with more parent-child solidarity than single-parent families.

Brody et al. (1994) proposed family process model that links family financial resources to academic competence and socio-emotional adjustment during early adolescence. Subjects were 90, 9 to 12 year old African American youths and their, married parents, all of whom lived in the rural southeastern United States. Results indicated that fewer family resources led to depression and decreased optimism in both parent and resulted in the disruption of parental co-care giving support. This disruption had adverse consequences for youths by interfering with their development of self-regulation, which in turn negatively influenced their academic competence and socio-emotional adjustment.

Pettit et al. (1993) described the predictive associations among family interaction patterns assessed prior to kindergarten and children’s externalizing behavior problems.
(based on parents and teachers report) in a sample of 165 kindergarten and first grade children and their families. Detailed home observations yielded both summary ratings and event based measures of positive proactive and negative coercive styles of interaction. In general, externalizing problem were more strongly predicted by (a) the summary ratings than by event based measures. (b) negative coercive patterns than by proactive positive parenting (although both kinds of measure contributed to the prediction of kindergarten teacher’s ratings) and (c) mother child interaction patterns than by father-child patterns. Mother-child interaction pattern predicted increments in children’s behavior problem from kindergarten to first grade at school (as rated by teachers), but not in the home (as rated by parents).

Strassberg et al. (1992) studied the relation between the strategies used by parents during family conflict in the child’s early life and the child’s social standing (degree of acceptance and rejection) among peers in kindergarten. Alternative models of the linkages, between parental aggression and children social standing were considered. Relations between parental aggression and child social standing occurrence when a) standing was indexed as a continuous (social preference) variable; b) standing was indexed as a categorical (social status) variable; and c) controlling for mediating effects of other variables of child behavior and family socioeconomic status. Socially rejected children were found to have experienced the greatest frequency of adult aggression in the home.

Lindner et al. (1992) investigated on the adjustment of children in non divorced, divorced single-mother, and remarried families. Adolescents whose parents had not divorced exhibited more social and scholastic competence and fewer adjustment problems than did adolescents from families with remarried or single mothers. Children from
divorced, single-mother families demonstrated adjustment difficulties up to six years after their mother’s divorce.

Smetana et al. (1991) elucidated on adolescent-parent conflict in married and divorced families. Results indicated that on a participation in a social interaction task, married mothers of adolescents generated more conflicts than did divorced mothers, and adolescents from married families exhibited more positive communication than did adolescents from divorced families. There was a greater trend toward harmonious relationships among divorced than married families.

Maccoby et al. (1991) focused on conflict in divorcing families. Parental conflict as it occurs in the context of divorce was studied in an effort to determine the role that conflict plays in a variety of psychosocial problems in children. Data were drawn from a 5-year longitudinal study of about 1,000 families who filed for divorce in 1984. The first phase of the study involved a series of interviews with the divorced parents over a 3-year period. In the second phase, the adolescent children in the families were interviewed about 4.5 years after their parents separated. Research areas investigated include inter-parental hostility, discordant co-parenting, conflict between custodial parents and adolescents; the adolescent’s relationship with both parents, loyalty conflicts, and the adolescent’s bonding with each parent. It is tentatively concluded that it is best for children to see both parents only if the parent can cooperate to a reasonable degree, although many children suffer from the parent conflicts involved in divorce.

Karraker (1991) explored the impact of single-parent families on adolescent females and their aspirations for the future. The study, taking data from the national
longitudinal High School and Beyond (HSB) study, uses a stratified weighted national sample of 4,573 black and white high school senior females in the class of 1980. The sample includes girls who were living with their mothers or other female guardians. The study indicates that when other factors were controlled, black females plan to marry at later ages than do white females. Also, those from high income families and those with more educated mothers plan to marry at later ages than do other girls. The possible reasons for these patterns may be freedom from traditional gender roles or a high value on self-reliance. This research indicates that successful prediction of females’ plans for education and marriage are not consistent with a “culture of poverty”.

2.3 AN OVERVIEW OF REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

An extensive search of earlier research studies conducted on the problems of college students from single-parent family and single parents are scanty. In India though there is a gradual increase of single-parent families due to various factors such as death of men at younger age because of accident, cardiac failure, cancer etc. and increasing ratio of divorce. Most of the studies are related to the problems confronted by the single women, divorced women and widowed women but consequences of single-parent family on children and college students are largely untouched. However these studies are also conducted mostly in the third world countries and the West, mainly the U.S and only few studies are done in India.

Findings of the Western studies cannot be generalized to the Indian families in view of cultural factors, which plays vital role in the family. In India very few studies were carried related to the problems of college students from single-parent family and single
parents. These studies were also mainly focused on the impact of income, education and economical aspects of single parent children.

Hence the present study made an attempt to investigate the psychosocial problems experienced by the college students from single-parent family in comparison with the college students from intact family in order to understand the difficulties faced by them and thereby to help the college students from single-parent family and single parent to cope up with the problems in a better way.

2.4 CONCLUSION

The review of related literature summarizes the current status of research work already done in the area of Single-parent family and Intact family college students in relation to Self-esteem, Peer-group relationship, Adjustment ability and Academic achievement. The research studies are abstracted and significant writings of authorities in this area under study are reviewed. This review has provided a background for the development of the present study and brings the researcher up to date.