CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of related literature is the pre-requisite to actual planning and the execution of any research project. It makes the investigator aware about the work which has already been done in the field and their findings, thereby, ensuring the avoidance of unnecessary duplication. According to Best (2003), “A familiarity with the literature in any problem area helps the students to discover that is already known, what others have attempted to find out, what methods have been promising and disappointing and which problems remain to be solved”.

In the present chapter an attempt has been made to provide up-to-date information about the researches already done in the field of insecurity and its relationship with emotional intelligence, self-concept and parental influence. The research area related to insecurity is relatively dark in Indian context. So, the investigator has added studies of insecurity and its allied terms like anxiety, depression, stress, mental health problems, emotional and behavioural problems which are also responsible for infusing insecurity in individuals.

2.1 STUDIES RELATED TO INSECURITY

Bowlby (1973) reported that stressors which are uncontrollable are most likely to increase insecurity over time by challenging the attachment system with a stressor that cannot be readily managed by any response.

Sarkar (1979) found the relationship between children’s mental health and their family characteristics, namely family structure and family tension. It was concluded that the mentally unhealthy group of children had higher family tensions than the healthy group. The children from families with syncretism division of functions had better mental health.

Sharma (1981) undertook a study of factors related to academic underachievement of girls of secondary schools located in rural areas of Haryana and found that emotional insecurity as well as poor academic motivation, linguistic ability, planning of study work and adjustment contributed to underachievement.
Abraham and Prasanna (1982) concluded that higher the educational level of mothers better the mental health of children and less is the frustration in children.

Mangotra (1982) found the girls appeared to possess better mental health, were capable of facing the realities around them and were in a position to tide over the mental disequilibria. The mental health of boys and girls appeared to be considerably influenced by the two factors namely intelligence and physical health. In mental life, the boys were dominated by the feelings of depression and neurotic behaviour. On the other hand, girls were found to be suffering from a sense of insecurity and anxiety.

Singh and Basu (1982) concluded a positive relationship between anxiety and problems related to poor health and physique.


Compass et al. (1985) found that female adolescents are vulnerable to adverse consequences of events and perceived more stress in their lives.

Singh (1985) studied guidance needs of children living in destitute homes in U.P. and found that in destitute homes, twenty to thirty percent of the children suffered from sickness, headache, fatigue, bad sleep and physical handicaps. Personal and psychological relationships were strained on account of the prevalence of a sense of insecurity, anxiety, frustration, boredom and a pseudo-superiority complex in a majority of destitute home children.

Bush and Simmons (1987) reported that male and female adolescents differently experience and report to stressors, both male and female adolescents appear to be equally vulnerable to stressful events.

Trivedi (1987) investigated a sample of 523 girls studying in intermediate colleges of Lucknow to study the relationship between parental attitude, socio-economic status, feeling of security-insecurity and academic achievement of intermediate students with intelligence, held constant. No significant relationship between the feeling of security-insecurity and academic achievement and between feeling of security-insecurity and socio-economic status was found, whereas parental attitude was found to be significantly related to feeling of security-insecurity and socio-economic status.
Grover (1989) found a positive relationship between religiosity and mental health of college going urban youth. A significant difference has been found in male and female teachers on the dimensions of sensitivity, anger, tension and mental health.

Chakraboraty (1990) concluded that mental health effect has a positive correlation with stress, anxiety and frustration.

Fox et al. (1991) performed a meta-analysis of the 11 studies that have examined the concordance of mother/father attachment to an infant and found that security of attachment to one parent was dependent upon security to the other parent and type of insecurity (avoidant/resistant) to one parent was dependent upon type of insecurity to the other, and that subcategory classification within the secure category to one parent was dependent upon subcategory classification to the other.

Jong (1991) examined security of attachment and level of individuation from parents and peers among 126 undergraduates (42 with a history of suicide, 42 who were depressed with no history of suicide and 42 normal controls). Students with a history of suicide exhibited, both, the lowest security of attachment as well as the least degree of individuation in their current relationships with parents. In contrast, they were similar to depressed and control students on security of peer attachment and level of individuation from peers. Students with a history of suicide rated their parents and mother as emotionally absent in childhood to a significantly higher degree than depressed and normal controls.

Kobak et al. (1991) reported that insecure and preoccupied attachment organizations have also distinguished the most depressed adolescents from within a sample of adolescents all of whom were experiencing at least somewhat elevated levels of depression.

Grout (1993) attempted to discover the distribution of feelings of security and insecurity in the population of Illinois Central College. No significant difference was found among the curriculum groups of business, health, technical and agricultural students, or between transfer and terminal students for the feeling of security and insecurity. Day students, however, were found to differ at the .01 level of significance from night students for feeling of security and insecurity. Further, it was found that the insecure person tends to be more dogmatic, less effective in critical thinking and less
creative than the secure person. It was recommended that student personnel workers facilitate security-need satisfaction by offering students a safe, confidential relationship with an understanding adult, that the instructors offer warm encouragement, success experiences and increased individual attention to help alleviate students' feelings of insecurity.

Cassidy et al. (1996) examined that a secure attachment organization, which is characterized in adolescence and adulthood by coherence in talking about attachment-related experiences and affect, should permit similar experiences and affect in peer relationships to be processed more accurately. In contrast, the defensive exclusion of information or inability to integrate different types of information about attachment experiences that is characteristic of insecure organizations may lead to distorted communications and to negative expectations about others, which have been linked to problems in social functioning.

Cummings and Davies (1996) have posited that the adolescents have an internal working model of self-in-relationship to others that guides both expectations and future behaviours in new situations so as to minimize distress and maximize felt security.

Bar-On (1997) reported that those individuals with higher than average emotional quotient are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures. He also notes that a deficiency in emotional intelligence can mean a lack of success and the existence of emotional problems.

Sehgal and Sharma (1998) reported no gender difference in psychological well-being.

Sharma (1998) found a significant correlation between family climate and overall adjustment of adolescents.

Allen et al. (1998) explored the meaning and function of attachment organization during adolescence by examining its relation to multiple domains of psychosocial functioning in a sample of 131 moderately at-risk adolescents. Attachment organization was assessed using the Adult Attachment Interview; multiple measures of functioning were obtained from parents, adolescents, and their peers. Security displayed in adolescents' organization of discourse about attachment experiences was related to competence with peers (as reported by peers), lower levels of internalizing behaviours (as
reported by adolescents), and lower levels of deviant behaviour (as reported by peers and by mothers). Preoccupation with attachment experiences, seen in angry or diffuse and unfocused discussion of attachment experiences, was linked to higher levels of both internalizing and deviant behaviours. These relations generally remained even when other attachment-related constructs that had been previously related to adolescent functioning were co-varied in analysis. Results are interpreted as suggesting an important role for attachment organization in a wide array of aspects of adolescent psychosocial development.

Rudolph and Hammer (1999) reported that adolescent girls experienced the highest levels of interpersonal stress specially stress and conflict that they generated with parent-child and peer relationships. Pre-adolescent girls experienced the highest levels of independent stress and conflict in the family context. Adolescent boys experienced the highest levels of stress associated with self-generated events.

Asendorpf and Wilpers (2000) conducted a longitudinal study on 171 adolescents and found that perceived security of attachment to mother, father, same-sex peers, and opposite-sex peers, and perceived available support from members of the individual network of relationships were related to each other both cross-sectionally and longitudinally. Security of attachment and available support were closely linked within particular relationships such as the relationship to mother, and modestly linked for categories of relationships such as same-sex peers; their consistency across relationships was much lower. The perceptions of attachment security and support availability reflected the fluctuating quality of the relationships.

Edworthy (2000) observed that stress can result in physical ill-health, a lowering of job satisfaction and a loss of sense of achievement. These changes by their very nature will impair the quality of that individual’s life.

Boehner (2001) reported that a competitive climate has been created in which the children are expected to rise to increasing levels of academic pressure while their mental health go largely underestimated and underserved. It was also demonstrated that children who are suffering with serious emotional disturbances such as depression, anxiety disorders, suicidal behaviour, substance and alcohol abuse and post-traumatic stress disorder do not perform well academically as compared to their non-mentally ill peers.
Freeman and Brown (2001) examined the nature of adolescent attachment to parents and peers during adolescence. A projective measure was used to classify ninety-nine 11th and 12th grade students into secure, insecure dismissing, and insecure preoccupied attachment groups. Secure adolescents significantly favoured mothers over best friends, boy/girlfriends, and fathers. In contrast, insecure adolescents indicated a strong preference for boy/girlfriends and best friends as their primary target for attachment and nearly a third of dismissing adolescents identified themselves as their primary attachment figure.

Woodward and Fergusson (2001) examined associations between the extent of anxiety disorder in adolescence (14-16 years) and young people’s later risks of a range of mental health, educational and social-role outcomes (16-21 years). Significant linear associations were found between the number of anxiety disorder and a range of adverse outcomes in early adulthood. Even after taking into account the effects of confounding factors, significant associations remained between the presence of anxiety disorder reported in adolescence and failure to attend college or a training program after high school.

Bhargawa et al. (2002) found girls to be equally secure as boys but they are less confident due to difference in socialization.

Goel et al. (2002) found feeling of insecurity as significantly and positively related to family attachment.

Jackson and Finney (2002) examined the relationship between college career stage, negative life events and psychological distress. Young adults enrolled in three universities completed a survey, which included life events inventory and several psychological distress scales, depression, anxiety, anger/hostility. As expected, negative experiences (per relationships) were most predictive of distress; younger students were vulnerable to negative life events across domains. Surprisingly, younger students were more likely than older students to be angry/hostile (rather than consistently depressed or anxious) about negative life events. They believe that younger adults either lack the psychological resources of maturity and experience or adopt ineffective coping strategies when faced with stressful situations.
Todorovic (2002) revealed that the pupils without the emotional conflict much better estimate their global self-esteem and physical attractiveness, which shows a generally better self-acceptance, while the other aspects of self-concept are not much better estimated compared to the group of pupils with some of the emotional conflicts.

Zewick (2002) studied insecurities about masculinity and problems relating to members of the opposite sex and found that boys who have lost their fathers are at greatly enhanced vulnerability to develop insecurities about their masculinity. These insecurities can contribute to their problems in relating effectively with women and leads to a relatively exploitative attitude towards females and, also, lead them to engage in other behaviours that are reckless and life-threatening.

Forman and Davies (2003) examined relations among family instability and adolescent’s psychological functioning using family models of children’s emotional security in a sample of 220 young adolescents and their primary caregivers. Results showed that family instability increases adolescent risk for psychological problems by directly undermining their insecure appraisals of the family. Results also supported a pathway whereby family instability predicted parenting difficulties and parenting difficulties, in turn, indirectly predicted adolescents’ internalizing and externalizing symptoms through its association with lower levels of perceived insecurity in the family.

Allen et al. (2004) conducted an intensive, longitudinal study of 101 at-risk ninth and tenth graders and concluded that poverty, family conflict, and depression predict adolescent insecurity.

Deo (2004) found that male students and the students of arts faculty had encountered maximum stress.

National Health Interview Survey (2004) found that over 1 in 10 (11.6%) adolescents ages 12-17 had serious behavioral or mental health difficulties, as rated by parents using a modified version of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire. Male adolescents were slightly more likely to have these mental health difficulties than female peers (12.3% vs. 10.9%).

Singh (2004) found significant difference in anxiety of students of high school with respect to locale. However, mental health scores show no significant difference with
respect to locale. There exists no significant gender difference among students of high school with respect to anxiety as well as mental health.

Young and Parish (2004) in their study found that daughters who had lost fathers and whose mothers had not remarried demonstrated greater insecurity and more negative self-evaluations than daughters who had either not lost their fathers or had lost their fathers but their mothers had remarried. Neither reason for father loss (i.e., death or divorce) nor age of daughter at time of father loss was found to affect the psychological adjustment of the college-age daughters who served as subjects in this study.

Besser and Priel (2005) examined attachment insecurity in a community sample of 300 participants, consisting of 100 three-generation triads of women. It was found that within generations, self-criticism was found to mediate the association between attachment insecurity and depression; between generations’ depressions, but self-criticism did not mediate the association between assessments of attachment insecurity in mothers and their daughters.

Grant (2005) reported that although low levels of stressful life experiences are considered to be a normal part of development, higher levels can constitute a threat to the well-being and healthy development of children and adolescents. Adolescents are exposed to increased rates of stressful life experiences and there is some evidence that increases in stressors account, at least in part, for the increased rates of psychological problems associated with this developmental period.

Rahat et al. (2005) reported females would perceive some stressful life events seriously and would report more physical and psychological effect as compared to males. Our findings suggest that the sex difference in the experience of stress may not be a common characteristic of these students.

Shirk et al. (2005) assessed the role of self-evaluative and support-seeking processes as mediators of the relation between maternal representations and depressive symptoms in a sample of 168 young adolescents. Representations of mother as unavailable, unresponsive, and unsupportive were associated with depressive symptoms measured by semi structured interview and self-report. Moderation tests revealed that the association between maternal representations and depressive symptoms varied as a function of stress level for self-reported symptoms only. When depressive symptoms
were assessed via interview, results with the full sample indicated that self-worth contingencies mediated the association between maternal representations and symptoms.

Radheshyam and Singh (2006) found male scores higher than females on well-being and urban reported higher level of happiness than rural subjects.

Allen et al. (2007) examined both continuity and familial, intrapsychic, and environmental predictors of change in adolescent attachment security across a two-year period from mid- to late-adolescence. Assessments included the Adult Attachment Interview, observed mother-adolescent interactions, test-based data, and adolescent self-reports obtained from an ethnically and socio-economically diverse sample of moderately at-risk adolescents interviewed at ages 16 and 18. Substantial stability in security was identified. Beyond this stability, however, relative declines in attachment security were predicted by adolescents’ enmeshed, overpersonalizing behavior with their mothers, depressive symptoms, and poverty status.

Bosmans et al. (2007) conducted a study which predicts a relationship between attachment and attentional bias toward the mother using an emotional modification of the exogenous cueing task. The content of the cues (mother vs. unknown women) and the duration of the presentation of the cues (200 msec vs. 1,000 msec) were varied. The test was administered to 40 non referred children (9 to 13 years of age), divided into high- and low-secure attachment groups. As predicted, low-secure children directed their attention more quickly towards mother than toward unknown women at later stages of attentional processing (long presentation), Furthermore, low-secure children showed more maintained attention towards mother compared to unknown women and showed significantly more maintained attention towards mother compared with high-secure children.

Geetha (2007) found stress management to be a very difficult and complex problem that cannot be controlled with medicine or exercise. She further stressed the need for value education as it makes one peaceful and adds peace to the society.

Kwon (2007) conducted a study on 436 typically developing children and their mothers to examine the relationship between Korean mothers’ parenting stress and parental intelligence, and child behaviour problems as well as the mediation effects of parental intelligence, which tested the association between parenting stress and child
behaviour problems. It was found that parenting stress, parental intelligence and child behaviour problems were related, especially, parenting stress significantly predicted child behaviour problems. Despite its substantive relationship, parental intelligence did not appear to mediate this relationship.

Sallinen et al. (2007) conducted a study in Finland on 116 adolescents to investigate stability and change in depressive mood and possible explanatory factors between ages 13 to 16. The results revealed that variability in adolescents’ depressive mood was connected to conflicts with parents (especially with fathers) and experience of negative spillover from parental (especially fathers’) work to the parent-adolescent relationship. Furthermore, the relationships between an adolescent and his/her parents (especially the father) seemed to become gradually more distant throughout the follow-up, and most of the life changes were experienced in the beginning of the junior high school.

Flores (2008) provided a test of the minority status stress model by examining whether perceived discrimination would directly affect health outcomes even when perceived stress was taken into account among 215 Mexican-origin adults. Perceived discrimination predicted depression and poor general health, and marginally predicted health symptoms, when perceived stress was taken into account. Perceived stress predicted depression and poorer general health while controlling for the effects of perceived discrimination. The influence of perceived discrimination on general health was greater for men than women, and the effect of perceived stress on depression was greater for women than men. Results provide evidence that discrimination is a source of chronic stress above and beyond perceived stress, and the accumulation of these two sources of stress is detrimental to mental and physical health. Findings suggest that mental health and health practitioners need to assess for the effects of discrimination as a stressor along with perceived stress.

Sheikh et al. (2008) conducted a study on 251 community-recruited families to examine the relations between marital aggression (psychological and physical) and children's health. Children's emotional insecurity was assessed as a mediator of these relations, with distinctions made between marital aggression against mothers and fathers and ethnicity (African American or European American), socioeconomic status, and child
gender examined as moderators of effects. Aggression against either parent yielded similar effects for children. Children's emotional insecurity mediated the relation between marital aggression and children's internalizing, externalizing, and posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms. No differences were found in these pathways for African American and European American families or as a function of socioeconomic status or child gender.

Suldo et al. (2008) investigated the relationships among stress, coping and mental health in 139 students participating in an International Baccalaureate (IB) high school diploma program. Mental health was assessed using both positive indicators (life satisfaction, academic achievement and academic self-efficacy) and negative indicators (psychopathology) of adolescent’s social-emotional and school functioning. Findings include that students in an IB program perceive significantly more stress than a sample of 168 of their general education peers, and that specific coping styles are differentially related to mental health outcomes in this subgroup of high-achieving high school students.

Bala et al. (2009) conducted a study on 210 students selected from arts, science and commerce faculties to study the gender differences as associated with their mental health. It is revealed that the boys had greater emotional stability, adjustment and intelligence than girls in students of art faculty and self-concept in the students of science faculty. In addition, girls had greater security-insecurity feeling than boys in the students of arts faculty; greater emotional stability, adjustment and security-insecurity feelings in the students of science faculty and emotional stability, autonomy and security-insecurity feelings in the students of commerce faculty.

Dykman (2009) found American adults experiencing significantly more debt-related stress than reported four years ago when a similar survey was conducted. The also found that those with high stress levels were likely to experience health problems, including headaches, back pain, muscle tension, depression, anxiety, ulcers and heart problems. It seems that a high level of debt-related stress can damage more than your credit score; it also poses serious threats to your health.

Vornanen et al. (2009) critically examined the concept of insecurity as experienced by young people in Finland. Young people’s own definitions of insecurity
show how 13–17-year-olds assess their lives and ontological insecurities and threats in the world. The data was collected from schools in five regions in Finland. A total of 922 respondents aged 13 to 17 completed a questionnaire in classroom settings. This article analyzes only the data elicited by open-ended questions, which were answered by 683 young people. Young people’s experiences of insecurity were classified into 16 categories, which were then divided under three headings: (i) the inner circle, that is, insecurity related to personal emotions and inner experiences; (ii) the social circle, that is, insecurity related to social interaction; and (iii) the outer circle, that is, insecurity related to external realities. Young people’s definitions of insecurity reveal their perspective on risk society in which everyone is vulnerable to certain risks. First, they connect insecurity to their inner feelings and emotions. Second, they interpret the social relationships and the everyday life experiences in connection with insecurity. Third, insecurity is defined by young people by external realities, such as socio-economic ill-being, violence and war.

Jha and Kumari (2009) conducted a study on 240 students to study the effect of marital status, locale and caste on happiness level of the subjects. Results revealed that locale had significant effect on the self-report happiness of subjects. It was found that rural people had greater level of happiness in comparison to urban people.

Manhas and Rani (2010) assessed the psychosocial development of out of school children in terms of self-esteem, self acceptance, social adjustment and social maturity. The results of this study also showed that respondents develop different psychological problems due to social, cultural and gender based unfavourable situations.

The above discussed studies depicted a clear vision that insecurity in adolescents is sometimes caused by non organismic or social factors such as home environment, school environment, peer group etc. and sometimes by organismic or psychological factors such as tension, depression, frustration, stress, anxiety etc.

2.2 STUDIES RELATED TO INSECURITY AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Bhan (1972) explored factors in social and emotional intelligence as related to emotional security-insecurity syndrome among 30 secure and 30 insecure post graduate
students. It was found that among insecure sample 33% found faults in them, 31% had inadequate attitude towards siblings, 47% worried about health, influenced the degree of test anxiety experienced.

Delongie (1985) observed that everyday stress was linked with depression, somatic symptoms and health problems. Results indicated that those who received low emotional support from family, friends and co-workers were about twice as likely to develop mental health and stress problems as compared to those who have high emotional support.

Kashyap (1989) found youth problems were positively related to anxiety, frustration, emotional maturity etc. and negatively related to achievement, difference by gender and locale were clear in respect of sense of security with rural boys having its best.

Porwal and Aggarwal (1989) observed the adjustment pattern of 50 high aggressive and low aggressive degree students of Firozabad and studied for adjustment in five different areas, viz., home, health, social, emotional and difference in the total adjustment. The results of the study indicated that high aggressive group was significantly maladjusted in all the five areas particularly in the case of home and emotional adjustment.

Bhatia (1992) investigated that anxiety has a significant impact on the level of adjustment in all areas, i.e., home, emotional, educational and social.

Nowak and Duke (1992) studied the determinants of academic success among 412 students of XI grade. It was found out that low levels of empathy, handling stress, self-confidence, self-acceptance, group dynamics and control on emotions were associated with poor school achievement.

Gottman (1993) examined that family life is the first school of learning and found that those couples that are emotionally competent in their marriage were also effective in helping their children in their emotional ups and downs. Such children get along better with, show more affection towards and have less tension around their parents.

Jack (1995) found that high emotionally intelligent males are socially poised, outgoing and cheerful, not prone to fearfulness or worried rumination. High emotionally
intelligent females tend to be assertive and express their feelings directly, feel positive about themselves and adapt well to stress.

Pool (1997) in his study found that emotional well-being is a predictor of success in academic achievement and job success among others.

Dupertuis and Garrido (1998) suggested that emotionally intelligent persons represent better ability for problem solving and for managing stress, more pulse control and a more positive attitude towards oneself and others implying greater enjoyment of life, resulting in psychological well-being.

Finnegan (1998) found that schools should help students to learn the abilities underlying emotional intelligence processing those abilities or even some of them can lead to achievement from the formal education years of the child and adolescents to the adults’ competency in being effective in the workplace and in society.

Abraham (1999) found that students with high emotional intelligence tend to be better learners, more confident, optimistic, creative, as well as being flexible, happier, successful at solving problems, being able to cope with stress with a higher self esteem, with fewer behavioural problems, and also being able to handle emotions much better.

Martinez-Pons (1999) surveyed 109 junior high school students to assess their perception of their parent’s influence on their emotional intelligence (El) and their own El; and their task orientation (TO), social functioning (SF), and depression symptomatology (DS). Path analysis disclosed a substantial effect of parental modeling, encouragement, facilitation, and rewarding on the students emotional intelligence, and important effects of El on TO, SF, and DS were found.

Stardom (1999) conducted a study with an aim to describe emotional intelligence in psychological, educational terms and to analyze the emotional quotient profile of adolescents who experience the emotional problems and found that adolescent experienced emotional problems like other reasons as depression, aggression and emotional literacy.

Graczyk et al. (2000) investigated the criteria for evaluating the school based social and emotional learning programmes and concluded that the social and emotional intelligence had increased teachers awareness that provide experiences to meet students social and emotional needs to improve their adjustment.
Izard et al. (2001) evaluated an index of emotional knowledge as a long term predictor of positive and negative social attitude and academic competence in 72 children of age 5-9 years. The findings suggested that the ability to detect and label emotions facilitate positive social attitude and excellence in academic performance and a deficit in this ability contributes to behavioural and learning problems.

Singh (2001) found the presence of high emotional intelligence as a predictor of more success and happiness in one’s life, as well as in professional life, than having only high intelligence.

Ciarrochi et al. (2002) hypothesized that emotional intelligence would make a unique contribution to understanding the relationship between stress and three important mental health variables, depression, hopelessness, and suicidal ideation. University students (N=302) participated in a cross-sectional study that involved measuring life stress, objective and self-reported emotional intelligence, and mental health. Regression analyses revealed that stress was associated with: (1) greater reported depression, hopelessness, and suicidal ideation among people high in emotional perception (EP) compared to others; and (2) greater suicidal ideation among those low in managing others' emotions (MOE). Both EP and MOE were shown to be statistically different from other relevant measures, suggesting that emotional intelligence is a distinctive construct as well as being important in understanding the link between stress and mental health.

Crick (2002) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and social competence success among 31 male and 89 female adolescents in age range of 14-17 years. Adolescents were categorized as leaders, joiners and non-joiners of school clubs or organizations. Female leaders exhibited high total emotional quotient, interpersonal and adaptability scores in comparison to normative sample. There was significant difference in mean scores of leaders, joiners and non-joiners. Findings also indicated that emotional intelligence did not increase with age.

Roberts (2002) found no significant difference between emotional intelligence of males and females.

Rubin et al. (2002) conducted a study on 618 business students to find out the relationship of their extracurricular involvement to four interpersonal skills. The findings showed significant relationship between them.
Thi and Kirbi (2002) in a study of 304 undergraduate students in age range of 17-20 years found that overall emotional intelligence was related to performance and in that higher emotional intelligence was associated with better scores on measures of cognitive performance.

Trinidad and Johnson (2002) examined the association between emotional intelligence to deviancy and problem behaviour. Emotional intelligence varies inversely with bullying, violence, tobacco use and drug problems.

Farooq (2003) made an attempt to investigate the effect of emotional intelligence on academic performance of students. The results proved that the students who score high on emotional intelligence specifically in the areas of interpersonal skills, intrapersonal skills, adaptability, general moods, and stress management skills tend to have good academic performance as compared to those who score low on these scales. However, comparison of both genders on academic performance revealed no significant differences.

Gill (2003) found children with high emotional quotient as more confident, are better learners, have higher self esteem, have few behavioural problems, are more optimistic and happier, handle their emotions better than others.

Shanwal (2003) conducted a study on 200 primary school children (100 rural and 100 urban) and found that all the four components of emotional intelligence, namely identification, assimilation, understanding and regulation of emotions correlate with each other and the overall emotional intelligence scores. Among the different eco-cultural groups, rural children have higher emotional intelligence and rural boys have highest emotional intelligence scores, while urban boys are poorest among all the children. Girls have higher emotional intelligence in comparison to boys, rural girls are better at understanding and regulating emotions while urban girls are best at identification of emotions.

Mayer et al. (2004) reported that a child with a high emotional quotient will become more responsible and respectful. He will have an increased ability to show empathy, and find it easier to develop self restraint. On the other hand, a child with a low emotional intelligence will often feel helpless. If a child receives very little emotional support at home he will be vulnerable to peer pressures, worries, and anxiety. A child
may deal with his anxiety and fear by hiding it under a façade of being tough. This could lead to his turning into a bully, or becoming an under-achiever suffering from low motivation.

Parker et al. (2004) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement and found academic success was strongly associated with overall emotional intelligence level. It was also strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence (interpersonal, adaptability and stress management abilities).

Tiwari and Srivastava (2004) examined the role of medium of instruction and grade in the development of emotional intelligence among 270 primary school children (135 males and 135 females) from Hindi, English and mixed medium institutions of Gorakhpur of Eastern Uttar Pradesh. Findings revealed that gender had no significant main effect while medium of instruction and grade had significant main effects on emotional intelligence. Children attending English medium schools scored higher followed by Hindi and Mixed medium school children. The older children of class V scored higher than III and IV class children.

Woitaszewski and Aalsma (2004) conducted a study to find out the contribution of emotional intelligence to the social and academic success of gifted adolescents. The sample comprised of thirty nine gifted adolescents. The results of hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed that emotional intelligence did not significantly contribute to the social and academic success of these adolescents.

Katyal and Avasthi (2005) found majority of boys, girls and total sample had good followed by low emotional intelligence. Girls were found to have higher emotional intelligence than that of boys.

Pareek et al. (2005) conducted a study to evaluate the effect of "Basic Human Process Laboratory" course in enhancing emotional intelligence and enriching meaning in life. Results revealed a significant improvement in post mean scores of overall emotional intelligence and its components like self awareness, self management, internality/optimism and empathy, except motivation and social skills.

Banshibharia et al. (2006) examined the level of emotional intelligence of 500 secondary teachers (350 males and 150 females) ranging from 24 to 56 years of age in relation to gender and age. The results indicated that nearly all (98.4%) teachers fall
under low category of emotional intelligence and found no significant difference between the emotional intelligence of males and females.

Fernandez (2006) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, anxiety and depression among adolescents and found that emotional abilities are more important and uniquely contributes to psychological adjustments.

Jain and Singh (2006) reported a significant effect of emotional intelligence and personality type on role stress, the interactional effect is also found significant. The significance of difference between government and private sector doctors regarding their emotional intelligence, personality type A and B was also found. On all variables these two groups differ significantly at 0.01 levels.

Kaur and Jaswal (2006) conducted a study on strategic emotional intelligence of Punjabi adolescents. Results revealed that majority (86%) of the respondents exhibited high performance level of understanding emotions of remaining were almost equally distributed over the next two levels, i.e., competent and consider developing. Further high performance for understanding emotions does not guarantee high performance for both understanding and managing emotions make an individual high performer for strategic emotional intelligence.

Lee and Kubilius (2006) in their study examined the level of emotional intelligence, moral judgement and leadership of more than 200 gifted high school students who participated in an accelerative academic programme or an enrichment leadership programme. Major findings include that on emotional intelligence, gifted males were comparable to students in the age normative sample, while gifted female lagged behind the norm group. Regardless of gender, gifted students had higher scores on adaptability but lower scores on stress management and impulse control ability as compared to the normative sample. On moral judgement, gifted students were comparable to the level of individuals with masters’ or professional degrees and they showed an above average level of leadership as compared to the normative sample.

Marquez et al. (2006) examined relations between emotional intelligence and social and academic outcomes for 77 high school students and found that students with high emotional intelligence tended to be more pro-social and perform better in schools.
Patankar et al. (2006) analysed the role of emotional intelligence in the educational and school context and described that extra curricular activities such as sports, theatre sessions, social work, solidarity day, helping day, sharing sessions, presentations and spiritual upliftment etc. can enhance emotional intelligence.

Santesso et al. (2006) found that boys had significantly lower emotional intelligence than girls and low emotional intelligence was associated with significantly more externalizing behaviours (i.e., aggressive and delinquency) and ultimately to stress.

Upadhaya (2006) concluded that student-teachers with low emotional intelligence are more uneasy and worried about future unhappy feelings and failures, are less cautious, irregular and like to take more rest, strain others, have lack of energy and feel tired and uninterested and conform to the opinion or accepted path taken by most peoples with high emotional intelligence, are more competent and have more self-confidence, hard working, help others with constructive ways, more motivated, energetic and full of enthusiasm and turn away from accepted or given path or opinion.

Darsana (2007) in his study aimed at finding the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Achievement facilitating variables, and comparing Emotional Intelligence of groups in pairs classified on the basis of sex, locale of the school, nature of school management and SES, the investigator finds that there is a significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Achievement Motivation.

Done (2007) studied the effect of emotional intelligence development programme on higher secondary students. For investigation, 1,577 students of arts, science and commerce faculties from 11 junior colleges were selected as sample through random sampling. Findings revealed that the emotional intelligence between arts, science and commerce students in all junior colleges was the same. The emotional intelligence between boys and girls, rural and urban students was the same in all junior colleges. Moreover, emotional development programme was found to be effective for the development of the component of empathy in emotional intelligence of arts, science and commerce students.

Merrell et al. (2007) reported that social emotional competence is a critical part of every child’s school success, and just like any academic subject, children need instruction in it. Developed by a top expert, these proven curricula will help promote the social-
emotional competence and resilience of children and adolescents. Divided into four age levels from kindergarten through high school, these innovative social and emotional learning curricula are filled with engaging, thought-provoking class activities that help students develop vital skills they will use for the rest of their lives: understanding emotions, managing anger, relieving stress, solving interpersonal problems, and much more. Every school and early intervention program will benefit from the lasting effect of these four curricula: strong, resilient students with fewer mental health and behaviour problems and better academic outcomes.

Mohanty and Devi (2007) had taken a study on 180 adolescents from twin cities Hyderabad and Secunderabad to assess their emotional intelligence levels in different attachment styles. Results revealed that adolescents of secure attachment styles are more emotionally intelligent than that of the adolescents of anxious-ambivalent and avoidant attachment styles.

Singh et al. (2007) conducted a study on 400 adolescents (200 males and 200 females) to assess mental health status of high and low emotional intelligent adolescents. The results revealed significant difference in mental health status of the high emotional intelligence and low emotional intelligence groups, indicating better mental health of high emotionally intelligent adolescents.

Varshney (2007) conducted a study on 100 boys and girls studying in intermediate classes in Agra city to find out the influence of Parental Encouragement on Emotional Intelligence. Results revealed that parental encouragement had a positive effect on the emotional intelligence of boys and girls both without any gender discrimination.

Alumran and Punamaki (2008) examined gender and age differences in 312 Bahraini adolescents selected randomly from intermediate and secondary schools and university of Bahrain. The results showed gender, but not age was significantly associated with emotional intelligence.

Babu (2008) conducted a study on 86 secondary school students of Malappuram district of Kerala. Results reveal that secondary school students have a good level of emotional intelligence and girls are more intelligent than boys.
Nasar and Nasar (2008) enunciated a study on 100 male and 100 female undergraduate college students of Bhagalpur. The results ensured the presence of higher emotional intelligence in the adolescent girl students in comparison to the boys. Emotional intelligence has been observed to be correlated positively and significantly to the potentiality like creativity in both the male and female college students.

Sameer (2008) made an attempt to compare the emotional intelligence of students based on the problems experienced by them at home. The participants were 84 secondary school students from select rural secondary schools of Malappuram district of Kerala. The results show that students have an average emotional quotient and low level of family related psychological problems. Girls show more emotional quotient than boys. Among girls there is significant difference between high problem group and low problem group in their emotional intelligence.

Singh et al. (2008) conducted a study on 400 adolescents (200 males and 200 females) from various schools and colleges to assess impact of locale and gender on their emotional intelligence. The results revealed significant difference in emotional intelligence of rural and urban adolescents, indicating urban adolescents better than their rural counterparts. Male and Female adolescents exhibit same emotional intelligence.

Dey (2009) examined the influence of emotional intelligence on academic self-efficacy and achievement of 150 undergraduate students at Raipur in the state of Chattisgarh. Their age ranged between 18 to 20 years with mean age of 19 years. The results demonstrated that emotional intelligence and academic self-efficacy significantly co-related with academic achievement.

Gakhar et al. (2009) conducted a study on 889 male and female adolescents of 11th class selected randomly from schools located in different districts of Punjab state. The results revealed that the adolescents high on creativity were higher in emotional intelligence level as compared to low creative students. Further it was shown that high creative boys were emotionally more intelligent than high creative girls and the low creative girls were slightly more emotionally intelligent than the low creative boys.

Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) studied emotional intelligence among B.Ed teacher trainees. The sample comprised 300 teacher trainees studying in the five B.Ed colleges of Salem district in Tamil Nadu. The results concluded that gender and type of
institution cause significant mean difference in the emotional intelligence of the college students.

Neogi (2009) conducted a study to assess the emotional component of affective learning of the higher secondary students (60 males and 60 females) of Kolkata. The mean values indicated that, in general, the students scored low on both the indicators of emotional development. The findings implied that there is a need to improve our educational system for developing the emotional component of the affective domain of the learners.

Panda (2009) studied the emotional intelligence of 130 pupil teachers belonging to different localities and genders in relation to their personality traits. Findings of the study revealed that there was significant positive correlation between emotional intelligence and normal behaviour of pupil teachers; significant and negative correlation between emotional intelligence and neurotic behavior of pupil teachers; significant difference between normal and neurotic behavior of pupil teachers; no significant difference between males and females as well as between rural and urban pupil teachers in emotional intelligence.

Singh and Kumar (2009) conducted a research on 74 secondary school teachers of convent schools and saraswati schools to analyze their emotional intelligence. The results indicated that emotional intelligence of teachers of Convent and Saraswati schools differ significantly. It was also observed that saraswati school teachers were good in self-motivation, value orientation and commitment whereas convent school teachers were better on self-awareness, self-development, managing relation, integrity and altruistic behaviour aspects of emotional intelligence.

Indu and Kumari (2010) conducted a study on undergraduate and postgraduate students from various colleges in Coimbatore city. The sample size was 504. Results revealed insignificant differences between male and female students on emotional intelligence. Where as significant differences were found among college students with respect to the specialization of subject (Arts, Science and Commerce).

Kaur and Neetu (2010) explored the impact of gender and style of learning and thinking on emotional intelligence in a sample of 200 adolescents. No gender differences were found in emotional intelligence among adolescents.
Chemiss et al. (2010) evaluated the effectiveness of an emotional intelligence leadership development program in their study. The study was unique in utilizing a random assignment control group design. Participants were 162 managers from nine different companies. There were nine different groups with nine managers in each group. Each group was required to follow the identical process. Trained moderators led the groups during year 1, but during year 2 a group member served as moderator. The outcome measure was the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI), a multi-rater measure of social and emotional competencies. Outcome data were collected before the program started, one year later, and two years later. Results indicated that after two years the intervention group had improved more than the controls on all ECI variables. The study offers recommendations for future research on the mechanisms underlying the process-designed group strategy and contextual factors that optimize results. The main implication of the study is that leadership development based on a process-designed group strategy appears to be more economical and consistent in its delivery than more traditional approaches such as workshops or executive coaching.

Grafman (2010) reported that head injuries sustained by Vietnam veterans have revealed parts of the brain vital for two types of emotional intelligence. Depending on the site of their injuries, the veterans studied were poor either at "experiential" emotional intelligence (the capacity to judge emotions in other people) or "strategic" emotional intelligence (the ability to plan socially appropriate responses to situations).

The above studies revealed that there is a major effect of emotional intelligence on insecurity in adolescents. If an adolescent has low emotional intelligence, he could not handle his/her emotions intelligently which leads to stress, depression and aggression that infuse insecurity. There are no clear cut evidences which show the exact nature of relationship between insecurity and emotional intelligence, hence there is a dire need to work upon these variables.

2.3 STUDIES RELATED TO INSECURITY AND SELF-CONCEPT
Symonds (1939) examined self rejection resulting from parental rejection creates in children more probability to get frightened easily.
Watson and Friend (1969) evaluated as the experience of distress, discomfort, fear, anxiety etc., in social situations and as a fear of receiving negative evaluations from others.

Cissna (1975), Clark (1973) and Larson (1965) reported that a quality environment for the development of self-worth and relational satisfaction must contain a preponderance of positive self-concept support or confirmation responses from others.

Novak (1975) sampled over 230 high school students to determine groups of blushers and non-blushers. The results indicated that the blushers had a significantly lower overall self-concept (self-esteem); lower identity; lower self-satisfaction; and lower physical self-concept than the non-blushers. All other sub-scores on the self-concept scale were found not to be significant, although blusher scores were low when compared to non-blushers and standardized norms. There also was no significant difference between groups in feelings of security. However, both groups showed a tendency toward insecurity.

Gottman et al. (1977) reported that any environment which contains a preponderance of rejection responses or disconfirmation responses will lead to a disintegration of self and/or relationship and of one’s feelings of personal worth and relational satisfaction.

Anita (1980) enunciated that high achievers have high self-concept as compared to low achievers from the rural as well as urban schools.

Goswami (1980) found a significant difference in self-concept between adolescent boys and girls.

Colletti and Brownell (1982) revealed that obesity leads adolescents to anxiety and negative self-image which in turn lead to inadequate social and school adjustment.

Zimbardo and Radl (1982) attributed that adolescents are self-conscious about how others feel about them. It was found that adolescents are deeply concerned as how others view them and are apt to display a lot of self-consciousness and embarrassment on being criticized by others.

Padwal (1984) in a study on 87 students proved that self-concept and intelligence were not significantly correlated.
Saraswati (1985) found that boys and girls differ significantly on physical, social, moral and total self-concept. On all these self-concept dimensions, girls were found to be higher.

Cahn (1987) concluded on the basis of his research that positive self concept support in the form of recognition, acknowledgement, acceptance and involvement and is essential to workers’ feeling of job satisfaction.

Ingersoll (1989) reported that obese adolescents are rated least likeable by the social group, therefore, they blame their negative body image for causing interpersonal problems. This all cause damage to their self-concept and it lead to anxiety in them.

Rosenberg (1989) reported in his paper that a major obstacle to progress in self-concept theory and research has been certain dominant or major scientific paradigms that were inhospitable to research on this topic. In psychology, it was the behaviourist paradigm; in sociology, the social factist and social behaviorist paradigms; and in psychoanalysis, the Freudian paradigm. Largely because of these paradigms, the self-concept was not considered part of the legitimate subject-matter of this field. The history of self-concept research illustrates how scientific principle can stand in the way of scientific progress.

Byrne (1990) showed that academic self-concept was more effective than was academic achievement in differentiating between low-track and high-track students.

Cummings and Cicchetti (1990) revealed that internalizing behaviour problems, such as anxiety and depression, may result from attachment insecurity in several ways. Insecure attachment organizations may reflect beliefs that one is unable to get attachment needs met by others or that one does not merit getting attachment needs met by others; these negative expectations appear similar to the feelings of low self-worth and negative explanatory styles that have been closely linked to depression.

Verma and Swain (1991) reported that variations in self-concept produce difference in personality adjustment of adolescent students.

Alexander and Rajendran (1992) enunciated in their study that students with high self-concept are better adjusted than the students with low-self-concept.

Marsh (1992) showed that the relationship of self-concept to school achievement is very specific. General self-concept and non-academic aspects of self-concept are not
related to academic work; general academic achievement measures are related moderately to academic success. Specific measures of subject-related self-concepts are highly related to success in that content area.

Cohen et al. (1993) studied 404 children preschool to third grade to examine early risk and current factors associated with feelings of unpopularity. Children who perceived themselves as unpopular in grade three experienced multiple problems in functioning, although they were largely unobtrusive “silent sufferers.” Self-perceived unpopularity was most strongly related to current factors and served as a marker of emotional difficulties.

Khatoon (1993) concluded that education puts a significant effect on the evolution of self-concept.

Harter and Marold (1994) reported that students with high self-concept generally approach school-related tasks with confidence, which is not true for children with low self-concept. Persistent low self-concept has been linked to depression, eating disorders, suicide and adjustment problems.

Franken (1994) states that there is a great deal of research which shows that the self-concept is, perhaps, the basis for all motivated behaviour. It is the self-concept that gives rise to possible selves, and it is possible selves that create the motivation for behaviour.

Taylor and Oskay (1995) revealed that self-concept was positively associated with identity achievements and negatively associated with identity diffusion. It was also found that urban students had low self-concept and rural students had high self-concept.

Terry and Huebner (1995) administered 183 elementary school students in order to explore the relationships between self-concept domains and global life satisfaction in pre-adolescent children. Results suggested that children differentiate global life satisfaction from self-concept domains. Also, SDQ-1 (Self-Description Questionnaire-1) domains related differentially to SLSS (Students' Life Satisfaction Scale) ratings. The Parent Relations domain was the strongest predictor of global life satisfaction for these pre-adolescents. The findings provide additional support for the meaningfulness of the life satisfaction construct with children as well as the multidimensionality of children's subjective well-being.
Hamachek (1995) asserted that self-concept and school achievement are related. Myers et al. (1996) found that gender differences for sexual self-concept indicate a need for increased awareness of gender-based attitudinal factors when developing programs to reduce risk taking behavior. Sexual education must be gender and culture specific while addressing adolescent-appropriate developmental issues of identity and role confusion, reasoning and problem-solving, value clarification, and self-esteem.

Hay et al. (1999) investigated 515 preadolescents, coeducational students in 18 schools; students significantly high or low in self-concept were compared using standardized tests in reading, spelling, and mathematics, and teacher interviews to determine students’ academic and nonacademic characteristics. The teachers were not informed of the self-concept status of the students. Compared to students with low self-concept, students with high self-concept were rated by teachers as being more popular, cooperative, and persistent in class, showed greater leadership, were lower in anxiety, had more supportive families, and had higher teacher expectations for their future success. Teachers observed that students with low self-concept were quiet and withdrawn, while peers with high self-concept were talkative and more dominating with peers. Students with lower self-concepts were also lower than their peers in reading, spelling, and mathematical abilities. The findings support the notion that there is an interactive relationship between self-concept and achievement.

Fox (2000) reported that the concept of how a person views himself or herself is part of a whole where one’s self-esteem is a fundamental contributor to well-being and mental health.

Irving (2000) reported that self-concept was lowest among overweight children who believed that they were responsible for their overweight and who believed that weight was a reason for few friends and exclusion from games and sports.

Selby (2000) conducted a study on 181 students to examine the influence of self-concept as a mediating variable with respect to attachment and healthy adjustment to college. The results indicated that a relationship exists between attachment and self-concept. There were no gender effects in the levels of mother or father attachment and in overall levels of self-concept, but females reported higher levels of moral self-concept.
Sternberg (2000) found that children who think of themselves poorly are likely to underestimate their ability of intellect and may stop trying when difficulty arises.

Abdur (2001) reported facilitating affect of classroom environment on student self concept. Study shows that better the environment of the classroom, the higher is the self concept of the students. The mean scores of private, urban, and rural school students on self concept scale and classroom environment scale are significantly different form one anther. This shows that student self concept if considered on the basis of classroom physical conditions, material equipment, supervision of the head, policy of school human relations and so on, only was found to be more healthy in private school as compared to urban and rural school. It was better in urban as compared to rural schools. In rural areas the classrooms are inadequate and the teachers are working not at require level. The mean score of male students on self concept scale was greater than female students.

Bellin (2001) reported self plays an important part in work performance and therefore self-scheduling can increase job satisfaction.

Rawlism (2001) found that providing children with an opportunity to participate in an inclusive enrichment programme can lead to significant changes in academic self-concept and in teachers’ recognition of children with special abilities.

Vishnoi (2001) found boys possessing good self-concept also have high academic achievement.

Gupta (2002) found no significant difference between self-concept of male and female adolescents and significant correlation between mental health and self-concept of adolescents was also found.

Wieder and Greenspan (2002) studied the emotional bases of learning stating that healthy relationships throughout childhood are critical for emotional development which in turn creates the basis for learning in several important areas including the ability to communicate and use language, problem solving and development of positive self-concept.

relationship, midrange adolescents reported a significantly poorer relationship with their mother than older adolescents. Results also indicated that self-esteem partially mediated the relationship between parent-child relationship and adolescent psychological functioning.

Elbaum and Vaughn (2003) in their study showed that the groups of students with low self-concept are significantly benefited from intervention on self-concept.

Fatima (2003) studied the influence of school environment, reading habit and self-concept on scholastic achievement and reported that self-concept emerged as a significant predictor of scholastic achievement.

Hergovich et al. (2004) studied the gender differences in the self-concept of pre-adolescent children and concluded that the general self-concept of girls is heavily dependent on the judgments of teachers and parents, but this was not found to be the case with boys.

Singh and Ahmad (2004) conducted a study on 465 (280 male and 185 female) with age range of 9 to 14 years to examine the effect of parent-child relationship on different dimensions of self-concept of the children. The findings revealed parent-child relationship affects significantly to the social self-concept of the children were as other dimensions like physical, temperamental, educational, moral as well as educational are not affected by the relationship between a child and his parents.

Hagger et al. (2005) constructed a study on the seventh, eighth and ninth grade high school students and found physical self-concept scores as higher in boys as compared to girls.

Sharma (2006) found life satisfaction or personal adjustment to be considered an important factor which affects the self-concept of younger, mature as well as aged people.

Whitesell et al. (2006) conducted a study on adolescents from 3 American Indian cultural groups (N=1,252) to examine developmental trajectories of personal and collective self concept among American Indian adolescents. The results revealed that both personal and collective self-concepts were generally positive and showed small gains; they were moderately related to one another and differentially related to cultural group, gender, and perceived social support.
Adamson et al. (2007) found adolescents with an inconsistent self-concept had a significantly more negative view of their future relative to those with a consistent self-concept.

Christensen (2007) conducted a study to compare the self-image, academic and social self-concepts of two groups of female adolescents with emotional disturbance: those who are in residential treatment centres who have not offended and those who are in juvenile detention centres who have offended. Research questions focus on whether or not there is a difference in the confidence scores of self-image, academic, and social self-concepts, the importance scores of self-image, academic, and social self-concepts, and the confidence composite and outcome composite scores among female adolescents according to whether or not the female is adjudicated. Results show no statistically significant differences on seven of the eight measures. On the eighth measure, a statistically significant difference was found, with the non-offenders having a higher Outcome Confidence Composite score than the offenders.

Thomson and Zand (2007) in their study on 174 African American adolescents investigated whether the gender identities of African American adolescents mediate sex differences. It was found in their multi dimensional self concepts found that there exists significant positive correlation between current literature and self-evaluation in multiple self concept domains.

Ybrandt (2007) assessed a model of the relation between self-concept and internalizing and externalizing problem behaviours in adolescence, with the self-concept influencing problem behaviours (S→IE) using a sample of 277 Swedish adolescents. The model was tested in a path analysis with data from Youth Self Report (YSR) and Structural Analysis of Social Behaviour (SASB) questionnaires. Consistent with the model, a positive self-concept was found to be the most important factor for adjustment and for protection against common problem behaviour. A negative self-concept combined with female gender was risk factor for internalized problems. Self-control had only a direct effect on externalizing behaviour for boys. Adolescents of 15-16 years of age had a stronger relationship between a negative self-concept and externalizing problem behaviour than younger and older adolescents. Internalizing problem behaviours such as anxiety and depression predicted aggressive and delinquent behaviour. These
findings highlight the importance of promoting a positive self-concept in every adolescent in various psychosocial contexts.

LeBeau (2008) examined associations between relationship social comparison (RSC) tendencies, insecurity, and perceived relationship quality. Study 1 (68 females, 9 males) showed that RSC was associated with self-esteem, anxious and avoidant attachment styles, and relationship insecurity. RSC associations with anxious attachment and insecurity, but not avoidant attachment, held when controlling for self-esteem.

Purohit and Praveen (2008) examined a study on 900 participants, i.e., 300 adolescent girls and their parents (300 fathers and 300 mothers) to know the relationship of parental styles with self-concept among adolescent girls. The results clearly indicated that OK styles of both fathers and mothers were related to positive self-concept, whereas their Not OK styles were correlated with negative self-concept of adolescent girls.

Selby (2008) examined a study to assess the attachment relationships of first year college students with each parent, their attachment relationships with peers, their level of self-concept, and their perceived adaptation to college. The results indicated that a relationship exists between attachment and self-concept; attachment is associated with college adjustment; self-concept is related to college adjustment, and functions as a mediator variable between attachment and college adjustment; there were no gender effects in the levels of mother or father attachment, and females reported higher levels of peer attachment; and there were no gender effects in overall levels self-concept, but females reported higher levels of moral self-concept.

Tannenbaum (2008) reported a study comparing self-concept among 114 immigrant children and adolescents of Ethiopian origin in Israel and among 164 native-born Israelis. For the younger children (aged 8-9 years), self-concept was found to be higher among the native-born than among children of Ethiopian origin, while for junior high school children (aged 14-15 years), results were reversed. Ethiopian adolescents appear to cling more to their peer group, compared with younger children who seem to be more affected by the immediate family circle. Gender differences were found mainly regarding physical self-concept, in favour of boys. Self-rates of language proficiency appeared to be associated with several aspects of self-concept.
Chia-huei Wu (2009) investigated the mediation effect of self-esteem on the relationship between attachment style and self-concept clarity. In Study 1, the relationship between attachment style and self-concept clarity was examined by correlation and regression analysis. Results from 189 and 85 students at National Taiwan University (NTU) showed that anxiety and avoidance attachment tendencies were negatively related with self-certainty and self-concept clarity. In Study 2, self-esteem was included to determine whether the negative relation between attachment tendency and self-concept clarity was mediated by self-esteem. Participants were 123 NTU students. The mediation effect of self-esteem on the relationship between attachment tendency and self-concept clarity was supported in a path model, indicating people with secure attachment have higher self-esteem, which results in greater clarity of self-concept.

Khaleque (2009) conducted a study on 600 elementary school teachers and the results showed that extraversion is related with low-self-concept and introversion with high self-concept. Teachers with high self-concept were having higher scores in respect of emotional exhaustion as compared to teachers with low self-concept. The higher score indicates that teacher having high self-concept was experiencing more feelings of being emotionally overextended. No significant differences in the level of depersonalization were observed between high and low self-concept. Teachers with high self-concept group were having better feelings of self-competence than the teachers with low self-concept group.

Nishikawa (2009) examined the associations and likely pathways underlying the relationships between peer attachment style, self-concept, and Internalizing/Externalizing Problems among high school students in Japan. A total of 228 senior high school students (186 boys and 82 girls; mean age = 16.4) completed the Attachment Questionnaire for Children, Self-Description Questionnaire II-Short, and Youth Self-Report. The main results were that securely attached adolescents reported fewer mental health problems and more positive self-concept than those who reported insecure attachment. Some patterns of associations among variables appeared to be different across gender. The Structural Equation Modeling provided a support for the mediating role of self-concept in influencing the relationships between Attachment and Internalizing Problems, but not Externalizing Problems. The paths for the model were significant across gender. The
results promote understanding of psychological processes that influence the relationships between attachment and psychological well-being among high school adolescents in Japan.

Saini (2009) made an attempt to study the relationship between scientific attitude and self-concept of 400 B. Ed students. The study revealed that there are positive significant correlations between scientific attitude and perceived self-concept; between scientific attitude and social self-concept; between scientific attitude and ideal self-concept. Scientific attitude and healthy self-concept are the determinant variables for the development of harmonious personalities.

Gunawan (2009) concluded that poor self-concept will lead to insecurity, not daring to try new things, do not dare to try something challenging, fear of failure, fear of success, low self-esteem, feeling unworthy, feelings undeserving of success, pessimistic and many other inferior behaviour. Instead of this, a good self-concept will always be optimistic, dare to try new things, dare to succeed, dare to fail, confident, enthusiastic, feeling self-worth, courage to set goals, act and think positively and can be a reliable leader.

Deshmukh & Sawalakhe (2010) investigated on 300 adults and showed a significant positive correlation between self-concept, emotional intelligence and adjustment. High and low groups of self-concept significantly differ on adjustment of adults. Adults with high self-concept are significantly better adjusted than with low self-concept adults.

Gopal & Ramaprabou (2010) administered a study on 200 unmarried adults to find out the relationship between self-concept and the sexual behaviour of unmarried adults. The results of the study revealed self-concept has no significant influence on sexual behaviour of unmarried adults.

Habib (2010) accessed the self-concept of high and low emotional intelligent college going girls (N=200). Scores on self-concept were compared for the high and low emotional intelligent groups. Among the six aspects of self-concept, high emotional intelligent group and low emotional intelligent group differed significantly on two aspects namely temperamental and educational aspects. There was no significant difference in physical, social, moral, intellectual aspects of self-concept.
Mahmoudi and Betsur (2010) conducted a study on 100 adolescents. It was revealed that male students found to have higher levels of self-esteem compared to female students. Further, gender had no differential influence over adjustment scores in home, health, emotional and social areas.

Sharma and Aashim (2010) conducted a study on 100 students of class X with the objective to find out the impact of sex-role on school environment and self-concept. The result of the study revealed that there is no impact of sex-role on the self concept of the adolescents.

The above studies showed that self-concept has too much influence on the adolescent and his/her behaviour. Negative self-evaluation is associated with less adequate social skills, social awkwardness and vulnerability to rejection which cause insecurity among adolescents. High self-concept has beneficial consequences as adolescents having high self-concept usually do not face identity crisis and insecurities. Research areas in context to insecurity and self-concept are relatively dark, therefore requires more clear and direct research to these variables.

2.4 STUDIES RELATED TO INSECURITY AND PARENTAL INFLUENCE

Symonds (1939) compared the personality characteristics and social adjustments of 31 rejected and 31 accepted children. Children in the accepted group showed more socially acceptable behaviour and appeared more cooperative, friendly, loyal, honest, straightforward, emotionally stable, calm, deliberate, enthusiastic and cheerful. Children in the rejected group were emotionally unstable, restless, overactive and given to attention-getting and trouble-making behaviour. In interpersonal relations, the accepted children were friendlier, more communicative and more self-confident but the rejected ones felt insecure, inferior and discontented.

Baldwin (1949) studied home environment of school children and its impact on child behaviour and concluded that children from democratic homes were more outgoing, active, competitive, resourceful and hence less stressed and frustrated.

Adler (1952) has strongly emphasized the important role of family environment in determining the life styles of individuals and reported that the variation in adjustment in different aspects of life shown by a child will contribute much by the type of family.
Richard (1954) found that parents who are praising, approving, showing more interest, understanding and closer to their children, their children are less frustrated and achieve high.

Watson (1957) found that children from more permissive families were related as having significant initiative, independence, spontaneity and less frustration.

Silver (1958) stated that children who were closer to their parents were associated with an active and supportive style of family interaction and perceived their parents to be in harmony and showed little signs of anxiety and frustration.

Bandura and Walter (1959) stated that rejecting attitude towards children by their parents make them fearful, insecure, attention seeking, jealous, aggressive, hostile and lonely.

Hess and Britton (1961) analyzed the background of family factors and stated that more congenial home environment, lower parental domination and sympathetic parental encouragement has led to lesser frustration.

Walter and Stinnet (1971) concluded that extreme strictness and low acceptance tended to be directly related to the level of frustration. Aggression, dependence and achievement are among the major variables that have been found to be related to home environment in the studies.

Mojallali (1972) conducted a study on 60 boys and 60 girls from two institutions for juvenile delinquents to access adolescents’ perception of parental behaviour towards them and its relationship with sex, delinquency and security. Results revealed that there was positive relation between adolescents’ security and their perceptions of parental behaviour towards them as loving or rejecting.

Bhatia (1984) found that family atmosphere was more tense and unhappy for girls in Indian environment. In families’ parents were more favourably inclined towards boys.

Kaur (1986) conducted a study on emotional maturity of adolescent pupils in relation to divergent pattern of parental behaviour. Results show that adolescent girls and boys are more emotionally mature if their parents are having accepting behaviour. Girls are more emotionally mature as compared to boys irrespective of parental behaviour.

Frank et al. (1990) investigated 376 undergraduates to study interrelationships among deidealization, relatedness, autonomy, and insecurity in late adolescents’
relationships with their parents. Results revealed that deidealization predicted greater autonomy and less relatedness (i.e., more disengagement), greater disengagement predicted greater insecurity, and greater insecurity predicted less autonomy. Results also posited significant associations between the adolescent/parent relationship variables and the adolescents’ psychological health and ego identity status.

Gupta and Verma (1990) concluded that boys belonging to good home environment achieve significantly greater than boys belonging to poor home environment.

Kaur (1991) conducted a study on mental health of adolescent pupils in relation to divergent configuration of parental behaviour and concluded that the accepting parental behaviour is significantly more conducive to the mental health of adolescent girls.

Padmasri (1992) found stress among boys and girls differed significantly, boys being higher on the mean stress scores. The factors which yielded significant correlations were sex and family support, stress and family support, stress and general health, stress and locus of control, family stress and academic achievement.

Singh and Broota (1992) found that girls were more test anxious, worrisome and emotional than boys. Parental pressure and the parents’ professional background also influence the degree of test anxiety experienced.

Kaur (1993) conducted a study on 200 adolescents and found a significant relationship between security-insecurity and parental attitude.

Main and Goldwyn (1994) examined that the essence of parent-adolescent secure-base is that it allows the adolescent to autonomously explore emotional and cognitive independence within the context of a strong relationship with parents - idea consistent with the definition of adult security as reflecting autonomy in thought together with valuing of attachment relationships.

Palta (1994) conducted a study on mental health and personality of high school students residing in Balniketan. She concluded that the high school students living with their parents show better mental health as compared to those residing in Balniketan. The Balniketan students show severe psychological disturbance in their mental health as compared to students residing with their parents.
Allen and Hauser (1996) reported that enmeshed and over personalized parent-teen interactions that hinder the autonomy development process have been cross-sectionally linked to insecurity in attachment.

Aggarwal and Pande (1997) observed significant differences in the perception of mother’s behaviour, loving, dominating, rejecting and punishing. Girls perceived their father’s behaviour more protecting in comparison to boys. The girls are generally brought up with greater restraints and on stricter codes of behaviour than are boys.

Baratha (1997) found that girls are better adjusted in home environment than boys. Educationally the high achiever students have better adjustment in home environment than the educationally backward students.

Dolgin and Berndt (1997) examined 144 adolescents’ perceptions of parents’ disclosure of their own lives. Results indicated that college-aged adolescents believe that their mothers disclose more to them than their fathers, especially about their problems. Mothers were also perceived to disclose for different, more emotional reasons than fathers and were thought to seek advice more often.

Sharma (1998) found a significant correlation between family climate and overall adjustment of adolescents. The family climate is found to be quite effective in determining one’s level of academic achievement.

Fletcher et al. (1999) stated that high school students reported separately on mothers’ and fathers’ responsiveness and demandingness and their own academic achievement and engagement, involving in problem behaviour, psychological development and internalized distress. Mothers and fathers were classified as authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent or indifferent, and adolescents from homes characterized by different types of inter parental consistent.

Hack (1999) revealed that children feel stress long before they grew up. Many children have to cope with family conflict, divorce, constant changes in schools, neighbourhoods and childcare arrangements, peer-pressure and sometimes even violence in their homes or communities.

Watkins and Lisa (1999) hypothesized that parental stress, depression and social support would be significantly related to hostile inductive behaviour and permissive parenting practices, with gender differences between fathers and mothers in the
relationship between these variables. Multiple regression analysis was conducted to
determine the predictive ability of parental stress, depression and social support in
relation to each of the four categories of parenting practices. Qualitative analysis was
conducted and two themes emerged as important variables in understanding parenting
practices identified as frustration and lack of control over the parent-child interaction.
These variables were quantified to be used in further analyses.

Whitney and Scott (1999) found that family environment appeared to contribute
to well-being in present and future and also concluded that home environment in
educational activities and independence given to children by allowing them to make a
decision to be significantly related to children’s academic intrinsic motivation.

Mudgal (2000) conducted a study on mother’s attitude and emotional and mental
well-being of children. The sample consisted of 877 adolescents and their parents in Los
Angeles. It was found that mother’s attitude and children’s well-being are positively
related.

Sangwan and Sangwan (2000) conducted a study on children’s perception of
parental relationship. Their results revealed that mean value of parental acceptance and
parental concentration was found to be higher in case of male respondents in all the age
groups. Whereas in female children, parental acceptance and parental concentration was
found to be less in all the age groups. Male respondents secured less mean value than the
female respondents in all the age groups as concerned with parental avoidance. It was
observed that parental acceptance and parental concentration in both male and female
children decreased as age increased, whereas parental avoidance increased as age
increased.

Barton (2001) found that the home environment was measured by the patient’s
level of cohesion, expressiveness and conflict in the family. Results showed that the
home environment is a significant predictor of psychological adaptation in cancer
patients.

Benzies (2001) found that economic instability, marital conflict, chronic illness in
the family, issues of parenting in the family in the origin and lack of support for
parenting, influence the development of child’s behavioural problems leading to anxiety
and frustration in the children.
Kaur (2001) conducted a study on the impact of home environment on mental health. She concluded that there is a positive but non significant relationship between parental acceptance and mental health of school students. There is negative and significant relationship between parental concentration and mental health of school students. There is a positive and significant relationship between parental avoidance attitude and mental health of school students.

Robert et al. (2001) found that parental attachment, family conflict, anxiety and separation-individualization during late adolescence are key components that determine the psychological adjustment of the emerging adults. This study investigated whether anxiety influences the relationship between parental attachment, family conflict and separation-individualization. Anxiety was negatively correlated with parental attachment and with lack of conflict. Anxiety was also correlated with three of the four separation-individualization outcomes. In specific cases, anxiety mediated the relationship between adolescent’s attachment to parents and separation-individualization and between adolescent’s lack of conflict with parents and separation-individualization.

Khosla (2002) conducted a study on well-being in relation to family environment of adolescents and concluded that there is a positive and significant relationship between well-being and family environment of adolescents. Further, the findings indicate no significant difference in relationship of well-being and family environment among boys and girls.

Allen et al. (2003) concluded that potential familial predictors of change in adolescent attachment security are suggested by cross-sectional findings of a link between security and signs that the adolescent is able to use the parent as a secure-base in daily interactions. It was revealed that in adolescence, the parent-adolescent secure base appears to be specifically marked by a combination of mutual respect between parent and teen during disagreements, adolescent de-idealization of the parent, parental sensitivity, and parental supportiveness.

Chadha (2003) reported that psycho-social correlates of anxiety, achievement, adjustment and family environment contribute to 97% of the frustration in students of professional colleges.
Dykas (2003) investigated to examine whether adolescent (AAI) attachment security could be linked to adolescents' secure-base use and parents' secure-base support while discussing the adolescent's developmentally salient task of leaving home after finishing high school. Results indicated that secure adolescents were more likely than insecure adolescents to use their mothers and their fathers as secure bases. Results also indicated that fathers of secure adolescents were more likely than fathers of insecure adolescents to support their adolescents' secure-base behavior. There was no evidence, however, that mothers of insecure adolescents differed from mothers of secure adolescents in their amounts of secure-base support. Results also indicated that dyadic open communication was greatest in secure adolescent-mother and secure adolescent-father discussions. Secure adolescents were also more likely than insecure adolescents to use at least one parent as a secure-base and to have open dyadic communication with at least one parent.

Davies et al. (2004) conducted four studies tested a theory that high interparental conflict increases child mental health risk by shaking children's sense of security in the family. Findings showed that children's fear, avoidance, and involvement were prominent responses, especially relative to reactions predicted by other theories. Interparental conflict related to greater child insecurity. Insecurity related to greater mental health difficulties even when considering previous mental health, child's perceptions of conflict, and parent-child relationship.

Endicott and Liossis (2005) begun to acknowledge the importance of asking young people about their experience of parenting, yet critical gaps still exist in this area of knowledge. The current study compared styles of parenting with how Australian adolescents' perceived parent-adolescent communication and how they felt about their parents. The results suggest there are some marked differences between the four parenting styles in terms of how Australian adolescents perceive parental communication quality and how they feel towards their parents.

Ming and Frederick (2005) concluded that increase in marital distress is as harmful for adolescent adjustment as increase in marital conflict and consequently harmful environment at home.
Pandey (2005) conducted a study to find out the effect of parental disciplining behaviour upon the academic achievement of adolescents of different intellectual levels as perceived by them. Results showed positive effects of father's disciplining behaviour upon academic achievement of urban adolescents of high intellectual level while rural adolescents showed positive and significant impact of mother’s disciplining behaviour upon their academic achievement at average intellectual level.

Tiwari (2005) examined the relationship between perceived parenting patterns in relation to emotional expressiveness and socio-economic status among early adolescents. It was concluded that emotional expressiveness emerge as an important factor in the sustenance of the perceived role of fathering patterns and a poor factor in the sustenance of the role of mothering patterns.

Buehler et al. (2006) conducted a study on 416 early adolescents and their married parents to examine how parenting helps in explaining the contemporaneous association between interparental hostility and adolescent problem behaviour. The association between interparental hostility and adolescent externalizing problems, was mediated uniquely by fathers’ and mothers’ harshness, lower levels of fathers' monitoring knowledge, and mothers' psychological intrusiveness. The association between interparental hostility and adolescent internalizing was mediated uniquely by mother harshness, psychological intrusiveness, and lower levels of acceptance. These patterns were similar for sons and daughters.

Choo (2006) revealed the results of an extensive study with 748 Singapore adolescents on their perceptions of their parents’ child-rearing behaviours and the relationship to the adolescents’ psychosocial adjustment. The findings revealed that adolescents perceived mothers to be the more nurturant and supportive parent. Correlational analysis indicated that fathers’ and mothers’ parenting behaviours were significantly linked to all measures of psychosocial adjustment, with stronger associations with mother’s parenting behaviours. The differential outcomes reflect the different types of relationship that adolescents have with their fathers and mothers.

Greszta (2006) concluded that general psychosocial theories of developmental psychopathology assert that family environment plays a significant role in forming both adaptive and maladaptive functioning of children. Also virtually all theories of depression
assert that faulty parent-child relationships play a major role in the aetiology of this disorder. According to these theoretical formulations, familial risk factors have been the focus of most research on depression in adolescence. Several studies have shown that insecure attachment and parenting characterized by coldness, rejection, harsh discipline and unsupportive behavior is positively related to adolescent depressive symptoms. Some research indicates that authoritative parenting, conceptualized as a composite of warmth, accept-involvement, firm control, and democratic discipline, is associated with the least depressive symptoms among adolescents. Patho genetic factors within the family environment, such as parental depression, changes of family structure, violence or neglect, can also contribute to depression in adolescence. A causal relationship between anomalous parenting and depression is probably the interplay among genetic, cognitive, emotional, interpersonal, and family environmental factors.

Operario et al. (2006) posited a study of the associations among parental warmth, peer support, gender, and emotional distress in a sample of 308 adolescents in the United States. Parental warmth was associated with less emotional distress, whereas turning to peers for support during family conflict was associated with more emotional distress. Gender moderated these associations in multivariate analyses. Emotional distress was highest among females who reported low levels of parental warmth and who turned to peers for support, in comparison with females who also turned to peers for support but had higher parental warmth.

Steinberg et al. (2006) investigated on 96 early adolescent females from two parent families to test associations between adolescent perceptions of interparental conflict, adolescent attachment security with parents, and adolescent marital expectations and romantic experiences. It was found that adolescents’ negative perceptions of parental conflict were associated with insecure attachment with parents, which was in turn associated with negative marital expectations and romantic experiences.

Alim (2007) studied the psycho-social problems of adolescent girls and found that 74% of the adolescent girls are being nagged by their parents and also revealed some problems with their parental rearing style.

Diemer (2007) conducted a longitudinal study on 12th grade students to two years after they had finished high school to examine the impact of relational and instrumental
parental support and instrumental school support upon vocational expectations and work salience. The results revealed that relational and instrumental parental support had a direct effect upon work salience and instrumental support and a significant indirect effect two years later. Instrumental school support and relational parental support had direct effect upon vocational expectations and no significant indirect effects two years later.

Gibbons (2007) revealed that substance availability and use were both higher among the urban adolescents. Results suggest that stress or negative affect is an important antecedent to use among African-American adolescents, especially when it occurs at an early age, but living in rural areas may be a buffer for both problems, in part, because exposure to this type of risk is lower in these environments.

Kaur (2007) found a close relationship between academic achievement and home environment. She concluded that parental involvement and socio-economic status affect the academic achievement a lot.

Kaur (2007) found that urban boys have more control, protective punishment conformity than rural boys. Rural boys were more socially isolated and rejected in home than urban boys and found that urban girls have more deprivation of privileges and permissiveness in home than rural girls.

Keller (2007) reported that children derive a sense of security from multiple dimensions of family functioning, including parent-child and marital relations. Their sense of security is based on their confidence in parents' abilities to meet children's needs and provide a stable environment, and is undermined by poor parenting skills and marital conflict. Because parental depressive symptoms are associated with parenting and marital problems, this study hypothesized that parental depressive symptoms would predict children's emotional insecurity about parent-child relations (attachment insecurity).

Manongdo and Garcia (2007) examined the relation between adolescent-reported parenting behaviours and mother-reported youth externalizing and internalizing behaviours among 91 Mexican American mother-adolescent (ages 13-17) dyads. Two major dimensions of mothers' parenting emerged: supportive parenting and harsh parental control. Gender moderation analyses revealed that lower levels of externalizing behaviors were linked with mothers' higher levels of supportive parenting among girls but not among boys. Higher levels of youth-reported depression were linked with mothers' higher
levels of harsh parental control among boys but not among girls. The findings highlight the importance of supportive parenting and of gender in the study of Mexican American families and youth mental health.

Schudlich and Cummings (2007) examined a community sample of 262 children, ages 8-16, participated with their parents. Dimensions of marital conflict, children's emotional security regarding interparental conflict, and parenting style were examined as mediators between parental dysphoria and child adjustment. Behavioural observations were made of parents' interactions during marital conflict resolution tasks, which children later observed to assess their emotional security. Questionnaires assessed parents' dysphoria, parenting, and children's adjustment. Structural equation modeling indicated that parental dysphoria was linked with child adjustment through specific and distinct mediating family processes, including marital conflict and parenting. Children's emotional security in the context of particular marital conflict styles also mediated relations between parental dysphoria and child adjustment problems, with similar pathways found for mothers and fathers. These pathways remained significant even after significant parenting contributions were considered.

Shek (2007) conducted a study on two occasions separated by one year, 2,758 Chinese adolescents respond to instruments assessing perceived parental behavioural control (indexed by parental knowledge, expectation, monitoring, discipline, demandingness, and control based on Chinese concepts), parental psychological control, and parent-child relational qualities (satisfaction with parental control, readiness to communicate with the parents, and perceived mutual trust between parents and their children). Chinese adolescents generally perceive their fathers' behavioral and psychological control to be lower than those of the mothers; mother-child relational qualities are also perceived to be relatively more positive than father-child relational qualities.

Sravanthi and Kumari (2007) conducted a study on 30 adolescents (15 girls and 15 boys) and their parents to know the perceptions of adolescents on their parents’ parenting styles and parenting styles adopted by the parents. The results have shown that majority of the parents followed authoritarian parenting style for both girls and boys in academic area and majority of the adolescents perceived authoritarian parenting style in
academic area. There is a significant difference found between the parenting styles adopted by parents and perceptions of adolescents in authoritative and permissive parenting styles.

Rani and Prabha (2008) conducted a study on 180 adolescents (60 democratic, 60 permissive and 60 authoritarian parents and their children who comprised of equal number of boys and girls) to investigate the social maturity levels of adolescents belonging to different parenting styles. The results revealed that adolescents belonging to democratic parenting style had high social maturity. Majority of the adolescents belonging to permissive parenting style had moderate level of social maturity, whereas the adolescents with authoritarian parents had low level of social maturity.

Bhardwaj et al. (2009) conducted a study on 240 early adolescents to investigate the effects of perceived marital conflict versus adjustment, gender and physical condition on anxiety. Anxiety was found to be greater in those early adolescents who perceive marital conflict than those who perceive marital adjustment in general. Boys had greater anxiety than girls in normal early adolescents who perceive marital conflict between their parents and girls also had greater anxiety than boys in normal early adolescents, who perceive marital conflict as their parenting.

Deater-Deckard (2009), tested the hypothesis that household chaos would be associated with lower child IQ and more child conduct problems concurrently and longitudinally over two years while controlling for housing conditions, parent education/IQ, literacy environment, parental warmth/negativity and stressful events.

Nanda and Sidhu (2009) conducted a study on 300 adolescents to reveal the impact of parental encouragement on mental health of adolescents. The results indicated that parental encouragement has significant relation with mental health among adolescents of schools of rural areas of Ludhiana district. No significant relationship existed between parental encouragement and mental health with respect to gender.

Sussman and Regehr (2009) explored the differential effects of emotional and tangible support provided by family and friends and by formal services, and caregivers’ perceptions of community.

Radhakrishnan and Samuel (2010) investigated parents and teachers of 64 young children to find out the relationship between their parenting style and behaviour. Results
revealed that there is a high positive correlation among authoritative parenting style and behaviour children. The children of authoritative parents are socially competent, self-reliant and responsive. There is negative correlation among indulgent parenting style and behaviour of children. The children of indulgent parents are socially incompetent, especially they lack self-control.

From the above studies we can conclude that parental influence has great effect on the adolescents’ behaviour. Accepted children show more socially acceptable behaviour and appear friendlier, more communicative, emotionally stable and more self-confident, but the rejected children feel insecure, inferior, discontented and emotionally unstable. The variables in discussion namely insecurity and parental influence lacks visibility regarding their relationship, therefore requires advanced research.

A perusal of the related literature referred to in this chapter shows that a very few efforts have been made to find out the impact of emotional intelligence, self-concept and divergent configurations of parental influence on insecurity among adolescents. In addition, as one patiently goes through the titles of the research problems tackled so far, the field of insecurity among adolescents is found to have remained almost wholly foreign to empirical and scientific investigators in our country. It was precisely this situation that led the investigator to take up the problem of the present study. Investigator felt blessed to explore less touched but highly important field of research, i.e., insecurity among adolescents in relation to their emotional intelligence, self-concept and divergent configurations of parental influence. These variables play a dominating role in determining the level of insecurity which in turn determines the overall success and happiness in life.

2.5 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

Hypothesis is a tentative generalization or a proposition, the validity of which is to be tested. In the present investigation, the following hypotheses were framed on the basis of the review of the related studies and the objectives of the present study:
I. There will be a significant difference in insecurity of male and female adolescents.
II. There will be a significant difference in emotional intelligence of male and female adolescents.
III. There will be a significant difference in self-concept of male and female adolescents.
IV. There will be a significant difference between the perceptions of male and female adolescents with respect to their parental influence.
V. There will be a significant difference in insecurity of rural and urban adolescents.
VI. There will be a significant difference in emotional intelligence of rural and urban adolescents.
VII. There will be a significant difference in self-concept of rural and urban adolescents.
VIII. There will be a significant difference between the perceptions of rural and urban adolescents with respect to their parental influence.
IX. There will be a significant difference between high emotionally intelligent adolescents and low emotionally intelligent adolescents on the variable of insecurity.
X. There will be a significant difference between adolescents with high self-concept and adolescents with low self-concept on the variable of insecurity.
XI. There will be a significant difference between adolescents with accepting parental influence and adolescents with rejecting parental influence on the variable of insecurity.
XII. There will be a significant relationship between insecurity and emotional intelligence of adolescents.
XIII. There will be a significant relationship between insecurity and self-concept of adolescents.
XIV. There will be a significant relationship between insecurity of adolescents and their parental influence.
XV. Conjoint effect of emotional intelligence, self-concept and parental influence is higher as compared to their separate prediction in predicting the insecurity of adolescents.