CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

Review of relevant research studies is useful to recognize the contributions of different researchers, and also explains why these studies and theory are important for the proposed study entitled “psychosocial problems of Adolescent girls a social work perspective”. Hence an attempt has been made to review the related literature that will help in understanding the different aspects of psychosocial problems of adolescent girls and adjustment in the light of the other influencing factors. Which are discussed under following heads.

Adolescents – a snapshot: The term adolescence means,” to emerge” or “achiever identity”. This is a relatively new concept, especially in rational thinking. Adolescence is a developmental transition between childhood and adulthood. It is generally considered to begin at about age ten and to end in the late teens. There are two most important factors for studying adolescents.

This is the period of growth spurt where maximum changes can be observed in an individual as compared to the other phases of life and as stated by barbarian and ganja (2000) adolescents is a distinct group with their own unique needs and concerns. The increase in attention towards adolescents is due to the recognition of this group as a significant proportion of the total population and also as the future leaders and guardians of the nation’s development.

The first factor in understanding and studying adolescents is the rapid changes that occur during this period and the influence that have on the growth and development of adolescents. This stage of life is called
critical period and also as the stage of growth spurt. Adolescence is also an emotional and social process and so it is said, adolescence begins in biology and ends in culture.” (Conger and Peterson 1984)

The storm and stress often associated with the teenage years have been called adolescent rebellion-rebellion that may encompass not only conflict within the family but a general alienation from adult society and hostility towards the values. Keniston (1975) saw the problems of most adolescents as arising from a “tension between self and society” from a lack of fit between who they feel they are and what they feel society wants them to be. Hence, the support and understanding of parents and society during adolescence phase is critical in enabling them to meet new challenges (WHO 1997).

Significance with regard to the percentage of adolescents when compared with the total population was explained by national youth policy as, globally adolescents account for one-fifth of the population, and in India adolescents constitute approximately 21 percent of the population (national youth policy 2000). According to central statistical organization (1998) percentage distribution of adolescents by age group and sex shows that, in 10-14 years, both male and female are 12.1 percent. In 15-19 years, male are 11 percent and females are 10.5 percent.

Since adolescence is a crucial period for emotional life, because frontal lobes, which are important for regulating limbic impulse, mature during this period and since it’s the time of exploration (of their own bodies, of one’s capabilities and potential ) and experimentation in sexual relationship’s alcohol and tobacco use (kolb 1989). It is extremely important to understand emotional and intelligence aspect in adolescents. Understanding the various factors affecting overall development of adolescents is as important as understanding the significance of studying
adolescents. Taking this view into consideration studying psychosocial problems of adolescent girls from the social work perspective.

**Importance of adjustment:** The concept of adjustment is biological in its origin. According to Symonds, adjustment can be defined as a satisfactory relation of an organism with his environment. Thus, adjustment is a process through which the organism moulds itself in response to the conditions it face. “we can think of adjustment as psychological survival in much the same way as biologist users the term adaptation to describe physiological survival.

Satisfactory adjustments in adolescents are very important because it can exert powerful influence on their developing personality. According to adler (1953) Norma adjusted individual has both energy and courage to meet the problems and difficulties as they come along. They are socially and psychologically adjusted to the daily tasks of life. The maladjusted individuals like neurotics, psychotics, criminals, drunkards, problem children, suicides, and perverts are failures because of lack of social skills and interest. To adjust and not to adjust includes both inner and overt changes that individual experience during their growing-up years.

According to skinner (1952) adjustment involves the organization of personality, which leads to stability of the individual to his social and physical environment. Erickson's (1968) statement on individual development, state that the ability to accommodate oneself to changing circumstances is a mark of maturity could easily be interpreted as a definition of adjustment.

Adjustment is a process that takes a person to lead a happy and well contented life. It helps in keeping balance between need and the capacity to meet these needs. It persuades to change the way of life according to the
demands of the situation. Adjustment gives strength and ability to bring desirable changes in the conditions of our environment.

### 2.2 Studies related to factors affecting adjustment

Gold and Andres (1978) states that adolescent children of working mothers tend to be better adjusted socially, feel better about them, have more of a sense of belonging and get along better with families and with school friends other teenagers. Roy (1961).

Reported that mothers employment did not have any adverse effect on the social activities of the children or on the academic performance of the children.

Causes of conflicts between the adolescents and the adults were many, young people feel a constant tension between needing to break away from their parents and realizing how dependent they really are on them and adolescents ambivalent feelings are often matched by their parents own ambivalence. The failure of the parents to understand and realize that the child is growing up is the major one. The tendency of parents to thrust their pattern of conduct and ways of behaving on the child is also the cause of conflict. Garrison(1962).

The other causes of conflicts apart from family and parents were found as peers. Concerns about teenagers are mainly their eating disorders, high rates of sexually transmitted diseases, drug abuse, and pregnancy (Millstein 1989). This may mainly be due to curiosity and because of peer pressure. Bronfenbrenner (1972) affirmed this point of view by asserting that children are no longer brought up by their parents but by their peers and by television. But Fischer (1986) states that peer networks are equally essential to the adolescents development of social skills and competence.
Though peer influence is high at this stage, role of parents and family play an equally important role in overall development of adolescents. Reviewing value development “one should not discount the family as an important force in the socialization of adolescent values” according to study conducted by J.P Hill 1987 offers et al reveals that most of the adolescents feel close and positive about their parents, have similar values on major issues, and seek their parents approval. Hoffman (1980) also stresses the central role played by the parents and concludes, it may be a mistake to think of peer groups as exerting an influence apart from the influence of adults.

The increased conflict in early adolescence may be more related to puberty than to chronological age, and some intriguing new research suggests that it may even be bidirectional Steinberg 1988. Conflict is part of every relationship, and since the transition of adolescence challenge arises. This discord increases during early adolescence. Stabilizes during middle adolescence and then decreases by early adult years.

According to a study by Damon (1984) positive exploration that involves trying a new activity, making new friends, learning a difficult skill, taking on a new challenge, or resisting peer pressure poses challenges that help people grow. The kind of parenting that seems to provide the right balance is authoritative parenting. The authoritative parenting style seems to yields “normal or “healthy” adolescent behaviour. Hill (1980) and Crow and Crow (1965) also believed that the degree of successful adjustment achieved by the child in his family relationships depends on the various factors like attitude toward child rearing emotional reactions of family members, (emotionally stable v/s lower class).

Hunter Ruth and Morgan Divide conducted a study on problems of college student and found seven major problems areas, namely academic
education, general education, vocational choice, and others areas like personal, social, family, health and finance, Mahesh Chandra (1970) has also investigated the problems of adjustment of college students and analyzed the problem with respect to their component area and sex of the subject. Results revealed that, students from arts background had better adjustment than science students. Females were found to have better adjustment than males.

Kakkar (1967) attempted to explore the relationship among certain areas of adjustment in adolescence and to locate the area in which adolescents confronted the maximum number of problem. The results reveal that the adjustment problems of the boys did not differ significantly from those of girls and the school causes great deal of anxiety because many adolescents confront maximum number of problems in that area. School going adolescents, which revealed that adolescent had adjustment problems in many areas like academics, future plans, education vocation plans and personal situations.

Data Bharath and Go Swami (1997) conducted a study on adolescents for their home adjustment with the help of adjustment inventory of college students. Results revealed that the boys and girls and high and low achievers showed significant differences in the area of home adjustment. Boys were found to be better adjusted to the problems concerned to home. High achievers had better level of adjusted in the home area. However no significance was found in terms of age of 18-19 years and 19-21 years adolescents.

Ansbacher and Ansbacher (1956) explain that it is a common fallacy to imagine that children of the same family grow up in the same family grow up in the same environment. There is much variation in the growth and development patter. Where as the environment is the same for all
children in the same home, but the psychological situation of each child differs from that of others, because of their order of succession or birth. They further explain that, it is not only the birth order which influences the character, but the situation into which he is born and also the way in which he interprets it. Hence, birth order is also said to be a one of the factors which influence personality development Sutton-smitt, Roberts and Rosenberg.

Birth order is one such factor, which is said to be a good indicator of how a person accepts or rebels against standard of society especially among adolescents Sulloway (1996). Ordinal positions or birth order of a child within the family likewise affects social acceptance Miller and Marryamen (1979). Children from same family and home environment often show amazing difference in temperament and behavior. Genetic factors and other influences play a significant role, but often overlooked is the role that birth order can play with in the family. Sulloway (1996). A scholar of birth order studies for order two decades, believes that birth order is one of the most powerful influences in the way that individual react to the world. And he contends that birth order fosters distinctive personality traits across families of different economic, social and ethnic backgrounds. After reviewing 35 years of research Cecile Ernst and Jules angst of the university of Zurich reach a simple conclusion: on a scale of importance, the effects of birth order fall somewhere between negligible and nonexistent.

Studies reveal that generally the characteristics of each child in the family differ according to their position in the family. For example, if we have a closer look at the first borns, they are often the achievers because they are driven towards success and stardom in their given fields. They tend to be conscientious, well organized, serious, goal oriented, achieving, peoples pleasers and believers in authority leman (1998). Sears, Maccoby and Levin (1957) found some significant difference in the approach parents
took to children of different birth ranks. The finding indicated that there were general tendency toward preferential treatment of first-born children and more lenient towards their first born in both weaning and discipline. Burden and Perkins (1987) also have hypothesized that parents have the highest expectations and aspiration from their first born children with regard to achievement and behavior which might lead to different parenting styles for different birth ranks. This might lead to anxiety and feeling of insecurity and may also result in frustration store (1961). Also reviews that first born grow up to more intellectually oriented because the parents are overly anxious and they will have more time for them when compared to subsequent children. Zajonc and Markus(1975). Bal mount and Marolla have also pointed out that parents and psychologists have regarded first born children as different and special and as a result have given them greater intellectual stimulation and opportunities to develop their intellectual capacities than their later born siblings have had. Wright(1969). Has reported a highly significant tendency for first born boys to score reflective and ones born later to score impulsive on some of kagan’s cognitive tests. Adams (1972) attributed those persons who are first and single born children found to be more conforming and more responsible, presumably as a result of more inters and complete socialization.

According to Altus (1963) in two-child families, the first born children, either male or female, with younger brothers are significantly more intelligent than those with sisters. Further more independently of birth order, in two child family children of either sex who have brother are brighter than those with a sister. Rosenberg(1965). Has attempted to take into account the effects of the sex of siblings in different ways and families in which they were the only males or in which the majority of the other siblings were female, had a high self-esteem. Importance of sex in the birth
order effects is studied by Galton(1869). Which reveals that, greater achievement of first borns, especially males has been reported.

Birth order may affect individual personality especially it may affect the level of self esteem, Lester, David (1992). Examined whether sex might play a mediating role in the relationship between psychological health and birth order in traditional families and revealed that first born males and last born females had higher self-esteem and less irrational thinking than last born males and first born females. However, kohan and schooler (1969). Revealed that such sibling’s configurations had no significant effects on self esteem or any other variable either by themselves or in traction with birth order, consistent pattern of birth order effects can only be explained if other family density which they derived it using variable like, total number of children in the family and the average time span between births.

In the Indian context, Sharma and Kumar(1999) had investigated the relationship between birth order and intelligence and also the sex difference in intelligence related to birth order. Results reveal that. Third born males and third born children are more intelligent than other birth order children and there was highly significant difference in the IQ of male and females, males tending to be more intelligent as compared to females. Since heredity condition is same, it can be attributed to the cultural and environmental difference.

It is evident from the previous studies that the developments in the field of emotional intelligence though are greater very few studies are conducted on the influence of factors affecting on emotional intelligence especially on adolescents. The notion of emotional intelligence, which emerged as a predictor of success was found too constrained in defining success in adolescents.
There are many studies conducted to find the relationship of emotional intensity and intelligence in adults in relation to the job success. Studies related to adjustment in adolescents are also many. But it is very important to study adjustment, which is said to be an integral part of adolescents in the light of intelligence and emotional intelligence. Since there are no studies conducted which explores the relationship between intelligence, emotional intelligence and adjustment among adolescents, the present study was planned to achieve the said objective.

2.3 Adolescents adjustment with family, peer and school environment

The family relationships are based on both hereditary and emotional bond between parents and children. Many parents see their children as an extension of themselves. As Gibran(1986) stated “the children are the perfect extension and expression of the couple’s love and caring” the basic requirement with stable parents or parent substitutes who are sensitive to the child’s emotional needs and who provide appropriate interaction and opportunities for play and consistent discipline, supervision and support. According to United Nations child Rights convention (1991) children should enjoy right to survival, education, good health, to free expression, to be heard, to enjoy their own language. The children, whose needs are not met, have the risk of normal social, emotional and cognitive developmental processes.

There is a substantial increase in the rate of mental health problems in children who are unwanted, who experience rejection and hostility, who are recipients of markedly inconsistent patterns of punishment or growing up in families with serious family discord. May teachers, parents underestimate the potentials of children in promoting positive values and ignore the process of their involvement (wenk et al, 1994). Is important for the well being of children. Separation from an attachment figure contributes to depression in children (Bowlby 1989). Emotional disturbances in
children are often concealed by many social conditions like poverty, cultural differences, family disturbances and educational inadequacies (Westman 1979).

Moreover children with financial hardship in the family children of alcoholic parents and children of unemployed parents were found to experience higher levels of stress, socially inept behaviors, low self image and peer rejection. A child will be distressed when she is neglected or abused by the parents or relatives. The children especially in urban setting who could not present their problems to primary and secondary networks would present their problems in the formal service setting such as Hospitals, child guidance clinics etc. significant proportion of children may fail to get into contact with these clinical settings and often are found on the streets.

“Eleven –year- olds cannot be bought” said Brow and Gilligan (1992). “they are articulate, resourceful and know their own minds” but age eleven seems to be the last year that many girls are in charge of their feelings and voice. As girls move into adolescence, their relationships often become characterized by disassociation and disconnection from themselves and others (Brown & Gilligan 1992). As these girls move into womanhood, they often do not remember tend to forget or even cover up what they experienced and knew as girls.

Adolescent girls receive contradictory expectations from different aspects of their life parents, teacher, peers, the media, and themselves. They are to be sexy and fashionable but at the same time remain good girls. They are to find off aggressive female attention while simultaneously meeting teacher’s expectations of non aggressive behavior. Females are to put domestic life first at the same time that they prepare for financial independence (AAUW, 1996, p.2). Girls struggle with these conflicting messages, trying to figure out whom to please in their everyday live (Brown
& Gillian, 1992). While many girls, especially those of lower socio-economic status, have adult responsibilities such as cleaning, cooking, and caring for younger children, they are discouraged from speaking up at school and claiming this same type of authority (lead better & way 1996).

Research documents that adolescent females, undergoing pubertal change, are most vulnerable to the loss of voice phenomenon (Brown & Gilligan 1992). While this age group has been investigated frequently, often using quantitative approaches, the nature and essence of adolescent girl’s loss of voice experience remains largely unknown. This study will attempt to remedy this gap in the knowledge base by asking rights who have had the experience of loss of voice to describe it in their own words.

Those studies using quantitative methods such as surveys allow researchers to examine many factors related to loss of voice, such as depression, self esteem and masculine/feminine gender role beliefs (smolak & munstertieger 2002). Such studies fail, however, to allow participants to explore and discuss freely their loss of voice experience by describing its accompanying emotions, feelings, and cognitions.

Definition of voice. Rogers (1993). In a study exploring voice and courage in the live of girls and women, refers to the ordinary courage of adolescent girls as their ability to speak authentically, to speak one’s mind by telling all one’s heart” most pre-adolescent girls show a strong sense of self and an ability to know and voice there thoughts and feelings (Taylor, Gilligan, & Sullivan, 1995.p.23). The Harvard project on women’s psychology and girls Development investigated this authentic voice of girls and referred to it as the “resistant voice or the voice that expresses “honest thoughts and feelings” (Brown & Gilligan 1992).
Brown and Gilligan (1992). Tracked the progress of girls from first through fourth grade. Then fifth grade, seventh grade, and tenth grade. They documented the gradual loss of girls, sense of self as they approached adolescence, a time when traditional expectations and feminine behaviors are emphasized. These researchers found that, at this time, most girls begin to switch from an authentic voice to an acceptable or perfect girl/nice girl” voice. As girls got older, they increasingly expressed the acceptable voice (Brown & Gilligan 1992).

Pipher (1994) has argued that with puberty come cultural pressure to split into more than one “self” (p.38). This pressure comes from places such as television, magazines, schools, movies, and peers. The message is that, if girls are true to themselves, they will reject by their peers and by society. Most girls choose to be accepted socially and as a result, split into two or more selves, one that is authentic and others that are culturally scripted. By adopting a false self, girls fail to accept their thoughts and feelings as their own. only by dissociating and sending their voices underground, by failing to own and acknowledge inner voices of confusion, hurt, and protest, can girls cope with and process the distortions surrounding them. The disconnections form the self are at the same time both adaptive and psychologically wounding. Because self esteem is based on acceptance of the self, many girls suffer enormous loosed in esteem and confidence through disowning themselves (pipher 1994, p.38).

Orenstein (1994) reported that girls monitor each others behaviors and keep a vigilant watch over each other and themselves. girls of all socio-economic, racial, and ethnic classes reported that they had to be very careful with their behavior because other girls and boys would pass judgments on them, resulting in negative consequences. Girls reported concern about being branded as “slutes” and gaining a ruined reputation (Orenstein,1994). Theses girls reported that, while they did not like being called “schoolgirl,”
being called “slut” was equally as bad. They felt their behaviors had to fall into a narrow path between appearing too good and appearing “slutty” girls reward what is acceptable, often reminding one another to be sweet and compliant. One of the girls interviewed by Orenstein (1994) stated that she wanted to be a lawyer. Her friend admonished her, reminding her that “sweet girls” like her make ineffective cute” to be a lawyer (Orenstein 1994). In effect, its girl saw herself as too cute to be competent.

Indirect evidence has also shown that adolescent daughters more than the sons are at greater risk for depressive disorders and symptoms when their mothers are depressed (sheeber, Davis, & Hops, 2002). Song (2001). In a study of Korean women’s career choices and their relationships with their mothers, reviewed literature from the United States and abroad. She concluded that mothers play a crucial role as models and socializes and are highly influential in their daughter’s perceptions of themselves and their sex role attitudes. For example, women who model subservient roles pass along negative self image to their daughters due to shared gender.

Sacrificing the self. The pressure placed on girls to shape themselves, both within and without, to comply with the dominant cultural ideals of womanhood and feminity of selflessness” are enormous and pervasive (Gilligan,1992). Heart and Thompson (1996), in a study linking traditional gender role characteristics and higher rates of depression among women, stated that silencing the self includes deferring to the needs of others, censoring self expression, repressing anger, judging the self against a selfless ideal, and censoring experience to establish and maintain safe, intimate relationships” (p.409). Further, they stated that there is a gender specific set of cognitive schema for appropriate behavior in intimate relationships.
Many girls undergo a change in attribution style during adolescence. They begin not to trust their own judgments and lose the ability to tolerate frustration without becoming overwhelmed (Pipher, 1994). Pipher said that, when the girls in her research failed, they were more likely to attribute the failure to internal factors such as a lack of ability. That is, they thought they were stupid and tended to give up while boys tend to attribute failure to external factors and stick with difficult problems and situations. Just as bad, girls tended to attribute success to luck and external factors while boys were more likely to view successes as evidence of ability. Importantly, Pipher notes that recent research has shown that this gap between boys and girls attribution styles may be closing, with girls being more likely to attribute their successes to internal factors. Further, she noted that girls in her study had a tendency to become anxious when faced with difficult situations, which interfered with problem solving skills, leading to further failure and even more anxiety and self-doubt the next time around. Additionally, this cycle of anxiety and failure can account for the withdrawal of many girls from math and science keeping girls from wanting to be astronauts and brain surgeons. According to Pipher (1994). Many adolescent girls lose their resiliency, assertiveness, and optimism. They become less curious and energetic and less incline to take risks. They are more deferential, self-critical and depressed (Pipher, 1994). Pipher observed that girls in her research were not able to say why they lost interest in their dreams and aspirations, they just reported their mysterious” disappearance (p.63).

Girls want to win the attention and affection of others and fear distancing themselves or being perceived as “different” from the assumed feminine standard. “guys like it if you act all helpless and girly, so you do” one of Orenstein’s (1994) participants offered. As one girl stated, following participation in a classroom discussion, “oh god. I hope I didn’t say something that makes me different” (Orenstein, 1994,p.100). becca, a quiet
Societal losses. Society suffers serious losses when girls give up their voices and confidence, and subsequently, chance for future achievement. As previously noted, Pipher (1994) found that most adolescent girls withdraw from participation in mathematics and science keeping them from potential future careers as astronauts and brain surgeons. Indeed, while the overall mathematics gap between boys and girls appears to be shrinking, this is only in lower level mathematics. Girls are still less well represented in higher level courses in mathematics, science, and computer science (AAW, 1999). Since a lack of education is positively correlated with fewer life opportunities, it is apparent that girls lack of participation in higher level technical courses will ultimately lead to diminished opportunities later in life. Women lacking in education also tend to be viewed as incompetent and incapable (Yoder 2002, p. 213). Indeed, there is a significant under representation of women in political and upper level corporate positions, as well as in the fields of science and technology, thus depriving society of women’s creativity and leadership skills in these areas (Yoder, 2002). Finally, girls and all of society are deprived of important role models, contributing to a continuation of this cycle.

Further, a lack of education generally leads to a lower future income. Indeed, there is a serious discrepancy in income levels of men and women in the workplace (Yoder 2002). Women without the means to support themselves financially often become dependent on others for financial welfare, leaving them in poverty and vulnerable to abuse. Significantly, two
out of every three poor women have been victims of domestic violence, with 25% of this experiencing violence within the past year as compared to the lifetime average of 21% 34% among the general population of women (yoder, 2002). A lack of education and subsequent lack of income puts women, and their children, at serious risk. Society cannot possibly benefit from the abuse of a substantial number of its members who will then be unlikely to become productive citizens.

Orenstein (1994). Interviewed approximately 25 adolescent girls, individually and in groups, as well as their parents and teachers, to collect their thoughts on issues affecting adolescent girls in school. Her interviewees came from two separate schools in different areas of the same town. The two schools were markedly different in the socio-economic and minority status of attending students. Using an open ended interview format, Orenstein and her participants explored issues such as relationships with boys, parents and teachers not listening, appropriate and acceptable behavior for girls, and future orientation. Overwhelmingly, even girls who spoke of themselves with grit and independence were silent in the classroom, preferring to be silent than wrong and humiliated.

2.4 Adolescence girls Development and Time Use

Anand lakshmi’s; (1991) The present work deals with themes related to the child in the cultural context, and also present empirical data form a study of traditional craftmen’s family. The themes discussed in the first part of the paper are [1] family solidarity of “familism loyalty to the family is expected of each members . Any act that is seen as a threat to the family cohesion is dealt with strictness. Unity and mutual dependence are valued highly in the family and in this context excessive expression of individuality is seen as a threat; [2] harmony and absence of conflict are highly valued’ [3] age hierarchy is another cultural themes’ statue goes with chronology, a great deal of value attached to age deference for older people
the most consistent aspect of socialization. [4] supremacy of male; and [5] in the upbringing of the child there are two cultural constants [i] parental confidence in maturation and [ii] lack of praise as a technique. The present work has studied parental socialization of girls in traditional craft communities of sangneer and ansari muslims in Varanasi. The sample comprised of children between the ages of 5-16 years along with their parents and other family members who were observed in their interactions and interviewed. It was seen that the span of childhood was directly related to the economic standing of the family; the poorer the family the earlier childhood ended. Pre-prubertal marriages of girls are ensured. In the parental socialization for achievement the contract between boys and girls was apparent. Girls were sent to school only for 2 or 3 years.

Government of India, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (1998, July) One-fifth (190 million) of India's population is adolescent. Quality data are more easily available on the older adolescent (15-19 years), than on the younger (10-14 years). The male-female ratio has been deteriorating over the decades (927 females per 1,000 males in 1991, from 972 per 1,000 males in 1901). The cause, the paper asserts, is gender discrimination Outweighing the genetic advantage, indicating the low status of the girl child. The following topics are detailed: (1) Adolescent fertility covering age at marriage, trends in fertility rates, sexual behavior and knowledge, abortions, contraception, sexually transmitted diseases, reproductive tract infections, and HIV/AIDS. (2) Socio-economic issues, namely, literacy and schooling, workforce participation, and growth and nutrition. (3) Vulnerability of adolescents related to drug abuse, violence against adolescents, and trafficking for prostitution. (4) Policies and programs, describing adolescent centered interventions, especially for girls covering health and family welfare, women and child development, education, and youth affairs. The paper also describes various stage-level initiatives for
adolescents, including non-governmental organizations (e.g. Better Life Option Program) active in social development promoting empowerment and general competency of women, income generating programs, and programs that cover issues like health including reproductive health, sexual abuse and violence, alternatives for commercial sex workers, and street children. In conclusion the importance of an integrated holistic view for the overall advancement of adolescents, and of need-based interventions catering to culture-specific sensibilities, is emphasized.

International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF) South Asia Region (1995), The aim of this booklet is to highlight not only the problems, but the strength and successes of girls and women of the region, who are beginning to analyze the limiting stereotype, which glorifies the selfless generosity of womankind, and to count the cost of their contribution to society, the economy, and culture. The reports contained in this booklet were written by the IPPF South Asia Regional delegates to the NGO Forum at the 1995 United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing. These reports include: (1) The status of the female child in Bangladesh. Written by Syeda Firoza Begum, it highlights the socio-economic condition regarding education, health, nutrition, and other aspects of the female children, who experience discrimination throughout their lives, especially during childhood. (2) Haryana's response; The case of the missing child in India, by Nina Puri. Haryana has the dubious distinction of having the second lowest male-female ratio in India. This report deals with the Haryana government's plan of action to reverse the trend. The aims, operation and results of the scheme "Apni Beti Apna Dhan" is discussed in this paper. (3) The girl child in Nepal by Indira Rana, It examines the status of Nepalese women from the social and legal perspective. (4) We are the future: Empowering girls and young women in Pakistan. This report has been adapted from a publication of the Family Planning Association of
Pakistan. The project was undertaken in five urban and rural sites each. About 1,000 girls (13-18 years) attended the workshops aimed at raising their awareness of their status, rights, and potential. The participating girls describe their status and achievements in their own words. (5) The girl child in Sri Lanka, by Ranjani Pathberiya. It discusses the status of females in Sri Lanka from the social, educational, health, and legal perspectives.

Kumari, R, (1995). This paper profiles a situational analysis of Indian rural adolescents and presents a study in 12 North Indian villages. Census figures for 1991 show that out of the population of 8,366 lakhs, only 4,028 lakhs are females. There has been a consistent decline in the female sex ratio over the years. Malnutrition is another manifestation of the neglect of the girl child. Only half of what is spent on male children is spared for nutrition and medical care of girls. Early marriages are also a cause for concern. Mean age at marriage for 1984 was 16.69 years in rural areas. In 1984, 63.5% of married women were below 18. Female literacy rates were also low (39.42%) compared to males (63.86%) for the year 1990-91. Girls' education is curtailed because of a fear of misbehavior, molestation, rape, etc. They are also subjected to gender violence, child marriages, sexual abuse, and dowry deaths. The study of 12 North Indian villages reveals that girls are engaged in household chores, besides being casual workers in the fields. The social attitude towards girls is very negative. They are not given an adequate share of nutritional resources, nor any scientific education on matters of sex, family planning and health care, and access to proper environmental hygiene. The onset of puberty also brings several restrictions for girls for fear of security. All this and several cultural biases inculcate a low self-image in girls.

Nayar, V.S. (1991). Focusing on the problems of the girl child in Indian society this special issue suggests some efforts for further development of the girl child and to facilitate gender equality. It deals with
the issues of gender discrimination, exploitation, deprivation, and the limitations of laws meant to protect the girl child. While Malini Karkal's article views the demographic features of girls in India indicating their low number, early marriage and its adverse consequences, and high infant mortality rate, Lakshmi Lingam talks about the sex determination before birth and female foeticide. Shanti Ghosh discusses the low nutritional status, discriminatory food supply and higher morbidity of the girl child. S. Anandalakshmy highlights the socialization process of the girl child and how she learns sex-stereotyping as expected by the society. The article by Usha Nayar deals with the exploitation inflicted upon the Indian girl child laborers both at home and at their workplace. Aparna Subramaniam's paper brings out the problems of the work pattern and the relationship of the patterns to age, birth order, family type, family size, and the occupational status of the other family members. Shalini Bhogle analyzes the development of the behavior of girls and boys due to differential child rearing practices in Indian society. Priti Patkar highlights the growing up of girl child in red light areas. Purnima N. Mane reviews the traditional roles and life stages of Indian Brahmin women in the 19th century. Sheela Barse stresses upon the needs for the rights of the girl child in her article. M.S. Pawar discusses the utility of Acts enacted by the central and state governments regarding prostitution.

Patel, B.C., Rajagopal, S., and Khan, M.E. (1996, December). The paper, as the title indicates, discusses the socio-demographic profile of Indian youth. Accordingly, youth population of India constitute 34.6% of the country's population and 5.7% of the world population. Urban areas have higher youth population (36.4%) compared to rural areas (33%). This is due to migration from rural to urban areas in search of employment, higher education and better quality of life. Proportion of female youth (35.2%) is higher than male youth (32.6%). The male-female differential in
education level persists both in rural and urban areas, though the magnitude is low in urban areas. An analysis of marital status shows that age at marriage is lower in rural than in urban areas. Early marriage is followed by early pregnancy - which increases the risk of infant deaths, maternal mortality and morbidity. Concept of small family varies, with 16-19% in rural areas and 6-10% in urban areas believing that four or more children constitute a small family. According to a survey, only one-third of the married youth were using any family planning method. Both in rural and urban areas, contraceptive use was reported more by women than men. It is further revealed that the contraceptive need is unmet because of lack of proper knowledge, poor accessibility, poor quality of services, and other social and cultural constraints.

Pathak K.B. (1996) For the purpose of this paper, youth' is defined to include persons between 15 and 34 years of age. Studying the socio-demographic situation of youth in India, the author touches on the following points: share of youth population in the total population, and its exponential growth rate (the former shows an increase but the latter, a steady decline since 1981), education among youth (which shows a significant increase), nuptiality of Indian youth (shows a definite shift in the nuptiality pattern of young women), mortality and survival probability of youth (a significant decline is revealed in the former, while in the latter, a significant increase), and the. fertility, contraceptive use, preferred sex of children, and size of family of this group, A study of the young voters reveals a politically significant increase in the proportion of youth (almost half of the total voters). In conclusion, the paper briefly remarks on the consequences of these findings.

Pershad. D. and Kohli. A. (1992). After independence a number of child welfare programs have been launched in India to monitor the development of children, but evaluation reports indicate that they failed to
alleviate the sufferings of the needy people. The major methodological problem in evaluation studies is that none of the approaches (i.e., the longitudinal, the cross-sectional or the case study method) to study the development of the child is adequate, having its own drawbacks and limitations. With the advancement of statistical techniques, studies have started being conducted on "representative" samples. In almost all the developmental studies, the selection of subjects became grossly biased. Thus, these studies were not considered appropriate for establishing a national standard. The study of child development involves a multidisciplinary approach and the two aspects, i.e., planning and execution of its research, are interdependent requiring concentrated efforts. Planners have taken account of researches regarding the growth and development of the physical and mental abilities of children which indicate two basic factors to be significantly effective, namely, low economic condition and poor nutritional intake. To improve these conditions the national resources have fallen short. I however, many studies indicated that the development of children could be accelerated and optimum potentials unfolded without putting efforts to increase the economic status. This needs to be kept in mind while exploring the community resources and providing adequate supervision for planning, execution, and evaluation of child development researches.

Sharma, N.(1991) Research study was undertaken to investigate the identity of rural and urban adolescent girls, belonging to different socio-economic levels (SEL). One hundred and fifty, 16-19 year old girls were selected for in-depth interviews. The findings reveal that gender, family, and social class are significant in influencing the young women's sense of identity. This paper presents case profiles of four of the girls (2 urban, 2 rural) from the study. The first, Nankai, is a lower class girl from a village in Uttar Pradesh. It is apparent from this profile that, a low caste, low SEL,
illiterate girl, is powerless to make most decisions of her life. The second, Kusum Nigam, also came from the middle class of a village in Uttar Pradesh. It is evident from her case that, the average middle SEL, rural, adolescent girl, has now become aware of the need for an individual identity, as opposed to the "collective" identity that she is expected to take. Shakuntala, the third case, a lower class girl from Delhi, is unusual for her SEL, although her circumstances are typical of the group. She has assumed adult roles and responsibilities from a very early age. She yields power with the family, which is uncommon in her social group. The last case profiled is that of Pushpa Kumari, a middle class girl in Delhi. Her crisis is at a personal level, affecting her ego-identity, but has a positive aspect to it. Realizing her potentialities, she resists acquiescing to a lack of control and her feeling of worthlessness, and has an undercurrent of faith in her ability to be an individual. The paper ends with conclusions based on the 150 cases studied: the 16-19 year old girl is unassertive, responsible, and compliant; accepting constraints and restrictions as non-negotiable. More than 50 percent of the girls express their desire to be reborn as a boy.

Singh, S.N. (1997, February). The paper discusses the characteristics, needs, and problems of slum dwellers, especially the youth. Absence of education, leadership, and political ideology result into netarious activities such as drug addiction, alcoholism, gambling, and smuggling by the young slum dwellers.

Dissatisfied with their conditions of life, they opt for destructive and misdirected adventurism. Sexual chastity is not a virtue, especially-for male slum dwellers. Sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) are common. The highest kind of altruistic and moral behavior co-exist with the meanest kind of immoral and selfish behavior. The author also examines various needs of slum dwellers such as physical (e.g., accommodation, availability of proper food, pure drinking water), psychological (e.g., proper security, hope for
future, love, respectful behavior from others, recognition from the society), economic (e.g., decent ways of earnings, monetary provision for undertaking business or self-employment), and social, cultural and educational (e.g., elimination of social evils, control of population, removal of bondage of slavery and oppression, realistic vocational education). Finally, the author suggests some guidelines for planners and policy-makers including construction of low-cost houses, taking up slum youth as a separate area of planning, sharing of responsibilities of slum development by industries, and modernization of cottage industries. (Abstracting author's comments: The reader needs to view the present paper as representing one perspective. Ethnographic studies of slum settings reveal the courage and hope and the striving to overcome the odds amidst the challenges of poverty).

2.5 Physical growth and nutritional status

Bhasin, M.K., and Singh, L.P. (1991). Somatotyping is useful in describing body shape and form. Studies indicate that somatotype ratings undergo major changes during the period of adolescence. This paper examines somatotype changes during adolescence in Gujjars and Tibetans of Jammu and Kashmir. The study is based on a cross-sectional sample consisting of 84 Gujjar (9-18 years) and 123 Tibetan boys (8-18 years) from Jammu and Kashmir. Anthropometric measurements of the subjects were taken following the techniques elaborated by Weiner and Lourie (1969) and Singh and Bhasin (1989). On the whole, the three somatotype components (endomorphy, mesomorphy, and ectomorphy) do not show any regular trend during adolescence. In Gujjars not much change is found in endomorphy during adolescence. A regular decrease is observed in Tibetans; it decreases from a maximum at 8 to minimum at 18 years. Mesomorphy increases regularly during adolescence in Gujjars, whereas for Tibetans it decreases from 8 to 13 years and Increases thereafter. No
regular trend for ectomorphy is observed either for Gujjars or for Tibetans. No regular spurt corresponding to the adolescent growth spurt is observed in somatotype components in either of the groups. Statistically insignificant differences are evident in inter-group age intervals. The authors, while comparing the somatotype components of their sample with comparable data from other states, conclude that the similarity of somatotype of Gujjars and Tibetans and other populations of the same area suggests the influence of regional and environmental factors.

Chadha, N.K., and Nath, S. (1994). The authors consider adolescence as a period of marked physical, physiological, and intellectual changes, and view developmental patterns as providing an understanding of the qualitative and quantitative changes taking place in individuals. They examine the influence of culture on the physical and psychological development of adolescents from two different Indian communities with common cultural, social, and biological backgrounds. The sample comprises 1023 adolescents, of whom 504 are Punjabis (227 males, 277 females) and 519 Baniyas (275 males, 244 females) between 12 and 18 years, studying in five randomly selected government schools of Delhi. Parents (N = 1952) were also asked descriptive questions and administered questionnaires relating to child rearing practices. Anthropometric measurements indicated that Punjabi females have more height, weight, lower limb length, and upper-arm circumference than Baniya females. Similarly Punjabi males have greater arm length and chest and calf circumference than Baniya males. Regarding intelligence and adjustment, Punjabis (males and- females) are higher on social and abstract intelligence (patience, co-operativeness, confidence, and sensitivity) home, educational, emotional, and overall adjustment than their counterparts. Punjabis are also more conscientious, relaxed, placid, reflective, and impulsive than Baniyas. Regarding child
rearing practices, as compared to the Baniya parents, the Punjabi were parents are more co-operative and liberal towards their children and also encourage children to express their views. The child rearing practices show a significant correlation with anthropometric measurements, intelligence, adjustment, and temperament profiles of the adolescents.

Indian Council of Medical Research (1995). Growth spurt during adolescence is considered to vary **with** particular between populations. Genetic and certain environmental particularly nutrition, influence stature and age of attainment of maturity.

A longitudinal study was conducted on children between 10 and 16 years in different parts of the country (rural and urban slums). The study is an extension of a previous study conducted five years earlier on two cohorts of children aged zero-two and five-seven years, with the latter cohort forming the present sample. The study assessed the physical growth, secondary sexual characteristics, and skeletal maturity during adolescence, and related it to the previous nutritional status of the subjects. The sample consisted of 6829 children (boys-3517, girls 312) between 10 and 12 years followed up for five years at six-month intervals. Data were collected through, household surveys on a pre-coded performa and ANOVA was applied. Results revealed that mean height and weight of both boys and girls was lower compared to affluent Indian children at all age levels. The differences were significantly more prominent in the rural areas than the urban areas. Adolescent girls were heavier than boys. Follow-up of nutritional groups using weight for age classification at ages five to seven revealed that boys and girls from all six centers of the study were taller and heavier throughout adolescence in comparison to children who had grade I, and II, malnutrition. Observations on appearance of secondary sexual characteristics revealed variations in age and order of appearance. Relationship between weight, height, and onset of menarche among girls
was observed. Age and gender differences in skeletal maturity are also presented. The association of early childhood nutritional status with subsequent growth and development and recommendations for further cross-sectional studies are discussed.

Lahiri, T., Roy, S., Basu, C., Ganguly, S., Ray, M.R., and Lahiri, P. (2000). This paper describes a comprehensive study on the lung response to ambient air pollution among school-going children in and around Calcutta, using a panel of sensitive cytological and cytochemical parameters and hematological indices. The authors used a Simple Random Sampling Without Replacement method to select a study group of 153 students (81 boys, 72 girls) from five schools of north and south Calcutta, between 6 and 17 years of age. The control group, 116 students (61 boys, 55 girls) of the same age group, was selected from rural schools in South 24-Parganas and Burdwan district. Questionnaires were administered, and sputum and blood samples were collected. About 43% of the urban children had respiratory symptoms, compared to 14% of the rural children. A significant finding of this study is the prevalence of iron-laden macrophages in the sputum of the children of Calcutta. Hematological studies revealed a large number of hypochromic red cells in both groups, but they were more pronounced in the rural group, suggesting severe iron deficiency anaemia. Among the urban children, there was a higher micronucleus count in the exposed tissues, reflecting a higher degree of genetic damage caused by air pollution.

2.6 Sexuality and reproductive health (HIV/AIDS)

Aggarwal, A.K., and Kumar, R. (1997). This study evaluated the existing level of knowledge and awareness about AIDS in IXth and Xth class students from rural and urban areas. The sample was selected from six high schools in district Ambala, Haryana (three rural and three urban area schools). Two of the schools were exclusively for girls, and the remaining
four were co-educational. A total of 336 students (58 from the IXth and 278 from the Xth class), of which 151 (45%) were from rural areas, participated in this study. Age ranged from 13 to 19 years. A closed-ended questionnaire, based on WHO recommendations for a newspaper survey and translated into the vernacular language, was administered. It had been pre-tested, modified, and again pre-tested. Results indicated a high level of knowledge about AIDS (36%-59% correct responses) considering the short time span of a campaign against AIDS in India. But misconceptions about transmission, prognosis, and prevention were also present. Rural girls had significantly low knowledge as well as misconceptions regarding AIDS than urban girls.

Jejeebhoy, S.J. (1996). The objective of the paper was to document the existing information on sexual and reproductive behavior, as well as knowledge and attitudes among the adolescent and youth population in India. Brilliantly assembled from a variety of sources, the review argues that despite the fact that adolescents represent 25% of the population, they have not been considered a distinct group till recent years, and little information is available regarding their reproductive health behavior. Nonetheless, some of the established findings are: Adolescent marriage and fertility rates are disturbingly high; adolescents face a variety of reproductive health problems; evidence suggests 20-30% of males, and up to 10% of females, are sexually active during adolescence before marriage; sexual awareness seems to be largely superficial; double standards exist (favoring boys) for boys and girls; and both married and unmarried women are vulnerable to being unprotected from pregnancy and STDs, and have no decision-making power in their sexual relationships. Several program and research recommendations stand out and are briefly elaborated upon. The program recommendations are: (1) intensify efforts to postpone early marriage; (2) address the negative health implications of the lack of
autonomy of married adolescent girls; (3) fulfill the nutritional needs of adolescent girls; (4) provide more education to adolescents on anatomy and physiology; and (5) respond more sensitively to special needs of unmarried adolescent girls and boys. The review suggests that more community-based and behavioral research be done alongside biomedical studies, giving the following recommendations priority: (i) investigate reproductive health needs and decision-making authority among married adolescent girls; (ii) investigate premarital sexual behavior, awareness, and attitudes among more representative samples of adolescent boys and girls; (iii) describe the levels, patterns, and context of abortion among both unmarried and married adolescent girls, and awareness of its legal status; (iv) conduct community-based studies of obstetric and gynecological morbidity among adolescent girls, and STDs among boys and girls; (v) investigate adolescents' access to health care and the constraints they face in acquiring good health; and (vi) use rigorous, comprehensive, and at the same time sensitive and culturally appropriate research designs to elicit data about adolescents.

Kanbargi, R., and Kanbargi, S. (1996). This exploratory study aimed (1) to collect some reliable basic data on the very private, sensitive, and neglected area of sexually transmitted diseases (STD); (2) to develop a methodology for extending the study to a larger area later; and (3) to improve understanding about patterns of sexuality in contemporary society, so as to determine the routes of STD infection. Tlu* study was based on primary data collected from STD patients visiting eight selected medical institutions (catering to all classes of .society) in Bangalore. The sample size was 286 cases (264 males, 22 females), of whom 70% were less than 30 years old and 9% were in the age range 10-19 years. A brief, simple, self-explanatory questionnaire was constructed to collect data. The socio-demographic profile of the clients revealed that (i) 70% of the cases were new and were visiting a clinic for the first time for diagnostic and curative
STD services; (ii) 85.7% were Hindus; 36.4% were educated up to high school, 26.9% up to college and university; 51.7% had low-paid jobs; and 56% were unmarried. Results on the sexual behavior of clients indicated that (iii) almost half of the male clients had first sexual intercourse by the time they were 20 years old, (iv) 78.5% of respondents reported having had a premarital sexual experience, and (v) 79.4% reported having extramarital sex. Regarding the routes of infection, (vi) commercial sex workers were the major source of infection. Finally, 92.2% of educated respondents and 42.5% of illiterate respondents were aware of the risk of STDs. Nevertheless, even the highly educated ones had not taken any precaution to protect themselves.

Mamdani, M. (1999) This paper attempts to bridge the gap between the major issues facing adolescent girls in India today and the extent to which NGOs have been able to address their reproductive health needs. The author comments that the programs have not achieved significant community coverage. Comprehensive evaluations are also lacking. The author gives an overview of the reproductive health and risks in adolescent girls and discusses major obstacles like gender norms, insufficient information to seek timely care, and inaccessibility of appropriate services faced by adolescent girls. The author also reviews the program approaches in India by NGOs like Society for Rural Education and Development (SRED) in Tamil Nadu, Social Uplift Through Rural Action (SUTRA) in Himachal Pradesh, Baroda Citizen Council (BCC), and Deepak Charitable trust and discusses the feasibility of expanding the coverage of programs within larger public health programs.

Pathak, K.B., and Ram, F. (1993). The magnitude of adolescent marriages and motherhood in India with 'consequent effects on child survival and maternal mortality is highlighted "in the paper. Insight is provided into the prevailing cultural norms in India that see early
motherhood and large family size as old-age security. Early motherhood during adolescence is associated with higher risks of abortion, widespread illiteracy, lack of awareness and accessibility of family planning methods, malnutrition, inadequate antenatal care, and societal dictates that disapprove abortion. Statistical trends from the census studies indicate that there has been a decline in the number of child marriages over the years, but adolescents are still marrying at almost the same rate, though variations occur across states. A majority of the total married women in the 10-14 year and 15-19 year age groups come from the states of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, and Uttar Pradesh. Disturbing trends are also revealed: adolescent motherhood has shown an upward swing over the past years. Elaborating on infant and maternal mortality statistics, the authors reveal that mortality rates are higher for children born to adolescent mothers, with highest maternal mortality rates in the 15-19 age group. The necessity for culturally sensitive opportunities for education, including family planning and economic activities for girls in order to delay marriage, is emphasized.

Rangaiyan, G., Babu, N.P., and Sureender, S. (1998). This paper describes the biological, social, and prevalence factors of HIV infection and its effects in India, pointing to a lack of adequate understanding about the disease. The study was planned to understand the existing knowledge and misconceptions about the transmission of HIV/AIDS. It used data from the National Family Health Survey (NFHS), which was conducted from December 1992 to June 1993. Information was collected from a representative sample (total 9772) of ever-married women, 13-49 years of age, in Arunachal Pradesh (882), Manipur (953), Meghalaya (1,137), Mizoram (1,045), Nagaland (1,149), Tripura (1,100) and Assam (3,006). The authors found that (1) overall, only 31.1% of the women in these seven states were aware of AIDS, with Mizoram having maximum awareness in
84.8% of women and Assam having a minimum awareness in only 8.4% of women; (2) only about 13% of women in these states did not have any misconceptions regarding HIV transmission, with correct knowledge seen in a mere 3% of women in Manipur and (the highest) 42.3% of women in Nagaland; (3) the Christian women as compared to Hindu and Muslim women and the ones from economically low backgrounds had significantly higher misconceptions regarding HIV/AIDS transmission, whereas the scheduled caste/tribe women from rural areas, those having a higher level of education, and those exposed to the cinema had significantly fewer misconceptions regarding HIV/AIDS, (4) sexual intercourse was the most commonly known mode of contracting HIV infection (mentioned by 72% of women), and only about 31% mentioned infected needles/blades/skin puncture as the mode of HIV/AIDS transmission, although it has been established as the major route of transmission in these states.

Reddy, B.S. (1984), Viewing age at menarche as a crucial Indicator of sexual maturity among females, the author points out related studies suggesting that onset of first menstruation is influenced by multifaceted factors (SES, ecological conditions, genetic background, moral and psychic environment). The study assessed the role of SES, food habits, and regional variations in influencing the onset of menarche. Subjects (N=498 women) from six endogamous groups (shepherds, two groups of agriculturists, fishermen, scheduled caste, and basket-making tribe) spread over four villages in Karnataka provided the data. Except for one group of agriculturists, all the groups were non-vegetarian. Data were collected by recording information available from various sources such as village elders, close relatives, neighbors, midwives, and women health inspectors. Their opinion was taken because of the prevailing rituals in the tribes where festivities mark the onset of puberty of a girl. Analysis revealed that a majority of the women in the study experienced menarche between and 13
years (mean age 12.56 years). Girls belonging to agriculturist, fishing and shepherd communities attained sexual maturity earlier than those from scheduled castes and the basket-making tribe. Women belonging to a higher income group and following a vegetarian diet attain sexual maturity significantly earlier than those from a lower income and non-vegetarian group. Regional comparisons suggest that women from Eastern India and Karnataka attain sexual maturity earlier than women from Northern and Western India, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, and Andhra Pradesh.

Verma, R.K., Surender, S., and Guruswamy, M. (1997). The study was carried out with selected students and teachers from 18 randomly chosen schools of rural Maharashtra. Focus group discussions were conducted on AIDS, sex and sexuality, sex education, and role of "teachers in providing AIDS related information. Male and female teachers participated together in the discussion, whereas separate student groups were formed for boys and girls. Results showed unawareness of AIDS among most of the students. Most of the teachers showed unwillingness to discuss sex-related topics with the students.

2.7 Behaviour problem

Dhoundiyal, V. (1984). This study analyzed the effect of home environment on the emotional disturbance of adolescents. The sample consisted of rural and urban school-going adolescents belonging to the age group of 13-19 years, from Almora District, U.P. India. 15 rural and urban intermediate colleges were selected randomly, and 276 emotionally disturbed adolescents (EDAs) were identified with the help of the Emotional Disturbance Inventory (EDI). The home environment of the EDAs was assessed through a Home Environment Scale (HES), which measured their home environment along 7 dimensions, and thus the EDAs were divided into three groups: good, average, and poor home environments. Significantly more EDAs (37.32%) came from a poor home
environment. In four, dimensions out of seven - (i) affection and care, (n) facilities in home, (iii) sharing; of ideas, trust and decision making, (iv) harmony among family members - approximately more than 50% of EDAs belonged to poor home categories. In general, the quality of home environment was a significant factor contributing to adolescents' emotional disturbance.

Gupta, M. and Gupta, P. (1978). Areas of adolescent problems and the relationship between them. Indian Psychological Review, 6 (3-4), 1-4. 500 college girls (between 14 and 18 years of age) in Lucknow were administered the many Problems Checklist (Indian adaptation). A maximum number of problems were observed in social, school, and emotional areas, and there was a positive correlation between the different areas of adjustment.


Gupta, M., and Gupta, P.(1979). The researchers administered the many Problems Checklist (Indian adaptation) to 500 college girls (14-18 years of age). The only area in which early and late adolescent girls differed significantly was the personal-psychological relation. The girls were least concerned about courtship, sex, and marriage.

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Gupta, M., and Gupta, P. (1980). A group of 500 adolescent girls (between 14 and 18 years of age) were administered the Indian version (a quantitative dimension was added) of the Mooney Problems Checklist. Adolescence was observed to be a period of calm transition from childhood to maturity. The most prominent problem areas were social, personal, and school related. Areas of least concern were physique and health, courtship, sex, and marriage.

Sarkar, A.B., Kapur, M., and Kaliaperumal, V.G. (1995). This cross-sectional study aimed to (1) understand the prevalence of psychological disturbances, (2) highlight the school-related factors associated with these disturbances, and (3) bring out the various profiles of disturbances in schoolchildren. The sample consisted of 408 boys and girls in the age group of 8-11 years, studying in grades III to VI, taken from two English medium co-educational schools of Bangalore. The study was carried out in two stages. In the first stage, the class teachers of all 408 students were asked to fill the Child Behavior Questionnaire (Rutter's Proforma A and B) for screening the children as psychologically disturbed or undisturbed. In the second stage, a sample of 36 students was selected, 18 each from the disturbed and the non-disturbed groups and matched by age and sex. Their teachers were given the Achenbach's Child Behavior Checklist (Teacher Report form) for obtaining the profiles of children's behavior. Findings: (i) 10.54% of the children were disturbed, forming the "disturbed group", and the rest formed the "non-disturbed group"; (ii) the disturbed group children had no significant age and gender differences, and a high- percentage amongst them (67.44%) exhibited antisocial behavior; (iii) there was a significant relationship between poor educational performance and psychological disturbances of children. Further,
consistency was noted in poor performance over the years, indicating an ongoing problem; (iv) the disturbed group of children had significantly more learning difficulties; (v) a larger percentage of children classified as disturbed according to Rutter's scale were recommended for psychological help by teachers when compared to non-disturbed children; (vi) disturbed students were significantly higher on such subscales as unpopular, self-destructive, and inattentive; (vii) the disturbed group had significantly more externalization problems than the non-disturbed group. Boys had more externalization problems than girls, whereas girls had more internalization problems, Rutter's scale was found to have low sensitivity for tapping internalization problems. The implications of this study should be considered for further understanding of the various psychological problems occurring in the middle childhood period in India.

Sood, N., and Misra, G. (1995). The study assessed the relationship of problem behavior in children with three components of home environment; physical, affective, and intellectual. The association of the variables - type, size, and income of the family; prolonged absence of father; and parental discord - to problem behavior were also determined. The sample of 375 children (boys: 201, girls: 174) aged 6-11 years (Mean = 8.40) was drawn from three public schools. The measures used included a background information schedule, Home Environment Observation Schedule, and Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL). Problem behavior was reported highest in the age range of 10-11 years. A 5X2 factorial age x gender ANOVA performed on the total CBCL reported boys to have a significantly greater number of problems than girls. Some of the commonly occurring behavior in children of both sexes included being argumentative, hyperactivity, lack of concentration, stubbornness and demanding a lot of attention. Problem behavior such as somatic complaints, obsessive-compulsive behavior pattern, and lower levels of warmth were more
prevailed among children living in poor physical conditions and poor intellectual climates. Results also indicate that depression is more likely among children from lower socioeconomic status families, joint/extended families, families where fathers are absent, and families where parents have a discordant relationship. Further research is suggested in the area of interactions variables that cause problem behavior in children.

2.8 Family, parental beliefs, and practices

Alim, F. (1994). The study examines the problems of parents of adolescents. The sample selection comprising 50 couples is based on the following criteria: (1) parents having children in the age range of 17-21 years; (2) parents with at least one boy and one girl; and (3) parents in the income range of Rs. 4000 - 6000 per month. The check list method is used for the present study. Data analysis shows that there are no significant differences between the problems of fathers (38%) and mothers (42%) with regard to sons, but with regard to daughters, it shows a significant difference (fathers 6% and mothers 12%). A majority of fathers have problems with both of their adolescent children, with most of the mothers have more problems with their adolescent daughters. The study shows that problems arose with regard to hair style, clothing and food habits. Socially, parents have problems with their adolescent children's choice of friends, their refusal to participate high social activities, and their quarreling with siblings.

Dixit R.C and Vishnoi, P.L. (1980) Suggests that the increase in the number of working mothers in recent generations has an effect on family relationships. Findings from a study with 366 female children (13-17 years of age) are presented, which suggest that daughters of employed mothers are higher in masculinity (as measured by the MMPI) than the daughters of unemployed mothers. The results suggest that employed mothers are largely perceived by their daughters as neglecting, rejecting, and punishing, whereas the unemployed ones are perceived as protecting, rewarding, and
loving. Various situational factors have been noted that may lead to the development of masculinity in girls due to their mothers' employment and their perception of them as punishing.


Kanitkar, S.D. (1996). The present work is undertaken by FPAI, Pune Branch, to study gender discrimination as perceived by young girls within their own families, in relation to education, health care, social restrictions and performing household chores, and future educational pursuits and career plans. The sample comprises of 200 girls students from VIIIth, IXth, and Xth standards in the age range of 13-15 yrs. A pre-tested questionnaire is used to obtain data. The major findings are as follows: A majority of the girls (78%) mention the advantages of being a girl (rather than the disadvantages) though 53% of the subjects express discontent regarding restrictions. As compared to brothers, about 95% of girls enjoy equal educational opportunities. Equality in health care and food is almost universal. About half the number face restrictions within and outside the house and about 15% say that they did not have the freedom to go out of the house, on outings, movies, and with friends. About one third of the subjects feel that cooking and cleaning should be done by both, boys and girls, whereas a greater proportion are of the view that other household tasks such as sweeping, fetching water etc. should be shared. Eighty percent opine that care of siblings should be shared by both. Likewise 70% opine that outdoor work should also be shared by both. An interesting contrast is seen in the observation that even though specific household chores are considered
gender specific, in real life, both boys and girls perform or help out in most of the household tasks.

Kapadia, S., and Shah, R. (1998). The purpose of the study is to identify the strengths and weaknesses of Indian families as perceived by the family members themselves. A sample of 30 families (15 joint and 15 nuclear) from high, middle and low SES are selected. A total of 105 individuals are interviewed using an open-ended interview schedule developed to obtain information on respondents perceptions regarding: (1) structural and functional changes; (2) strengths of families; and (3) weaknesses of families. The highest percent of responses express changes related to family structure and life style (48.2%) and changes related to children. A higher percent of elderly express change from narrow to broad mindedness and decrease in gender discrimination. As regard strengths of the family, the perceptions of the respondents mainly include aspects related to children (22.7%) strong bond and affection (21.7%). The most important strength perceived by the women is unity in a joint family. Interestingly, women also consider marital happiness and having minimum disputes as the major strengths of the family. To a great extent, the weaknesses expressed have been in terms of lack or absence of aspects identified as strengths. Response's related to sources of personal happiness and important values in life, particularly reflect the privacy of the family for the respondents.

Sidhu, K., and Singh, M.B. (1987). The authors review literature that suggests adolescents as more accepting of the peer norms than the family norms. Their increased need for independence in the context of adult monitored family environment poses conflicting situations. In the Indian scenario, greater restrictions are expected to be placed on the daughters by their mothers. The study examined the mother-daughter conflicts as related to age, birth order, family size, and mothers' age, education and occupation.
The sample comprised 64 randomly selected girls (16-19 years). A self-structured interview schedule gathered information regarding select demographic variables, and a multiple-choice scale assessed the mother-daughter conflicts in the areas of independence, academic achievement, household chores, selection of clothes, and religion. Results using t-test indicate that the mean scores of younger adolescent girls (16-17 years) are higher than the older adolescents (18-19 years) for mother-daughter conflicts, with the younger girls reporting greater conflicts with their mothers. Also greater conflicts are indicated where the mothers are less educated as compared to their well-educated counterparts, and for the adolescents coming from large families as compared to those coming from small families. No differences emerged for birth order, younger/older mothers, and employed/un-employed mothers with regard to mother-daughter conflicts. The need for parent education and sensitizing the mothers to understand the adolescents' needs to foster a healthy personality is discussed.

Singh, J.G., and Thapar, G. (1984). This study purports to enquire into the difference in the influence of value patterns of parents in business, government service, and profession, and whether the value pattern of children does get influenced by the parents. The study is conducted on a sample of 60 students and their 120 parents (60 fathers and 60 mothers). The students, in the age range of 18-24 years, are divided sex-wise and into three groups depending on the father's occupation, The study of values by Allport, Vernon and Lindzey, adapted to Indian population of students (Singh, 1974) is used."The findings reveal significant influences of parental values on the theoretical, social and political values of their children. Further, the findings indicate that parents belonging to occupational groups, like business and profession, tend to influence their children more than the parents from government service.
Goyal G., Khan, R., and Gupta, L. (1991) The present study compares the extent of participation of adolescents of the rural and the urban areas in household activities and examines their attitude towards these activities. The sample comprised 200 high school students from the urban and the rural areas in the age group of 16-21 years. A self-structured questionnaire gathered information related to the extent of participation of the adolescents in the household activities (such as pre-cooking, cooking, and post cooking activities; clothing, housekeeping activities; care of family members, social activities; purchase of household provision and money management activities). The attitude of the respondents towards homemaking activities was assessed using the Attitude Scale (Kelear, 1934). The demographic information reveals that a majority of the sample belonged to the middle income group and i.e. from nuclear families with five or less than five members. The results further indicate that the extent of participation of the rural adolescents is higher than the urban adolescents in almost all the household activities. A majority of the sample, in both the urban and the rural areas, has a favorable attitude towards the household activities. A significant association emerged between the mother's occupation and the extent of participation of the girls in the household activities. Correlation values are positive and significant for the age of the respondents and the extent of participation.

Singh, J., and Dhillon, S. (1998) Viewing education as a means of change and mobility, the authors examine the representation of educationally backward sections of society in an institute of higher education. The changing attitude of girls towards occupational aspirations, marriage, family, and social environment is also studied. The sample consists of randomly selected 50 girl students in the 19-23 years age group. The data is collected using an interview schedule and is compared with an earlier study conducted at the same place, using the same method, seventeen
years ago (1977). Results reveal an over representation of girls from urban, upper/middle social class, upper castes, with poor access to lower class/caste students from rural areas. Students belong to families with well-educated parents with few coming from agricultural households. Comparison between the two studies highlights changes in the value orientation of girls in the areas of vocational aspirations, marriage, family, decision making power and higher education goals. The authors conclude that there is evidence of change at the level of ideas, however, it is not accompanied by behavioral transformation. Higher education is increasingly expensive and contributes to social mobility in a limited sense. Despite the new education policy for making education more accessible, institutes of higher education do not act as agents of social change and equality.

Kothari, S., and Choudhary, M. (1995). This study examines the effect of television programs on the students emotional, creative, educational, moral and social behavior. An equal number of girls and boys (25 each) from classes VIII, X, and XII are randomly selected. A questionnaire, related to television programs (100. questions), specifically developed for this study by the researchers, was administered. The results of this study indicate that television programs have more negative and less positive effects on viewers. The researchers conclude with some suggestions for promoting the positive effect of T.V. programs on viewers.

Mayuri, & Mohite, P. (1992). His study has the following objectives: (1) to study the T.V. viewing pattern among children in terms of duration and content, and with reference to family activities, study habits and leisure time activities; and (2) to study age and gender differences (if any) with reference to duration and content watched. A purposive sample of 60 children of both genders, divided equally across three age ranges (6-7.11 years, 8-9.11 years, 10-11 years), from two schools in Baroda, was selected.
One parent of each of these children was also included in the sample (total 120 respondents). Respondents belonged to middle and upper-middle SES, and had a T.V. in their homes for at least five years. Interview schedules for children and parents, focused group interviews and observations, were used as tools of assessment. Although boys watched more T.V. than girls, results reveal no statistically significant age or gender differences in T.V. viewing patterns of children. With reference to personal-social variables, results indicate a reduction in family communication, but an increase in family togetherness with T.V. viewing. T.V. is the most favored leisure time activity. Children spend more time studying than viewing T.V., and plan their study time to suit transmission timings.

Sultana, A., and Handique, M. (1998, January-March). Considering the positive and negative influence of television on children the present study investigates age and gender differences in television viewing pattern of high school students (N= 120) in the age group 10-11 years and 14-15 years. A questionnaire related to background information and statements pertaining to televiewing pattern was used. The results reveal that a majority of the children, regardless of age and gender, viewed and discussed programs on TV with their parents and friends and made adjustments study time to suit TV viewing. They also viewed TV as a source of entertainment and a minority of them viewed it for information since they found informative programs difficult to comprehend (lower age group). The social interactions and play activities of the children in lower age group also decreased due to TV viewing. A majority of the children from the upper age group had a strong sense of identification with the main character being shown and they viewed TV as a source of entertainment and information. Gender differences are evident in secondary activities while televiewing, with girls combining more activities than boys and a comparatively higher percentage of girls obeying their parents regarding carrying out other chores.
while viewing television. Authors caution against the negative impact of televiewing such as decreased social interaction, negative role models, and escapism from reading, playing, and exercise on children.

2.9 Education and Schooling

Misra, K.S. (1983). This investigation, is an attempt to explore the relationship between intellectual performance and various aspects of home and school environments. The sample consisted of 98 girls studying in classes XI and XII of four schools situated in Manipuri, Agra, and Kanpur districts. Home environment inventory and school environment inventory (Misra, 1981), and Jalota's group test of general mental ability was used to collect relevant data. Analysis of data suggested that, cognitive encouragement, creative stimulation acceptance, and permissiveness in the school environment, correlated positively with intellectual performance, and a significant positive relationship existed between intellectual performance and four aspects of perceived home environment, viz. decreasing levels of social isolation and punishment and increasing levels of nurturance and reward.

Deb M. and Nanda P. (1989) This study was undertaken to find out the differences in the attitude of rural and urban students towards school, and the sex differences in their attitude. Class X students of both sexes (n = 160), were randomly selected from four government schools of Ludhiana district as sample. The instrument used was Gopal Rao's School Attitude Inventory, with 30 items depicting five major areas, namely attitudes towards teachers, school, and school program, attitude related to social acceptance, and parental attitude towards school as perceived by the pupils. Results concluded that urban students had more positive attitudes than the rural ones but both urban and rural parents showed a positive attitude towards school as reported by pupils. Boys indicated a more positive attitude towards teachers than girls, while girls differed significantly in their
attitude towards school programs. No sex differences were noticed in other aspects.

Kalia, A.K., and Mathur, S.S. (1985). The main objectives of the present study were: (1) to compare seven six values (viz. theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political and religious) of adolescents studying in high, moderate and low socio-economic status (SES) schools, and (2) to find out differences among adolescents with respect to these values. Fourteen schools of Chandigarh city were administered the School Socioeconomic Status (SSES) scale and classified into the three categories of schools. The sample comprised of 454 adolescents (14-17 years old) selected randomly from class DC, X and XI. The scale adapted by Kulshreshtha (in Hindi) to Indian conditions was used to measure the relative prominence of the six values mentioned earlier. Results indicated that the adolescents studying in different types of schools showed distinct patterns of values. Specifically, (i) on the theoretical value, adolescents from high SES schools scored significantly higher mean scores than the moderate SES and low SES school adolescents, (ii) on the economic value, adolescents from low and moderate SES scored significantly higher mean scores than the high SES adolescents with the maximum economic value score seen in the low SES adolescents, and (iii) the adolescents from high SES schools were found significantly higher on social values than were those from low SES.

Sharma, S. and Pathania, R. (1997). Describing the goal of education to bring about social, economic, and cultural transformation, the study assessed the attitude of students towards education. The sample consisted of 140 students studying in classes VIII, IX and X. Attitude Scale Towards Education (Chopra, 1982) was administered to the students. Results indicated that a majority of the students were of the view that education was important and useful in life. Other salient features emerging were that, students were interested in education and considered education to be
important for character building, good citizenship, and for the maintenance of cultural values. They also felt that illiteracy was the main cause of the prevailing social evils. Approximately half of the sample of students preferred leisure time activities to education, whereas the rest preferred education, to leisure time activities (45%). One fourth of the students also maintained the view that after getting education, people started disrespecting their elders. Results are discussed with reference to similar findings of other research studies conducted.

2.10 School environment

Anand, S.P. (1992). This research was undertaken to analyze school organizationa] climates in government and missionary run schools. It included 410 class X students (226 boys and 184 girls) of four schools numbers I, II, HI; and IV. The first three were run by different Government of India organizations, and school IV was run by a missionary organization. The investigator developed his own school organizational climate (SOC) Inventory, similar to a Likert type inventory, with 100 statements. Results showed that the mean values of SOCs differ significantly from each other. School III (53.36%) fell significantly below the desirable climate levels prevailing in schools I (64.98%), II (74.13%), and IV (68.71%). Examining the students perception of the SOC in their respective schools, 70% students of the school with the lowest SOC score (53.36%), found their school climate not good at all. The results also indicated that the principal plays a vital role in establishing a desirable SOC. As a whole, all the generators of organizational climates (students, teachers, principal, administration and services) count towards the significant difference which was found to exist in the levels of desirable organizational climates in the four schools of this study.
2.11 Adjustment and coping

Albuquerque, Z.M., Rao, K., Rao, S. Subbakrishna, D.K., and Plaohu, G.G. (1990). Coping has been defined as an action taken to buffer the deleterious effects of a stressful situation, resulting in problem solving or emotion regulation. The present study examined gender differences in the coping behaviors among college students, in times of stress. The sample comprised of 421 students (mean age =18.84 years) selected through purposive sampling. The tools used were a Socio-demographic data sheet, and The Coping Checklist (Rao, Subbakrishna and Prabhu, 1989) that gathered information related to the coping behavior of respondents in stressful situations. The undergraduates enrolled in four co-education colleges were predominantly single, Hindu, and from urban, middle-class, nuclear families. Results indicated that, college students frequently reported using problem-focused strategies (direct attempt made at understanding the problem and trying to resolve it) followed by the emotion regulating function behavior (also referred to as wishful thinking). The coping behavior infrequently reported was resorting to drugs, alcohol, and sex. Chi-square test indicated distinct coping strategies for males and females. Males reported the use of a problem solving action while females tended to focus on creating new sources of satisfaction. The way males and females sought emotional discharge also differed, as was evident, with the females reporting strategies such as crying, and going for shopping, and the males reporting behavior such as resorting to smoking, adjustment scale (bhat and Gauba1978). Mothers furnished information on the effect of disability on the family, Findings indicated a multi-dimensional stress on families of disabled children. Financial burden increased and family routine, leisure, interaction, marital harmony, and the physical and mental health of family member were adversely affected. Mothers of disabled children had increased neuroticism. Poliomyelitis paralysis and asphyxia cerebral palsy
were the most common disabilities in the PD and MR groups, respectively. Most of the MR children had an IQ of 35-49 score.

2.12 Policy and Programs

Commonwealth Youth Program (1998). The manual provides an informative background for trainers dealing in family life education for youth. The aims of the manual are visualized as being able to provide young people a positive transition to healthy adulthood, to promote responsible behavior regarding various facets of their life including interpersonal relationships, emotional and spiritual well-being, and a sense of belongingness with the family. The manual also provides crucial points to the trainers for initial rapport-building sessions with the students, stressing on adaptation, building a conducive atmosphere, proper utilization of effective communication tools, and the maintenance of confidentiality. The Family Life Education Program has been envisioned to provide the youth with the physiological and psychological concepts of basic family needs, information regarding sexual and reproductive health, and the expected changes taking place during the pre-adolescent and adolescent stages, both in boys and girls. The program provides guidelines to the youth for the need to make proper decisions for married life in adulthood, including the need for tolerance, maturity and commitment between both the partners. The essentials of responsible parenthood and proper family planning methods have been stressed along with information on the risks of acquiring sexually transmitted diseases. The activity oriented and participative scope of the manual provides scientific database that can help in clearing the misconceptions and myths prevalent during the period of adolescence.

Hans, G. (1994) This paper discusses the preventive health education needs of the young people (16-22 years) as it is felt that a program in lifestyle education would be well received during late adolescence. The section on student profile summarizes the findings of studies Healing with
student values and problems as indicative of their social, mental and physical well-being. These studies highlight that students' experience of anxiety and stress in their personal, social and college environment adversely influence their own health. Studies on health services indicate need for student guidance services to reduce this stress of frustration and insecurity. Where health programs exist in universities, they broadly emphasize physical health and treatment, though some also take care of preventive health. The author proposes a strategy for health and lifestyle education for students, pinpointing it's objectives, structure, and activity components. The details of specific activity components are described under the headings life skills program, student advisory service, consultancy services, access to health information, and college environment for good health. In the proposed strategy, there is a redefinition of the teachers' role/functions; the supportive inputs (training and materials) are also discussed in the end.

Kanani, S. (1998). This is a report of a two-day camp organized by a voluntary organization, Baroda Citizens Council in collaboration with the Departments of Foods and Nutrition and Human Development and Family Studies, Faculty of Home Science, M.S. University of Baroda. Thirty-nine adolescent girls (10-19 year old) from the slums (Akota, Rampura and Gotri) of Baroda participated. The main objective was to provide to the girls a group-based experiential learning, and an opportunity to share their thoughts and feelings informally in a safe and secure environment. The paper presents highlights of the sessions, which covered topics like: Knowing my body (reproductive systems), what is a nourishing diet, and socialization and gender differences within families. Evaluation revealed that all the girls enjoyed the experience and benefited tremendously from it.

Khan, A.A. (1998) This paper highlights the key issues concerning adolescents, and interventions undertaken by Prerana to tap their resources
for participatory development. The author believes that adolescence, the transition period between childhood and adulthood, connotes contradiction, necessitating a more focused, specific intervention, allowing adolescents a smooth passage through this period of societal neglect and strict regulation. For more effective interventions, programs have to be directed towards both male and female adolescents. The first noteworthy event in this direction was the South Asian Regional Conference held at Kathmandu, Nepal (1987, December), followed by the Options for a Better Life for Young Women, launched by the Centre for Development and Population Activities (CEDPA). Prerana formalized its efforts with the initiation of the Better Life Program with CJ DPA in India (1987). A South Asia Policy Advisory Group was organized, and NGO participation encouraged, through a workshop entitled Strategy Development for Better Opportunities for the Girl Child (1990, April). The paper gives a summary of some ongoing projects and details the goals, strategies and approaches, highlights, and achievements of Prerana's adolescent program, which includes a Better Life Demonstration Project for Girls and Young Women, and a parallel Better Life Development Program for Boys and Young Men.

Pandey, J., Yadav, S.B., and Sadhu, K.K. (1999). The present handbook based on the National Population Education Project, deals with some of the critical issues that have been raised with regards to adolescence education and pursues to promote the process of adolescence education. The package contains six booklets. In the introductory booklet a profile of Indian adolescents is presented that raises crucial issues concerning literacy rates, reproductive health behavior, drug-abuse, gender issues, and rising crime rates. A need for educational intervention to provide accurate knowledge has been cited as the rationale behind the package. The introductory package also provides details regarding the training design for personnel and teachers educators. Areas such as need assessment study, pre-
test, sessions, and post-test have been elaborated upon. In part I of the handbook the theoretical

2.13 Theories related to structural functionalism of adolescence girls.

Structural Functionalism Theory: Structural functionalism has its roots in the work of early sociologists, especially Durkheim and Weber. Among contemporary scholars, it is most closely associated with the work of Talcott Parsons (1951), Marx Robert Merton Malinowski and Radcliffe Brown. It is the dominant theoretical view in sociology today.

The term structure and functions refer to the two separate but closely related concepts. Structure can be compared to the organs or part of the body of an animal and functions can be compared with the purposes of these structures. Like a biological structure, a social system is composed of many interrelated and interdependent parts of structure with specific functions.

Marx himself was quite explicitly aware that he was conceiving the social system as a functionally interdependent set of parts in this way and had quite clear definitions of nature of a society in his work.

Structural functional school of thought was the network of permanent and enduring social relationship these relationships are distinct from individual relationships.

When two individuals have a relationship where each expects something from the other their behavior is predictable and social behavior is thus an expected and organized behavior. It is defined by the social norms and given sanction by society.
Herbert Spencer (1820-1903) viewed that a society is made up of different parts, all of which have to work in order to remain healthy, meet the demands of the environment and survive.

The structure functionalist perspective delineates the way in which the different structures are coordinated and integrated to preserve the unity of society as a complete system. When different parts are coordinated and integrated structure will remain functional deviations do not take place. When, structure is changed its function is also affected.

**Marxist Feminism:** According to Marxist feminists, women’s status and functions are accounted under class system, which is a determinant force. They make distinctions between women’s statuses of bourgeois class and proletarian class stating that the bourgeois women do not experience the kind of oppressions similar to that of proletarian women’s experience under capitalism. They explain that the means of subsistence produced by men alone make them human and not the human nature. Individuals are engaged in productive activities like agriculture and construction in order to meet the basic needs. In every culture, women’s work is seen as less valuable than men’s work women will continue to engage in the same old domestic work outside the home even if her domestic work is socialized. It miserly a shift from home outside, but the nature of work will be there the same.

Marxist feminists are concerned with how capitalism describes the nature and functions of women’s work as trivial and how capitalism regards women as mere consumers of goods commodities, which means men’s role is to earn wags while women’s role is to spend it especially on the products of capitalist industry women’s oppression and second status in the home and outside.

**Socialist Feminism:** According to them, the root cause of the lower status of the women lies in the family. The family is the result of the private
property means of production. Therefore, the private property means of production. Therefore, complete equality of women is possible when private property as the means of production is abolished.

Women did not always occupy an inferior place throughout primitive society, specially in tribal collectivism women were the equal of men and recognized by man as such.

**Socialist view:** Those who took up the theory of patriarchy from this point of view are all consciously socialist feminists because they began from a partial acceptance of Marxism, an awareness of class oppression and a concern for revolutionary change. At the same time as they took up the feminist awareness of Marxism’s inadequacies and the new issues brought forward in women’s movement on the one hand they criticized traditional Marxists focus on economic class struggle. On the other hand, insights of the radical feminists and the domestic labour debate, which included both sexual psychological cultural issues and a new version of economic tended at first to take a dualistic approach, looking at male and female roles as conditioned by a set of dichotomies, wage labour domestic labour public, private, productive reproductive Zillah Einstein’s work best typified this dualism.

Socialist feminist’s historical materialism is not defined in terms os relations of production without understanding its connection to the relations that arise from women’s sexuality, the relations of reproduction. And the ideological formulation of these relations is the key. The stress on ideology was new both in comparisons to the radical feminists, who had emphasized sex and force, as well as the Marxists domestic labour. It apparently comes out of Marxist tradition, but not simply out of a Marxism that relegated women to the superstructure, but out of a Marxism that was itself in the process of developing towards a new stress on cultural ideological factor.
However, these two elements were not really integrated in Eisenstein’s theory. It gave a name to structures and relations of male domination and asserted their importance along with class relations in understanding society.

**Radical Feminism:** Today, the radical feminists have replaced the struggle for vote and for legal reform with the demand for the destruction of patriarchy. They believe that society is primarily divided on the basis of sex rather than class. Their view is that women’s subjugation is due to sexual oppression by men. Male supremacy is the oldest, most basis of domination. All other forms of exploitation and oppression such as racism, capitalism, imperialism, to mention a few, are extensions of male supremacy. Men dominate women, a few men dominate the rest hence, the battle liners are drowning between men and women, rather than between the bourgeois and the proletarian and the determining relations are the relations of reproduction.

The radical feminists identify patriarchy as an autonomous historical fact more rooted in biology than in economy and hence, they consider gender relations to be fundamental forms of oppression. They see patriarchy as men’s control over women’s fertility. A more important contention of the radical feminists is that patriarchal system is preserved via marriage and the family through sexual division of labour in the society. Patriarchy is rooted in biology and the battle lines are drawn between men and women.( Desai and Maithreyi 1987).

Engel’s saw the system of patriarchy as historically the structure of domination and submission. the feminists see patriarchy as a system that still continuous to be the most pervasive and ensuring system of inequality, the basic societal model of domination. They point that it is through participation in patriarchy that men happen to learn how to hold other
human beings in concept, to see them as non human, and control them. They add that it is within patriarchy that men see and women learn what subordination looks like. Patriarchy creates guilt and depression, sadism and masochist, manipulation and deception all of which drive men and women to other forms of tyranny. To them, patriarchy is the least noticed and yet the most significant social structure of inequality. They view the system of patriarchy as violence practiced by men and male domination against women.

2.14 Conceptual framework

Over the major part of the history of mankind, females have remained a neglected lot. However, the developments taking place in the recent past show that adequate emphasis has begun to be laid on their development and welfare. Among them, the issues and debates relating to the girl children have occupied the centre stage. The adolescent girls, who constitute a very significant part of the female population, have also attracted attention and the society has started to show concern towards their needs and problems. Various national and international organizations have focused their attention on the girl children in a number of ways.

One of the earlier attempts to lay down the guidelines to recognize the needs of the child was made by United Nations. It was in the form of the declaration of the right of the child that was unanimously adopted by the General Assembly of the UN on 20th November 1959. The needs envisaged in the declaration were clearly spelt keeping in view the physical and mental immaturity of the child and its incapability to state all the needs itself. These needs included the civic status (name and the nationality) at birth maternal protection, love and understanding at home adequate provision for food, shelter, health, education, play and recreation and social protection.
The declaration by the UN was followed by an attempt for amelioration of the condition of the girl children. The year 1990 was declared as International year of the Girl child. It was also declared as Year of the girl child in a South Asian Association for regional co-operation (SAARC) workshop held in New Delhi in September, 1990. Later, in another meeting held at Male, the capital of Maldives islands, 1990s were declared as the SAARC Decade of the Girl child. Her well-being and status in the family, community and the nation became the focal point of concern. The convention concentrated on three main areas: i) the right to live means adequate food, water, health care, and shelter, ii) the right to develop one’s potential, which could be realized through education, freedom of information and expression, and freedom of conscience and religion, and iii) protection against violence, abuse, and exploitation of all forms (Karkal 1991). Efforts have also been made at the international level to feel concern for the girls and accordingly, attention has been focused on the girl children. For the first time, in 1990, a large number of world leaders placed and 72 heads of states from different countries met at UN exclusively for the cause of child survival and development. The two-day meeting was held in September, 1990 and considered a large number of measures to tackle the different problems threatening the survival of the child at the international level. According to, Executive director of United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund (UNICEF), the gathering of world leaders was not an end, but a great beginning towards an attempt for child survival.

The adolescents feel neglected as they are neither recognized as children nor adults. The World Health Organization (WHO) has recognized this double neglect and planned strategies through its working paper “Adolescent’s Health and Development: the Key to future which was presented to WHO Global commission on women’s Health in Washington in 1994. The international conference on population and development
(ICPD) held at Cairo in September, 1994 also emphasized upon promoting equality between sexes through education and the provision of an enabling environment for women. Similar views were expressed at the world’s biggest women conference held in Beijing in July 1995.

Out of the total population of 1.027 billion people (2001 Census) in India, females are only 48.28 percent giving a sex-ratio of 933 per 1,000 males. Out of this female population, the girls below 14 years of age were 39.54 percent. It has also been observed that at birth as well as up to the age of 14 years the number of girls has been higher as compared to boys.

Indian society is typically patrilineal and patriarchal, where a male child is preferred because he is supposed to perpetuate the family name and without whom the ancestors would not rest in peace after death. He is also preferred for the reason that when parents get old, he will look after them. The daughters, in this respect, are put in a disadvantageous position, because the parents, bound by cultural traditions, do not accept any help from them once they are married off. After marriage the girls form a part of the household of their husbands. Therefore, in the process of upbringing and in terms of nutritional food, health and educational facilities they come only next to the boys.

Socially too, girls and females are relegated to the lower position. This is also corroborated by Levin son(1981) who observed that among jats of rural Punjab the most significant determinant of nutritional status is sex. In other world child’s sex per se would more consistently account for variation in the nutritional status then any of other variables. In terms of medical care also, females evoke less medical care. The patriarchal bias against females has also been highlighted by ligam(1991) and Miller. It is reflected in the form of practice of female infanticide neglect of female children with respect to access to health service and nutrition neglect in
education (mankekar, 1985) and the sexual abuse of girls (Bhalerao 1985).
It has also been observed that with the increase in educational level, the
drop-out rate of girls from schools also increases (kharbanda 1990). Even in
the contemporary India, the practice of child marriage is being followed
with impunity (kaur 1990).

Many attempts have been made to protect the girls and the women
from discrimination and social malpractices. In pre-independence period in
1872, due to the efforts of Raja Ram Mohan Roy, the civil marriage Act
was passed. Again, in 1929 legislation on child marriage was passed. This
was known as the sharda act of 1929, which restricted the marriage of girls
and boys to 14 and 18 years of age respectively. Again in 1949 the age of
marriage for girls was fixed at 15 years. The child marriage restraint Act,
1978 re-fixed this age for girls at 18 years and for boys at 21 years. Some
other national policies also took care of the children in one or the other
form.

In order to generate awareness, to create awakening, and to
disseminate knowledge among girls a number of seminars, conferences and
workshops have also provided a common platform to discuss the problems
of the adolescent girls.

In a seminar cum workshop organized by diocese of Delhi (church of
North India) on 15th December, 1990 participants showed concern for the
girl child and emphasized upon the need to allow girl child to grow as a
person and not as a girl or a liability. The girl children in the age group of
14-16 complained that in their homes, they were kept out of any decision
making even if it was a matter of their concern. They envied their brothers
who were given more free dome of action and movement. Even their have
been efforts to remove this sex bias in government policy formulations and
implementation former union deputy minister for child and women
development, told the press Trust of India on 5th September, 1990 that there would be a campaign to remove the sex bias so that a girl child is accepted on equal terms with boys.

Earlier the Government of India adopted a national policy for children in 1974 which emphasized upon the child welfare services for ensuring proper environment and facilities for all the children in the country to grow and develop into useful citizens of tomorrow.

In addition to the national policy, some Indian states too are making concerted efforts to raise the status of the girl children. Among them the Haryana government has taken lead in extending some provisions for the girl child known as Haryan scheme for girl child and the scheme has been named as Apni Beti Apna Dhana (our daughter is our wealth) in which the state government extends monetary benefits in the form of fixed deposits for the girl children of the scheduled castes and economically poor sections of the society. The mother of the girl child is also given money to look after her health. It is believed that the scheme would not only help in raising the status of the girl children but would also help in maintaining the demographic balance. The state of Punjab has also decided in principle to adopt this scheme.

In spite of the various measures taken by the government and NGOs to improve the status of women and girl child, their position is still below the expectation. Cultural barriers, patriarchal social structure and gender disparities are the circumstances result in with determined the status of girl child and also female feticide and infanticide, which in turn deteriorates the condition of women in society, social, economic and cultural dimensions involved in this social problem, which deserves to be exposed through a sociological investigation. To fill this research gap this study has been undertaken based on the theoretical conceptual frame work which was
developed by a researcher in order to have in-depth analysis of the present research concept is as follows.

**Figure-2.1**
The theoretical frame work presents the ongoing mechanism related to the psychosocial problems of adolescent girls and their adjusting ability with its components.

After critically evaluating the existing literature and the development of theoretical frame work which has layed the foundational plan for the research design to be undertaken in the current research study was discussed in the forth coming chapter.