Chapter-I

INTRODUCTION
CHAPTER I

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1.1 Adolescence: A Transition Phase

'Adolescence is the age when the individual becomes integrated into the society of adults, the age when the child no longer feels that he is below the level of his elders but equal, at least in rights... This integration into adult society has many affective aspects, more or less linked with puberty... It also includes very profound intellectual changes... These intellectual transitions enable him to achieve his integration into the social relationships of adults (Piaget, 1969)'.

The first use of the term 'adolescence' appeared in the fifteenth century. The term was a derivative of the Latin word ‘adolescere’, which means to grow up or to grow into maturity (Muuss, 1990).

Adolescence is a crossroad from childhood to adulthood. Childhood experiences and biological characteristics are transformed into interests, competencies, and self-beliefs and begin to play an increasingly important role as the adolescent starts to value his/her way toward adult life. This development is channeled by a variety of opportunities and constraints in the adolescents' social and institutional environments.

Social scientists who study adolescence usually differentiate among early adolescence, which covers the period from about age 11 to age 14, middle adolescence, from about age 15 to age 18 and late adolescence (youth) from age 18 to age 21 (Kagan and Coles, 1972; Keniston, 1970 and Lipsitz, 1977)

Adolescence is generally considered as beginning at Puberty. Although the physical changes of this time of life are dramatic, they do not burst full-blown at the end of childhood. The biological changes that signal the end of childhood produce rapid growth in height and weight,
changes in body proportions and form, and the attainment of sexual maturity. But adolescence is also a social and emotional process.

Adolescents may consider themselves to have achieved sociological adulthood when they are self-supporting or have chosen a career, or even married. Intellectual maturity is generally said to coincide with the capacity for abstract thought. Emotional maturity depends on such achievements as discovery of identity, independence from parents, development of a system of values, and ability to form mature relationships of friendship and love.

It is important to realize that what happened earlier has left its mark and will influence these new patterns of behavior and attitudes. The physical changes that take place during the early years of adolescence affect the individual’s behavioral level and lead to reevaluations and a shifting judgment of values.

During any transitional period, the individual’s status is vague and there is confusion about the roles expected to play. The adolescent, at this time, is neither a child nor an adult. If adolescents behave like children they are told to ‘act their age’. If they try to act like adults they are often scolded and asked to stay within their ‘limits’. For these young people, adolescence is a period of ‘identity crisis’. The changes in identity which takes place in adolescence involves the first substantial reorganization and restructuring of the individual’s sense of self at a time when he/she has the intellectual capability to appreciate fully how significant the changes are. Erikson views the developing person as moving through a series of eight psychological crises over the course of the life span. He believes that the establishment of a coherent sense of identity is the chief psychological crisis of adolescence.

1.2 Physiological Changes During Adolescence:

Puberty derived from the Latin Word *pubertas*, which means “adult”. Technically the term refers to the period during which the individual becomes capable of sexual reproduction. Puberty refers to the physiological changes that the adolescent undergoes in order to reach sexual maturity. It is best characterized as the gradual onset of mature reproductive hormonal activity, triggered by the central nervous system, mainly the hypothalamus and pituitary gland.
Most people look at puberty in three distinct stages railed the pre-pubescent, pubescent, and post pubescent. The prepubescent stage includes the first evidence of sexual maturation—primary sexual characteristics—and terminates at the first appearance of pubic hair. During this stage, reproduction is virtually impossible. During the pubescent stage the growth spurt begins to accelerate, males experience their first emission of semen usually in the form of "wet dreams," and menarche occurs in the females. The post pubescent stage is characterized by the deceleration of growth spurt, completion of both primary and sexual characteristics, and fertility is possible.

The following are the five chief physical manifestations of puberty (Marshall, 1978).

1. A rapid acceleration in growth, resulting in dramatic increases in both height and weight
2. The further development of the gonads, or the sex glands, which are testes in males and the ovaries in females.
3. The development of secondary sex characteristics, which involves changes in genitals and breasts, and the growth of pubic, facial and axillary (body) hair, and the further development of the sex organs.
5. Changed in the circulatory and respiratory systems, which lead to increased strength and tolerance for exercise. (Steinberg, 1987).

Adolescent growth first centers on the extremities—the legs and arms during the early stages of adolescence. Changes also occur in the facial configurations of both sexes. The lower portion of the head begins to grow because the chin lengthens and the nose grows in width and/or length. Additional changes in proportion of the face are accredited to changes in tissue distribution. Even though both sexes undergo this change, within females a layer of subcutaneous fat develops which causes the rounding and softening of contours of the face and body. Whereas, the male subcutaneous fat development is much less pronounced, but the
development of muscles and bones in the face is clearly seen. This gives the males a leaner and more angular face than the females.

Changes also occur on the surface of the body in both sexes. The most observable change is the growth on body hair, both pubic and axillary (armpit). The development of pubic hair is the first sign of a child ending the prepubescent stage and entering the pubescent stage. This process begins about the same time as the growth spurt begins, and is in the form of slightly coarse, straight hairs that grow at the base of the penis and the labia majora. The growth of pubic hair continues throughout adolescence, it spreads horizontally and then vertically until it surrounds the genital areas. Characteristically, pubic hair becomes longer, thicker, darker and kinkier as it spreads over the genital areas. In males, the growth of facial and chest hair may be pronounced, and tends to represent virility in the eyes of the adolescent. Noticeable chest hair, with a thickness in texture does not usually appear until the post pubescent stage and continues to grow during manhood. Facial hair usually appears in the form of a dark shadow above the lip. Then it appears on the chin, along the jaw line, and then develops along the neck. Females may also find small amounts of facial and chest hair.

Both male and female skin undergoes other changes, such as becoming coarser with the sebaceous glands becoming more active, producing oily secretions, which usually help cause acne or blackheads. Sweat usually causes an odor in adolescents because the chemistry and composition of sweat is altered by the oils that the sebaceous glands emit. Adolescents also show an increase in their blood pressure, and a decrease in both basal metabolic rate—the rate at which the body in a resting state (basal) consumes oxygen—and in pulse rate.

One of the most dramatic aspects of development during adolescence is the set of biological changes that occur at puberty. The individual enters early adolescence with the physical appearance of a child and, within a few years, has the physical appearance of an adult. The changes of puberty are set in motion by an elaborate process in the endocrine system. Although research has revealed that changes in hormonal levels affect physical growth and development, it is still not clear why puberty begins when it does or how the process comes to an end. The
marked changes in appearance have a profound impact on the young person's personality and interpersonal relationships.

1.3 Psychological Changes During Adolescence:

There are marked psychological changes during adolescence. The main change is the development of an integrated and internalized sense of identity. This means, to some degree, drawing apart from older members of the family, developing more intense relationships with peers, and taking major decisions. During adolescence, there is a gradual move from involvement with groups of the same sex to mixed groups, and sexual pairing may take place. Adolescents thinking moves from the concrete to the abstract and young people begin to articulate independently. An orientation towards the future now begins in earnest. As moral independence grows, alternative courses of action and their consequences come to be considered. The young look at educational and employment options; and they critique their own capabilities and aptitudes. This is also a time when they begin to explore new interests and influences, which can mould their thinking and their ideas and actions. At this stage when the adolescent develops new ideas of their own about different areas of life like career, moral ethics and values, peer group etc there are evidences of clashes or differences of opinion with their parents. In regards to career choice there is a lot of parental pressure and the parents try to force the child to take up a particular stream of education/career, which they want. Situations like this initiate rebellion from the adolescents and as an end result to this the adolescent is loaded with frustration and irritation, which ultimately hampers their academic and social performance.

The adolescent years are truly a period of great creativity, empathy, idealism and energy and of new experiences, ideas and skills. The support and understanding from family members during this phase is crucial in enabling them to meet the challenges. Separation accompanies the development of identity during adolescence (Kroger, 1989). Yet, independence evolves in connection to family, peers, and society (Conger, 1991; Steinberg, 1993). Silence, distance, and severing family ties can lead to over identification with the peer group, identity confusion, and excessive rebellion (Steinberg, 1993).
One step in the development of emotional autonomy is the de-idealization of parents (Steinberg, 1993). The individuals who achieve emotional autonomy handle criticism, hurdles, and setbacks constructively by developing their own inner strengths and self-esteem (Atwater, 1992). With the development of identity and emotional autonomy during late adolescence, such individuals are less dependent upon parent or peer approval. Intimidation, fear, and the loss of innocence can also create setbacks or stunt growth. Erikson proposes that when a person does not achieve identity, he or she experiences identity confusion. Although expressed in numerous ways during early adolescence, identity confusion as a long-term outcome of the fifth psychosocial stage may lead to adolescents' isolation, chronic delinquency, drug abuse, or suicide.

1.4 Psychological Impact of Physical Changes:

Physical and sexual maturation profoundly affect the way in which adolescence view themselves and the way in which they are viewed and treated by others. Yet the social environment exerts a tremendous impact on the meaning of puberty and on its psychological and social consequences. In some societies, puberty maturation brings with it a series of complex initiation rites, which mark the passage of the young person into adulthood socially as well physically. The adolescents may revise their self-image during puberty; the nature and magnitude of the revision may be different for those who go through puberty early than for those who mature late. Because boys who mature early are bigger and stronger than their peers, puberty may make them feel more self-assured. But for late matures who are simply catching up with their friend pubertal changes may bring feelings of relief more than anything else.

Studies of the psychological and social impact of puberty indicate that physical maturation, regardless of whether it occurs early or late, affects the adolescent’s self-image, mood, and relationships with parents.

One of the great paradoxes of adolescence is the conflict between a young person’s yearning to find an individual identity—to assert a unique self—and an overwhelming desire to be like his/her friends.

Research on the impact of puberty on family relationships has pointed to a more consistent pattern namely that puberty appears to increase distance between parents and children.
Several studies show that as youngsters mature from childhood towards the middle of puberty, distance between them and their parent's increases and conflict intensifies, especially between the adolescent and his/her mother (Hill et al., 1985a, 1985b; Steinberg 1987a, 1988).

The classic study of Steingberg and Hill (1978) showed that family-adolescent interactions are moderated by pubertal development. Conflict between mothers and son was highest during mid-puberty. Mid pubertal status was also associated with more conflict and diminished associations with parents. Cognitive maturation normatively advances with chronological age rather than pubertal maturation. For instance, spatial ability was associated with chronological age but not with pubertal stage in a sample of healthy young adolescents (Davison and Susman, 2001). Among boys, early maturation tended to be advantageous, with boys being rated as more popular, relaxed, good natured, attractive to peers, and poised (Jones, 1965; Jones and Bayley, 1950). Early maturation in girls tended to be disadvantageous (Jones, Bayley and Jones, 1948).

Researchers have found that puberty's influence on developmental pathways depend primarily on the perceptions and expectations of the social context (Brooks-Gunn and Reiter, 1990; Clausen, 1975; Lerner, 1992; Magnusson, 1988; McGhee, 1984; Stattin and Magnusson, 1990). When pubertal changes are responded to positively within adolescents' social contexts, particularly by families and members of the community, the event appears to be experienced without significant adjustment problems, regardless of the age of onset.

Aside from personal transitions, adolescents typically go through social changes during puberty. At around the age of 12 or 13, boys and girls begin to renegotiate the social definition of inter gender interactions due to pubertal changes (Adler & Adler, 1998). As their bodies change they become more curious about the opposite sex, and increasingly turn attention to romance and sexuality. These changes and sexual desires can cause much confusion for adolescents.

Puberty signals the physical maturity of boys and girls, and is a period that signifies reproduction capabilities. Considering the significance of this transition in terms of reproduction it seems strange that most adolescents are expected to delay sexual intercourse.
Society often sends messages to young adolescents that are complex and contradictory (Allen-Meares and Shore, 1986). When they hit adolescence they are expected to grow up and be responsible for their actions, yet at the same time they are discouraged from behaving in grown up ways and many times responsibility is taken away from them, in terms of the choices they make. Adolescent girls are often told to be virtuous and reserved sexually, however peer cultures often convey the idea that being a little sexy is okay for sake of popularity. Boys are also told to control their sexual desires by society, but most of their peers expect them to be sexually active. Ultimately, the conflicting messages conveyed to adolescents, can interfere with their search for identity and can cause confusion, in terms of what the physical transition into adolescence actually signifies.

1.5 Development of Personality:

Stanley Hall (1904/1916), was the first psychologist to formulate a theory of adolescence, proposed that the major physical changes that takes place at this time cause major psychological changes. He believed that young people’s efforts to adjust to changing bodies ushered in a period of storm and stress. Hall saw adolescence as a period of intense, fluctuating emotions, from which young people may emerge morally stronger. Sigmund Freud, like Hall, saw conflict as the result of the physical changes of the adolescence. In Freud’s view this conflict is preparatory to the genital stage of mature adult sexuality.

By early adolescence, both boys and girls are well aware of their good and bad traits, and they appraise these in terms of their similar traits in their friends. They are also well aware of the role personality plays in social relationships and thus are strongly motivated to improve their personalities in the hope of increasing their social acceptance. Many adolescents use group standards as the basis for their concept of an ideal personality against which they assess their own personalities.

Erikson (1968) believed that the chief task of adolescence is to resolve the conflict of identity versus identity confusion-to become a unique adult with an important role in life. To form a person’s identity, the ego organizes abilities, needs and desires and helps adapt them to the demands of society. The search for identity is life long but it comes into focus during adolescence. An essential aspect of the search for identity is the need to become independent of
parents. The storm and stress associated with the teenage years have been called adolescent rebellion—that may encompass conflict not only within the family but a general alienation from adult society and hostility towards its values.

Several studies have found that a strong predictor of positive development of personality during adolescence is the adolescents' sense that they are connected to other persons, their community, and the society (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1994; Hirschi, 1969; Sampson and Laub, 1994). For example, adolescents who have a high sense of connectedness to their parents, particularly their mothers, tend to be less likely than other youth to engage in antisocial behaviors (Hirschi, 1969). Those who have a greater sense of connectedness to school tend to be more likely than other youth to perform well academically and to stay in school (Connell, Spencer, and Aber, 1994).

Development of a stable identity has been found to be associated with positive interpersonal relationships, psychological and behavioral stability, and productive adulthood (Grotevant, 1996). During the identity development process, adolescents' sense of competency, connectedness, and control is brought to bear on the task of unifying their sense of self into a stable and consistent identity and integrating this self-concept into their understanding of society, so as to feel a part of the larger culture (Erikson, 1968; Grotevant, 1996; Yates and Youniss, 1995).

Some of the determinants of personality have their greatest effect on the core of the personality pattern, the self-concept, and some the traits related to the core. Of all personality determinants, the Family is the most important. There are a number of reasons why: The family is the first social group with which the child is identified; the child spends more time with the family group than with any other social group; family members are the most significant in the child’s life during the years when the foundations of personality are being laid; and the areas of family influence are broader than those of any other personality determinant, even the school.
Anna Freud (1946) believed that the libido, which quieted during the latency years, reawakens in adolescence and threatens to upset the delicate balance of ego and id. The resultant anxiety calls forth such ego defense mechanisms as intellectualization and asceticism (self-denial).

The personality development of an adolescent depends upon a number of factors like

- Although the relationship between adolescents' and their parents are not always smooth, there is little evidence that a full-blown rebellion usually characterizes it. Parents and teenagers often hold similar values on major issues
- The effect of maternal employment on adolescents' development is filtered through other factors such as mothers' warmth and role satisfaction
- Adolescents' spend most of their time with their peers, who play an important role in their development. Friendships become more intimate, and relationships develop with peers of the other sex
- Peer pressure influences some adolescents towards anti-social behaviour, specially adolescents whose parents offer little supervision
- Adolescents' sexuality strongly influences their developing identity
- Sexual attitudes and behaviours are becoming more liberal today than in the past
- Adolescents find it difficult to discuss sexual matter with parents

1.6 Theoretical Foundations of Adolescence:

1.6.1 Sigmund Freud and the Psychoanalytic Theory of Adolescent Development:

Freud paid relatively little attention to adolescent development only to discuss it in terms of psychosexual development. He shared a common idea with that of Hall's evolutionary theory: that the period of adolescence could be seen as phylogenetic. Freud did maintain that the individual goes through the earlier experiences of mankind in his psychosexual development. According to Freud and psychoanalytic theory, the stages of psychosexual development are genetically determined and are relatively independent of environmental factors. Freud believed that adolescence was a universal phenomenon and included behavioral, social and emotional changes; not to mention the relationships between the physiological and psychological changes, and the influences on the self-image. He also stated that the physiological changes are
related to emotional changes, especially an increase in negative emotions, such as moodiness, anxiety, loathing, tension and other forms of adolescent behavior.

Anna Freud believes the factors involved in adolescent conflict are:

- The strength of the id impulse, which is determined by physiological and endocrinological processes during pubescence
- The ego's ability to cope with or to yield to the instinctual forces. This in turn depends on the character training and superego development of the child during the latency period
- The effectiveness and nature of the defense mechanism at the disposal of the ego

1.6.2 Erik Erikson’s Theory of Identity Development:

The core concept of Erikson's theory is the acquisition of an ego-identity, and the identity crisis is the most essential characteristic of adolescence. Although a person's identity is established in ways that differ from culture to culture, the accomplishment of this developmental task has a common element in all cultures. In order to acquire a strong and healthy ego-identity the child must receive consistent and meaningful recognition of his achievements and accomplishments.

Adolescence is described by Erikson as the period during which the individual must establish a sense of personal identity and avoid the dangers of role diffusion and identity confusion (Erikson, 1950). The implication is that the individual has to make an assessment of his or her assets and liabilities and how they want to use them. Adolescents must answer questions for themselves about where they came from, who they are, and what they will become. Identity, or a sense of sameness and continuity, must be searched for. Identity is not given to the individual by society, nor does it appear as a maturational phenomenon; it must be acquired through sustained individual efforts. Unwillingness to work on one's own identity formation carries with it the danger of role diffusion, which may result in alienation and a lasting sense of isolation and confusion. The virtue to be developed is fidelity. Adhering to one's values contributes to a stable identity.
The search for an identity involves the production of a meaningful self-concept in which past, present, and future are linked together. Consequently, the task is more difficult in a historical period in which the past has lost the anchorage of family and community tradition, the present is characterized by social change, and the future has become less predictable. According to Erikson, in a period of rapid social change, the older generation is no longer able to provide adequate role models for the younger generation. Even if the older generation can provide adequate role models, adolescents may reject them as inappropriate for their situation. Therefore, Erikson believes that the importance of the peer group cannot be overemphasized. Peers help adolescents find answers to the question "Who Am I?" as they depend on social feedback as to what others feel and how they react to the individual. Therefore, adolescents 'are sometimes morbidly, often curiously, preoccupied with what they appear to be in the eyes of others as compared with what they feel they are and with the question of how to connect to earlier cultivated roles and skills with the ideal prototypes of the day' (Erikson, 1959).

Pubescence, according to Erikson, is characterized by rapidity of body growth, genital maturity, and sexual awareness. Because the latter two aspects are qualitatively quite different from those experienced in earlier years, an element of discontinuity with previous development occurs during early adolescence. Youth is confronted with a "physiological revolution" within himself that threatens his body image and interferes with the formation of an identity. Erikson maintains that the study of identity has become more important than the study of sexuality was in Freud's time.

Of great concern for many adolescents is the need to settle the question of vocational identity. During the initial attempts to establish a vocational identity some role diffusion frequently exists. Adolescents at this stage hold glamorized and idealized conceptions of their vocational goals, and it is not uncommon that goal aspirations are higher than the individual's ability warrants. Frequently, vocational goal models are chosen that are attainable for only a few: movie heroes, rock musicians, athletic champions, car racers, astronauts, and other glamorized "heroes." In the process the adolescent over identifies with and idolizes his heroes to the extent that he yields his own identity and presumes he has theirs. At this point, according to Erikson, a youth rarely identifies with his own parents; they often rebel against their dominance, their
value system, and their intrusion into their private life, since they must separate their identity from that of their family. The adolescent must assert their autonomy in order to reach maturity.

The positive outcome of the identity crisis is dependent on the young person's willingness to accept his past and establish continuity with their previous experiences. The adolescent must find an answer to the question: "Who Am I?" Other questions that must be answered include: "Where am I going?" "Who am I to become?" There must be a commitment to a system of values - religious beliefs, vocational goals, a philosophy of life, and an acceptance of one's sexuality. Only through the achievement of these aspects of ego-identity can it be possible for the adolescent to move into "adult maturity," achieve intimacy of sexual and affectional love, establish deep friendships, and achieve personal self-abandon without fear of loss of ego-identity.

1.6.3 Otto Rank's Emphasis on the Adolescent Need for Independence:

Otto Rank (1884-1939), a follower of the psychoanalytic school had been completely under the influence of Freudian realism" (Steinberg, 1993). He then later developed his own theory and began to challenge Freud's notions.

Rank saw human nature not as repressed and neurotic, but as creative and productive. He criticized Freud's emphasis on the unconscious as a storehouse for past experiences and impulses. Rank pointed out that the past is of importance only to the degree that it acts in the present to influence behavior. He also places less emphasis on instinctual forces and instinctual behavior. He believed that Freud actually neglected the role of the ego and gave value to it only as a repressive force. Rank wanted to restore the balance of power in the psychic realm.

Rank stated that there must be an examination of the place that adolescent development has in this psychoanalytic theory based on consciousness and "will." Sexuality is no longer the strongest determining factor in the developmental process. It has found its counterpart in "will," which can to some degree, control sexuality. It is during the shift from childhood to
adolescence that a crucial aspect of personality development occurs - the change from dependence to independence.

During the latency period, the "will" grows stronger, more independent, and expands to the point where it turns against any authority not of its own choosing. The actual origin of the "will" goes further back into the oedipal situation. It is here that the individual will encounters a social will, represented by parents and expressed in a moral code centuries old.

In early adolescence, the individual undergoes a basic change in attitude; he begins to oppose dependency, including both the rule of external environmental factors (parents, teachers, the law, and so on) and the rule of internal cravings, the newly awakening instinctual urges. Establishing volitional independence, which society values and requires, becomes an important but difficult developmental task for the adolescent. This newly developed need for independence and the struggle for the attainment of independence lie at the root of many adolescent personal relationships and their complications. Rank sees no necessity for external sexual restrictions and inhibitions, since the struggle is one in which the individual's will strives for independence against domination by biological needs.

1.7 Families and Adolescence:

The family is a system, - a system in which relationships change in response to the changing needs and concerns of family members and in response to changes in the family's relationships with the larger society (Minuchin, 1974). And like other systems, families attempt to maintain a sense of equilibrium in their relationships. Relationships in families always change most dramatically during those times when individual family members are changing or when the family's circumstances are changing, since it is during these times that the family's previously established equilibrium would be upset. During these times, it is healthy for family relationships to change, for through such changes families restore balance to the system. Not surprisingly, one period in which family relationships usually change a great deal is adolescence.
The concerns and issues characteristic of families at adolescence arise not just because of changing needs and concerns of a young person, but also because of changes in the adolescent's parents and because of changes in the needs and function of the family as a unit. Consequently, in order to understand the changing nature of family relationships during the adolescent years, we must take into account not only characteristics of the developing young person, but characteristics of the adolescent’s parents and of families at this stage as well.

The experience of a close relationship starts within the family, which is the basic unit of the society. Family relationship is by no means a defined and static phenomenon. It is very dynamic in nature, vulnerable to the changes, developing from intra and inter-personal negotiations and events of minor consequences. The important aspect of family relationship is located in parent-child interaction. It starts with development of attachment between care given by the caregiver i.e., the mother and the newborn and this attachment as a strong predictor of child’s subsequent emotional relation and personality (Bowlby, 1973).

Family has a very major significance in an adolescents’ life. When there is the search for identity and the peers may not be able to show the adolescent the right direction to proceed, the family and its support specially the parents becomes essential for the teenager to be on the proper track. Adolescence is marked by disagreements, bickering, emotional tensions, and minor conflicts with parents over the everyday details of family life, such as doing the chores, feeding the pets, doing schoolwork, and getting along with siblings.” (Shulman, 1991). The family is the first source of socialization for the adolescent. But during adolescence peer groups become the largest source of teen socialization (McFarlane, 1995). Both supportive family and peer relationships are associated with higher levels of social self-efficacy—the extent to which the adolescent feels capable of producing a desired social outcome (McFarlane, 1995).

There are many needs in the family that change during the time of adolescence. The functions of the family and how these needs are met will also change. One of the most frequently asked questions in the study of families during adolescence concerns intergenerational conflict, commonly known as ‘Generation Gap’. If we consider the quality of adolescents’ relationships with their parents, we find that there is very little gap between young people and their elders. Overwhelming majority of adolescence feel close to their parents, respect their parents’
judgement, feel that their parents love and care about them, and have a lot of respect for their parents as individuals (Kandel and Lesser, 1972; Offer, Ostrov, and Howard, 1981; Sorensen, 1973). When we look at intergenerational differences in values and attitudes, we also find little evidence in support of a generation gap. Adolescence and their parents have similar beliefs about the importance of hard work, about educational and occupational ambitions, and about the personal characteristics and attributes they feel are important and desirable (Conger, 1977). In some areas, there exists attitudinal differences between teenagers and adults, - when it comes to more basic values - concerning religion, work, education, and the like – diversity within the adolescent population is much more striking than are differences between the generations. Socioeconomic background has a much stronger influence on individuals' values and attitudes than doe's age, and adolescents are more likely to share their parents' values than those of other teenagers who are from a different background. Wealthy adolescents growing up in affluent suburbs have educational and career plans that resemble their parents' plan for them, and their plans are very different from those of poor adolescents growing up in less prosperous areas (Conger, 1977).

1.7.1 Family Structure and Functions:

The family structure comprises mainly of two patterns – 1) Joint Family and 2) Nuclear Family. Both the types of family systems have their own positive and negative set of characteristics. Firstly, in the case of joint families, which is a kind of an extended family apart from the parents and their children consists of grandparents, uncle, aunts and cousins. In this kind of a system the feeling of unity is more. The children develop better adjustment qualities and have more scope of sharing and interaction with the various family members. So the child is never left alone even if the parents are not with him. The negative side of this type of a family system is lot of differences of opinion and squirmishes over various issues. Secondly, the nuclear family on the other hand happens to be a closer-knit unit comprising primarily of parents and their child/children. Better understanding and cohesiveness prevails among the family members. Self-centered attitude is one of the negative aspects of this family system. Apart from this if both the parents happens to be working then the problem of managing the children crops up. And as a means of dealing with this issue the child/children are either kept in the crèches or with the servants. Thus the child is deprived of quality time.
The roles of the family established during childhood have helped the family unit to keep a system of equilibrium. During adolescence, teens are looking for a different kind of support from their family and this may be a stressful time for the family until a new system of equilibrium is established. Here is a list of changes you can expect to see in the family system: There will be a shift from the parents providing nurturance, protection, and socialization for the child to providing support and direction for the teen. Acceptance, active understanding, parental expressions of individuality and connectedness can help the teen to mature without feeling left out or alienated from his/her family (Hauser and Bowlds, 1990; Steinberg, 1993).

Healthy family functioning involves effective communication. The way adolescents and parents view their communication with each other effects the way they view their relationship and themselves. Communication is central in all relationships and interactions. The way individuals view and perceive others can change over time, especially when the communication is between a growing adolescent and parents. Effective communication is particularly important when a child reaches adolescence. This is when adolescents start to establish their own identity and begin making decisions for themselves. Research has shown that families are closer, more loving, and more flexible in resolving problems when adolescent-parent communication is effective. This clear communication style can help adolescents to develop a clear and healthy sense of identity and independence. Studies have also found that effective adolescent-parent communication is correlated (a relationship) with the adolescent’s well-being, self-esteem and coping abilities.

When adolescents perceive positive and healthy family communication they,

- Are more likely to be satisfied with there families
- Experience less conflict
- Have positive self-esteem, and
- Feel healthier
- Are happier, and
- Feel overall more satisfied with their lives.
These positive perceptions of adolescent development help minimize problematic and harmful behaviors. It leads to an overall healthy development and provides immense sense of satisfaction to the adolescent.

1.7.2 Transformations in Family Relations at Adolescence:

Together, the biological, cognitive, and social changes of adolescence, the changes experienced by adults at midlife, and the changes undergone by the family during this stage in the family life cycle set in motion a series of transformations in family relationships. In most families, there is a movement during adolescence from patterns of influence and interactions that are asymmetrical and unequal to ones in which parents and their adolescent children are on a more equal footing. And there is some evidence that early adolescence – when this shift toward more egalitarian relationships first begins – may be a time of temporary disequilibrium in the family system. In a study by Theodore Jacob (1974), it was found with an increase in age of the adolescence there is more say/influence on the adolescent’s part over the family’s ultimate decisions. Increases in the assertiveness and influence of adolescence as they get older are consistent with their changing needs and their capabilities. The family systems must be able to adapt when changes in family members or family circumstances make such adaptation necessary. Although puberty seems to distance adolescents from their parents, it is not associated with familial ‘Storm and Stress’. The conflict is more likely to take the form of bickering over day-to-day issues like household chores than outright fighting. Similarly, the diminished closeness is more likely to be manifested in increased privacy on the part of the adolescent and diminished physical affection between teenagers and parents, rather than any serious loss of love or respect between parents and children (Montemayor, 1983; 1986). It does appear that early adolescence may be a somewhat more strained time for the family than earlier or later. This finding is consistent with both Freudian and social-learning views of the family at adolescence, which both predict that puberty loosens emotional ties between parents and teenagers.

1.7.3 Adolescents and their Siblings:

Siblings are a fundamental part of most children's social worlds. They can be playmates, caretakers, teachers, sources of support, or major nuisances.' (Shulman, 1991,) Birth order and
amount of siblings plays an important role in the process of adolescence. The first born adolescents are intellectually advantaged - if used as an example by parents, could cause sibling rivalry (Dusek, 1987) too many siblings take away from adolescent's intellectual abilities (Nielsen, 1987) differences in affection from parents toward siblings could cause differences in adolescent's development hostility from parents can affect sibling delinquency throughout adolescence (Conger and Conger, 1994).

Characteristics of interpersonal sibling relationships include:

- Relationships become less intense with age and the adolescent is concerned with becoming independent from family influences (Buhrmester and Furman, 1990).
- Sibling hostility may be externalized in the adolescent years if they were marked by the other sibling in their early childhood (Dunn et al., 1994).
- Most sibling arguments are concerned with interpersonal issues such as close living conditions, competition for resources, and personal habits (Montemayor and Hanson, 1985).

Sibling relationship is important during adolescence because it fosters many skills for peer relationships including intimacy, trust, conflict resolution, and identity formation. Siblings are a crucial source of support and act as a buffer against conflict with family and friends. Siblings are a key component during adolescent development. Even though adolescence is thought of as a time when familial ties are severed and peer relationships become paramount, scientific evidence proves this popular myth wrong. Although peer relationships are an important part of adolescence, it is the family that the adolescent still turns to most in times of need.

In general, studies suggest that sibling relationships may have characteristics that set them apart from other family relationships, such as that between adolescents and their parents, and other relationships with peers, such as those between adolescents and their close friends (Furman and Buhrmester, 1985; Raffaelli and Larson, 1987). In one study, for example young adolescents were asked to rate several different types of relationships (e.g. with parents, siblings, friends, grandparents) along similar dimensions. As revealed form the study sibling
relationships were rated like those with parents for companionship and importance, but they were rated more like friendships with respect to power, assistance, and how satisfying the relationship is. One striking difference between sibling and other types of relationship is conflict; adolescents report far higher levels of conflict with their brothers and sisters than they do with anyone else. Because siblings live with close proximity to each other, they may have added opportunities for both positive and negative interactions.

It has been found that siblings growing up in the same family experiences their environment very differently. One brother may describe his family as very close-knit, while another may have experienced it as very distant. One girl describes her family life as plagued with argument and conflict; her sister describes it as peaceful and agreeable. Siblings may experience the same family environment differently for a variety of reasons. First, parents may treat their children differently because of their own conscious and unconscious preferences, differences in their child’s temperaments, and changes in their childhood rearing philosophies over time. Second, the family may itself be at different stages in its own development, and this may affect children differently. Finally, differences in the family circumstances at different times may affect the way that siblings are raised. A child who has been raised during financial strain may have very different experiences from a sibling who grows up when the family is more comfortable.

In general, better adjusted adolescents were more likely than their siblings to report that their relationship with their mother was close, that their relations with brother or sisters were friendly, that they were involved in family decision making, and that they were given a high level of responsibility around the house (Daniels et al., 1985).

1.7.4 Adolescent and Dysfunctional Families:

High levels of family dysfunction are found in families in which there is physical or emotional abuse between partners; parental mental illness or abuse of alcohol or other drugs; physical or sexual abuse of children; or neglect of children's physical, emotional, and medical needs. Interactions within these families do not provide opportunities for children to develop a sense
of connectedness to others or control over their fate in life. Furthermore, some evidence exists that children who experience these events often tend to repeat them with their own children.

Children from severely dysfunctional families are disproportionately represented among runaway youth, particularly those who frequently run away and remain away from home for long periods of time (Simons and Whitbeck, 1991); homeless youth (Mundy, Robertson, Robertson, and Greenblatt, 1990); youth with severe substance abuse problems (Beman, 1995); and youth who exhibit high levels of depression and anxiety, often requiring hospitalization (Chandy, Harris, Blum, and Resnick, 1994). Although little research has been conducted on the factors that moderate the effects of growing up in severely dysfunctional families, the presence of community organizations that promote pro-social development and expose youth to potential sources of support from non-parental adults in the community may assist these youth along positive developmental pathways (Farber and Egeland, 1987). However, the effects of severe family dysfunction on development may require more extensive assistance through long-term and intensive interventions.

1.8 Parents and Adolescent Relationship:

1.8.1 Effect Of Single Parent On Adolescents' Mind:

Adolescents' academic achievement is influenced by behaviors directed to them by their parents (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, and Dornbusch, 1991; Ryan, Adams, Gullotta, Weissberg, and Hampton, 1995; Snodgrass, 1991; Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, and Darling, 1992). Research has shown that, on average, adolescents in single parent families do not do as well academically as adolescents in two parent families (Demo and Acock, 1988; Kurdek and Fine, 1993; Mulkey, Crain, and Harrington, 1992; Zimiles and Lee, 1991). Studying the parental factors that influence adolescents' academic achievement can provide insight to parents about how to enhance their behaviors toward their adolescents so that they may make the most of their academic experience. Understanding how behaviors and resources of single parents affect adolescents in these households is important for families, school/home partnerships, and to serve as a basis for more appropriate family life education (Schaefer, 1991). Certain parental factors influence adolescents' academic achievement. A study by Fluty
(1997) examined single parent behavioral control, involvement, and interpersonal and educational resources in relation to adolescents' achievement test scores.

Although the influences of family structure, particularly single-parent or divorced families, on adolescent development have received extensive attention from researchers, politicians, and the media, recent research findings demonstrate that it is family process rather than structure that influences adolescent developmental pathways. If positive parent-child relationships, including relationships with non-custodial parents, are maintained after divorce or separation, and if single parents manage to exert appropriate levels of behavioral control, the association between divorce or single parenting and adolescent behavior problems all but disappears (Barber, 1994; Barber and Lyons, 1994; Fergusson, Horwood, and Lynskey, 1994; Forehand, 1992; Hetherington, Cox, and Cox, 1982).

Frequently a divorce or separation, particularly in its early stages, can create stressors that make it difficult for parents to maintain positive parenting practices. For this reason, parents often need assistance and support in their parenting efforts shortly after a separation or divorce or during other times of stress. However, intact families also often need this type of assistance and support during times of stress.

Recent research suggests that the practices that characterize effective parenting may differ in various types of family structures, although this has not been explored extensively (Smetana, Yau, Restrepo, and Braeges, 1991). Parental separation and single parent families predict CD children. Separation from parents in the first five years of child's life (especially) predicted CD at age 15 (Fergusson, Horwood, and Lynskey, 1994). In the New York state longitudinal study, CD was predicted by parental divorce but far more strongly by having a never-married lone mother (Velez et al., 1989).

Many studies show that broken homes or disrupted families predict delinquency (Wells and Rankin, 1990). In the Dunedin study, Henry, Moffitt, Robins, Earls, and Silva (1993) found that children who are exposed to parental discord and many changes of the primary caretaker tended to become antisocial and delinquent. In the Cambridge study, both permanent and
temporary separations from a biological parent before age 10 predicted convictions and self-reported delinquency, providing that they were not caused by death or hospitalization (Farrington, 1992c).

1.8.2 Adolescent’s Parents at Midlife:

The typical parent is between 35 and 45 years old during much of his/her first child’s early adolescent years (Troll, 1975). It is important therefore to consider psychological development during this period of adulthood and ask how the concerned characteristic of this age may contribute to the changing nature of family relationships at adolescence. Indeed, some theorists have gone so far as to describe it as a time of ‘midlife’ crises (Farrell and Rosenberg, 1981; Levison, 1978). Developmental concerns of parents and adolescents are complimentary (Steinberg, 1988). The adolescents are entering into a period of rapid physical growth, sexual maturation, and ultimately the period of life span that society has labeled one of the most physically attractive. Their parents are beginning to feel increased concern about their own bodies, about their physical attractiveness, and about their sexual appeal. Another overlap of crises concerns perceptions of time and the future. At the same time the adolescence are beginning to develop the capability to think systematically about the future and do, in fact, begin to look ahead, their parents are beginning to feel that the possibilities for change are limited. While adolescents’ ideas about the future are becoming more expansive, their parents’ ideas are probably becoming more limited. Adolescence is the time when individuals are on the threshold of gaining a great deal of status. Their careers and marriages lie ahead of them, and choices seem limitless. For their parents, in contrast, many choices have already been made – some successfully, others perhaps less so. In sum, for adolescents, this phase in the family life cycle is a time of boundless horizons; for their parents, it is a time of coming to terms with choices made when they are younger. This overlap of crises is likely to have an impact on family relationships. The adolescent’s desire for autonomy in particular may be especially stressful for parents.
1.8.3 Effect Of Parents' Employment on Adolescents:

1.8.3.1 Working Mothers:

The major reason that women have been expected to remain in the home is so that they can "be there" for their children. Must mother be available for round-the-clock love and attention if her children are to thrive? Not necessarily.

Developmental psychologists (e.g., Easterbrooks and Goldberg, 1985; Hoffman, 1985) have found no consistent evidence that maternal employment is harmful to children. Generally speaking, the children of working women do not differ from those of full-time housewives in terms of anxiety, incidence of antisocial behavior, dependence, or complaints of stress-related disorders. In fact, the children of working women see their mothers as more competent and hold fewer stereotypical sex-role attitudes (Gold and Andres, 1978a, 1978b, and 1978c). Children of working women are more helpful with the housework. The daughters of working women are more achievement oriented and set themselves higher career goals than do the daughters of non-working women.

In some cases, the stereotypical sex-roles are reversed and the father stays at home, while the mother takes the morning trek to the factory or the office. Children in these families also show fewer sex-role attitudes, higher intelligence-test scores and a greater internal locus of control (Radin, 1982; Russell, 1982).

All in all, working women spend half as much time caring for their children as do housewives, but these children develop normal attachments to them (Moore and Hofferth, 1979). It appears that the quality of the time the parents and the children spent together, along with the making of adequate child-care arrangements, outweighs the number of hours (Bralove, 1981; Easterbrooks and Goldberg, 1985). When mothers choose to work and find their work fulfilling, they are happier with their lives. They and their husbands are more egalitarian in the distribution of chores in the homes as well as in the bread-winning role (Gold & Andres, 1978a, 1978b, and 1978c). Perhaps the working mothers' feelings of competence and high self-esteem transfer into more productive relationships with their children in the home.
Looking beyond primary attachment, research with older children suggest that maternal employment, by itself, is unlikely to impede a child's social and emotional development. In fact, the opposite may be true, for children of working mothers (particularly daughters) tend to be more independent, to enjoy higher self esteem, and to hold higher educational and occupational aspirations and less stereotyped views of men and women than those whose mothers are not employed (Hoffman, 1989; Richards and Duckett, 1994). Moreover, studies of toddlers (Schachter, 1981), grade school children (Gold and Andres, 1978b), and adolescents (Gold and Andres, 1978a) consistently indicate that children of employed mothers are as confident in social settings as children whose mothers remain at home and are somewhat more sociable with peers. Finally, one recent study of a national sample of low-income families links maternal employment to children's cognitive competence: Second-graders whose mothers had worked a great deal outperformed those whose mothers had worked less (if at all) in mathematics, reading and language achievement (Vandell and Ramanan, 1992). Although there have been reports that young children of working mothers are somewhat more aggressive and less obedient than children cared for at home by mothers who are not employed (Clarke-Stewart, 1989; Hoffman, 1989), these 'negative returns' are generally small in magnitude (Bates et al., 1994) are often limited to children receiving low quality daycare where children's activities are not closely supervised (Howes, 1990; Vandell, Henderson, Wilson, 1988).

One reason that children of employed mothers often experience favorable (rather than unfavorable) development outcomes and appear to be so socially mature is that employed mothers are more inclined than unemployed mothers to grant their children independence and autonomy when their youngsters are ready for it (Hoffman, 1989). And, when mothers have stimulating jobs, receive adequate social support from their husbands and other close associates, and are highly committed to being a parent, they have generally favorable impressions of their children, rely less on power assertion to control their behavior, and are inclined to take an authoritative approach to child rearing – precisely the parenting style so often associated with favorable cognitive, social and emotional outcomes (Crockenberg and Litman, 1991; Greenberger and Goldberg, 1989; Greenberger, O'Neil, and Nagel, 1994).
Of course, employed mothers may be less effective parents if they are dissatisfied with their jobs, are not highly committed to being a parent, or receive little support in their parenting role (Greenberger and Goldberg, 1989). Under these circumstances, working mothers can become rather aloof, impatient and restrictive, which makes their children more argumentative and difficult (Hock, Demeic, and McBride, 1988; Lemer and Galambos, 1988).

1.8.3.2 The Effects of Parents’ Work Roles:

Mothers of adolescents are more likely to be employed outside the home than are mothers of younger children (Armistead and others, 1990). This is likely due, at least in part, to the assumption that children at this age are more independent. Because the proportion of married working women with children doubled from 1960 to 1990, researchers have been interested in finding out whether having a working mother is good or bad for children. More research attention has focused on the effects of mothers’ work roles than on those of fathers. Orthner (1990) re-viewed the existing adolescent research and concluded that most studies show little effect. Whereas a few studies have suggested that having a mother who works outside the home results in fewer family activities, more adolescent behavior problems, and a drop in academic performance, most do not. Orthner believes that this is because mothers, adolescents, and families as a whole have adjusted well to changing parental work roles. For example, families with working mothers have learned to share many household responsibilities or simply relax standards concerning meals and housework. Orthner suggests that these changes in role expectations have decreased the stress associated with maternal employment.

It seems that the effects of a mother’s working depend on many factors, such as whether the mother likes her work, how much stress the job creates both for her and the rest of the family, and how much the father gets involved in helping out with household chores and child care. For many women, employment is less stressful than full-time homemaking (Baruch et al., 1987). The amount of stress fathers carry home from their jobs also affects young adolescents (Galambos and others, 1995). Fathers who experienced work overload were found to have more arguments with their adolescents, which led to more adolescent behavior problems. When mothers were stressed from their jobs, adolescent children were likely to view their mothers as less warm and accepting. Adolescent showed no ill effects from maternal job stress.
as long as mothers maintained accepting views of their adolescents. When reduced maternal warmth and acceptance followed job stress, adolescent behavior problems also increased. Mason and associates (1994) found that African American parents' satisfaction with their work and perceptions of having autonomy in their work were associated with their parenting style and level of family conflict as well as with levels of behavioral problems among early adolescent children. Working parents, it seems, need to be cautious to keep job stress from affecting their relationships with their adolescent children. Employers also need to be aware that parental work conditions have an impact on the family life of their employees.

Early adolescence is a time when many parents decide that their children no longer required after-school care and begin to leave children on their own. Very little is known, however, about how this unsupervised time affects early adolescents (Orthner, 1990). Although there is much talk about fathers getting involved in parenting and household chores, research suggests that not a lot of change has taken place (Furstenberg, 1990).

Having a job may affect the mothers' own view of herself by improving her self-esteem or her morale and thereby changing the way she relates to the rest of the family. For example, a woman who begins working generally acquires more power in her marital relationship, because she had demonstrable earning power and because she may feel more independent (Spitze, 1988). Such power or self-esteem also spills over into her interactions with her children perhaps especially with a daughter. For example, Bronfenbrenner finds that working mothers give more positive descriptions of their young daughters than do non-working mothers (Bronfenbrenner, Alvarez and Henderson, 1984).

A mother's attitude toward her work is an important variable. Numerous studies show that the most negative outcomes are found among children in two subgroups; those with mothers who would prefer to work but are staying at home, and those with working mothers who dislike their jobs or are unwilling workers (DeMeis, Hock, and McBride, 1986; Lerner and Galambos, 1986). The most positive outcomes occur when the mother wants to work and works at a job she likes. In such families, the mother's style of child rearing is more likely to be authoritative (Greenberger and Glodberg, 1989).
According to the well-known psychologist Sandra Scarr (1983), Society is still tyrannized by the belief that any option other than a mother’s care will adversely affect a child’s development.

Scarr’s analyses of the research, carefully designed day-care programs can provide certain advantages for children that do not accrue from full-time care in the home by the mother. The concern about the quality of children’s lives while their parents work remains both valid and widespread. Indeed, it appears that children with employed mothers derive certain benefits denied to those whose mothers are full-time homemakers. According to the data, adolescents whose mothers work tend to be more independent and to describe their mothers as more intelligent and competent than housewives’ children. In contrast to earlier predictions, adolescents with working mothers have not been found to be more delinquent or more academically handicapped than children with unemployed mothers. Moreover, the data suggest that daughters tend to benefit more than sons from their mother’s employment, in terms of their academic and vocational achievements (Dellas, Gaier, and Emihovich, 1979; Gold and Andres, 1978; Hoffman, 1979; Hoffman and Nye, 1974).

One study found daughters of working-class and managerial-class families more approving than sons of their mothers’ employment, while no such differences existed in professional families (Dellas, Gaier, and Emihovich, 1979). This finding suggests that the mother’s employment may be particularly important to girls in lower-income families.

*Employed parents* have different needs than parents who are not working. Several factors—including competition, guilt, and time—may affect the relationship between an employed parent and a caregiver. The parents may feel they are competing with the caregiver for the child’s affection, since both parent and caregiver have formed protective attachments to the child. Situations like these can strain the relationships between parents and childcare workers. For example, child getting closer to other extended family members in absence of parents like grandparents etc. sometimes increases the distance between the parent and the child.
Guilt is another feeling that employed parent's experience. They may feel that they are abandoning their children by leaving them while they work. Children often contribute to their parents' guilty feelings by expressing their dislike of the parents' leaving. Children sometimes show anger by crying and yelling at their parents when it is time to separate. Children may say, "I don't want you to go to work," "Why do you have to go to work?" or "I don't like my school." It is often hard for parents to explain to their preschool children why they are working and why they must leave them. On the other hand, parents sometimes feel even guiltier when their children do not protest.

Time is also a critical factor. Employed parents may feel that they have many roles and duties to perform but not enough time to perform them. Consequently, they often feel overwhelmed. Employed parents place their children in childcare facilities because they are not available to care for the children themselves. Parents who work 40 or more hours a week may feel that they do not have time to volunteer in the center or come in to observe for an hour. The lack of time may intensify the parents' feelings of guilt and competition.

In case of working-mothers when she is absent at the time of problem faced by the child or lack of quality time spend with child may lead to development of defensive and isolate tendencies in the child. It has also been found that those children facing the trauma of father-mother conflict frequently have timid attitude towards life. Also a very prominent tendency (especially in girl child) has been seen in the parents of discriminating siblings in terms of love and affection which might lead to strong feeling of jealousy and ultimately bar the growth of a healthy relation between them. Interactions with peers, in school and neighborhood, and their corresponding competitive effects the child in numerous harmful ways right from delinquencies to deep rooted depressions.

One of the most important changes undergone by the family during adolescence is financial: Family finances are likely to be strained during adolescence keeping up with the accoutrements of the peer culture – the records, cosmetics, clothing etc may push a family budget to the limit. Many families also begin saving money for large anticipated expenditures, such as the adolescent’s higher education. And in some families, parents may find themselves having to
help support their own parents at a time when their children are still economically dependent (Steinberg, 1993). These financial demands require adjustment on the part of the family system, and they may prompt changes in patterns of consumption, activity, work, and household schedules. In some families, the mother may return to full time work solely to earn money for her child’s college and higher education expenses.

Most of the research about the impact of parents’ work patterns on adolescents has involved mothers’ employment, and the findings have been somewhat inconsistent. In one study, 7 out of 10 teenagers said that their mothers’ working had either a positive effect or no effect on them (General Mills, 1981). Teenagers want to be independent to make their own decisions. Mothers who are at home are more likely to continue to direct their adolescents’ activities, and a mother will often feel personally rebuffed if her well-meaning advise or questions are rejected. Another study concluded that adolescent children of working mothers tend to be better adjusted socially, feel better about themselves, have more of a sense of belonging, and get along better with families and with school friends than other teenagers (Gold and Andres, 1978a).

On the negative side, however, teenage children of working mothers tend to spend less time on homework and reading (Milne, Myers, Rosenthal and Ginsburg, 1986). With less supervision, they may also be more subject to peer pressure leading to behaviour problems. Some studies show that the adolescents’ sons of working women held less stereotyped views of the female role, their daughters had higher and less gender-stereotyped career aspirations, were more outgoing, scored higher on several academic measure and seemed better adjusted on various social and personality measures (L. Hoffman, 1989). More recent analysis, however, suggests that a mother's work status is just one of many factors that shape children’s attitudes toward women’s roles (Galambos, Petersen and Lenerz, 1988).

Research by the Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation (2001) discovered that many welfare-to-work programs increased parental employment but had some negative effects on adolescents’ behavior and their school achievement. Working poor mothers may benefit from policies easing the transition into the workforce, however once they are working, difficult work situations and instability of that work often increase stress and decrease maternal availability,
reducing parental monitoring and involvement, weakening mother-youth communication and thus increasing youth risk. The impact may be particularly marked when youth reach early adolescence, as their increasing autonomy and mobility bring exposure to new risky contexts, which without parental monitoring, involvement, and effective communication may entice them into deviant peer affiliations, substance use, school misconduct, and risky sexual activity.

1.8.3.3 Father's Employment or Unemployment:

Research evidence reveals what you might guess intuitively, that when a man loses his job, it puts enormous strain on his marriage; marital conflict rises, and both parents show more symptoms of depression. The resulting effects on family dynamics look such like those seen in divorcing families or in families facing other sorts of stresses. Both parents become less consistent in their behavior toward their children, less affectionate, and less effective at monitoring them (Conger, Patterson, and Ge, 1995). The children respond to this deterioration in their parents' behavior as they do during a divorce, by exhibiting a variety of symptoms, sometimes including depression, aggression, or delinquency. Often their school performance declines (Conger, Ge, Elder, Lorenz, and Simons, 1994; Conger et al., 1992; Flanagan and Eccles, 1993).

But on the whole, the research we have reviewed suggests that maternal employment may often foster rather than impede children's development, as long as working mothers are committed to parenting and have the support they need to be effective parents.

1.8.4 Need For Proper Parent-Child Relationship during Adolescence:

Quality of parent-child relationship reaches a very crucial stage when a youngster reaches adolescence. The conflict between parental control and independence (Steinberg and Silverberg, 1986) confusion over emerging identity (Erickson, 1968; Campbell et al., 1984) creates a change in pattern of intergenerational relationship, family atmosphere and sensitive and balanced parenting is critical for the resolution of the conflict. And in this context availability of the mother is the most important as to every boy and girl's relationship with mother is the closest one. It is to their mother that they can share their problems, ask for
solutions and discuss any situation. Since time immemorial it is observed that when a child is born the primary caregiver is the mother and strong bond automatically is established between mother and child. As child grows up and enters into a greater world of interpersonal relationship, attachment with the mother is never broken, even though mother may criticize the child. Russel et al., (1998) said that mothers are considerate and warm; as a result the children always turn up to the mother in all circumstances. Rearing up of children to a great extent depends on how much mother is made available to her children. There are situations when in spite of mother present in a family, is least bothered about her children. Sometimes birth of sibling may also create a feeling on other sibling that the mother is made available to him/her.

Views on adolescent maturation attribute the destabilization of parent-adolescent relationships to varying features of adolescent maturation. Psychoanalytic theorists (A.Freud, 1958; Freud, 1921/1949) assumed that hormonal changes at puberty give rise to unwelcome oedipal urges that foster impulse control problems and anxiety, as well as rebelliousness and distance from the family. More recent psychoanalytic formulations (Blos, 1979; Erikson, 1968) emphasized adolescent autonomy striving and ego identity development rather than impulse control.

Evolutionary views also emphasize the role of puberty in transforming relationships but propose that changed processes stem from physical and cognitive advances that enable adolescents to separate from the family in order to seek mates elsewhere. Heightened conflict with and diminished closeness to parents are regarded as inevitable by-products of this individuation process.

Parents' reluctance to transform the hierarchical relationships established in childhood into more egalitarian ones creates conflicts and curtails closeness, prompting renegotiations of familial roles (Collins, 1995; Selman, 1980; Youniss, 1980).

The social-psychological perspective also recognizes that changes in parents often play a role in the altered interactions of adolescence (Collins, 1995). Parents' developmental issues related to careers, revaluation of personal goals, or declining hopes for the future can exacerbate the difficulty of adjustments required in parent-adolescent relationships, especially those involving mothers.
All relationships are built upon contact that is characterized by caring, dependability, trust, empathy, acceptance, energy, and time. Relationships that are not tended to and nurtured on a regular basis become problematic and eventually erode or break down. So it is very important for the parents to realize that it's crucial for them to take out some separate time other than their regular work schedule for their children. Hence at first the "relationship time" has to be taken out. Now comes how the time can be used and what is to be accomplished as a result. There are four types of activity that are particularly conducive to building the parent-child relationship while also accomplishing the goals of involvement, self-exploration, recognition, problem-solving and expression of feelings. These are play, conversation, participation in activities outside the home, and verbal recognition.

The more parents engage in playtime with their children, the less struggles they have with discipline and gaining cooperation. Parent's undivided attention during playtime combined with the child's opportunity to be in charge will go far to satisfy his or her needs for attention and power. The idea of conversation is to establish the habit of conversing in an open manner so that the children feel free to express their feelings and ideas to the parents as well as to feel that they can gain their support when a problem occurs.

The parent-child relationship is being assaulted from many directions these days. Parents are under the gun of mounting economic pressures resulting in long work hours, and often more than one job. Our 24-hour a day culture has created a job market that never goes to sleep, and many parents find themselves working hours outside of the usual nine to five workday. This leaves big gaps in childcare arrangements, especially since the school day has continued to remain somewhere between the hours of 7 AM and 4 PM.

Another cultural development that has significantly impacted the family is the explosion of mass media and mass communication, particularly Internet style. This evolutionary step in technology has permanently changed the environment within which parents are trying to monitor and control the development of their children. The massive exposure to all kinds of information, and particularly information that is unhealthy or beyond the scope of a child's developmental age, has placed parents in the untenable position of battling outside influences that tear at the parent-child relationship rather than assisting to safeguard family values, parental guidelines, and promote normal psychological growth. All of this is exacerbated if you
happen to be a single parent trying to do it all. These parents are often just plain tired and worn out, and the idea of trying to sift through the problems that confront their children after a long workday when it's time to cook dinner, do homework, and get everyone into bed can seem daunting to say the least. Nevertheless, the strength of the parent-child relationship is more important than ever as it is our primary means of keeping our children safe, helping them to navigate the world, and assisting them to develop personal strengths for making the right choices. The problem is how to make sure that the parent-child relationship is strong and meets the child's needs in spite of some of the circumstances just described. For many, the relationship is already in need of repair.

Healthy family functioning involves effective communication. Communication is central in all relationships and interactions. The way individuals view and perceive others can change over time, especially when the communication is between a growing adolescent and parents. Effective communication is particularly important when a child reaches adolescence. This is when adolescents start to establish their own identity and begin making decisions for themselves.

Unfortunately, in adolescence, this task becomes more difficult. One reason this is so difficult is because parents often see themselves as 'managers' of their children. They are constantly organizing their children's lives, packing lunches, running to sports practices, and making sure their children are in bed on time. This is fine up until late childhood, however, causes problems at the beginning and all throughout adolescence. Instead of being "managers" of their child's life, parents need to be consultants. "Consultant-parents focus on helping their teenager develop and exercise 'decision-making muscles,'" (Riera, 1995) not managing their lives. By giving up the role of manager, parents are giving their adolescents a chance to become more autonomous.

Research has shown that families are closer, more loving, and more flexible in resolving problems when adolescent-parent communication is effective. This clear communication style can help adolescents to develop a clear and healthy sense of identity and independence. Studies have also found that effective adolescent-parent communication is correlated with the adolescent's well-being, self-esteem and coping abilities.
Young people feel a constant tension between need to break away from their parents and realizing how dependent they really are on them. They have to give up the identity of "little child" and establish their own private identity, while at the same time keeping parental and family ties.

Adolescents' ambivalent feelings are often matched by their own ambivalence. Torn between wanting their children to be independent and expecting to keep them dependent, parents often find it hard to let go. As a result, parents may give teenagers 'double messages' i.e. the parents will say one thing but will actually communicate just the opposites by their actions.

Strained and unhealthy parent-child relationship will make an adolescent revolt against their parents and succumb to negative peer pressures and other related risk behaviors. Although the parent-child relationship undergoes transformation during adolescence, the adjustment of adolescents depends in good measure on the quality of their relationship with their parents.

Although mothers are less involved in children's school activity as they grow older, children feel their parents continue to provide school support in other ways. Parents of older children do not report different parenting practices than parents of younger children. Nonetheless, as they grow older, children feel the quality of their relationship with parent's declines. Older children report that their parents understand them less and that they argue with parents significantly more. Older children feel their parents are less warm and more rejecting, and feel less at ease confiding in their mothers and their fathers than younger children.

Closeness varies from one adolescent to another and from one adolescent-parent pair to another. Adolescents spend more time with their mothers and are more likely to share feelings with them. In contrast, adolescents commonly view fathers as relatively distant figures to be consulted primarily for information and material support (Steinberg and Silk, 2002). Sons and daughters have similarly warm relationships with mothers, but sons are typically closer to fathers than daughters are. These trends tend to accelerate across the adolescent years. Pubertal maturation has been linked to diminish relationship closeness; particularly for fathers and daughters (Hill, 1988), and also with decreases in the amount of time sons spend with mothers and fathers (Larson et al., 1996). Some gender differences may have roots in earlier phases of the relationship. One longitudinal study showed that parent involvement during childhood
predicted closeness during adolescence, with stronger links between early father involvement and closeness to father at age 16 for girls than for boys (Flouri and Buchanan, 2002).

There are good reasons to assume that parent’s influence the ways in which their adolescent children deal with the transition into adulthood. There are at least three possible ways: First, parents may direct the development of their children’s’ interests, goals and values by communicating expectations and setting normative standards; Second, they may influence the ways in which their adolescent child deals with various developmental demands by acting as role models and providing tutoring and Finally, they may contribute to the ways in which adolescents evaluate their success in dealing with these demands by providing support and feedback (Nurmi, 1991). On the other hand, the adolescent’s success in dealing with the key demands of his/her age-graded environments may well influence his/her parents’ expectations concerning their child’s future; adolescents’ competencies and coping skills may evoke the us of certain parenting styles among the parents; and adolescents’ behavior may cause extra stress for parents which then influence their thinking, behavior and even well-being.

1.8.5 Qualitative Parent-Child Relationship:

Quality time spent with child is more important than quantity time. If spend qualitatively even half an hour a day may be sufficient. This is the crux of child psychology. Some measures of qualitative parent-child relationship are as follows:

- A parent should give a lot of emotional security to a child.
- A child must feel that home is stable.
- He must have confidence in his parents.
- Parents should provide themselves as ideal role models practicing what they preach.
- Children must feel that home and parents are a dependable refuge in time of adversity.
- A child who feels reasonably secure faces life with courage and self-confidence.
- It is very important to encourage independent behavior in a child.
- A parent should encourage a child to fight his own battles.
- A parent must recognize a child’s limitations and should tap the child’s potentialities and help to bring out the best in a child.
• Dwell on a child’s positive points and help him overcome his negative qualities.

• Discipline and authority must be within limitations. A child needs to learn that certain things must not be done.

• Communicating with a child is very important and can be developed by eating together, playing together, having the occasional outing together like going out for meal or a holiday even if only for a couple of days or a week.

For a proper qualitative parent-child relationship another prerequisite is that of a Good Home where both the parties can have healthy scope of development in intrapersonal relationship. Some characteristics of a good home are as follows: (Fig. 1).

• Affection
• Democracy
• Lack of conflict
• Comradeship
• Good personal adjustment on the part of the parents
• Development of the parents
• Interest in the children
• Firm, consistent, fair, and objective discipline
• A wholesome attitude toward sex and adequate sex instruction
• Gradual release of responsibilities to the child

1.8.6 Parent-Adolescent Conflict:

Conflict, which is ubiquitous in close relationships, is especially prominent between family members. Theories of adolescent development give a central role to increasing conflict in relationships with parents and to increasing closeness with peers and extrafamilial adults (Laursen and Collins, 1994). Surveys of adolescents indicate that disagreements are most common with mothers, followed by siblings, friends, and romantic partners, then fathers; angry disputes arise more frequently with family members than with close peers (Laursen, 1995).
Parent lacks understanding

* Supersensitive
  * Expressions of hate

Parent exhibits frequent anger

* Moping by herself
* Class cutting

Parent manifests frequent irritation

* Self-Consciousness
* Crying

Parent shows evidence of disappointment in child

* Difficulty in making friends
  * Expressions of inferiority
  * Absence from meals

Parent makes unreasonable demands

* Expressions of prejudice

Parent has irritating mannerisms

* Listlessness

Parent is nervous

* Failure to keep appointments
* Resentment of criticism
* Difficulty in making introduction

Parent frequently criticizes child

* Violation of major rules
Conflict is more likely to surface between adolescents and their mothers than adolescents and their fathers. This may be partly because mothers have been more closely involved with their children and may find it harder to give up their involvement. It may be also because fathers tend to withdraw from their teenage daughters out of discomfort of sexual stirrings etc. Discord generally increases during early adolescence, stabilizes during middle adolescence, and then decreases after the young person is about 18 years of age. Quarrels may reflect some deep quest for independence, or they may be just the continuation of parents’ effort to teach children to conform to the social rules.

Parents of adolescents have to be more flexible in their thinking and more egalitarian with their children than they were when the children were younger. They need to walk a fine line between granting their children a gradually increasing level of independence and protect them from immature lapses in judgment. If separation or emotional independence from the family comes too early, it can spell trouble for a teenager. This trouble can take the form of alienation, susceptibility to negative peer influence and unhealthy behavior like drug use and pre-mature sexual intimacy (Steinberg, 1987).

Most parent-adolescent disagreements concern mundane famously tagged by Hill (1988) as ‘garbage and galoshes’ disputes. Regardless of the topic, the majority of disagreements between parents and adolescents are resolved through submission or disengagement; compromise is relatively rare (Laursen, 1995). Most conflicts between parents and adolescents have few negative effects on the relationship, although chronic fighting has been linked to adolescent maladjustment (Smetana, 1996). Compared to disagreements between adolescent friends, those between adolescents and their parents follow a more coercive script. For example, disagreements with parents more often involve mundane topics, power assertive resolutions, neutral or angry effect, and win-loose outcomes (Adams and Laursen, 2001).

In the meta-analysis by Laursen et al. (1998), conflict rates declined more during adolescence in mother-child relationships than in father-child relationships. Although studies of gender differences in affective reactions to conflict are relatively rare, the few existing findings imply that gender does not moderate age-related trends. Conflict resolutions vary as a function of both parent and adolescent gender: Compromise is more common with mothers than with
fathers, and disengagement is more typical of conflict with sons than of conflict with daughters (Smetana, Yau, and Hanson 1991; Vuchinich, 1987).

1.8.7 Parent-Adolescent Attachment:

Attachment in adolescence is distinctive from attachment in earlier relationships, both behaviorally and cognitively. Strong emotional ties to parents may be indicated in subtle and very private ways, including friendly teasing and small acts of concern, as well as in more obvious forms of interdependence such as shared activities with fathers and self-disclosure to mothers. Cognitive advances in adolescence make possible an integrated, over arching view regarding experiences that involve care giving, care taking and confidence in the availability of significant others. Consequently, whereas younger children view attachment in terms that are more specific to the parent-child relationship, adolescents are increasingly attuned to both the similarities and the differences between relationships with parents, other significant adults, friends and eventually romantic partners and offspring (Allen and Land, 1999).

The attachment of parent-child/adolescent relationship is a natural and/or biological phenomenon. The stronger the attachment is the better will be the parent-child relationship and in turn it would lead the adolescent in right direction.

Extensive research suggests that attachment has important implications for adjustment in childhood. For example, in normative samples, children who are securely attached to their mothers engage in more pro-social behaviour and are perceived as more socially competent than insecure children (Sroufe, 1983). They demonstrate higher positive affect and lower negative affect in social interactions than insecure children. Securely attached children are also rated by their teachers as more empathic and more compliant (LaFreniere and Sroufe, 1985).

On the other hand, several sources of research show a link between insecure attachment patterns (avoidant, ambivalent, disorganized) in infancy and non-compliance and aggression in early childhood. Consistent with the theory that insecure attachment is related to poor emotional regulation, longitudinal studies have demonstrated that avoidant attachment in infancy predicts negativity, non-compliance and hyperactivity at 3.5 years of age, and higher ratings of problem behaviour in Grades 1 to 3. Compared to secure children, avoidant children
are more aggressive and confrontational with their mothers (Main and Weston, 1981), and more aggressive, hostile and distant with their peers (Sroufe, 1983; Erickson, Sroufe and Egeland, 1985). Similarly, disorganized attachment in infancy has been shown to predict later aggressive behaviour. Several researchers have shown, for example, that children with disorganized attachment patterns in infancy develop controlling and coercive behaviour as they move into the preschool and early childhood period (Lyons-Ruth, Repacholi, McLeod and Silva, 1991; Wartner, Grossmann, Fremmer-Bombik and Suess, 1994). Ambivalently attached children, on the other hand, are more adult-oriented and emotionally dependent than securely attached children (Erickson, Sroufe and Egeland, 1985; Renken, Egeland, Marvinney, Mangelsdorf et al., 1989). With peers, ambivalently attached children have been found to be lower in peer status, more withdrawn and more apt to be victimized (LaFreniere and Sroufe, 1985; Renken et al., 1989; Finnegan, Hodges and Perry, 1996).

Insecure attachment patterns are not, however, consistently related to later behaviour problems. A number of researchers (Fagot and Kavanagh, 1990; Goldberg, Perrotta, Minde and Corter, 1986) do not report that avoidant or disorganized attachment predicts later aggressive behaviour. A review of this literature shows that the association between insecurity of attachment and amount of later problem behaviour is found more consistently among children in high-risk contexts (e.g. family poverty, low social support, parental psychopathology) than among children in low-risk contexts. For example, Lyons-Ruth et al., (1991) found that infant security was most predictive of later aggressive problems in families where mothers suffered from psychopathology, particularly chronic depression, and where mothers engaged in hostile, intrusive parenting practices toward the infant. These authors reported that 56.0% of low-income children who were classified as disorganized in infancy and whose mothers suffered from psychopathology at that time displayed aggressive behaviour in kindergarten. In contrast, only 25% of low-income children with one risk factor and 5% of low-income children with no risk factor (i.e. neither maternal psychopathology nor maternal use of hostile, intrusive parenting) showed aggressive behaviour in kindergarten.

Adolescence is the period of the second separation-individuation process (Blos, 1967). It is the second because the first takes place in early childhood, between the ages of 1 and 2. During the first process the child discovers that s/he is "other" than the primary carer and that the primary
The second separation-individuation involves a much more radical disengagement. Youngsters achieve their definitive autonomy with regard to their parents. They become independent and learn gradually to make their own decisions. This process entails restructuring their network of significant others. At the start of adolescence parents occupy the central position in their personal network. Gradually friends and later a partner become increasingly important in this network, and take the place of the parents as the most important reference persons.

During the separation-individuation process the adolescent begin to interact increasingly with peers. Since youngsters have no formal power over each other, interaction among peers is based on the principle of symmetry and equality (Youniss & Smollar, 1985). During the course of adolescence youngsters are therefore learning to get along with each other on the basis of equality. This learning process also has an effect on the relationship with the parents. Equality gradually becomes a more important principle in the parent-adolescent interaction, replacing the dominance of the parents.

Grotevant and Cooper (1985, 1986) suggested that young people who have a good bond with their parents (connectedness) are most able to disengage from the parents and to develop into independent individuals (individuation). This is because parents who feel that they have a good bond with their children provide the appropriate stimulation for them to establish themselves independently. Successful adolescent individuation and mutual connectedness between parents and their children are therefore two sides of the same coin.

1.9 Parental Discipline and Adolescent:

1.9.1 Parenting Styles and Their Impact on Adolescent Development:

There are varieties of ways to characterize parents' behavior toward their children. Two aspects of the parents' behavior toward the adolescent are critical: parental responsiveness and parental demandingness (Maccoby and Martin, 1983). Responsiveness refers to the degree to which the parent responds to the child's needs in an accepting, supportive manner.
Demandingness refers to the extent to which the parent expects and demands mature, responsible behavior from the child. Parents vary on each of these dimensions. Some are warm and accepting while others are unresponsive and rejecting; some are demanding and expect a great deal of their child while others are permissive and demand very little. A parent who is very responsive but not at all demanding is labeled indulgent, whereas one who is equally responsive but also very demanding is labeled authoritative. Parents who are very demanding but not responsive are authoritarian; parents who are neither demanding nor responsive are labeled indifferent. Authoritative parents are warm but firm. They deal with their child in a rational issue orientated manner, frequently engaging in discussions and explanation with their children over matters of discipline. They place a high value on the development of autonomy and self-direction and assume the ultimate responsibility for their child’s behavior.

Authoritarian parents place a high value on obedience and conformity. They tend to favor more punitive, absolute, and forceful disciplinary measures. Verbal give and take is not common in authoritarian households. They tend not to encourage independent behavior and, instead, place a good deal of importance on restricting the child’s autonomy. Indulgent parents place relatively few demands on the child’s behavior. They behave in an accepting, benign and somewhat more passive way in matters of discipline. Indulgent parents are more likely to believe that control is an infringement on the child’s freedom that may interfere with the child’s healthy development. Indifferent parents try to do whatever is necessary to minimize the time and energy that they must devote to interacting with their child. In extreme cases, indifferent parents may be neglectful. Rather than raising their child according to a set of believes about what is good for the child’s development, indifferent parents are ‘parent-centered’ – they structure their home life primarily around their own needs and interests.

Adolescents raised in authoritative homes are more psychosocially competent than peers who have been raised in other three categorized types of homes. Adolescents raised in authoritative homes are more responsible, self-assured, adaptive, creatives, curious and socially skilled. Those raised in authoritarian homes are more dependent, more passive, less socially adapt, less self-assured, and less intellectually curious. Adolescents raised in indulgent households are often less matured, more irresponsible, more confirming to their peers and less able to assume positions of leadership. Adolescents raised in indifferent homes are often impulsive and more
likely to be involved in delinquent behavior and in precocious experiments with sex, drugs, and alcohol (Pulkkinen, 1982). In general, the effects of non-responsiveness tend to be slightly worse among girls than among boys, whereas the effects of non-demandingness tend to be slightly worse among boys than among girls. The evidence linking authoritative parenting and healthy adolescent development is remarkably strong, and it has been found in studies of a wide range of ethnic and socioeconomic groups (Baumrind, 1978; Bronfenbrenner, 1961; Hill, 1980; Maccoby and Martin, 1983).

Parental authoritativeness denotes a complex amalgam of actions and attitudes that give priority to the child’s needs and abilities while at the same time implying age-appropriate maturity demands (Baumrind, 1991; Darling and Steinberg, 1993; Maccoby, 1992). By contrast, authoritarian parenting styles are typified by interactions implying relative neglect of the child’s needs in favor of the parent’s agenda, strong demands for child compliance, and forceful methods for gaining compliance and punishing infractions. Interactions associated with permissive parenting styles imply low demands from parents related either to child centered indulgence towards the child’s self-direction or parent-centered inattentiveness and neglect of the child (Maccoby and Martin, 1983).

Many parents are understandably concerned about the likely impact of peer group on the adolescent’s behavior. Research has consistently shown that adolescents from authoritative households are self-directed, autonomous and self-assured – and remain so in the face of strong peer pressure (Devereaux, 1970).

Research on effective parenting practices also has produced findings that support the basic premises of adolescent individuation. Studies have found that the incidence of antisocial or delinquent behavior is related to the amount of behavioral control, specifically parental monitoring and discipline, that parents exercise over their children (Barber et al. 1995; Patterson, 1992; Patterson, DeBarsyshe, and Ramsey, 1989; Patterson and Dishion, 1985). Parental monitoring involves surveillance or supervision of a child. Parental discipline involves the application, in a consistent and caring manner, of negative sanctions for misbehaviors and positive sanctions for pro-social behaviors. In general, a high or moderate level of direct behavioral control exercised by parents has been found to be negatively related to delinquency, drug use, deviant acts, and school misconduct, even after other factors such as the adolescent's
drug use, deviant acts, and school misconduct, even after other factors such as the adolescent's age, race, gender, and family socioeconomic status are taken into account (Barnes and Farrell, 1992; Baumrind, 1987; Patterson and Dishion, 1985; Rankin and Wells, 1990). However, the effectiveness of differing levels of parental control has been found to vary depending on the adolescent's gender, age, and community context (Heath, 1988; Rankin and Wells, 1990).

Behavioral control appears to be most effective in deterring antisocial behaviors when there is a bond between parent and child (Sampson and Laub, 1994). Loving parent-child relationships are not sufficient to ensure positive developmental pathways without discipline and supervision. Similarly, discipline and supervision are not sufficient without the existence of a bond between the adult and child.

Parental monitoring, although it may be a source of family conflict, promotes the development of a sense of connectedness to parents because it signals to adolescents that parents are engaged and care about them.

1.9.2 Need For Balanced Parental Disciplinary Measures:

The word ‘discipline’ connotes the strategies to reduce or eliminate undesirable behaviour. However, more successful child rearing systems uses procedures to both increase desirable and decrease undesirable behaviours. Discipline is one important way we socialize children. The goal of socialization is to teach children how to function effectively in society. It is the role of parents to provide children with experience, opportunities and examples of successful behavior. Discipline is also allowing or creating consequences for a child’s behavior. The parents have to be utmost careful if giving the child rewards as well as punishments. Proper balance must be set between the two otherwise it will be harmful to the child.

Providing appropriate discipline to children is one of the most essential responsibilities of a parent. And providing consistent and positive discipline helps children grow into responsible adults.

The earliest discipline strategy is passive and occurs as infants and their caregivers gradually develop a mutually satisfactory schedule of feeding, sleeping, and awakening. Biologic
rhythms tend to become more regular and adapt to family routines. Signals of discomfort, such as crying and thrashing, are modified as infants acquire memories of how their distress has been relieved and learn new strategies to focus attention on their emerging needs.

As children grow older and interact with wider, more complex physical and social environments, the adults who care for them must develop increasingly creative strategies to protect them and teach them orderly and desirable patterns of behavior. As a result of consistent structure and teaching (discipline), children integrate the attitudes and expectations of their caregivers into their behavior. Preschoolers begin to develop an understanding of rules, and their behavior is guided by these rules and by the consequences associated with them. As children become school age, these rules become internalized and are accompanied by an increasing sense of responsibility and self-control. Responsibility for behavior is transferred gradually from the care giving adult to the child, and is especially noticeable during the transition to adolescence. Thus, parents must be prepared to modify their discipline approach over time, using different strategies as the child develops greater independence and capacity for self-regulation and responsibility. The process can be more challenging with children who have developmental disabilities and may require additional or more intense strategies to manage their behavior.

Poor maternal supervision and low persistence in discipline predicted CD in the Developmental Trends Study (Frick et al., 1992) but not independently of parental antisocial personality disorder. Of all child-rearing factors, poor parental supervision is the strongest and most replicable predictor of delinquency (Smith and Stern, 1997), and harsh or punitive discipline involving physical punishment is also an important predictor (Haapasalo and Pokela, 1999).

Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, and Darling (1992) distinguished an authoritarian style of parenting (Punitively emphasizing obedience) from an authoritative style (granting autonomy with supervision). In the Cambridge study (Farrington, 1994), having authoritarian parents was the second most important predictor of convictions for violence (after hyperactivity and poor concentration). An authoritarian, punitive parenting style is also related to child bullying (Baldry and Farrington, 1998).
Behaviors that are typical of authoritative families consistently are linked in research findings to behaviors that are generally considered to indicate positive adjustment. Current models (e.g., Darling and Steinberg, 1993; Grotevant and Cooper, 1986; Hauser et al., 1991) posit that the quality of parent-child exchanges and shared decision-making, over and above the specific content of parental teaching, contribute to the development of competencies that are compatible with autonomous, responsible behavior (Collins et al., 1997). Among these competencies are role taking skills and advanced ego development and identity exploration. More matured levels of these competencies are associated with parent-adolescent relationships marked by behaviors that encourage both *individuation* (holding and expressing autonomous views, being one's own person) and *connectedness* (feeling a bond with other family members; e.g., Allen, Hauser, Bell, and O'Conner, 1994; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, and Dornbusch, 1991).

The different parenting styles engender differentially effective skills for autonomous, responsible behavior. Grotevant and Cooper (1986) and Hauser et al., (1991) proposed that parents who encourage both individuation and connectedness foster the development of capabilities for more socially responsible competent behavior. In this respect, parent-child relationships may provide continuities between childhood learning and the demands of adolescence and adulthood that facilitate the integration of past and future roles.

**1.9.3 Effect Of Harsh Parental Disciplinary Measures:**

Harsher parenting (more yelling and use of physical punishment, less reasoning) leads children to feel their parents are more rejecting and cold toward them. How children perceive their relationship with their parents is related to child adjustment. Children who enjoy a more positive relationship with their parents have higher self-esteem, feel less depressed and are less anxious. Children who perceive their parents as more rejecting are more likely to smoke and use alcohol; they are more aggressive, bully others more, commit more property offences and affiliate more with deviant friends. They are also more likely to be victimized by others.

Implications of Harsh Disciplinary Measures are as follows:
- Increases anxiety and fear
- Hinders the development of empathy and compassion for others
- Makes children angry in response
- Heightens aggression toward others
- Decreases compliance and increases resistance
- Harms relationship with parent or caregiver
- Potentially causes unintended and severe physical injury
- Decreases self-esteem
- Increases the probability for an array of undesirable social and psychological behaviors
- Teaches that violence is an acceptable way to handle conflict

American Humane, as a policy, opposes the use of physical discipline on children at home, in the community, or in school. In two national surveys, Murray A. Straus, co-director of the Family Research Laboratory at the University of New Hampshire, found that 90% of parents of three- and four-year-olds had struck their children and that 22% of parents of children under one year of age had also hit their children. The second study in 1997 found that 44% of mothers reported spanking their children during the previous week, and reported spanking their children approximately twice a week (Straus, Sugarman, & Giles-Sims, 1997).

Children in the 1997 study whose parents used corporal punishment to reduce anti-social behavior actually experienced the opposite from their children in the long run an increased probability of aggression and other antisocial behavior.

American Humane encourages parents and other caregivers to use techniques that constitute a positive and appropriate discipline of children, such as:

- Discipline with love
- Listen and communicate
- Focus on the behavior, not the child
- Respond immediately
- Relate the discipline to the offending behavior in duration and severity
- Be realistic
- Remain calm
- Be fair
- Do not harm or injure
- Set boundaries
- Make it a learning opportunity
- Be consistent
- Be creative
- Develop rules and expectations in advance
- Use timeouts
- Reward or praise desirable behaviors
- Model desired behavior
- Encourage the child’s cooperation and understanding
- Develop behavioral contracts and incentive charts

Be a role model. This can help you teach your children appropriate behavior, self-control, responsibility, and accountability, while increasing their self-esteem. If you need help managing your own behavior or want to learn better parenting techniques, contact your local child protective services agency, community center, church, physician, mental health facility, or school for a referral or assistance.

1.9.4 Drawbacks to Using Physical Discipline:

Physical discipline is not an effective technique for several reasons. Physical punishment doesn't teach the child what to do, only that some behavior is wrong. Children may also behave appropriately out of fear, and then the behavior change may not generalize to other situations. They may also only behave when the parent or another adult is around. One thing that is then learned is how to be sneaky.

When parents use physical punishment, especially if it seems too severe or unfair to the child, this can hurt the parent-child relationship. It can be hard for children to trust an adult when they're scared of this adult, and this can affect the degree to which the parent can respond to and nurture the child. The punishment may also not be effective.

1.9.5 Reinforcing Positive Behaviour among Adolescents:

For discipline techniques to be most effective, they must occur in the context of a relationship in which children feel loved and secure. In this context, parents' responses to children's behavior, whether approving or disapproving, are likely to have the greatest effect because the parents' approval is important to the children. Parental responses within the context of loving and secure relationships also provide children with a sense that their environment is stable and
that a competent adult is taking care of them, which leads to the development of a sense of personal worth. As children respond to the positive nature of the relationship and consistent discipline, the need for frequent negative interactions decreases, and the quality of the relationship improves further for both parents and children. To this end, the best educators of children are people who are good role models and about whom children care enough to want to imitate and please. The most important for the parents in disciplining their child is to serve as proper role models for them. Being a role model can help the parents to teach their children appropriate behavior, self-control, responsibility, and accountability, while increasing their self-esteem. Certain conditions in the parent-child relationship have been found to be especially important in promoting positive child behavior, including:

- Maintaining a positive emotional tone in the home through play and parental warmth and affection for the child;
- Providing attention to the child to increase positive behavior (conversely ignoring, removing, or withholding parent attention to decrease the frequency or intensity of undesirable behaviors). For older children, attention includes being aware of and interested in their school and other activities;
- Providing consistency in the form of regular times and patterns for daily activities and interactions to reduce resistance, convey respect for the child, and make negative experiences less stressful;
- Responding consistently to similar behavioral situations to promote more harmonious parent-child relationships and more positive child outcomes; and
- Being flexible, particularly with older children and adolescents, through listening and negotiation to reduce fewer episodes of child noncompliance with parental expectations. Involving the child in decision-making has been associated with long-term enhancement in moral judgment.

These factors are important in developing a positive, growth-enhancing relationship between parent and child. Even in the best relationships, however, parents will need to provide behavioral limits that their children will not like, and children will behave in ways that are unacceptable to parents. Disagreement and emotional discord occur in all families, but in families with reinforcing positive parent-child relationships and clear expectations and goals for behavior, these episodes are less frequent and less disruptive.
1.9.6 Reducing Undesirable Behavior among Adolescents:

When undesirable behavior occurs, discipline strategies to reduce or eliminate such behavior are needed. Undesirable behavior includes behavior that places the child or others in danger, is noncompliant with the reasonable expectations and demands of the parents or other appropriate adults (e.g., teachers), and interferes with positive social interactions and self-discipline. Some of these behaviors require an immediate response because of danger or risk to the child. Other undesirable behaviors require a consistent consequence to prevent generalization of the behavior to other situations. Some problems, particularly those that involve intense emotional exchanges, may be handled best by taking a break from the situation and discussing it later when emotions have subsided, developing alternative ways to handle the situation (removing attention), or, in many cases, avoiding these situations altogether.

- Extinction including time-out and removal of privileges, and punishment are two common discipline approaches that have been associated with reducing undesired behavior. These different strategies, sometimes both confusingly called punishments, are effective if applied appropriately to specific behaviors. Although they both reduce undesired behavior, they work in very different ways and have very different short- and long-term effects. For both strategies, the following factors may increase the effectiveness: clarity on the part of the parent and child about what the problem behavior is and what consequence the child can expect when this behavior occurs;
- Providing a strong and immediate initial consequence when the targeted behavior first occurs;
- Consistently providing an appropriate consequence each time a targeted problematic behavior occurs;
- Delivering instruction and correction calmly and with empathy; and
- Providing a reason for a consequence for a specific behavior, which helps children beyond toddler age to learn the appropriate behavior and improves their overall compliance with requests from adults.

1.9.7 Punishment – Its Role in Disciplining the Adolescent:

Punishment is defined as the application of a negative stimulus to reduce or eliminate a behavior. There are two types typically used with children: punishment involving verbal
reprimands and disapproval and punishment involving physical pain, as in corporal punishment.

1.9.7.1 Verbal Reprimands:

Many parents use disapproving verbal statements as a form of punishment to alter undesired behavior. When used infrequently and targeted toward specific behaviors, such reprimands may be transiently effective in immediately halting or reducing undesired behaviors. However, if used frequently and indiscriminately, verbal reprimands lose their effectiveness and become reinforces of undesired behavior because they provide attention to the child. Verbal reprimands given by parents during time-out are a major cause of reduced effectiveness of this form of discipline. Verbal reprimands should refer to the undesirable behavior and not slander the child’s character.

1.9.7.2 Corporal Punishment:

Corporal punishment involves the application of some form of physical pain in response to undesirable behavior. Corporal punishment ranges from slapping the hand of a child about to touch a hot stove to identifiable child abuse, such as beatings, scolding, and burnings. Because of this range in the form and severity of punishment, its use as a discipline strategy is controversial. Although significant concerns have been raised about the negative effects of physical punishment and its potential escalation into abuse, a form of physical punishment—spanking—remains one of the strategies used most commonly to reduce undesired behaviors. Spanking, as discussed here, refers to striking a child with an open hand on the buttocks or extremities with the intention of modifying behavior without causing physical injury. Other forms of physical punishment, such as striking a child with an object with such intensity that marks lasting more than a few minutes occur, pulling a child’s hair, jerking a child by the arm, shaking a child, and physical punishment delivered in anger with intent to cause pain, are unacceptable and may be dangerous to the health and well-being of the child. These types of physical punishment should never be used.
1.10 Peers and Adolescents:

1.10.1 Formation Of Peer Group:

In contemporary society, peer groups play an especially important role in the socialization of adolescents. One of the most hotly debated topics in the study of adolescence is whether the prominence of peer groups in contemporary society is harmful to the development of young people. The basic unit of the adolescent peer group is the clique. Cliques play an extremely important role in structuring adolescents’ social activities. Generally, adolescents tend to associate with people who are from similar backgrounds and who share similar interests and attitudes. Peers play a critical role in psychosocial development during adolescence. Problematic peer relationships are associated with a range of psychological and behavioural problems.

Adolescents’ peer groups are usually organized around Cliques, small groups between 2 and 12 individuals – the average is about 5 or 6 – generally of the same sex and age (Dunphy, 1975; Hollingshead, 1949/1975). Cliques play a vital role in structuring adolescents’ social activities. Usually, teenagers who are in the same clique plan their social and leisure activities together, do things together, and go places as a group. The clique provides the adolescent with a sense of identity, by serving as a basis of comparison, or reference group. It is partly through comparison with other clique members that adolescents learn about themselves and evaluate their experiences in school, at home, and in the broader peer group. Clique identities are important not only because they are used by adolescents when talking about one another but also because they become the basis for an adolescent’s own identity. Because adolescent’s peer group plays such an important role as a reference group and a source of identity, the nature of the crowd with which an adolescent affiliates is likely to have an important influence on his/her behavior, activities, and self-conceptions.

A peer group is conceived as a small group of similarly aged, fairly closes friends, sharing the same activities. Adolescents spend much of their time in these groups. According to Bradford Brown (1990), high school students spend twice as much of their time with peers as with parents or other adults.
Peer relations are extremely important for the teen in that they experience a whole new realm of reality, unique to themselves. Teens are more self-disclosing to peers about things like dating, views on sexuality, personal experiences, common perspectives, interests, and doubts.

As children grow, develop, and move into early adolescence, involvement with one's peers and the attraction of peer identification increases. As pre-adolescents begin rapid physical, emotional and social changes, they begin to question adult standards and the need for parental guidance. They find it reassuring to turn for advice to friends who understand and sympathize — friends who are in the same position themselves.

Children who lack friendships or who have difficulty with peer relationships miss out on their many benefits. Friends provide companionship and support each other in times of stress, such as during parental divorce or when they are having trouble in school. Friends are a source of fun and stimulating recreational activities; they are loyal allies during tough interactions on the playground or in the locker room; and they are confidants and holders of secrets.

Peer relationships are very important to teens

- Friendships provide teens with opportunities to develop conflict resolution skills. Teens can learn how to end a fight and still remain friends
- Friends provide fun and excitement for teens through companionship and recreation
- Friends also give advice to one another. Teens talk through lots of issues and problems with their friends
- Loyalty is a valued trait in friendship. Teens are looking for loyal allies that can help them out at school or in their own neighborhood
- Friendships also provide stability during times of stress or transition. It is helpful to teens to have a friend who is going through the same situations and can ease the anxieties of the times. Teens without friends tend to be more lonely and unhappy.

Friendships change as youth move into their teen years

- Teens tend to spend more time with their peers
- They are also more mobile than when younger so more time is spent with peers without parental supervision
• During the teen years, there will be increased contact with opposite-sex peers

• In the early teen years, often small groups of friends or cliques are formed which help to boost their confidence and give them a sense of identity

1.10.2 Parent, Adolescent and Peer Relations:

1. During adolescence, parents and adolescents become more physically and psychologically distant from each other. This normal distancing is seen in decreases in emotional closeness and warmth, increases in parent-adolescent conflict and disagreement, and an increase in time adolescents spend with peers. Unfortunately, this sometimes is caused because parents are emotionally unavailable to their teenaged children

2. Increases in family strains (economic pressures, divorce, etc.) have prompted teenagers to depend more on peers for emotional support. By the high school years, most teenagers report feeling closer to friends than parents. Stress caused by work, marital dissatisfaction, family break-up caused by divorce, entering a step-family relationship, lower family income or increasing expenses, all produce increased individual and family stress

3. Parent-adolescent conflict increases between childhood and early adolescence, although in most families, its frequency and intensity remain low. Typically, conflicts are the result of relationship negotiation and continuing attempts by parents to socialize their adolescents, and do not signal the breakdown of parent-adolescent relations. Parents need to include adolescents in decision-making and rule-setting that affects their lives

4. Parents and adolescents are in distressed relationships characterized by emotional coldness and frequent outbursts of anger and conflict. Unresolved conflicts produce discouragement and withdrawal from family life. Adolescents in these families are at high risk for various psychological and behavioral problems

5. Formal dating patterns of two generations ago have been replaced with informal socializing patterns in mixed-sex groups. This may encourage casual sexual
relationships that heighten the risk of exposure to AIDS and other sexually transmitted
diseases

6. As high schools become more culturally diverse environments, ethnicity is replacing
individual abilities or interests as the basis for defining peer ‘crowds.’ Crowds can be
an important source of ethnic identity, but also the center of racial and ethnic tension in
schools

7. There has been an increase in part-time employment among youth, but it has had little
impact on peer relations. To find time for work, teenagers drop extracurricular
activities, reduce time spent on homework, and withdraw from family interactions, but
they ‘protect’ time spent with friends.

1.10.3 Adolescents and Pressure from Peers:

Peer pressure can be described as the influences and pressures adolescents feel from their
peers (Atwater, 1988). Peer pressures can range from positive influences, such as academic and
athletic achievement, to negative influences, such as drug and alcohol use.

Adolescent/teenagers submit to peer pressure for many reasons:

- To get a sense of acceptance and belonging
- To get recognition
- To look mature
- To have fun

Adolescents experience pressure from all domains. Negative peer pressure has always been a
factor in adolescence. Adolescent problem behaviours, particularly those involving drug abuse,
delinquency and sexual acting out are the result of negative peer pressure. However, the flip
side is that there is also positive peer pressure. Studies of peer pressure indicate that most
teenagers feel that their friends are likely to pressure them not to use drugs or not to engage in
sexual activities (Steinberg, 1996). There are also positive pressures to participate and excel in
athletics, music, and various other types of extracurricular activities (Steinberg, 1996). This
can be viewed as a way for adolescents to become better rounded, exploring positive domains
other than academics. Adolescents during this period are very aware of social status of different groups and this can affect self-evaluation. If an adolescent perceives himself in an unpopular or low status group, this can harm or decrease their self-worth and self-esteem.

1.10.3.1 Peer Pressure Versus Parental Influence:

Family support is crucial to adolescents. Adolescents take their major values in life from their parents. When adolescents are negatively influenced by their peers, it is more likely because something is lacking in parental involvement (Atwater, 1988). Those who do not have a high level of support from their parents are more likely to become involved in undesirable behaviors. Support and effective communication lessen adolescent's vulnerability to negative peer pressure.

Parents and peers play different roles in individual's attempts to negotiate their ways through adolescence. For example, Tao Hunter (1985) found that adolescents discuss with their parents particularly topics that related to adolescents' social and economic functioning in adulthood. By contrast they discussed with their friends particularly issues concerning interpersonal relationships. Another important issue is the extent to which adolescent's relationships with their parents and peers are associated. Fuligni and Eccles (1993) found that adolescents who perceived high parental strictness and little opportunity for decision-making where higher in extreme peer orientation.

Adolescents are better able than younger children to express their thoughts and feelings and share them with friends. Gender affects friendships too. Emotional support and sharing of confidences are particularly vital to female friendships throughout life (Blyth and Foster-Clark, 1987; Bukowski and Kramer, 1986). Boys and men tend to count more people as friends than girls and women do, but male friendships are rarely as close as female friendships. In a survey of 134 sixteen- to eighteen year old girls, those who had the closest friendships also had affectionate ties with their mothers, saw their mothers as non-authoritarian, and wanted to be like their mothers (M. Gold and Yanof, 1985) their close relationships with their mothers may well have helped these girls to develop enough trust and autonomy to be ready for intimacy with other people. Adolescents who have close friends are high in self-esteem, consider themselves competent, and do well in school; those whose friendships involve a high degree of
conflict score lower in all these measures (Berndt and Perry, 1990). Adolescents tend to choose friends who are already like them; then, friends influence each other to become even more alike (Berndt, 1982; Berndt and Perry, 1990). Friends tend to have similar status within the larger peer group. Similarity is more important to friendship in adolescence than later in life, probably because teenagers are struggling to differentiate themselves from their parents and, as a result, needs support from people who are like them (Weiss and Lowenthal, 1975). This need for support also shows in the way adolescents often imitate each other's behavior and are influenced by peer pressure. As a result, adolescents some time find themselves in a tug-of-war between parents and peers.

1.10.3.2 Coping With Peer Pressure:

- If the negative effect of peer pressure is to be minimized, youth, parents, school and community leaders must come together to establish workable and effective strategies to guide teen behavior and to support their transition from children to mature, responsible adults. Here are several strategies to consider (Brown, 1990)

- Nurture teenagers' abilities and self-esteem so they can forge positive peer relationships. The parent, schools and other agencies can be taught how to help develop the adolescent's self-concept and self-worth so he or she is a valued person

- Empower parents and educators to help teenagers pursue and maintain positive peer relationships. They can provide adolescents with the opportunity to succeed in constructive ways, which are valued by the teen, the parent and the community alike

- Encourage cross-ethnic and "cross-class" peer interactions and guide teenagers in dealing positively with cultural diversity and individual differences. Schools and youth organizations can assist by encouraging youth from diverse backgrounds to work and play together

- Parents need to be better informed about the dynamics of adolescent peer groups and the demands and expectations teenagers face in peer relationships
1.1 Socioeconomic Status and Its Effect on the Adolescent:

Social class, or socioeconomic status, refers to one's position within a society that is satisfied according to status or power. Compared with middle and upper class parents, lower and working class parents tend to:

- Stress obedience and respect for authority more and to place somewhat less emphasis on fostering independence, curiosity and creativity.
- Be more restrictive and authoritarian, more frequently using power-assertive discipline.
- Talk to and reason with their children less frequently.

Some middle-class parents are highly restrictive, power assertive, and aloof in their approach to child rearing, whereas many lower and working class parent's function more like their typical counterparts in the middle class (Kelley, Power and Wimbush, 1992, Laosa, 1981). But on average, it appears that lower and working class parents are somewhat more critical, punitive and intolerant of disobedience than parents from the middle and upper socio economic strata.

Social class has been shown to affect both skills and time spent at parenting work. Co-parenting, in which parenting responsibilities are shared more or less equally by parents, appears to occur predominately in middle and middle-upper class families. Androgynous parents typically are more highly educated. In these families, the parents' overall circumstances are comparable: Couples who reported that they shared child care were found more likely to have a male first-born, compatible work arrangements, and similar levels of income than were traditional couples. They were also more likely to feel that their relationship was egalitarian and that the division of labor in the household was satisfactory.

Although few social contexts (i.e. maternal education, family income, maternal employment and single-parent family) directly affect child adjustment, some influence the quality of parent-child relationships. Children of mothers with less education and children in families with lower
income tend to perceive their relationships with their parents more negatively. These negative perceptions in turn are associated with poorer adjustment. Maternal employment and single-parent status do not affect child adjustment independent of parenting and the parent-child relationship.

It is also important to assess the generality across different family structures (e.g. both single-earner and dual-earner). Most of the studies of the effects of maternal employment on parenting and attachment have focused on infants and young children. These studies indicate that it is not the mother's employment per se which affects child attachment security, but rather her sensitivity and responsiveness to her child, investment in parenting and participation in shared activities (Hoffman, 1989; Moorehouse, 1991). Early adolescents with employed mothers spend no less time with family, parents, friends, in class or alone, but do spend more time alone with fathers (Richards and Duckett, 1994). Moreover, adolescents with single or employed mothers do not have more contentious or distant relationships with them than their peers in "traditional" families (Laursen, 1995). However, more research is necessary to determine how maternal employment and single parenthood interact with other factors, such as poverty, low social support and life stress, to influence parental availability and adolescent-parent attachment.

Economic stresses on a family can greatly impact all members of that family including adolescents. The more stress a family is under, the more likely the adolescent is to be negatively affected.

- Parents under financial strain are less involved, less nurturing, harsher, and less consistent with their discipline (McLoyd, 1990).
- Adolescents under severe economic stress are at a greater risk for psychological difficulties; conduct problems, and poor school performance (Conger et al., 1995).
- Children living in poverty, especially minority children are more likely to be victims of violence, suffer from depression, feel alienated from school, and be exposed to high levels of stress.

It is clear that antisocial children disproportionately come from low-SES families. CD children tended to come from low-income families with unemployed parents who were living in
subsidized housing and dependent on welfare benefits (Offord, Alder, and Boyle, 1986). Low SES, low family income, and parental education predicted CD children (Velez et al., 1989). In general, coming from a low SES family predicts adolescence violence. For e.g., in the U.S. national Youth Survey, the prevalence of self-reported assault and robbery was about twice as high among lower-class youth as among middle class ones (Elliott, Huizinga, and Menard, 1989). A link between low-SES families and adolescent antisocial behavior is mediated by family socialization practices.

Low SES is a less consistent predictor of delinquency. However much depends on whether it is measured by income and housing or by occupational prestige. Low family income and poor housing predicted official and self-reported juvenile and adult delinquency, but low parental occupational prestige predicted only self-reported delinquency (Farrington, 1992b, 1992c). Low family income was a strong predictor of self-reported violence (Farrington, 2000), and having an unemployed father was one of the strongest predictors of convictions for violence (Farrington, 1994).

A model of the relationship among family economic stress, patterns of parenting, and adolescent adjustment has been depicted in Fig.2.

1.12 Gender Socialization of Adolescents:

Sex indicates the biological status of male and female, whereas Gender is a label used to indicate characteristics that are believed to be learned and acquired by males and females as result of social experience. Reference to gender implies that observed differences between males and females are experientially based (Lippa, 2002; Ruble and Martin, 1998).

With the biological, cognitive, emotional and social changes that occur during the period of adolescence, it is reasonable to view adolescence as a primary transition point during which gendered behaviors may be enacted, questioned, changed or solidified. Hill and Lynch (1983) argued that with the onset of puberty, boys and girls experience an intensification of gender-related expectations. This *gender intensification hypothesis* posits that behavioral, attitudinal, and psychological differences between adolescent boys and girls increase with age and are the
Fig 2: A Model Of The Relationship Among Family Economic Stress, Patterns Of Parenting, And Adolescent Adjustment

result of increased socialization pressures to conform to traditional masculine and feminine
gender roles.

Males and females, from infancy to old age, experience similar environmental contexts in
different ways. Contextual characteristics that have been found to act as stressor, risk factors,
protective factors, or primary influences on positive development for girls have not been found
to serve the same function for boys, and vice versa (Cairns and Cairns, 1994; Werner and
Smith, 1992). Relationships with peers and family members also vary considerably as a
function of the gender of both children and parents (Youniss and Smollar, 1985).

Similarly, the actions of various aspects of the social contexts (i.e., society, community, family,
and peers) toward children and adolescents often are guided by gender. Even the characteristics
of competency, connectedness, and control can be gender related, with competency and control
viewed as important attributes for male development and connectedness as important for
female development.

Adolescent behavior originates from multiple sources: home, peers, school, media, and
employment. Gender differences generally peak in the adolescent years. Males want to be
macho and many are engaged in competitive sports. Females are cosmetics and fashion
conscious. Each has a "possession stake": males for athletic equipment and females for
jewelry. Females shop for their own clothing and males purchase more costly stereos. At least
in the early and middle teen years, most heterosexual coupling behavior affirms stereotyped
images of male and female.

Parents develop ideas of what is right or proper for them as boys or girls to do, to believe, to
aspire to, and ways to relate to others. They are learning about the social order, which in time
will appear to them to be a natural social order in the sense that they will come to take it for
granted as the framework within which they think and act.

Mother-daughter relationships are more intense than father-daughter relationships (Steinberg,
1987). Gecas and Seff (1990) state that there is a 'tendency in our culture to be more protective
of females and more permissive of males.' Steinberg comments that 'girls in our society may
be over-socialized toward dependence, and boys toward independence.'
Compared with adolescent girls, adolescent boys hold less egalitarian gender role attitudes (Galambos, et al., 1985,1990) and identify themselves having more masculine and feminine personality traits and interests (Galambos eal., 1990; Kenny and Gallagher, 2002; Updegraff, McHale and, Crouter, 2000). Adolescent girls do more feminine household work, whereas adolescent boys engage in more masculine household chores (McHale, Bartko, Crouter, and Perry-Jenkins, 1990). High level of masculinity and femininity in girls are significantly related to self-esteem and peer acceptance; femininity alone is not associated with high adjustment (Lamke, 1982; Massad, 1981). Masculinity in girls is also connected to better performance on a national test of cognitive abilities (Lippa, 1998). Girls increased in their emotional expressiveness, boys became more restrictive, these results are congruent with the gender intensification hypothesis (Polce-Lynch et al., 2001).

Girls' friendships are typically more numerous, deeper, and more interdependent than are those of boys; moreover, in their friendships girl reveal more empathy, a greater need for nurturance, and the desire for and ability to sustain intimate relationships. Boys, in contrast, tend to place relatively more emphasis on having a congenial companion with whom they share an interest in sports, hobbies, or other activities, and they are also more directive and controlling (Bukowski et al., 1987, Connolly and Konarski, 1994). Females are viewed as expressive, nurturant, empathetic and attached to others. Males, on the other hand, are viewed as strong, aggressive, and able to stand alone.

Researchers found that adolescent girls with employed mothers were less gender typed than those with unemployed mothers (Gold and Andres, 1978; Hoffman, 1974). Others studies indicated that boys were less gender typed if they came from single-mother households rather than two-parent homes (Russell and Ellis, 1991; Stevenson and Black 1988). McHale et al. (2003) pointed to ways in which parents might influence adolescents' gender role development. Parents serve as instructors and opportunity providers, may model gendered behaviors in marital relationships, and may personality characteristics leisure interests, and gender role attitudes that reflect more or less gender role flexibitty. In early adolescence, mothers' masculine interests and fathers' more egalitarian gender role attitudes were linked with girls' increasing involvement in tomboyish activities. Girls who engaged in tomboy
activities reported more social competents with peers, better relationships with their parents and an internal locus of control (McHale et al., 2002).

1.13 Adolescent And Adjustment:

Research has shown that secure attachment to parents facilitates children's adaptive adjustment. Securely attached children experience their parents as available and responsive to their needs. This security fosters adaptive exploration and buffers children from stress. In contrast, children who experience their parents as unavailable, unresponsive or rejecting become insecurely attached, and avoid relying on their parents for support. These avoidant-attached children derive little protection or guidance within their relationships with their parents. Children who experience their parents as inconsistent in their availability and responsiveness also become insecurely attached, specifically anxious or preoccupied. These anxiously attached or preoccupied children are never certain of attracting the support of their parents and tend to be dependent and clingy.

When people fail to actualize their goals for a specific developmental trajectory, they are likely to modify their previous goals or to disengage from them and engage in new kinds of goals as a part of accommodative strategies (Brandtstadtr and Renner, 1990). According to Weiner (1986), once the event is interpreted as success or failure, an individual begins to search for the possible reasons. Such casual attribution typically refers to one's own effort, abilities, or skills; alternatively, they refer to the situation, other people, or luck.

In a recent review of the published literature, Doyle and Moretti (2000) identified considerable evidence that secure attachment continues to contribute to adjustment in adolescence. For example, more positive attachment to parents among 15-year-olds has been found to be associated with fewer mental health problems such as anxiety, depression, inattention and conduct problems (Nada-Raja, McGee and Stanton, 1992). Though attachment was not specifically assessed, adolescents who report a positive relationship with their parents, and who feel comfortable turning to them for support, have been found to have a greater sense of mastery of their worlds (Paterson, Pryor and Field, 1995) and to experience less loneliness (Kerns and Stevens, 1996).
Just as parental sensitivity and responsiveness contribute to secure attachment in infancy, parental warmth/involvement, encouragement of increasing self-control and decision making, appropriate limit setting and monitoring appear to foster secure attachment and adjustment in late childhood and early adolescence (Baumrind, 1991; Steinberg, Dornbusch and Brown, 1992; Karavasilis, Doyle and Margolese, 1999). Low warmth and low control may be particularly associated with dismissing/avoidant attachment, and low psychological autonomy granting with preoccupied attachment. Similarly, hostile punishment and coercive interactions between parents and children combined with poor parental monitoring have been found to contribute to conduct problems in preadolescence and antisocial behaviour in adolescence (Dishion, Patterson, Stoolmiller and Skinner, 1991; Conger, Patterson and Ge, 1995).

Parenting is also associated with adjustment in younger and older children in similar ways. That is, for both girls and boys of all ages, angry, arbitrary parenting (i.e. low use of reasoning) is associated with a poorer parent-child relationship (i.e. child perceptions of parents as less warm and more rejecting), which in turn is associated with poor child adjustment.

With reference to the relation between attachment patterns in adolescence and adjustment, reports to date mostly confirm findings based on studies of young children. That is, secure attachment is typically related to healthier adjustment, whereas insecure attachment is linked to various forms of maladjustment. In normal population studies, late adolescents who are classified as securely attached are rated by their peers as less anxious, less hostile and more able to successfully regulate their feelings (i.e. more ego-resilient) compared to insecurely attached adolescents (Kobak and Sceery, 1988). Adolescents who report a positive relationship with their parents, and who feel comfortable turning to them for support, have been found to have a greater sense of mastery of their worlds (Paterson, Pryor and Field, 1995) and to experience less loneliness (Kerns and Stevens, 1996). More positive attachment to parents among 15 year-olds is also associated with fewer mental health problems such as anxiety, depression, inattention and conduct problems (Nada-Raja, McGee and Stanton, 1992).

Adolescents who report close, accepting relationships with their mothers report less involvement in delinquent activities (Aseltine, 1995; Smith and Krohn, 1995). These positive relationship qualities are those typical of secure attachment. Indeed, adolescents' secure
attachment to their mother has been linked to less experimentation with drugs (Voss, 1999) and less frequent substance use (Cooper, Shaver and Collins, 1998).

In adolescence, parental involvement, encouragement of psychological autonomy, and demands for age-appropriate behaviour combined with limit setting and monitoring (i.e. authoritative parenting) contribute to good psychosocial, academic and behavioural adjustment among adolescents (Baumrind, 1971, 1991; Steinberg, Dornbusch and Brown, 1992; Steinberg, Darling and Fletcher, 1995). Similar to the way in which parental sensitivity and responsiveness contribute to secure attachment in infancy, recent findings indicate that parental warmth/involvement, psychological autonomy granting and behavioural control/monitoring are associated with security of attachment in late childhood and early adolescence (Karavasilis, Doyle and Margolese, 1999). Low warmth and low control were particularly associated with dismissing/avoidant attachment, and low psychological autonomy granting with preoccupied attachment. Thus, in adolescence, it appears that parental behaviour that fosters autonomy in the context of parental availability, in addition to parental warmth/responsiveness, becomes important for secure attachment.

With respect to adolescent adjustment, parental warmth/involvement and behavioural control are associated with greater social competence, autonomy, positive attitudes toward school and work, academic achievement and self-esteem, as well as with less depression, school misconduct, delinquency and drug use (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg and Dornbusch, 1991; Parish and McCluskey, 1992; Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch and Darling, 1992; Allen and Hauser, 1996). With respect to protection against depressed mood, adolescents' security with their mother seems to be particularly important (Margolese, Markiewicz and Campini, 2001). In terms of resistance to substance abuse, the effect of parenting appears to operate through adolescents' development of better self-regulation skills (i.e. self-control, behavioural competence, adaptive coping), and less affiliation with deviant peers (Wills, DuHamel and Vaccaro, 1995).

Adolescence is froth with a lot of adjustments, which the child does as he learns to grow and adapt the changes around him. A lot of factors such as parenting, peer pressure and physical development of the child are involved in shaping the adjustability of the child.
The adolescence is marked by *Heightened Emotionality*. This increases the burden of the adolescent to *adjust positively* to various changing situations of life. There are few factors that play a role in this sphere. They are as follows:

1. *Change of roles in home, school and society*: As soon as the child enters the adolescence, his social roles and responsibility change. Change of role requires adjustment to new situations in a different way. The adolescent has to change his old habits of childhood in home, school and society. The change over to new patterns of habits creates emotional tension and anxiety in adolescents.

2. *Unfavorable relations in home*: Parents in most cases are responsible for heightened emotionality in adolescents because they do not prepare their sons and daughter to meet the problems of adolescence. They do not change their own attitude towards adolescence. They still treat them as children, which creates rebelliousness in adolescents against their parents. There are quarrels with parents and siblings on small matters.

3. *Social expectations*: When the child becomes an adolescent society and parents expect them to think and act like an adult for which he is not physically and intellectually matured. The adolescent fail to decide his status in social settings and failure to meet social expectations results in emotional disturbances and failure to adjust to new environment.

4. *Difficulty in adjustment to the member of the opposite sex*: We observed that in later childhood, there is little interaction between boys and girls. In adolescence there is attraction towards the member of opposite sex but the adolescent is not able to understand the correct social behavior, how to make friendship with the members of the opposite sex. These problems create emotional tensions in him, which may lead to an anxious state of mind.
5. **Religious conflicts:** Every child is trained in a special set of religious beliefs and values. The child without questioning the authenticity of the teachings of his parents obeys them but with the advancing age, he critically examines the beliefs and starts questioning the teachings of his parents. This leads to conflicts in his mind. There is a great gulf between the values and teachings preached by the school and their actual practice in the society. The adolescent is disturbed by all these actions.

6. **School failures:** It causes heightened emotionality so much so that many adolescents commit suicide, leave home and sometimes give up education.

7. **Conflicts with friends and family members:** Adolescents come in conflict with their friends and family members who fail to understand them. Too strict discipline, restrictions on movements and lack of understanding their interests or point of views are the chief sources of emotional disturbances.

8. **Vocational problems:** The most pressing problem for the Indian adolescent is the future vocation after schooling. When he finds many adults roaming on the road without any means of livelihood he is disturbed and permanent anxiety develops in his mind. Particularly those adolescents, who come from poor families and are the supporters of their family, are more disturbed.

9. **Lack of quality time spends with parents:** Parents play a very significant role in a child's life. A child needs, whether grown up or not the proper quality time from their parents. When there is lack of the parental warmth and attention then it brings a lot of adjustmental difficulties on the part of the child. The situation becomes a bit more complicated when the absence is felt in case of non-availability of quality time from the mother especially when she is working. Sometimes the problems are due to improper role models that the child imitates. There are even times when parent-child conflict affects the home atmosphere. All these lead to an upset of mental balance in the child leading to a whole lot of mental disturbances.
1.14 Adolescent and Anxiety:

It has been observed over the ages through various empirical and non-empirical methods, that adolescent children need their parents to be their friends, rather than dictators ordering commands for them to follow. They need a certain amount of independence and privacy, at the same time, never losing contact with their parents who act as their friend, philosopher and guide, thus helping them in making their own decisions and being accountable for the same. Parents should realize that their children are individuals with certain primary needs, which should be met, for them to function rationally and continue leading their lives in a fruitful and harmonious manner. As long as parents fail to identify their child’s needs, interests, strengths and weaknesses, there will always be a communication gap in between them, which will eventually be harmful for both.

The parent-child bond should always be strong enough for both to see the reason why they behave the way they do. A lot of silly misunderstandings happen due to lack of communication between the two, or when the parents are so deeply involved in their own corporate and social lives that they have little time for their own children. It has become a very common scenario in most of the nuclear families, wherein we witness working parents with children who spend most of their time in the crèches during the weekdays and at aunt’s place during weekends whereby ayahs and baby sitters become their primary care givers. Such children grow up completely oblivious to parental love and care and eventually become incapable of showing the same emotions to others and are blamed for it. The only support they receive during this time is from friends, as they act as a buffer lessening the impact of such turmoil. If the peer group is indeed supportive, then with the passage of time, things can still be revived for the child. If, on the contrary, he falls victim to peer group pressure and wrong company due to his increased vulnerability, then his entire life may transform to an endless but futile struggle to come back to normalcy. Cases abound of such adolescents, with apparently good family backgrounds, who take to drugs, alcohol and even transactional sex in order to combat the constant anxiety and conflicts. Such youths, due to their high-risk behavior and complete ignorance, contract life-threatening viruses (HIV) and even put others at risk.
Typically characterized by sudden mood swings and a general apathy towards parents and guardians, this age seems to be associated with a host of confusions and conflicts. The children at this age are never sure what exactly is being expected from them. At times they are asked to be responsible and act as "grown-ups" whereas at other times, unquestioningly obey orders. Therefore, it becomes increasingly difficult for them to live in this constant double bind. Additionally, adolescents with authoritative parents find it impossible to ask questions and get their queries answered by them, in fear of punitive measures, which might be taken against them for being so curious. They are hardly given a patient hearing and as a result, they seek social support outside the domains of the family, often leading to dire consequences especially in case of young girls. They keep on debating within their own minds, trying to decide when to act as adults and when to behave as children in a social setup. They lose confidence in themselves and gradually become introverted and unsociable, unable to express their emotions, thus eventually internalizing them. Such children often become very self-centered and indifferent towards others and even show anti-social traits in their interactions with others.

Commonly seen traits are pathological lying, opportunistic friendships, constant suspicion, exaggerated and public display of affection, a general disregard for rules and norms, disrespect towards parents and elders, sudden and sharp mood fluctuations, cruelty towards their own pets, dependence on money and materialistic pleasures or even self-destructive and suicidal tendencies. It is actually their internalized aggression towards their parents, which take such forms and are reflected in a camouflaged manner through their behavior. In reality, such children dwell constantly in anxiety and fear of being rejected by others and can go to any extent to stop from letting that happen again. Ordinary people fail to see the reason for such despicable behavior pattern and attribute it to one's personality, thereby generating a cumulative hatred against such children and isolating them. They seem to forget the very basic fact that personality is a direct function of the interaction of an individual's internal and external environment. No person is born a criminal, thief, liar or a deviant. If eventually, he turns into one, then it is the fault of the nurturing environment, including his parents, community, Government, and society as a whole, who individually or even collectively, couldn't provide the child with a set of attractive as well as socially approved set of guidelines to adhere to, for him to give shape to his inherent potentialities. It is the failure of the society as
a whole and of its citizens who are responsible for ensuring that such acts do not happen in a civilized nation.

In fine, it is imperative to say that the period of adolescence is perhaps the most important phase in a child’s life and requires constant supervision, support and guidance from both the parents, without them being intrusive or over demanding. It is during this time that the child actually starts knowing himself as his personality gradually starts unfolding. He therefore needs some time to himself in order to understand and accept these changes as normal and as a part of his own self. The role of supportive parents in such an activity greatly helps in developing child in more ways than one.