Chapter-II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND
AN OUTLINE PLAN OF THE STUDY
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Literature review is an essential and important component of any research work. It assists the researcher to conceptualize the problem in a better way by evincing various perspectives of the problem. It provokes cogitating on various aspects of the problem. Literature review also gives an idea to hypothesize the problem aright.

In the present study, findings of previous researchers on various aspects of child sexual abuse were reviewed. For the convenience of the readers the literature review has been classified and presented under the following broad heads:

2.1 Parent-Child Relationship
2.2 Parental Discipline
2.3 Sibling Relationship
2.4 Peer Relationship
2.5 Maternal Employment
2.6 Risk Behaviour
2.7 Academics and School
2.8 Anxiety
2.9 Adjustment
2.10 An Outline Plan Of The Study

2.1 Parent-Child Relationship:

Cleveland et al., (2005) tried to see the impact of parenting on risk cognitions and risk behavior: a study of mediation and moderation in a panel of African American adolescents (N = 714) and their primary caregivers. He found that the parenting behaviors protected the adolescent from subsequent alcohol, tobacco, and marijuana use through associations with two cognitive elements from the prototype/willingness model: favorable risk images (prototypes) and behavioral willingness. Further the nested-model approach indicated that effective parenting (i.e., monitoring of the child's activities, communication about substances, and
parental warmth) was related to adolescent substance use more than 5 years later. Additional analyses indicated that these protective effects were strongest among families residing in high-risk neighborhoods.

DeVore et al., (2005) explored the recent developments in the literature regarding parenting practices and adolescent development, with a focus on parenting style, parental monitoring, communication, and supervision. Findings demonstrate the significant, enduring, and protective influence of positive parenting practices on adolescent development. In particular, parental monitoring, open parent-child communication, supervision, and high quality of the parent-child relationship deter involvement in high-risk behavior. Authoritative parenting generally leads to the best outcomes for teens. Clinicians should find opportunities to discuss evidence-based parenting practices with families. Future research should focus on the development and long-term evaluation of effective parenting interventions.

Kezic et al., (2005) studied the influence of alcohol abusing father on the clinical picture of PTSD patient. The father plays an important identification role in the psychological development of his son. Therefore it is to be expected that an alcohol abusing father will become a (negative) role model for his son and that he will also later on in stressful situations try to reduce the anxiety and depression by consuming larger quantities of alcoholic drinks. The participating patients were from the Psychiatric hospital "Sveti Ivan". Mississippi and Watson scales were applied, as well as a questionnaire named "Early traumas" from which the variable "alcohol abuse of the father" was selected. The analysis showed that the participants who in their family histories had fathers who abused alcohol developed a milder clinical picture of PTSD, compared to the control group of participants whose fathers did not abuse alcohol.

Ackard et al., (2006) studied the Parent-child connectedness and behavioral and emotional health among adolescents. A population-based sample of 4746 students in public schools completed the 2001 Project EAT (Eating Among Teens) survey. The results indicated that the majority of girls and boys reported valuing their parents' opinion when making serious decisions and believing that their parents cared about them. Yet, one fourth of girls and boys
felt unable to talk to their mother about problems, and over half of girls and one third of boys felt unable to talk to their father. Valuing friends' opinions over parents' opinions, and perceiving low parental communication and caring were associated with unhealthy weight control, substance use, suicide attempts, body dissatisfaction, depression, and low self-esteem. Adolescents' perceptions of low parental caring, difficulty talking to their parents about problems, and valuing their friends' opinions for serious decisions were significantly associated with compromised behavioral and emotional health. The interventions aimed at improving the parent-child relationship may provide an avenue toward preventing health risk behaviors in youth.

Fasula et al., (2006) examined the moderating effects of mothers' responsiveness during sex discussions on the negative relationship between sexually active peers and sexual delay among African-American and Hispanic adolescents. Interview data from 530 African-American and Hispanic non-sexually active high school students were used. Logistic regression was performed to test the moderating effects of adolescents' reports of mothers' responsiveness (openness, comfort, and understanding during sex discussions) on the relationship between perceived peer sexual activity and adolescent sexual delay. The results indicated that the parents and peers have mutually contingent influences in the dynamic social context of adolescents' lives. Although sexually active peers have a negative effect on adolescent sexual delay, responsive parent-adolescent sex discussions can buffer these effects. Intervention efforts can help parents develop the knowledge and communication skills needed to discuss sexual topics with their children effectively.

Hazen et al., (2006) examined the relationship between women's experiences with intimate partner violence and their reports of child behavior problems. Data were collected from the National Survey of Child and Adolescent Well-Being. The sample consisted of 2020 female caregivers of children between the ages of 4 and 14 years who were interviewed about demographic characteristics, child behavior problems, female caregiver mental health, parenting behaviors, experiences with intimate partner violence, and community characteristics. Information on child abuse and neglect was obtained in interviews with child protective services workers. Multiple-regression analyses were used to investigate the
association between caregiver victimization and child behavior problems while controlling for the effects of child, family, and environmental characteristics. The potential moderating effects of caregiver depression and parenting practices on the relation between intimate partner violence and child behavior problems were examined also. This study adds to the evidence that maternal caregivers' experiences with intimate partner violence are related to child functioning. The findings suggest that systematic efforts are needed to ensure that mental health needs are identified and addressed appropriately in children exposed to this violence.

O'Donnell et al., (2005) evaluated parent education intervention as a promising strategy for addressing early adolescent sexual activity. A 2003-2005 randomized trial to test the effectiveness of Saving Sex for Later, a parent education program were presented on three audio CDs, enrolled 846 families with fifth- and sixth-grade students in seven New York City schools. Parent and youth surveys were conducted at baseline and three months post-intervention. Multivariate logistic and linear regression analyses were performed to assess relationships between youth and parent outcomes and treatment condition. The results showed that Saving Sex for Later is a promising intervention for promoting youths' sexual abstinence. The intervention may also be effective in enhancing positive parenting practices among parents who are typically difficult to reach because of economic hardship, full schedules and complicated lives.

Raudsepp (2006) examined 1) the association between socio-economic status and adolescent physical activity; 2) to assess links between mothers' and fathers' social support and adolescents' physical activity. The participants were 326 urban adolescents and their parents. Physical activity was measured using a 7-d physical activity recall. Socio-economic status and parents' social support was assessed using questionnaires. The results indicated that the boys were significantly more active than girls, and fathers' explicit modelling towards boys was higher compared to girls. In contrast, fathers' and mothers' logistic support was significantly higher towards their daughters. Social class and fathers' and mothers' social support were significantly related to adolescent self-reported physical activity. Fathers' explicit modelling was the strongest predictor of adolescent physical activity, predicting 13.5% of the total variance. Social class, fathers' logistic support and mothers' explicit modelling were also
significant predictors, accounting for additional 14% of the variance in adolescents' weekly physical activity. It was concluded that parental support and social class are positively related to physical activity in Estonian adolescents.

McGue et al., (2005) completed a self-report measure of conflict and aspects of warmth in the parent-child relationship by 1,330 11-year-old twins, 1,176 of whom completed the inventory again 3 years later. On average, adolescents' perceptions of the quality of the parent-child relationship declined consistently and moderately between age 11 and age 14. Conflict with parents increased, whereas all aspects of warmth decreased; changes were significantly greater for girls than boys. Variances increased with age, primarily because of increases in the magnitude of genetic effects. Heritability estimates ranged from .09 to .31 at intake and .35 to .45 at follow-up and tended to be higher for boys than girls. Changes in the parent-child relationship are interpreted as reflecting genotype-environment correlation processes whereby adolescents increasingly influence their relationships with their parents.

Dong et al., (2005) examined the relationship of childhood residential mobility to health problems during adolescence and adulthood and determined how much these apparent relationships may result from underlying adverse childhood experiences (ACEs). Retrospective cohort study of 8116 adults completed a survey that included childhood residential mobility, ACEs (childhood abuse, childhood neglect, and household dysfunction), and multiple health problems. The results indicated that after adjustment for demographic variables, the risk of high residential mobility during childhood (> or = 8 moves) was 1.7- to 3.1-fold for each ACE, and increased with the number of ACEs. Compared with respondents who never moved, the odds of health risk for respondents with high mobility during childhood ranged from 1.3 (for smoking) to 2.5 (for suicide). However, when the number of ACEs was entered into multivariate models, the relationship between mobility and health problems was greatly reduced. Thus adverse childhood experiences are strongly associated with frequent residential mobility.

Aman-Back et al., (2004) carried out a study on Parents' assessments of how much time they spend with their children at different ages. The self-reported amount of active engagement time
parents (n = 1107) and children (n = 773) spend together was investigated with questionnaires. Mothers spent more time with their children than fathers did. The amount of parental quality time decreased with the age of the child, the average across age groups being 4.4 +/- 3.0 hr. for mothers and 3.0 +/- -2.9 hr. for fathers per day. Children reported spending roughly 1 hour more time with their parents than the latter reported.

Ygge et al., (2004) studied the parental involvement in pediatric hospital care and its implications for clinical practice. The aim of the study was to gain a deeper understanding of factors that influence parental involvement and to clarify the parental role in the hospital care of chronically ill children. Semi structured interviews with 14 parents of chronically ill children was done. The findings of the present study identified four themes: support, professionalism, work environment, and responsibility. These themes described the experience and perceptions of parents who regularly spend time in the hospital with their children. Thus clinical practices regarding parental involvement need to be established to optimize the hospital care of chronically ill children.

Schor (2003) reported the task force on the family. The practice of pediatrics is unique among medical specialties in many ways, among which is the nearly certain presence of a parent when health care services are provided for the patient. Regardless of whether parents or other family members are physically present, their influence is pervasive. Families are the most central and enduring influence in children's lives. Parents are also central in pediatric care. The health and well-being of children are inextricably linked to their parents' physical, emotional and social health, social circumstances, and child-rearing practices. The rising incidence of behavior problems among children attests to some families' inability to cope with the increasing stresses they are experiencing and their need for assistance. When a family's distress finds its voice in a child's symptoms, pediatricians are often parents' first source for help. Within families, individuals are different from one another as well. Pediatricians are especially sensitive to differences among children-in their temperaments and personalities, in their innate and learned abilities, and in how they view themselves and respond to the world around them. Many characteristics of families have changed during the past 3 to 5 decades. Families without children younger than 18 years have increased substantially, and they are now the majority.
The average age at marriage has increased, and a greater proportion of births is occurring to women older than 30 years. Between 1970 and 2000, the proportion of children in 2-parent families decreased from 85.0% to 69.0%, and more than one quarter (26.0%) of all children live with a single parent, usually their mother. Most of this change reflects a dramatic increase in the rate of births to unmarried women that went from 5.3% in 1960 to 33.2% in 2000. Another factor in this change is a slowly decreasing but still high divorce rate that is roughly double what it was in the mid-1950s. Family income is strongly related to children's health, and the financial resources that families have available are closely tied to changes in family structure. Consequent to the increase in female-headed households, rising economic and personal need and increased opportunities for women, the proportion of mothers who are in the workforce has climbed steadily over the past several decades. Currently, approximately two thirds of all mothers with children younger than 18 years are employed. Most families with young children depend on childcare, and most childcare is not of good quality. The amount and use of family time also has changed with a lengthening workday, including the amount of commuting time necessary to travel between work and home, and with the intrusion of television and computers into family life. Social and public policy has not kept up with these changes, leaving families stretched for time and stressed to cope and meet their responsibilities.

The American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) Board of Directors appointed the Task Force on the Family to help guide the development of public policy and recommend how to assist pediatricians to promote well-functioning families. The task force found that a great deal is known about family functioning and family circumstances that affect children. With this knowledge, it is possible to provide pediatric care in a way that promotes successful families and good outcomes for children. The power and importance of families to children arises out of the extended duration for which children are dependent on adults to meet their basic needs. Children's needs for which only a family can provide include social support, socialization, and coping and life skills. Their self-esteem grows from being cared for, loved, and valued and feeling that they are part of a social unit that shares values, communicates openly, and provides companionship. Families transmit and interpret values to their children and often serve as children's connection to the larger world, especially during the early years of life. Although schools provide formal education, families teach children how to get along in the world.
Seltzer (1994) studied the consequences of marital dissolution for the children. Women consider themselves responsible for their children's care regardless of marital status, whereas men tend to disengage from their offspring once a marriage is dissolved. At present, about 25.0% of US children will spend some time in a single-parent household as a result of divorce, while another 25.0% will live with a single mother due to non-marital childbearing. Although children whose parents separate suffer disadvantages compared to those whose parents remain together, there is a lack of consensus on the magnitude and source of these differences and the profile of children at greatest risk of social and emotional problems. When the father moves out, household income declines by an average of 37.0% and child support transfers are too low to reduce the hardships of living in a single-mother family. Even when responsibility for children is shared with grandparents or the state (through welfare), the disparities between one- and two-parent households persist. The conflict between parents, loss of daily contact with one parent, and disruption of routines and place of residence associated with divorce jeopardize children's emotional security and deprive them of essential socialization experiences. To minimize the harmful effects of divorce on children, single mothers need institutional support, particularly to mitigate the economic liabilities associated with divorce and to ensure high-quality childcare when mothers are working.

Allen et al., (1994) maintain that parent-adolescent relationships that are characterized by both autonomy and support are most healthy for adolescent development. To test that hypothesis, those researchers observed interactions among 72 mothers and fathers and their adolescent sons or daughters when the adolescents were 14 years old and again when the adolescents were 16 years old. When parents were observed as encouraging their adolescents to think autonomously and providing support for the expression of independent views, adolescents reported high levels of self-esteem and ego development at both ages. Adolescents who gained in self-esteem and ego development between 14 and 16 years of age were those whose fathers most actively challenged their children's thinking at age 14, but did so in an accepting and supportive manner. Allen and others suggest that the challenges posed by fathers in the context of a safe and supportive relationship may provide opportunities for the adolescents to comfortably test out their ideas and to begin to establish themselves as independent adults.
Wallerstein (1987) interviewed 38 adolescents 16 to 18 years old whose parents had divorced 10 years earlier. Most of the adolescents were still in school, but about half were not doing very well. Of the students in two-year and four-year colleges, only half received financial help from their fathers, even though their fathers could afford it. The students were disappointed with their fathers and felt hurt that they were not given more support.

Gabriel and McAnarney (1983) compared the decision about parenthood in two groups in Rochester, New York: 17 African American, low-income adolescents (age 15 to 18 years) and 53 white, middle-class adult couples. Their observations showed that the decision to become parents was related to different sub-cultural values. In contrast to the white adults, the African American adolescents did not see marriage as a prerequisite for motherhood, nor did they view completion of schooling and economic independence as phases of maturation that should precede parenthood. Instead, they expected that becoming mothers would help them achieve maturation and acceptance as adults.

Brown (1983) studied 36 African American adolescent, unwed, expectant couples (females, age 12 to 17 years; male age 16 to 21 years) to assess the quality of their commitment and concerns as couples. It was found that fathers were primarily concerned with financial responsibilities to the child, parenting skills, continued schooling, problems with the girl’s parents, and their own future.

Armsden et al., (1990) examined the attachment to parents and to peers of 43 early adolescents who were in treatment for depression with that of 52 youngsters of the same age who were not in treatment and 12 who were being treated for other psychiatric disturbances. The results suggest that the depressed adolescents had less secure attachment to a parent or parents, and that those who were most emotionally distant from parents were also the most severely depressed. Those group were also less securely attached to peers than those in the control groups, but the researchers mention that this was just as likely to be a result of their depressions it was to be a cause of it.
LeCroy’s (1988) study of 85 boys and girls in the 10th and 12th grades investigated the influence of closeness to parents on the self-esteem of the students and on whether the students indulged in problem behaviours, ranging from skipping school to hitting a parent or using drugs. Students were asked to rate each parent on how intimate they were with the parent. The students evaluated the relationship on a scale of 1 to 7 on such statements as, “We want to spend time together”. LeCroy found that a healthy attachment to parent was related to high self-esteem and to few or no problem behaviours in these young people, especially if the father was taking an active part as a parent.

Atkinson et al., (1989) studied 6000 teenagers from 10 different countries (Australia, Bangladesh, Hungary, Israel, Italy, Japan, Taiwan, Turkey, the United States, and West Germany) and found that adolescents worldwide usually had great respect for their parents and wanted to act in ways that would make their parents proud of them.

Levitt et al., (1993) interviewed African American, Hispanic American, and Caucasian American children aged 7, 10, and 14. All the children were shown a drawing with a set of concentric circle. They were asked to place in the middle circle the names of those “people who are the most close and important to you- people you love the most and who love you the most.” In the next circle outward from the middle, children were asked to place the names of “people who are not quite as close but who are still important – people you really love or like, but not quite as much as the people in the first circle.” A third circle contained names of somewhat more distant members of this personal “convoy.” For each person listed, the interviewer then asked about the kind of support that person provided. They found for all three races or ethnic groups, at all three ages, parents and other close family were by far the most likely to be placed in the inner circle. Even 14-year-olds rarely placed friends in this position. So the parents remain central. Despite this evidence of greater support from or intimacy with peers, the research evidence suggests that, in general, a teenager’s sense of well being or happiness is more strongly correlated with the quality of his attachment to his parents than to the quality of his attachments to his peers.
Dymphna van den Boom (1994) identified 100 lower-class Dutch mothers whose infants had all been as high in irritability shortly after birth. Half the mothers were assigned randomly to participate in a set of three relatively brief training sessions aimed at helping them improve their responsiveness to their infants. The other mothers received no such help. When the babies were 12 months old, van den Boom observed the mothers interacting with their infants at home as well as in the standard Strange Situation. The effects were quite clear: The trained mothers had indeed become more responsive to their babies, and their babies found these differences until at least age 18 months.

Chan et al., (1998) involved 80 school-aged children who had been conceived by artificial insemination. Researchers compared these children across four types of family structures: lesbian couples, single lesbian mothers, heterosexual couples, and single heterosexual mothers. The study found no differences in either cognitive or social development among the children. However, it did find that the same variables—parenting stress, parental conflict, parental affection—predicted development outcomes in all four groups. These findings, much like those contrasting two-parent and single-parent families, suggest that children's development depends more on how parents interact with them than on family configuration.

Montemayor (1982) studied 64 white, middle-class tenth-graders. He found that these youngsters spent equal time with parents and peers. Surprisingly, even those who had disagreeable relationships with their mothers, invested time with their fathers, instead of turning away from both parents to their peers.

Greenberg et al., (1983) studied 213 high-school juniors and seniors showed that most adolescents seek counsel from their parents even when they perceive the relationship as generally unsatisfactory. Peers did not assume increasing influence as these adolescents aged.

Blyth et al., (1982) surveyed 2,800 adolescents in a study and found that they almost always listed parents among the most significant, influential people in their lives. In fact, over 40 percent of those named as “significant others” were adults.
Crain & Weisman (1972) studied 9,000 students in grades 7 through 12, adolescents expressed more trust in their parents' advice than in their friends' counsel. The value placed on their parents' opinions, however, varied according to the parents' income, particularly in the case of the father's influence. Adolescents from lower-income homes often perceived their parents as being less competent and having fewer resources than those from middle-class families. The middle-class adolescents tended to value their parents' opinion more highly than their classmates from lower-income families.

Youniss and Smollar (1985) found that adolescents tend to be closer to their mother than their father and feel more comfortable talking to their mother about problems and other emotional matters. Fathers are more likely to be perceived as relatively distant authority figures who may be consulted for 'objective' information (such as help with homework) but who are sought for support or guidance (such as help for problems with a boy friend or girl friend). Interestingly, adolescents also fight more often with their mothers than their fathers, but this higher level of conflict does not appear to jeopardize the closeness of the mother-adolescent relationship. It seems safe to say that relationships between adolescents and their mothers are more emotionally intense in general, and this intensity has both positive and negative manifestations.

2.2 Parental Discipline:

Knafo et al., (2006) investigated genetic and environmental contributions to the relationships between children's (N=9,319 twin pairs) prosocial behavior and parental positivity and negativity toward them. Children's prosocial behavior was rated by parents at ages 3, 4, and 7 and by teachers at age 7. At each age, parents described their feelings and discipline toward each twin. Parental positivity was indexed by positive feelings and positive, non-coercive discipline, and parental negativity was indexed by negative feelings and coercive, punitive discipline. Genetics and the environment both contributed to individual differences in prosocial behavior and in parenting. At all ages, parental positivity correlated positively, and parental negativity correlated negatively with prosocial behavior. Genetic factors largely mediated the negative correlation between prosocial behavior and parental negativity. Shared environmental effects contributed mainly to the positive relationship between prosocial behavior and parental positivity. This pattern was found both cross-sectionally and longitudinally. The findings point
to the importance of children's characteristics and of the parent-child relationship in family processes.

Lamborn et al., (1991), in a study of more than 4000 adolescents between the ages of 14 and 18, found that adolescents who describe their parents as authoritative are more socially competent and better adjusted psychologically than other adolescents. Adolescents who describe their parents as authoritarian are likely to obey rules and keep out of trouble but have less self-confidence than other adolescents. This study suggests that distinguishing between indulgent and indifferent parenting styles is important.

Lawrence Kurdek and Mark Fine's study of 850 junior high school students (Kurdek and Fine, 1994). They measured the level of control in the family by asking the young adolescents to rate the accuracy of each of the following there statements. Kurdek and Fine also had information about each child's self-esteem and sense of self-efficacy, which they combined into a measure of "psychological competence." Greater family control was clearly associated with greater psychological competence.

Lamborn et al., (1991); Steinberg et al., (1994) in a multiethnic sample of 10,000 adolescents in California and Wisconsin, adolescents perceptions that their parents were authoritative, rather than authoritarian or neglectful, were correlated with personal maturity, school achievement, and low levels of behavioral and psychological problems. This correlation held for African Americans, Hispanic Americans, Asian Americans, and European Americans alike. Similarly perceptions come in a number of different cultures (Rohner & Pettingill, 1985; Rohner & Rohner, 1981). In other words, although typical patterns of parental control may vary across cultures, family environments that emphasize mutuality, respect for the child's opinions, and training for maturity seem to be most effective in helping adolescents develop attitudes and behaviors appropriate to their society.
2.3 **Sibling Relationship:**

Pike et al., (2005) identified the links between sibling relationship quality in early/middle childhood with children's adjustment. The sample consisted of 101 working and middle-class 2-parent English families with 2 children ages 4-8 years. The parents provided reports of sibling relationship quality, the parent-child relationship, and the children's prosocial and problematic behaviors. The children provided reports of their familial relationships. Results indicated that sibling relationship quality was associated with the older siblings' adjustment, controlling for the children's relationships with parents. In addition, the pattern of findings suggested that positivity within the sibling relationship was more strongly linked with child adjustment than was sibling conflict.

Dunn and Kendrick (1982) in a detailed longitudinal study of a group of 40 families in England, observed that the older child often imitated a baby brother or sister; by the time the younger child was a year old, however, he or she began imitating the older sibling, and from then on the imitation consisted of the younger child copying the older one.

2.4 **Peer Relationship:**

Maggs and Kolaric (1990) studied 112 seventh-graders from dual-earner families who were left unsupervised both after school and from eight to ten hours a day in the summer were rated on peer involvement, deviant peer associations, problem behaviour, impulse control, and peer acceptance. The researchers found that those who were both unsupervised and far from home after school and those who hung out in places like shopping malls reported a higher degree of peer involvement, association with dangerous peers, and problem behaviours.

Tedesco and Gaier (1988) studied what 204 adolescents in 7th, 9th and 12th grades appreciate most in their friends. The 100 female and 104 male students gave written replies to ten open-ended questions about friendship values. For example, two of the questions were: "What is it
about your best friend that you like most?” and “What are the most important things to consider in judging people?” Three categories emerged from the students' answers: interpersonal qualities, achievement, and physical qualities. A comparison of the responses for the different grade levels revealed what the researchers call “an interesting developmental phenomenon.” Students of all ages some answers that showed high regard for interpersonal qualities, but the older a student was, the more he or she valued these qualities and the less weight he or she gave to attributes of achievement or physical appearance and dress.

Robert and Beverly Cairns (1994) in one longitudinal study found that only about 20% of friendship among forth graders lasted as long as a year, whereas about 40% of friendships formed by there same youngsters when they were tenth graders were long-lasting.

Berndt (1979a, 1979b) asked more than 500 third-through twelfth-graders how they would react in hypothetical situations involving conformity to peers or adherence to parental values. Sixth-graders were the most likely to conform to peer expectations in socially acceptable situations like helping a classmate with an academic project. Ninth-graders were the most willing to conform to peers in a neutral situation, such as agreeing to participate in activities that really didn’t interest them. Ninth-graders were also the most willing to acquiesce to peer pressure in situations involving delinquent forms of behavior. Such willingness to conform to peer pressure and engage in delinquent acts peaked, however, at the ninth grade and declined steadily thereafter. By the eleventh and twelfth grades, adolescents were frequently making decisions that relied on neither parents' nor peers' opinions.

Douvan and Adelson's (1966) in an extensive study of adolescents in the 1960s demonstrated that male and female friendships differed then much as they do today. In their interviews with more than 2,000 adolescents, boys seldom mentioned sensitivity or empathy as important characteristics of a friend. They cared less than girls about being understood by or sharing emotions with their friends. Instead, most boys wanted friends who could share activities like sports. Adolescent girls invested more emotionally in their friendship and were more dependent upon their friends for a sense of security and self-worth than were boys.
Karweit and Hansell examined data from 20 high schools with 20,345 students and compared male and female adolescents' college plans, curricular track, father's education, and peer status rating with their best friends' status in each of these categories. Consistent with previous researchers' conclusions, they found that males were less likely than females to befriend people of lower status than themselves. This suggests that males, more so than females, may perceive friends as a means of acquiring or maintaining status.

2.5 Maternal Employment:

Ferree (1976) surveyed 135 predominantly working-class wives who had children in the first or the second grade. 45% of them were housewives, 26% held full-time jobs and 29% held part-time jobs. There were no group differences in marital happiness but the working women were more satisfied with themselves and with their lives in general. Part-time workers were happiest. Their jobs apparently offered the social and psychological benefits of employment, while also allowing them more time for family life. The working wives in this study did not hold glamorous occupations but the jobs they held provided them the benefits of a paycheck, a sense of accomplishment and a sense of extended social contacts. Ferree attributes the dissatisfaction of many full time homemakers to a breaking down of a supportive family and social network.

Brooks-Gunn et al., (2002) in one longitudinal study, researchers examined cognitive and social development in 3-to 4-year-olds of both races whose mothers had been employed between the children's birth and first birthday. They found that the white children exhibited negative effects in both domains. Further, when the children were tested again at ages 7 to 8, white children continued to display less advanced development than peers whose mother had not been employed during the first year after birth. In contrast, African American children whose mother had been employed during the first year of their lives did not differ from peers whose mothers had not been employed.

Muller (1995) studied a nationally representative sample of 24,599 eighth graders and suggested that these effects may continue into early adolescence. Participants in this study showed a very small negative effect from the mother's employment on their math grades and test scores. However, this difference appeared to result from the fact that mothers who work
are less involved with the child's school and are less likely to supervise the child's schoolwork during after-school hours, rather than from a long-lasting deficit brought about by maternal employment in the early years. Thus, working mothers who find ways to provide such supervision and who remain involved with their children's schools have kids who do as well as children whose mothers are homemakers.

Kandel (1978) carried out a longitudinal state-wide study of New York high school students. Students completed a battery of questionnaires once during the beginning weeks of a school year and again toward the end of the year. They answered questions concerning a range of activities and interests, including delinquency, drug use and educational aspirations. In addition, respondents provided the identities of their close friends. By examining the patterns of attitudinal and behavioral change over the course of the school year and comparing these shifts with patterns of friendship formation and change, Kandel was able to determine whether adolescents were attracted to one another because of their initial similarity or whether they became similar as a result of the friendship. Kandel found similarity among adolescent friends is about equally due to their selecting one another as friends to begin with as it is to the influence that friends have on one another.

2.6 Risk Behavior:

Bae et al., (2005) carried out a study on risky behaviors and factors associated with suicide attempt in adolescents. The objective of this study was to identify the behavior risk factors associated with suicide attempt in adolescents and to determine gender-specific patterns of risk factors. The survey was conducted among 13,601 high school students in the U.S. Data were analyzed with logistic regressions to identify the risk behaviors. New significant risk factors (being offered illegal drugs at school, being abused by a boyfriend/girlfriend, gender, and ethnicity) were identified for suicidal attempt in adolescents. Patterns of risk behaviors differed among male and female groups. Several new risk behaviors associated with suicide attempt in adolescents were identified. There were notable differences in risk behaviors between two gender groups, especially in the area of depression.
Yeh et al., (2006) studied the factors associated with alcohol consumption, problem drinking, and related consequences among high school students in Taiwan. The authors have evaluated the risk factors associated with alcohol consumption, problem drinking, and related consequences among high school students in Taiwan. A total of 779 10th grade students from four randomly selected high schools in eastern Taiwan were included in the survey. The results showed that alcohol consumption and problem drinking was 2.22-2.71-fold greater in male than in female adolescents. Parents and peer groups were the determinants influencing alcohol consumption, and these influences could be enhanced particularly by the drinking behaviors of fathers and peer groups, and the relationship of students with their peer groups. The probability of developing adolescent problem drinking was fourfold greater in students whose fathers had habits of drinking. Ethnicity had a notable impact on the risk of problem drinking. The occurrence of problem drinking among indigenous adolescents was 2.98-fold higher than among Hans, indicating a diversity of biological factors, social norms, and expectation for alcohol drinking between these two ethnic groups. The study suggested that a policy for preventing alcohol abuse among high school students should start by addressing the two major associated problems: a need to earn peer group recognition, and the lack of family support among at-risk students.

Jackson et al., (2006) attempted to evaluate effects of a home-based antismoking socialization program on the initiation of smoking among children whose parents smoke. The study involved parents who were current smokers and had a child in the third grade who had not tried smoking were eligible; 873 parents-offspring pairs met these criteria, completed baseline interviews, and were randomly assigned to the intervention or control condition; 776 children (89%) completed an interview 3 years after baseline and were included in the study. During the study period of 3 months, the intervention group (n = 371) received 5 printed activity guides, parenting tip sheets, child newsletters, and incentives; this group also received a booster activity guide 1 year later. The control group (n = 405) received fact sheets about smoking. Results indicate that initiation of smoking (first instance of puffing on a cigarette) was reported by 12% vs 19% of children in the intervention vs control groups. Logistic regression analysis indicated that children in the control condition had twice the odds of reporting initiation of smoking as children in the intervention condition (adjusted odds ratio, 2.16; P<.001), after adjusting for child sex, parent sex, parent race, parent educational achievement, child's best
friends' smoking, parent smoking rate at baseline, and parent cessation status. The study concluded that children in the pre-initiation phase of smoking who receive antismoking socialization from their parents are less likely to initiate smoking, even if their parents smoke.

Williams and Kornblum (1985) studied more than 900 teens who were growing up in poverty in cities and rural areas throughout the United States. According to their interviews, another cause of pregnancy relates to the opportunities in a teenager's life. When girls are not doing well in school and see little other hope for their future, motherhood can offer an escape from school. Being a mother is an identity for a girl who sees herself going nowhere in life. Having a child can be viewed as a symbol of maturity and as a source of affection and love.

Frank Vitaro and his colleagues (1997) found that among a group of 868 boys they studied from age 11 to 13, those who had been moderately disruptive at age 1 were more likely to be delinquent at age 13 if they had aggressive or disruptive friends at age 11 and 12 than if their friends had been less aggressive or disruptive. Thus, those boys who were learning toward bad behavior were drawn further in that direction by their friends. However, the boys in this study who were already showing highly disruptive behavior at age 11 most often continued with disruptive behavior at age 13, regardless of the type friends they hung out with. Findings like these suggest that negative peer group influence primarily affect a particular group of marginal teens, perhaps especially those whose parents are ineffective in monitoring and discipline, or perhaps those who have insecure attachments to their parents.

Kandel et al., (1978) studied nearly 1,000 New York state students in five different high schools showed that drug use by peers was one of the strongest predictors of an adolescent's initiation into drugs. If friends disagreed on drug use, the friendship usually either ended or one of the friends modified his or her stance on drugs.

Richardson et al., (2005) investigated perceived academic performance and self-reported suicidal behavior in adolescents (n = 2,596), mean age 13 years, from 27 South Australian high schools. The study results indicated that the groups perceiving their academic performance as failing, below average, average and above average were significantly different on measures of
self-esteem, locus of control, depressive symptoms, suicidal thoughts, plans, threats, deliberate self-injury, and suicide attempts. Multivariate logistic regression analyses further revealed that failing academic performance (compared to above average) is associated with a five-fold increased likelihood of a suicide attempt, controlling for self-esteem, locus of control and depressive symptoms.

2.7 Academics and School:

Mitchel et al., (2005) carried out a study on school health promotion. There are many reasons to focus on schools as a setting to promote the health of young people. These include the inter-relationship between health and education, the commitment to health and synergy between the health and education sectors, the existence of evidence to support school health promotion, and the access to large numbers of students that schools provide. There remain, however, many challenges for school health promotion, including the potential to overcrowd the curriculum, the difficulty of engaging parents and community partners, issues of school or health ownership of programs and the practical dilemmas of evaluation. It is argued that rather than being reasons to avoid work in this setting, these challenges should inform intervention and broader program design. Chamberlain et al., (1972) in an eight-year study of 1,500 high-school students found that those who had learned to study without the pressure of competitive grading performed as well in college as those who graduated from very competitive high schools. Indeed, the college professors perceived the 1,500 students from the noncompetitive schools as more intellectually curious and more resourceful than students from the schools where competitive grading was considered a motivating strategy.

St. Johns (1975) analysis of the data, derived from 41 studies in elementary and secondary school during a 35-year period, found both positive and negative academic consequences from desegregation. According to St. John's analyses of the research available in the mid 1970s, although desegregation generally improved minority students' academic achievement and self-confidence, sometimes the reverse occurred. In other words, integration sometimes appeared to impede the academic progress and undermine the academic self-confidence of minority students.
Grant and Snyder (1984) found 53 percent of 1980 college freshmen had fathers with more than a high-school education, and only 17 percent had fathers without a high-school diploma. In general, these correlational data mean that adolescents with the poorest academic skills have parents who are handicapped both by having the least formal education and by having the least access to the kids of opportunities for their children that money can buy.

Scales et al., (2000) studied over 6,000 adolescents in an ethnically diverse sample, and found that girls were significantly more likely than boys to report more school success and greater ability to resist dangerous situations. Boys, on the other hand, were more likely than girls to be engaged in leadership activities.

Lee and Bryk (1986) compared the experiences of over 1,800 girls and boys enrolled in similarly constituted coeducational and single-sex private Catholic schools as they moved from Grade 10 through Grade 12. They investigated a wide variety of student outcomes including academic and social attitudes, school-related behaviors, course enrollment, academic achievement, educational aspirations, self-concept, and gender role attitudes. The results were consistently in favor of girls who attended all-girl schools. Relative to girls in coeducational schools, girls in single-sex schools did more homework, associated more with academically oriented peers, expressed more interest in math and English, took more math courses, made more gains in reading and science achievement across the 2-years period, had higher educational aspirations, rated their schools and teachers more positively, and became increasingly more egalitarian in their schools and teachers more positively, and became increasingly more egalitarian in their gender role attitudes from Grade 10 to Grade 12. Boys in single-sex schools also experienced advantages relative their coeducational counterparts (e.g., they enrolled in more math and science courses and had higher achievement scores in some areas), but the differences were weaker, and on most variables (educational aspirations, self-concept, and gains in achievement) there were no school differences at all.

Connell et al., (1994) in a cross-sectional study of 10-to-16-year-old African American adolescents, found that parents' engagement with their adolescents was inversely related to the
degree of their adolescent’s disaffected behavior with school. Path analyses revealed that as parents’ involvement lessened, adolescents were likely to become even more disaffected, party because less parental engagement and support are associated with more negative self-appraisals by adolescents. This transactional process eventually can result in further declines in the adolescents’ school performance.

2.8 Anxiety:

Offer et al., (1981) in an illustrative study disputed the notion that boys experience the most anxiety related to gender roles in Offer’s investigation of several thousand adolescents from five different countries in the 1960s and 1970s. According to these cross-cultural data, boys have better feelings about their bodies, are more self-confident, and are less passive and less dependent on others’ approval than girls. Boys also reported better feelings about themselves than girls, with respect to vocational achievement and academic success. Moreover, the boys described themselves more confidently than girls in terms of their abilities to solve problems that might arise. While most boys were self-confident about their appearance throughout adolescence, over 40 percent of the younger adolescent girls said they frequently felt ugly or unattractive.

Kim and Smith (1998) in a retrospective study of college-age girls, found that earlier menarche was related to family stress in late childhood (age 7-11), conflict with mother and anxiousness and internalizing symptoms (anxiousness and depression) in early childhood (birth to age 6), and earlier age at dating boys and more boyfriends.

Caldwell et al., (2002) studied the impact of racial identity and parent-adolescent relationship on adolescent functioning. With a sample of 521 African American high-school seniors, the researchers found that correlations between racial identity and maternal support, on one hand, and depressive symptoms and anxiety, on the other, were mediated by perceived stress.

2.9 Adjustment:

Zimet and Jacob (2001) conducted a study about the influences of marital conflict on child adjustment. This study summarizes the literature on relationship between marital conflict and
child adjustment with an emphasis on variables that qualify, explain the association, or both. Marital conflicts are clarified through specification of its various dimensions (frequency, intensity, content and resolution). The roles of variables that serve to moderate and/or moderate the relationship between marital conflict and child maladjustment are elaborated. Mediating model include exposure theories (modeling, cognitive contextual effects; appraisal of threat and blame and emotional security) and changes in the parent-child relationship. The variables that moderate or qualify the relationship include children's cognition and behaviors, contextual factors, demographic differences.

Davis et al., (1998) conducted a study about exploring children's emotional security as a mediator of the link between marital relations and children's adjustment. These were mediated by children's emotional security, as evidenced by their emotional reactivity (e.g.: vigilance, distress), regulation of exposure to parent-affect (avoidance, involvement), and internal representations in the context of inter-parental relations. Multiple methods and contexts were used to assess 6-9 year olds emotional security in response to standardized, stimulated conflict involving parents. Marital dysfunction were linked with adjustment problems as mediated by response processes indicative of emotional insecurity in relation to parental conflicts. Emotional reactivity and internal representations were most closely linked with marital relation and child adjustment.

Davis et al., (1994) conducted a study on marital conflict and child adjustment in which an emotional security hypothesis stated children's concern about emotional arousal and organization and their motivation to respond in the face of marital conflicts. Over time these response processes and internalized representations of parental relations that develop have implications for children's long-term adjustment. Emotional security is seen as a product of past experiences with marital conflict and as a primary influence on future responding.

Buchanan and associates (1992) assessed the emotional adjustment of 517 children 10 to 18 years of age more than four years after parental separation. Comparisons were made for adolescents living with their mothers, with fathers, and with dual residence. Overall, differences in adjustment based on residence were small, with adolescents living with their fathers sometimes doing less well than the other teens. Adolescents adjusted less well living
with their fathers only when they had shifted residences more than once since their parental separation, when parents were still hostile toward one another, when the teen did not feel close to the father, and when the father did not provide close monitoring of the teen.

Fauber et al., (1990) conducted a study which was concerned with the development testing of a structural equation model wherein the relation of interpersonal conflict to the adjustment problems of young adolescent is mediated through three aspects of parental behavior: (1) lax control, (2) psychological control and (3) parental rejection/withdrawal. Samples were drawn from intact families and recently divorced families. The results suggested that, the mediational patterns were different for the two samples and the model accounts for a greater proportion of the variance in the adjustment problems of adolescents from intact homes than of these from recently divorced families.
2.10 An Outline Plan Of The Study

2.10.1 Title of the Proposed Study:

Assessment of Parental Disciplinary Measures, Parent-Child Relationship, Adjustment And Anxiety among Adolescents with Working And Non-Working Mothers From Different Social Strata

2.10.2 Context:

At the core of a happy family are parents and children connected to one another in a way i.e. mutually satisfying, pleasing and enduring. Parents are the architects behind the career of a child. How a child will behave, how he will interact with different social agents, all depends upon the inputs given by the family to a child. Some parents are very strict and/or possess over regimented attitude while another group of parents are very lenient regarding disciplining children and adolescents. Both types of parenting are harmful for future career building of the children and adolescent and also for parent-child relationship. Some parents also apply physical punishment to make their children disciplined which leaves devastating effect on his development.

It is important for the parents to provide balanced love and affection to their children. If parents are very strict children might not share their personal problems with them. Some of the latest study findings on how parent-child relationship influence the future career of the children and adolescents and their psychosocial well-being have been provided below:

Clark et al., (2002) examined the relationship of perceived parenting practices to anger and coping in a sample of 70 African-American adolescents. Regression analyses revealed that perceptions of parental strictness were negatively related to anger temperament, anger-out, and avoidance (all p<0.05). These findings highlight the potential importance of the perceived
parent-adolescent relationship for African-American adolescents. The findings of Shearin (2002) study indicate that a substantial proportion of the 179 adolescent males who perceived parent-adolescent interaction as positive and were identified as having a stable psychological well-being, were more likely to have high achievement group membership.

In one study DeVet (1997) found that for females, relationships with parents partially mediated the association between physical punishment and adjustment. Physical punishment was negatively associated with both adjustment and parent-adolescent relationships.

Shek (1999) carried out a study to find out the paternal and maternal influences on the psychological well-being of Chinese adolescents. Findings revealed that relative to maternal qualities, paternal qualities were generally found to exert a stronger impact on adolescent psychological well-being. The subjective assessment of well being and performance in school were lower among adolescents with divorce experience (Breidablik and Meland, 1999). Deb (1994) revealed that about 13% of high school students of Calcutta City used to possess a predisposition of becoming a status delinquent. Another study found that about 15% of teenagers were suffering from serious ‘identity crisis’ and ‘high role confusion’ in social life (Deb, 1995).

2.10.3 Justification Of The Study:

Mother is regarded the closest person in the life of a child. Hence, mother’s nature of caring the child has got tremendous role in developing proper outlook among children about life, academic performance and also on the personality of the child. Studies clearly indicate the importance of good parent-child relationship. However, in India especially in Kolkata very few studies have been carried out on the said issue.

The present study will reveal the nature of parent-child relationship, parental disciplinary practices and its impact on mental health of the adolescents. It also aims at offering solutions so that parent-child relationship can be improved which will facilitate the career building of the adolescent and in turn will help the family and the nation with a proper future citizen.
2.10.4 **Objectives:**

1. To study the socio-economic and family background of adolescents.

2. To study the parental disciplinary practices for adolescents.

3. To study the parent-child relationship of adolescents.

4. To study the adjustment of adolescents

5. To study the anxiety of adolescents, if any and reasons thereof.

6. To suggest need-based measures for improving the parent-child relationship and to reduce the level of anxiety among adolescents, if any.

2.10.5 **Hypotheses:**

1. Parental disciplinary measures of adolescent boys and girls, irrespective of medium, socio-economic background and mother’s occupational status differ significantly.

2. Parental disciplinary measures among adolescents studying in Bengali and English medium schools, irrespective of gender, socio-economic background and mother’s occupational status differ significantly.

3. Parental disciplinary measures of adolescents belonging to different socio-economic background, irrespective of gender, medium and mother’s occupational status differ significantly.

4. Parental disciplinary measures of adolescents having working and non-working mothers, irrespective of gender, medium and socio-economic background differ significantly.

5. Parent-child relationship of adolescent boys and girls; irrespective of medium, socio-economic background and mother’s occupational status differs significantly.


7. Anxiety of adolescent boys and girls, irrespective of medium, socio-economic background and mother’s occupational status differs significantly.
8. Anxiety of adolescents studying in Bengali and English medium schools, irrespective of gender, socio-economic background and mother’s occupational status differs significantly.

9. Anxiety of adolescents belonging to different socio-economic background, irrespective of gender, medium and mother’s occupational status differs significantly.

10. Anxiety of adolescent having working and non-working mothers, irrespective of gender, medium and socio-economic background differs significantly.

11. Adjustment of adolescent boys and girls, irrespective of medium, socio-economic background and mother’s occupational status differs significantly.

12. Adjustment of adolescents studying in Bengali and English medium schools, irrespective of gender, socio-economic background and mother’s occupational status differs significantly.

13. Adjustment of adolescents belonging to different socio-economic background, irrespective of gender, medium and mother’s occupational status differs significantly.

14. Adjustment of adolescent having working and non-working mothers, irrespective of gender, medium and socio-economic background differs significantly.

2.10.6 Proposed Methodology

Coverage: The present study will be confined to Secondary and Higher Secondary School students of Kolkata city only.

Target Groups: The present study proposes to cover adolescent boys and girls aged between 14-17 years of IX to XII standard.

Study Tools: The following study tools will be used for achieving the objectives of the present study:

- Semi-structured questionnaire (to be developed)
- Parental Disciplinary Practice Scale, developed by Roop Rekha Garg, 1985, published by Agra Psychological Research Cell
- Parent-Child Relationship Scale, developed by Nalini Rao, 1989
- **Multidimensional Personality Inventory (Adjustment Part)** developed by Km. Manju Agarwal, 1988, published by Agra Psychological Research Cell.

**Sample and Sampling:** The steps, which will be followed for selecting the sample, are as follows:

**Step I:** A list of Bengali and English Medium Secondary and Higher Secondary Schools in Kolkata will be prepared.

**Step II:** From the said list eight schools, four from South Kolkata (two Bengali medium and two English medium) and four from North Kolkata (two Bengali medium and two English medium) will be selected following systematic random sampling.

**Step III:** From each school 60 students, 15 each from four classes will be selected following systematic random sampling method. Thus, altogether, 480 students will be covered in eight schools. Care will be taken to select equal number of boys and girls.

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99
Bengali Medium Schools
- Boys 15 15 15 15 60
- Girls

English Medium Schools
- Boys 15 15 15 15 60
- Girls

Total Sample: 480

Data Collection and Analysis:

A prior appointment will be made with the school authorities to appraise them about the objectives of the study and to obtain their permission for data collection. After data collection necessary statistical will be carried out for interpretation.

References


