REVIEW
OF
LITERATURE
CHAPTER-2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A literature review is a transcript of erudite papers which include the existing acquaintance, include substantive conclusion as well as hypothetical and practical aid to an exacting subject matter. Literature reviews use derivative sources and do not authenticate new-fangled or unique toil. It helps to describe or recognize the broad topic, issues or vicinity of concern. It does spot out the trends in what has been in print available about the topic; or conflicts in hypothesis, methodology, confirmation and conclusions; gaps in research or perception of instant interests.

The main purpose of this chapter is to comprehend relevant information to gain an (in-depth) understanding of parent-adolescent relationship from different perspectives.

Larson et al. (1996) “in a cross-sectional study on 220 working and middle class youth found that time spent with family decrease from 35% to 14% across age increased disengagement. Changed and continuous relationships were stable across age in time talking and alone with parents; girls conversation about interpersonal issues increase with age. Result shows that decline in time spent with family is not by internal family conflict but by adolescent experience and opportunities from outside the family”.

Gavin and Furman (1996) “examined the factors connected with harmony in 60 adolescent girls' relationships with their mothers and their best friends.
Harmonious mother-daughter partners (vs. disharmonious ones) found more similar needs, needs were better met; partners had more socially skilled and similar interests”.

**Conger et al. (1997)** “in a study on relations between parents' and siblings' psychological control and adolescent adjustment, assessed self-esteem and problems of internalization and externalization over a 3 year period for 388 adolescents (7th graders at Year 1). Results indicated that Patterns of association between psychological control and adolescent adjustment were consistent across family members. Psychological control both by parents and by siblings contributes to increases in adolescents' adjustment problems and to diminish self-confidence”.

**Sheeber et al. (1997)** “studied the relations between family support, family conflict, and adolescent depressive symptomatology in a sample of 231 female and 189 male adolescents and their mothers. Structural equation models revealed that less supportive and more conflictual family environments were associated with greater depressive symptomatology both concurrently and prospectively over a 1-year period and were similar for boys and girls. Conversely, adolescent depressive symptomatology did not predict deterioration in family relationships”.

**Beazer (1998)** “examined relationship quality of adolescents (25 male & 39 females) and daily interactions with their parents. Males spent significantly more time with their fathers and experienced significantly higher ratios of both positive parental affect and positive interactions with their fathers. On average, the adolescents report that the relationships with their parents were important and that overall quality was good with 80 to 90% of positive interactions”.

**Shek (1998)** “examined the Chinese secondary school students with low academic achievement (adolescents = 365) responded to instruments measuring their perceived parenting styles behaviour, and conflict with the parents. Compared with
the norm based on students with relatively higher academic achievement, parents were perceived to be less responsive and less demanding and they had more conflict with their children. The data also showed gender differences in parenting, fathers perceived to be relatively less responsive, less demanding, less concerned, but more harsh in their parenting styles and having more conflict with their children”.

Mayseless et al. (1998) “examined that the age difference in autonomy and relatedness in adolescents’ relationship with parents as well as association with mother, father and same gender friend. Questionnaire (RFMQ) and the Sharabany Intimacy Scale were administered to 205 Israeli adolescents (105 males and 100 females) from two age groups: 9th grade (age X = 14.5) and 12th grade (age X = 175)”. Autonomy was high with parents reported by older adolescents in comparison of younger adolescents. It was found that adolescents who reported cordial and controlling profile of relationship with parents were a like in having an ideal profile of relationships with their parents and those reporting a cold and controlling profile of relationship reported having higher intimacy with their best friend”.

Daniel (1998) “studied 378 Chinese adolescents’ relationship with parents, conflict and psychological well-being. The result showed that parent-adolescent conflict sources were related to purpose of life, life satisfaction, hopelessness, self-esteem and general psychiatric morbidity. Father adolescent conflict has a strong influence on both male and female’s psychological wellbeing”.

Smetana et al. (2000) “examined 79 middle-class African American families (both parents) interactions with early adolescents. Result indicated that decrease in communication ratings. Both parents interaction was more positive in dyadic than triadic interactions. After control for family income, mothers' communication in triadic interactions became less positive over time and they validated sons more than
daughters, whereas in dyadic interactions with either parent, boys were more receptive to parents than were girls”.

Adams and Laursen (2001) “in telephone interviews, asked 212 adolescents to describe all disagreements arising the preceding day that involved parents. Parent-child conflicts more often involved a combination of daily hassle topics, neutral or angry affect afterward, power-assertive resolutions, and win-lose outcomes. Parents usually reported more coercion than friends, and friends usually reported more mitigation than parents”.

Johnson et al. (2001) “in a study on impact of family environment on adolescent’s personal development and social interactions for late adolescents (both male and female) found that inter parental conflict were responsible for feeling of loneliness and decreased for females in cohesive families. Furthermore, feeling of loneliness was responsible for late adolescent’s social avoidance and social anxiety”.

Davis (2002) “examined the differences of maternal and peer support of younger (ages 14 to 16) and older (ages 17 to 19) African American adolescents. Findings indicated that (a) both younger and older adolescent mothers receive significantly more support from mothers than from peers, (b) higher levels of maternal problems are associated with higher levels of depression for all adolescents and (c) under conditions of low maternal support, younger adolescents appear to be at greater risk for depression when peer support is higher, whereas older adolescent may be at greater risk when peer support is lower”.

Buist et al. (2002) “examined 288 adolescent’s quality of attachment and role of gender difference with their parents and siblings. Result showed that attachment quality changes during adolescent period. Change in mean level of quality of
attachment to mother appeared to be linear decline for girls, whereas nonlinear for boys. Attachment to father were opposite, with a nonlinear for girls and linear decline in quality for boys”.

Phinney and Ong (2002) “investigated the relationship between adolescent-parent differences in the endorsement of family obligations and adolescent life satisfaction, in 238 families (adolescents and their parents) from two differing cultural backgrounds (including 135 European-American families and 103 Vietnamese-American families). Results showed that adolescent-parent discrepancies were a strong negative predictor of life satisfaction, across two groups that differ both culturally and demographically”.

Shek (2002) “examined the relationships between perceived parenting characteristics and parent-adolescent conflict in a sample of Chinese adolescents (N = 378). Results showed that global parenting styles (concern and harshness) and specific parenting behaviour (responsiveness and demandingness) were concurrently related to parent-adolescent conflict. Longitudinal analyses showed that the relations between parenting characteristics and parent-adolescent conflict across time are bidirectional in nature. For the linkage between parenting quality at Time 1 and changes in parent-adolescent conflict at Time 2, early parenting quality predicted parent-adolescent conflict in adolescent girls but not in adolescent boys”.

Wolfradt et al. (2003) “investigated the high school student’s (N=276) relationship between parenting style, depersonalisation, anxiety and coping behaviour. It was found that adolescent’s depression and trait anxiety were correlated to parental psychological pressure on adolescents. Adolescent’s positive coping technique and low anxiety level were correlated to parental warmth. Adolescents who perceived authoritarian parenting style showed higher score on depersonalisation and anxiety.
Adolescents who perceived authoritative and permissive style of both parents showed the highest score on active problem coping”.

**Smetana & Daddis (2003)** “assessed the incidence, rate of recurrence, and intensity of conflicts among 95 middle class African-American families, 44 (preadolescent) and 51 (early adolescents). Result showed that Conflicts with parents were relatively frequent, low in intensity, and occurred over issues such as the adolescent's room, chores, choice of activities, and homework. Pre adolescents rated conflicts as less intense but early adolescent’s shows more intense, but mothers' ratings of conflict intensity and families' ratings of conflict frequency differed by family income. All conflicts were resolved by adolescents giving in to parents, but adolescent concession declined with age, unresolved conflict and punishment was increased by age”.

**Tucker et al. (2003)** “studied pattern of conflict resolution with mother, father and siblings on sex differences, adolescent’s personal qualities and the nature of family relationship. Participants were (92 girls and 93 boys) and their parents and siblings. Result showed that both girls and boys used effective conflict strategies with parents but less effective conflict resolution strategies with siblings and those adolescents’ personal qualities were linked with effective conflict resolution”.

**Judith et al (2003)** “examined everyday conflicts in middle-class African American adolescents and parents (n = 82 families). The number and frequency of conflicts did not change from early to middle adolescence, but mothers rated conflicts as less intense and adolescents rated conflicts as more intense over time. Conflicts over homework increased and conflicts over the adolescents’ rooms declined from early to middle adolescence. Across ages, nearly all conflicts were resolved by
adolescents’ giving in to parents. Compromise was relatively infrequent but increased with age, whereas reported use of punishment decreased”.

**Laible & Carlo (2004)** “studied 108 adolescents perception of paternal and maternal support to adolescents and control social competence, sympathy, and self worth. Adolescent’s report of sympathy, social competence and self worth were related to high level of maternal support and low level of rigid control. In contrast adolescent’s adjustment were unrelated to father’s support and control except sympathy”.

**Xia et al (2004)** “examined the relationship among adolescents decision-making involvement, parent-adolescent communication and relationship. Results demonstrated that Chinese parents appeared to be less authoritarian. Chinese adolescents experienced a passage of autonomy development similar to that of their American counterparts. Good parent-adolescent communication was positively associated with cohesion and negatively associated with conflict, significantly different for boys’ and girls”.

**Beaumont and Wagner (2004)** “examined the 94 adolescents in conflict conversations with their parents. Result showed that adolescents’ rates of disgust were positively predicted from both the degree of difference in the adolescent’s and parent’s conversational styles and from the parent’s rates of disgust expressions. Adolescents used a conversational style that included more overlaps, simultaneous speech and successful interruptions than their parents”.

**Krishnan (2004)** “explored parent-adolescent conflict in terms of conflict incidence and conflict intensity (with both parents). The sample consisted of Malays, Indian-, and Chinese- Malaysian adolescents. Seven subtypes of conflicts (a) cooperative behaviour, (b) managing time, (c) family relations, (d) academic, (e)
finances, (f) appearance, and (g) daily hassles were examined in each group. Academic issues, time management, and daily hassles were salient issues of conflict in the Malay and Chinese groups, whereas daily hassles, time management, and cooperative behaviour were most frequently the issues of conflict in Indian groups. Conflict incidence and intensity with fathers were higher compared to mothers”.

Wingate (2004) “examined association of negative attributions, SES or daily stress level with increased conflict levels in a heterogeneous sample, African American mothers reported negative attributions, SES level, and mother-reported daily stress were significant predictors of both mother- and adolescent-reported conflict”.

Padilla-Walker et.al (2005) “examined responses of 48 middle-class European American parents when their children (M age of child=13.33 years) encounter values outside the home that conflict with family values. Result revealed that reasoned cocooning and pre-arming occurring most frequently. The self-reported importance of values to parents was the most important predictor of which strategy parents used, with parents using more controlling strategies to defend values that were most important to them”.

Mc Gue et. al. (2005) “examined conflict and aspects of warmth in the parent–child relationship. 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”.

Mohanraj and Latha (2005) “examined the relationship between family upbringing, the home adjustment and academic success in adolescents (106 Boys and 86 girls). Family upbringing appeared to affect home adjustment as well as academic success. The majority of the sample perceived their family as cohesive, organized,
achievement oriented and emphasizing on moral – religious issue with minimum conflict. Cohesion, conflict, control, intellectual – cultural orientation and independence in the family environment affected home adjustment. Academic success was significantly related to independence and conflict domains of family environment. Boys and girls differed in perception of the home environment”.

Cindy et al. (2005) “explored of parents (170 mothers and 159 fathers’) experience of relationship quality when their children transit to adolescents age. Changes in the personal qualities of adolescents, general closeness in the parent-adolescent relationship, and communication emerged as features of relationship change most important to parents. Mother’s negative and positive reactions to relationship changed mother during 4 year of adolescence, but not with fathers”.

Tritt and Pryor (2005) “studied the relationships among marital conflict and parenting styles perceived by adolescents (n=172 age range 16-19 yrs). Results indicated that total marital conflict scores correlated with negative perceptions of mothers and fathers and with authoritarian, neglectful, and permissive parenting. Marital conflict correlated positively with negative perceptions and negatively with positive perceptions of parents”.

Yu et al (2006) “examined the relationship of youth depression with their risk involvement, parental monitoring, and parent-youth communication in 752 bahamian youth. Depressed youth were older, more likely to engage in risk behaviors and perceived significantly lower levels of parental monitoring and higher levels of impaired communication than did non depressed youth. Differences in perceptions of open communication were significantly greater among depressed parent-youth dyads. Depressed youth, youth with past histories of risk behavior, youth reporting higher
levels of impaired communication and lower levels of parental monitoring were more likely to anticipate future risk behavior”.

**Pasch et al. (2006)** “studied the acculturation model of Mexican American families (146 mothers, 137 fathers, and 146 adolescents) that proposed that differences between parents and adolescents in acculturation would be associated with parent-adolescent conflict and adolescent adjustment problems. Contrary to hypotheses, study found that families who exhibited an acculturation gap were not more likely to report parent-adolescent conflict or adolescent adjustment problems. In fact, familial conflict and adolescent sexual experience were associated with high levels of acculturation among adolescents and their parents”.

**Buehler et al (2006)** “examined how parenting helps explain the contemporaneous association between interparental hostility and adolescent problem behaviour. The sample consisted of 416 early adolescents and their parents. The association between interparental hostility and adolescent externalizing problems was mediated uniquely by fathers' and mothers' harshness, lower levels of fathers' monitoring knowledge, and mothers' psychological intrusiveness”.

**Smetana et al (2006)** “studied disclosure and Secrecy in Adolescent–Parent Relationships among 276 ethnically diverse, lower middle-class 9th and 12th graders (Ms=14.62 and 17.40 years) and their parents (n=249) Parents viewed adolescents as more obligated to disclose to parents than adolescents perceived themselves to be. Adolescents disclosed more to mothers than to fathers, particularly regarding personal issues. Greater trust, perceived obligations to disclose, more parental acceptance and psychological control predicted more disclosure and less secrecy”.
Wissink et al. (2006) “studied the cross-ethnic similarity in the pattern of relation among parenting behaviour (support and authoritative and restrictive control), the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship (disclosure and positive and negative quality), and several developmental outcomes (aggressive behaviour, delinquent behaviour, and global self-esteem). A sample of 541 Dutch, Moroccan, Turkish, and Surinamese adolescents living in the Netherlands (mean age 14.43) completed questionnaires at school. The results showed ethnic similarities in the mean levels of support, authoritative control, and disclosure, positive quality of the parent-adolescent relationship, delinquent behaviour, and self-esteem”.

Jutengren and Palmerus (2007) “examined the four specific schemas of cognitive structures that adolescents may hold concerning interpersonal disagreements with their parents and occurrence across high and low levels of psychosocial adjustment, among 120 Swedish adolescents (50 boys, 70 girls) Findings show that the authoritative conflict schema (compliance as a result of mutual respect) occurred more often among well-adjusted adolescents, whereas authoritarian and indulgent conflict schemas were particularly associated with low levels of psychosocial adjustment”.

Bienvenu (2007) “in a study on 376 high school students suggested that good listening habits, freedom of expression, understanding, and acceptance were associated with a higher degree of communication whereas criticism, sarcasm, lack of trust and lack of acceptance of the adolescent with a significantly lower degree of communication”.

Stocker et al (2007) “examined associations between parents' emotion coaching and emotional expressiveness, and adolescents' internalizing and
externalizing symptoms. Sample comprised 131 adolescents (16-year-olds) and their mothers and fathers. Results indicated that mothers were more accepting and supportive of their children's expression of negative emotions than were fathers. Parents' coaching of emotions was associated with fewer adolescents' internalizing symptoms but unrelated to their externalizing symptoms. Parents' negative emotional expressiveness was positively linked to internalizing and externalizing symptoms of adolescents”.

Shanahan et al (2007) “examined siblings' dyadic and differential conflict frequency with mothers and fathers and first, second birth order child (age from 7 to 19 years). Multilevel models examining trajectories of conflict frequency across age and year of study revealed that (a) consistent with a spill over hypothesis, elevation in parent-offspring conflict frequency was timed to firstborns' transition to adolescence for both siblings; and (b) consistent with a learning-from-experience hypothesis, there was no increase in conflict frequency at second-borns' transition to adolescence”.

Laursen and Mooney (2008) “examined positive and negative features of adolescents ((N = 406) relationships with their parents and same-sex best friends. School grades, self-reported adjustment problems, and self-worth differed as a function of both the number of relationships that adolescents described as high on positive features and the number of relationships that adolescents described as high on negative features. Adolescents with relationships that were uniformly good quality (i.e., high on positive features and low on negative features) were better adjusted than adolescents with relationships that were uniformly poor quality (i.e., low on positive features and high on negative features)”.
**Kapadia (2008)** “examined how adolescents interpret their relationships with their parents in two different cultural contexts. The results indicated that adolescents in both societies experience everyday disagreements related to regulation of behaviour/activities and interpersonal relations, academics, chores and finance. Mutual accommodation and adolescent compromise were the commonly used strategies of resolving disagreements. Although adolescents from both groups also endorsed the need for parent accommodation to adolescent views, parent compromise featured more in the Indian immigrant group on account of faith in parents’ experience, respect for them and the belief that parents have children's welfare at heart”.

**Kim (2008)** “in a study on 103 adolescents found that low perceived maternal and paternal warmth were positively related to adolescents' overall poor psychological adjustment and almost all of its attributes. When maternal and paternal warmth were entered simultaneously into the regression equation, only low maternal warmth was related to adolescents' poor psychological adjustment”.

**Singh and Udainiya (2009)** “investigated the effects of type of family and gender on self-efficacy and well-being of adolescents (50 boys and 50 girls) from joint and nuclear families. Results revealed a significant effect of type of family and gender on self-efficacy. The interaction between type of family and gender was also found to be significant; however neither family type nor gender had significant effect on the measure of well-being”.

**Dwairy and Dor (2009)** “assessed association of parental and familial factors with adolescents' mental health among former Soviet Union (n=83) immigrants and (n=106) non-immigrant in Israel. Results revealed that FSU adolescents are less connected to their families, experience their parents as less warm and more
inconsistent in their childrearing behaviour, report that their mothers subject them to a higher level of control, and the psychological disorders among them are more widespread than among non-immigrant adolescents. Maternal control, maternal temporal inconsistency, and maternal and paternal rejection were associated with psychological disorders only among non-immigrant adolescents”.

**Updegraff et al. (2009)** “to explore 162 adolescents’ (Mexican immigrant families) relationship with mother and father threw 7 phone calls and home interview. Findings show that higher level of acceptance and better knowledge of adolescent’s daily chore activities reported by mothers in comparison of father, girls spent more time with mothers and boys spent less time with mothers. Linkages between parent-adolescent relationship qualities and youth adjustment were moderated by adolescent gender and parents’ division of paid labour”.

**De Goede et al. (2009)** “examined the 951 early adolescent boys and 390 middle adolescent boy’s perception of relationship with parents by assessing parental support, conflict and power. Univariate and multivariate growth curve analyses showed that support declined from early to middle adolescence for boys and girls and increased from middle to late adolescence for girls, while stabilizing for boys. Temporarily conflict increase in middle adolescence. In early to late adolescence period relative power and control of parents was decreased”.

**Chung et al (2009)** “examined daily frequencies of inter parental and parent-adolescent conflict over a 2-week and their implications for emotional distress in 415 adolescents from Latin American, Asian, and European backgrounds. Although family conflict remained fairly infrequent among all ethnic backgrounds across the high school years, its impact on emotional distress was significant across ethnicity
and gender. In addition, parent-adolescent conflict significantly mediated the association between inter parental conflict and emotional distress”.

Van Doorn et al. (2009) “examined the 72 dutch adolescents’ daily dynamics conflict and relationship satisfaction with parents and best friends. Multilevel analyses showed that when conflict occurred with parents and best friends that day satisfaction was low in comparison of on days on which no conflict occurred with parents and best friend. Whereas adolescent’s conflict and satisfaction with parents were not related to each other one day later, unconstructive conflict with best friend was related to higher relationship satisfaction one day later”.

Shomaker and Furman (2009) “examined how current parent-adolescent relationship qualities and adolescents’ representations of relationships with parents were related to friendship interactions in 200 adolescent-close friend dyads. Adolescents and friends were observed discussing problems during a series of structured tasks. Negative interactions with mothers were significantly related to adolescents’ greater conflict with friends, poorer focus on tasks, and poorer communication skills. Security of working models (as assessed by interview) was significantly associated with qualities of friendship interactions, whereas security of attachment styles (as assessed by questionnaire) was not”.

Lichtwarck et al. (2009) “examined intraindividual variability in emotional responses during the transitional period a sample of 17 teenage girls and their mothers over a period of a year. The results revealed a reversed U-shaped relation between girls’ emotional variability and the number of conflicts”.

Day et al. (2009) “explored individual and collective influence of parents’ connectedness and involvement in the lives of their children. 349 mothers and fathers
were selected, along with their early adolescent child (mean age = 11.23 years, SD = .96). Result revealed that (even after controlling for child age, gender, and self-regulation) that mothers' and fathers' contributions differed. Fathers (but not mother) connectedness and involvement were negatively related to adolescents' internalizing and externalizing behaviours, whereas mother (but not father) connectedness and involvement were positively related to adolescents' prosaically behaviours and hope”.

**Keijsers et. al (2010)** “examined adolescent gender (n= M 149, F 160) differences on secrecy from their parents and quality of parent-child relationship for 4 year. Latent growth curve modelling revealed a linear increase in secrecy, which was significantly faster for boys than for girls. Moreover, cross-lagged panel analyses showed clear concurrent and longitudinal linkages between secrecy from parents and poorer parent-child relationship quality in girls but much less changes in boys”.

**Natarajan (2010)** “examined the parenting style of mothers and fathers from predominantly White-American (n = 276) and Indian adolescents (n = 195). Results indicated that Indian females were most likely to perceive their mothers and fathers as authoritative, followed by U.S. males and females, followed by Indian males. Indian males were most likely to perceive their mothers as authoritarian, followed by U.S. males and females, followed by Indian females. Perceived authoritative parenting was inversely associated with interpersonal and academic problems, while perceived authoritarian parenting was positively associated with interpersonal and academic problems in both samples”.

**Deb et.al. (2010)** “examined 460 adolescents (220 boys and 240 girls) 13-17yrs. Results revealed 38% (20.1% boys and 17.9% girls) suffering from high anxiety, more boys than girls, English medium school adolescent’s were less nervous than from Bengali medium schools. High and low socio economic family’s
adolescent’s suffered low anxiety than those belong to middle class family. Working mother’s adolescents were more anxious. Adolescent were not comfortable to discuss their personal issues (60% for fathers and 40% for mothers).

**Edgar-Smith and Wozniak (2010)** “measured the relational family values system of upper-middle-class mothers, fathers, and adolescents in the United States. Results revealed that participant’s shared common family values mainly reflected the importance of individualism, equality in family relationships, family member interdependence, and parental guidance”.

**Doorn et. al. (2010)** “investigated changes in three conflict resolution styles in parent–adolescent relationships (positive problem solving, conflict engagement, and withdrawal). Sample comprised 314 early adolescents (M = 13.3 years; 50.6% girls) and both parents for four consecutive years. Adolescents’ reported use of positive problem solving increased with mothers, but did not change with fathers. Fathers reported an increase of positive problem solving with adolescents, whereas mothers reported no change. Adolescents’ use of conflict engagement and withdraw was found to temporarily increase with mothers, but showed no change with fathers. In general both adolescents and their parents changed in their use of conflict resolution from early to middle adolescence in favor of a more horizontal relationship”.

**Cicognani and Zani (2010)** “assessed gender, age and perspective (description of self and description of the adolescent) style of conflict (aggression and compromise) and differences among 302 mother-father dyads with adolescent children (13 and 15 years old; total n = 604). There was evidence of a more conflicting relationship between female adolescents and mothers. Parents described adolescents as less compromising and more aggressive than self”.
Lin and Lian (2011) “investigated the relationship between parenting styles and coping capability among Malaysian adolescents (n=161 age ranged 13-16yrs). Results showed no difference in terms of authoritarian parenting among parents while mothers preferred authoritative parenting as compared to fathers. Parenting styles were also correlated with adolescents’ coping capability”.

Saxena et al (2011) “studied the difficulties or expectations of parents and adolescents (14-17 years old) middle and lower class families with each other and the effect on their relationships. Findings concluded that difference was found in parent-adolescent relationship in middle class and lower class families”.

Claes et al (2011) “compared two dimensions of parenting-emotional bonding and control as perceived by adolescents (n=1256) living in three countries: Canada (province of Québec), France, and Italy. Results indicated that parents are perceived as highly emotionally bonded, yet the perception of parental control produced two contrasting models. Canadian adolescents perceive less control and disciplinary actions from parents, and more tolerance. Conversely, Italian adolescents perceive more requirements and rules, and stricter disciplinary actions, while French adolescents' perceptions fall between the two. Results showed that a gradual decrease in the perception of parental control between the ages of 11 and 19 years across all three countries, which was earlier by Canadian adolescents and later by Italian adolescents”.

Deepshikha and Bhanot (2011) “studied the impact of family environment on socio emotional adjustment of 100 adolescents (17-18yrs). Family Environment Scale and Adjustment Inventory for School Students were administered. Result showed that all the 8 family environment factors, viz. cohesion, expressiveness,
conflict, acceptance and caring, independence, active-recreational orientation, organization and control together showed significant role in socio-emotional and educational adjustment of adolescent girls”.

Zhang et al. (2011) “studied the importance of parents' and adolescents' expectations on adolescents' academic achievement. Results indicated a reciprocal relationship between parents' expectations and adolescents' expectations (i.e., they had mutual influence on each other), stronger among males than among females, and adolescents' academic achievement. With respect to ethnic differences, the effects of adolescents' expectations were weakest on parents' expectations among African Americans as compared to the other ethnic groups (i.e., Asian, Hispanic and White)”.

Roggero et al (2012) “explored the similarities and differences of the adolescents’ (n=103) communication, conflict styles, conflict resolution and satisfaction with parents, best friends and boy/girlfriend. The adolescents use similar levels of open and problem communication, compromise and aggression (conflict styles), intimacy and frustration (conflict resolutions) with father, mother, friends and romantic partners and similarly satisfied with their partners, however more frequent with friends and romantic partners than with the parents”.

Shaban & Mattoo (2012) “studied the relationship of adolescent boys (n=40) and girls (n=40) with their mothers and fathers. Highly significant difference was observed between the use of symbolic punishment, rejecting, loving dimension, while no significant difference was found with protecting dimension among adolescent boys and girls”.
**Bhatia (2012)** “in a study to observe the effect of family relationship on the emotional intelligence of the adolescents found that healthy family relationship greatly influences emotional intelligence of the adolescents”.

**Putnick et al (2012)** “assessed cross national differences in mothers’ and fathers’ self-reports of acceptance-rejection, warmth, and hostility/rejection/neglect (HRN) of their pre-adolescent children and relation to the gender of the parent and child in 10 communities in 9 countries (N = 998 families). Mothers and fathers in all countries reported a high degree of acceptance and warmth, and a low degree of HRN, but countries also varied. Mothers reported greater acceptance of children than fathers in China, Italy, Sweden, and the United States, and these effects were accounted for by greater self-reported warmth in mothers than fathers in China, Italy, the Philippines, Sweden, and Thailand and less HRN in mothers than fathers in Sweden. Fathers reported greater warmth than mothers in Kenya. Mother and father acceptance-rejection were moderately correlated”.

**Akhtar (2012)** “studied the attachment relation to the parenting styles in 179 adolescents. No significant difference was found in attachment styles of adolescents, with prefer for avoidant attachment style. Father’s were more authoritarian for male child. Mother’s were more authoritative for female child and permissive for male child”.

**Hasumi (2012)** “examined the association between parental involvement and mental well-being among 6721 adolescents aged 13 to 15 years. Parental involvement (homework checking, parental understanding of their children’s problems, and parental knowledge of their children’s free-time activities) was reported by students to decrease with age, while poor mental health (loneliness, insomnia due to anxiety, and
sadness and hopelessness) increased with age, with significant association of high levels parental involvement and decreased likelihood of poor mental health”.

**Cheung et al (2013)** “examined four times over the 825 American and Chinese 7th and 8th grade adolescents (mean age = 12.73 years). Adolescents reported on their spontaneous disclosure of everyday activities and quality of relationship and their parents' autonomy support and control. Both American and Chinese adolescents' disclosure predicted their enhanced academic adjustment over time. However, when American adolescents disclosed in a negative context (e.g., a poor parent-child relationship or controlling parenting), their autonomous (vs. controlled) motivation was undermined”.

**Kapur and Javed (2013)** “investigated Parent - adolescent perception of problems faced by low and high academic achievers of grade tenth. The findings revealed that low academic achiever adolescents perceived more problems in the area of economic, material facilities, physical health and fitness as compared to high academic achievers. It was also seen that males (as compared to females) perceived more problems in the area of physical attributes, economic and material facilities, friendship, sex, marriage and family”.

**Letha (2013)** “investigated the perception of adolescents about their parents’ influence in academic activities. The sample comprised 200 students from Class XI studying in various schools of Delhi through a self constructed questionnaire. The scores indicated that adolescents perceived their parents as influencing their academic activities, parental support being most influential”.
Kalhotra (2013) “in a study of 155 IX class students found that high achievers are loved more by their fathers than low ones and are given due importance at home. In contrast the mothers equally love both high and low achievers”.

Thakur et al (2013) “studied the Parenting Style and Social intelligence of adolescents (n=200 age range 13-19yrs). Results revealed that Social Intelligence was found statistically significant with sex of adolescents, Family type, Caste, Religion and Urban/ Rural. Parenting style was also found statistically significant with sex of adolescents and urban”.

Mensah et al (2013) “examined the dominant parenting styles of parents and their influence on adolescent’s (n=480) social development. The results revealed that the majority of the parents were perceived to adopt authoritative parenting styles in the upbringing of their children”.

Telzer and Fuligni (2013) “examined gender differences in positive and negative daily family interactions in internalizing symptoms in 681 12th grade students (54 % female). Results indicated that negative daily family interactions explain, in part, why females experience heightened internalizing symptoms however; positive daily family interactions have salutatory effects, reducing females’ emotional distress and eliminating gender differences in internalizing symptoms at high levels of positive interactions”.

Kumar (2014) “investigated the emotional maturity of 60 adolescents (30 boys and 30 girls) in relation to family relationship. The result revealed that there is a significant difference in emotional maturity of boys and girls and significant relation with family relationship of adolescents”.

Moyer and Sandoz (2015) “assessed the distress and psychological flexibility in Parent adolescent relationship. Parents (n = 71) and adolescents (n = 21) completed online surveys assessing their distress and psychological flexibility, and parents completed an additional measure of parenting flexibility. Results demonstrated a trend toward parenting flexibility as a possible moderator in the relationship between parent and child distress.”