CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Any research endeavour would be imperfect without outlining the studies relevant to the present research. A review of the literature that support or oppose, compliment or contradict will be helpful in understanding the present study from various perspectives. Therefore an attempt is made here to go through the literature in the field of present study. Hence, a review of literature is done by referring various journals like ‘Community Guidance Research’, ‘Indian Psychological Review’ and websites such as www.jstor.org, www.springer.com, www.google.com, www.apa.org/journalsbul.html, www.elseweir.com and such studies collected are divided into following headings.

1. Studies on Adolescence

2. Studies on the Impact of home environment on adolescents

3. Studies on Psychosocial Competence

4. Studies on Resilience

5. Studies on Vocational Aspiration

2.1 Studies on Adolescence

Zimmerman, Ramirez-Valles and Maton (1999) tested longitudinally the protective effects of sociopolitical control on the link between helplessness and mental health. The study included 172 urban, male, African American adolescents, who were interviewed twice, 6 months apart. Sociopolitical control was defined as the beliefs about one's capabilities and efficacy in social and political systems. Two mental health outcomes were examined—psychological
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symptoms and self-esteem. Regression analyses to predict psychological symptoms and self-esteem over time were conducted. High levels of sociopolitical control were found to limit the negative consequences of helplessness on mental health. The results suggested that sociopolitical control may help to protect youths from the negative consequences of feelings of helplessness.

Williams, McGillicuddy-De and Ann (2000) examined coping strategies used by male and female students in early, middle, and late adolescence when they were coping with two different types of stressors: daily hassles and major life events. Older adolescents used a greater variety coping strategies and used methods that directly reduce the impact of the stressor and involved a cognitive component (e.g., planful problem solving; reappraisal) more often than younger adolescents. Adolescents in all age groups varied their strategies in relation to the type of stressor, but there were no significant gender differences. The findings suggested that significant changes during a relatively short period during adolescence may affect adaptive processes and have implications for intervention efforts aimed at reducing the negative effects of stress during this period of development.

Jones and Meredith (2000) examined developmental paths of psychological health of 236 participants of the Berkeley Growth Study, the Berkeley Guidance Study, and the Oakland Growth Study. A clinician-reported aggregate index, the Psychological Health Index (PHI), based on California Q-Sort ratings, was created for subsets of participants at 14, 18, 30, 40, 50, and 62 years of age. Latent curve analysis was then used to explicate the life span development of psychological health. Psychological health development could be successfully modeled via 2 piecewise latent growth curves. Psychological health appears to be stable in adolescence and to steadily increase from 30 to 62 years of age. A moderately strong positive correlation between the 2 developmental curves indicates that those with greater psychological health in adolescence
show more improvement in adult psychological health. Results illustrate the value of the PHI and the power of latent curve analysis to explicate longitudinal stability and change.

Gestsdottir and Lerner (2008) reported that adolescence is a period of marked change in the person’s cognitive, physical, psychological, and social development and in the individual’s relations with the people and institutions of the social world. These changes place adaptational demands on adolescents, ones involving relations between their actions upon the context and the action of the context on them, a bidirectional process that has been labeled developmental regulation. The attributes and means through which the adolescent contributes to such regulation may be termed self-regulation. This article differentiated between organismic and intentional self-regulation and examined the development of intentional self-regulation in adolescence, and the individual and contextual contributions to its development. The model of Selection, Optimization, and Compensation, developed by Paul Baltes, Margaret Baltes, and Alexandra Freund, was used as a means to conceptualize and index intentional self-regulation in adolescence. The relation between intentional self-regulation and positive development of youth was examined.

Estevez, Murgui, Musitu, and Moreno (2008) examined the influence of family and classroom environments on the development of particular individual characteristics, including level of empathy, attitude to institutional authority and perceived social reputation, and the role these characteristics may in turn play in school aggression. Participants were 1319 adolescents aged 11–16 (47% male) drawn from state secondary schools in Valencia (Spain). Since previous studies suggest that these variables may contribute differentially to aggressive behaviour depending on adolescent gender, two different mediational structural models were calculated, respectively, for boys and girls. Results obtained confirmed the associations expected among the
variables considered in the structural equations tested and pointed out different paths for boys and girls. Overall, the findings suggested that a positive family environment seems to be a stronger protective factor for girls in the development of problems of behaviour at school, whereas for boys this is the case for a positive classroom environment. This model accounted for 40% of the variance in aggression at school for boys and 35% for girls.

Ashurst, Hans, Smith and Jones (2009) studied the psychosocial experiences of late adolescents coping with parental cancer using a developmental systems framework and grounded theory methods. Results suggested three primary psychosocial developmental influences, including multilevel influences (individual, familial, and extra familial risk and protective factors), coping strategies to maintain control, and responses to uncertainty and anticipatory grief. Identity and intimacy were the two most salient psychosocial tasks. The central unifying concept of resilience was the primary psychosocial developmental outcome that resulted from coping with parental cancer during late adolescence. This finding illuminated the need to expand the focus in youth development research and practice to include positive developmental outcomes that can result from coping with life crises during adolescence.

Wray-Lake and Flanagan (2012) assessed factors related to Social Trust (ST) in 11–18 year olds with survey data collected over two years from 1150 U.S. adolescents and their mothers. Adolescents’ ST in year 1 and their reports of a positive neighborhood climate predicted ST one year later. Adolescents’ reports of family practices were stronger predictors of their ST than were mothers’ reports. Regression analyses revealed different factors predicting changes in ST for three adolescent age groups: With ST at T1 and background factors controlled, democratic parenting boosted ST for early- and middle-adolescents. Adolescents’ reports that parents encouraged compassion for others boosted ST for middle- and late adolescents, and
Results suggested that the disposition to trust others is formed, in part, by what adolescents hear from parents about their responsibilities to fellow human beings and by modeling of democratic parenting.

Moksnes, Løhre and Espnes (2012) investigated possible gender and age differences on emotional states (state depression and state anxiety) and Sense of Coherence (SOC) as well as the association between SOC and emotional states. The cross-sectional sample consists of 1209 adolescents 13–18 years from public elementary and secondary schools in Mid- Norway. The results showed that girls reported higher scores on state anxiety and state depression, whereas boys consistently scored higher on SOC in all age groups. SOC was inversely associated with both state depression and state anxiety. An interaction effect of gender by SOC was found on both state depression and state anxiety, where the association was stronger for girls than for boys. The associations found give support for the implications of salutogenic factors in relation to emotional health in adolescents.

Shuster, Li and Shi (2012) examined interrelations among cultural values, parenting practices, and adolescent aggression using longitudinal data collected from Chinese adolescents and their mothers. Adolescents’ overt and relational aggression were assessed using peer nominations at Time 1 (7th grade) and Time 2 (9th grade). Mothers reported endorsement of cultural values (collectivism and social harmony) and parenting practices (psychological control and inductive reasoning) at Time 1. While controlling for Time 1 adolescent aggression, maternal collectivism and social harmony indirectly and longitudinally linked to adolescent aggression through maternal parenting practices. Specifically, maternal collectivism was positively related to inductive reasoning, which, in turn, negatively related to adolescent overt
aggression at Time 2. Similarly, maternal social harmony negatively related to psychological control that positively predicted later adolescent relational aggression. Results of the present study shed light on mechanisms through which culture may indirectly influence adolescent aggression.

2.2 Studies on Home Environment

Kazuo, Iris and Edward (1985) investigated the reciprocal relation between the home environment and the development of 148 7–14 yr old slow-learners longitudinally over a 3-yr period. Annual assessments of the home environment included childrearing attitudes, educationally relevant stimuli and opportunities, and psychosocial climate and environmental press of the home. Main caregivers (usually mothers) were administered the Henderson Environmental Learning Process Scale and the Family Environment Scale. Measures of the Ss' development included social competency, psychosocial adjustment, and self-concept. Partial correlation and hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed significant influence of environmental stimulation, both cognitive and social, on the Ss' subsequent cognitive development and social adjustment. Harmony and quality of parenting, and educational expectation and aspiration were the two most salient environmental variables associated with the Ss' development. The study also demonstrated significant influence of the Ss' psychosocial adjustment on subsequent changes in the home environment including psychosocial climate of the home, family adjustment, and the parents' educational expectations and aspirations.

Amoroso and Ware (1986) reported that although there is extensive literature on the home environment as a socializing agent and on the perception of self and others, research relating home environment variables to adolescents' perception of themselves and others is not common. The present study, using a survey of 480 students, attempted to define and relate these
two domains. Factor analyses of 16 semantic differential scales generated three dimensions--evaluation, understandability, and potency--for specifying attitudes toward self, parents, and certain external authority figures (teachers and police). In addition, factor analysis of 20 variables relating to adolescents’ perception of their home environment suggested five factors: (1) extent of punishment, (2) amount of chores at home, (3) perceived parental control, (4) absence of parents, and (5) parents' attitude toward authority figures. Controlling for sex and age, these home environment factors were found to account for sizable portions of variance in certain components of the person perception domain.

Bradley, Caldwell and Rock (1988) examined the home environments of 42 10- and 11-year-old children when they were infants and again during middle childhood. Significant correlations were observed between home environments measured at both 2 years and 10 years and the children's SRA achievement test scores and their classroom behavior. However, the home environment at 6 months was only related to a limited number of classroom behaviors. Partial correlations were used to test 3 models of environmental action: Model I (primacy of early experience), Model II (predominance of the contemporary environment), and Model III (cumulative effects in stable environments). Strongest relations were noted for the contemporary environment, but all 3 models received some support. Correlations between HOME scores and children's competence in middle childhood revealed a complex portrait that was not explainable with reference to a single model of environmental action. The version of the HOME Inventory used with families of elementary school children was also introduced.

Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, and Darling (1992) examined the impact of authoritative parenting, parental involvement in schooling, and parental encouragement to succeed on adolescent school achievement in an ethnically and socio-economically
heterogeneous sample of approximately 6,400 American 14-18-year-olds. Adolescents reported in 1987 on their parents' general child-rearing practices and on their parents' achievement-specific socialization behaviors. In 1987, and again in 1988, data were collected on several aspects of the adolescents' school performance and school engagement. Authoritative parenting (high acceptance, supervision, and psychological autonomy granting) led to better adolescent school performance and stronger school engagement. The positive impact of authoritative parenting on adolescent achievement, however, was mediated by the positive effect of authoritativeness on parental involvement in schooling. In addition, non authoritativeness attenuated the beneficial impact of parental involvement in schooling on adolescent achievement. Parental involvement was much more likely to promote adolescent school success when it occurs in the context of an authoritative home environment.

Barber and Lyons (1994) examined whether family processes that predict positive and negative developmental outcomes are the same in intact and remarried families. Surveys were administered to 758 tenth graders from intact families and 95 from stepfather families. Measures of cohesion, democratic decision-making style, permissiveness, and conflict were used to predict self-rated depression, worry, and self-esteem. Remarried and intact families provided similar family environments for permissiveness and democratic decision making. Remarried families were more conflictual and less cohesive than intact families. In both family types, conflict had negative effects, and cohesion and democratic decision-making had positive effects on adolescents' adjustment. In remarried families, but not intact, permissiveness was related to higher self-esteem.

Kudrek and Fine (1994) assessed the relation between adjustment and perceptions of both family acceptance and family control in 2 samples of young adolescents, ns= 851 (mean age =
12.36 years) and 269 (mean age = 10.89 years), respectively. In Sample 1, dimensions of adjustment included self-reports of psychosocial competence and problems with self-regulation. In Sample 2, adjustment was indexed by peer ratings of likability. In both samples, family acceptance and family control were positively related to adjustment. However, in Sample 1, family control was also curvilinearly related to adjustment but in a different pattern for the 2 adjustment scores. Specifically, the positive relation between family control and psychosocial competence was stronger at progressively higher levels of family control, whereas low—but not moderate or high—levels of control were related to many self-regulation problems. In light of evidence that acceptance and control are complexly related to adjustment, they recommended that researchers routinely examine curvilinear effects in this area of study.

Gauze, Bukowski, AquanAssee, and Sippola (1996) examined the hypothesis that family and friendship measures would moderate each other's associations with measures of children's perceptions of their adjustment and well-being. Stronger associations were observed between the family measures and the adjustment measures in children without a close friendship than in children with such a relationship. Also, friendship was more strongly linked to outcome measures for children from low adaptive and low cohesive families than for children in more adaptive and cohesive families. These findings indicated that experiences in the family and friendship domains interact in their associations with children's impressions of their adjustment during early adolescence.

Sheeber, Hops, Alpert, Davis and Andrews (1997) examined the relations between family support, family conflict, and adolescent depressive symptomatology longitudinally 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. Conversely, adolescent depressive symptomatology did not predict deterioration in family relationships. Depressive symptomatology and, to a greater extent, family characteristics showed high levels of stability over the 1-year period. Counter to the expectations, the relations between family variables and depressive symptomatology were similar for boys and girls. The results suggested that the quality of family interactions was relevant for understanding the development of depressive symptoms in adolescents.

Glasgow, Dornbusch, Troyer, Steinberg and Ritter (1997) examined the contemporaneous and predictive relations between parenting styles, adolescents' attributions, and 4 educational outcomes. Data were collected from adolescents attending 6 high schools in California and 3 high schools in Wisconsin during the 1987-1988 and 1988-1989 school years. The results of path analyses partially confirmed the central hypotheses. Adolescents who perceived their parents as being nonauthoritative were more likely than their peers to attribute achievement outcomes to external causes or to low ability. Furthermore, the higher the proportion of dysfunctional attributions made for academic successes and failures, the lower the levels of classroom engagement and homework 1 year later. Although adolescents' attributional style provided a bridge between parenting style and 2 educational outcomes, it did not fully explain the impact of parenting on those outcomes. Additional analyses within gender and ethnic subgroups reinforced the overall pattern of findings observed within the entire sample.

Fletcher, Steinberg and Sellers (1999) examined high school students’ reports separately on mothers' and fathers' responsiveness and demandingness and their own academic achievement and engagement, involvement in problem behavior, psychosocial development, and internalized distress. Mothers and fathers were classified as authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, or
indifferent, and adolescents from homes characterized by different types of inter-parental consistency were compared with those from homes where parents were not consistent. Adolescents with one authoritative parent exhibited greater academic competence than did peers with parents who were consistent but nonauthoritative. Adolescents with one authoritative and one nonauthoritative parent exhibited greater concurrent internalized distress than did youth from consistent homes, but these findings were not observed longitudinally.

Lohman and Jarvis (2000) examined adolescents’ stressors, coping, and psychological health in the family context in 42 adolescents, ranging in age from 11 to 18. Perceptions of intergenerational stressors and coping strategies were examined for congruence by comparing adolescents’ self-reports to parents’ reports on their adolescents. Adolescents’ reports on their parents were also compared to parents’ reports on themselves. This study also specified family environment dynamics in relation to the study variables. Hypotheses that more congruent adolescent and parent perceptions about each other’s stressors and coping were related to more cohesive family environments and more adaptive copings were generally supported. Family environment variables and congruent coping were related to psychological health symptoms as well. The findings contributed to current knowledge about the study variables examined in the context of the family.

Bradley and Corwyn (2001) examined the role of self-efficacy beliefs as a mediator and moderator of the relation between the home environment and well-being for both European American and African American children ages 10 through 15. There was evidence that self-efficacy beliefs pertaining to school and to family functioned as a mediator between EA-HOME scores and social behavior and also between EA-HOME scores and an overall problems index. The effects occurred in both ethnic groups but more often in European American adolescents.
Likewise, self-efficacy beliefs pertaining to peers and to family served to moderate the relation between HOME scores and social behavior, achievement test scores, and the overall problems index. Again, however, the effects were largely restricted to European Americans.

Sun Yongmin (2001) reported that although previous research has noted that children of divorce tend to fare less well than peers raised in families with two biological parents, much less is known about how parents' marital disruption affects children as a continuous process in its different phases. Based on two waves of a large, nationally representative panel, the study demonstrated that even before the disruption, both male and female adolescents from families that subsequently dissolve exhibit more academic, psychological, and behavioral problems than peers whose parents remain married. Families on the verge of breakup were also characterized by less intimate parent-parent and parent-child relationships, less parental commitment to children's education, and fewer economic and human resources. These differences in family environment accounted for most well-being deficits among adolescents in predisrupted families. Furthermore, the deterioration in different domains of the family environment appeared to be associated with maladjustment in different aspects of children's lives. The postdisruption effects on adolescents can either be totally or largely predicted by predisruption factors and by changes in family circumstances during the period coinciding with the disruption. Finally, the analyses indicated that female adolescents are as likely to be affected by the parental divorce process as male adolescents.

Sarada Devi and Kavitha (2002) attempted to find out the family factors associated with scholastic backwardness of 100 low achieving students (50 boys and 50 girls) of ninth and tenth classes from ten private English medium schools of secondary school children of Hyderabad city. Large family size, low educational status of parents, low parental involvement and low
parental encouragement were found to be the major family factors associated with scholastic backwardness.

Halloran, Ross and Carey (2002) examined the relationship of adolescent personality and family environment to psychiatric diagnosis in 170 adolescents admitted to a psychiatric inpatient unit. Patients were administered the Child Assessment Schedule (CAS), the family Environment Scale (FES), and the Millon Adolescent Personality Inventory (MAPI). Adolescent personality and/or family environment were related to 1) major depression, conduct disorder, and attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder in both boys and girls, 2) oppositional defiant disorder, post traumatic stress disorder and overanxious disorder in girls, and 3) dysthymic disorder and alcohol use in boys. The study empirically showed the relationship of both personality and family environment in psychiatric diagnoses.

Devi and Anita (2002) examined the self-concept of adolescents from single parent and intact families. The sample consisted of 150 children in the age range of 13-16 years studying in the 8th, 9th and 10th standards from Tirupathi. The study revealed that adolescents from intact families had greater self-concept than single parent families. It was also noticed that adolescents of intact families had high self-concept in the dimensions of physical, family, social, personal identity and behavior self. The adolescents of single parent families had high self-concept in moral and ethical self areas.

Tiller, Garrison, Block, Cramer, and Tiller (2003) based on a larger longitudinal project of family stress and children’s development, the primary objective of the current study was to investigate the relationships between parenting styles and children’s cognitive ability in families with young elementary school-aged children. 290 families (278 mothers and 143 dads), 133 first graders and their families and 148 third graders participated in the study. Parents completed a
self-administered survey on family experiences, including parenting styles. Children were interviewed at their schools where the Brief Intellectual Ability portion of the Woodcock-Johnson III was administered. The findings of the current study indicated that parenting styles are not better predictors of children’s cognitive ability than family socioeconomic-demographic characteristics.

Uma Devi and Rayal (2004) studied adolescents’ perceptions about family environment and emotional intelligence. 224 adolescents studying intermediate course constituted the sample. Results revealed that four out of eight dimensions of family environment, cohesion, expressiveness, acceptance and caring and active recreational orientation were positively and significantly related to total emotional intelligence of adolescents. It was surprising to note that none of the dimensions of family environment were related to any one of the five components of emotional intelligence. It was interesting to note that only expressiveness dimension was related to assertiveness dimension of intra personal component and cohesiveness, expressiveness, acceptance and caring were significantly and positively related to empathy and interpersonal relationship dimensions.

Kaur and Kalaramna (2004) studied the interrelationships existing between home environment, social intelligence and socio economic status (SES) across various age levels and two sexes. The data was collected from randomly selected four high schools in the villages of Ludhiana –I block of Ludhiana district. Home environment was assessed by using Mishra’s Home Inventory, Social Intelligence was assessed by using Chadha and Genesan’s (1986) Social Intelligence Scale and to know the socio-economic status, Kulshreshta’s Socio-Economic Status Scale (1981) was used. Results revealed that socioeconomic status has got effect on social intelligence. Home environment also showed positive impact on social intelligence.
Rani and Latha (2005) aimed to investigate the relationship between family environment, the home adjustment and academic achievement in adolescents. The adolescents (106-Boys and 86 girls) were assessed using the Moos and Moos Family Environment Scale and Bell’s adjustment inventory. Academic scores were taken from the school records. Family environment appeared to influence home adjustment as well as academic performance. The majority of the sample perceived their family as cohesive, organized, achievement oriented and emphasizing on moral - religious issue with minimal conflict. Cohesion, conflict, control, intellectual – cultural orientation and independence in the family environment influenced home adjustment. Academic performance was significantly related to independence and conflict domains of family environment.

The present study by Bansal, Thind and Jaswal (2006) was based on one hundred eleventh grade students drawn from ten senior secondary schools of Ludhiana City. All the selected respondents had scored 80 per cent or above aggregate marks in their tenth standard examination and were thus labeled as ‘high achievers’. Rotter’s Locus of Control, Bhargava’s Achievement Motivation Scale and Misra’s Home Environment Inventory were used to assess the locus of control, achievement motivation and quality of home environment, respectively. Results showed that good quality of home environment had significant positive correlation with ‘high’ level (P<0.001) of achievement motivation among high achievers. It was found that as the quality of home environment gets deteriorated, the level of achievement motivation also gets deteriorated. ‘Internal’ locus of control had significant positive correlation with quality of home environment. ‘External’ locus of control was non-significantly related with achievement levels and quality of home-environment. Significantly greater proportion of high achievers with ‘average’ level of achievement motivation showed ‘internal’ locus of control. Whereas
distribution of high achievers with high and low levels of achievement motivation showed no significant difference for the internal and external locus of control.

Halawah (2006) studied the effect of motivation, family environment, and student characteristics on academic achievement of 388 high school students (193 males and 195 females) from Abu Dhabi District, United Arab Emirates (UAE). A Likert-type instrument that consisted of three parts (scales) was used to measure students' level of motivation, parental influences, and students' characteristics, while academic achievement was measured using student's GPA. Calculations were also breakdown by gender to assess differences between male and female students. Students' mean level of motivation was less than the means of parental influence and student's characteristics. No gender differences were observed on the variables measured by the instrument. Correlations between each of motivation, family environment, student characteristics and academic achievement were small and practically not significant. Remarkably high correlation value was observed between motivation and students characteristic. The highest correlation value was observed between family environment and students' characteristics.

Martínez and García (2007) studied the relationship of parenting styles with adolescents’ outcomes within a sample of Spanish adolescents. The results showed that Spanish adolescents from indulgent households have the same or better outcomes than adolescents from authoritative homes. Parenting was related with two self-esteem dimensions—academic and family—and with all the self-transcendence and conservation values. Adolescents of indulgent parents showed highest scores in self-esteem whereas adolescents from authoritarian parents obtain the worst results. In contrast, there were no differences between the priority given by adolescents of authoritative and indulgent parents to any of the self transcendence and conservation values,
whereas adolescents of authoritarian and neglectful parents, in general, assigned the lowest priority to all of these values.

Carneiro, Meghir and Parey (2007) studied the intergenerational effects of maternal education on children's cognitive achievement, behavioral problems, grade repetition and obesity. They addressed endogeneity of maternal schooling by instrumenting with variation in schooling costs when the mother grew up. Using matched data from the female participants of the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1979 (NLSY79) and their children, they controlled for mother's ability and family background factors. Results showed substantial intergenerational returns to education. For children aged 7-8, for example, their IV results indicated that an additional year of mother's schooling increases the child's performance on a standardized math test by almost 0.1 of a standard deviation, and reduced the incidence of behavioral problems. Their data set allowed them to study a large array of channels which may transmit the effect of maternal education to the child, including family environment and parental investments at different ages of the child. They found that income effects, delayed childbearing, and assortative mating are likely to be important, and they showed that maternal education leads to substantial differences in maternal labor supply. They investigated heterogeneity in returns, and presented results focusing both on very early stages in the child's life as well as adolescent outcomes. They presented a falsification exercise to support the validity of their instruments, and their results were found to be robust in a sensitivity analysis.

Ganesh and Magdalin (2007) compared children from disrupted families (institutionalized) and children from non-disrupted families in terms of academic stress and perceived problems. A sample of 80 boys, 40 from disrupted families (institutionalized) and 40 from non-disrupted families were matched in their age and socio economic status. Tools used
were as follows: i) Mooney’s Problem Checklist, and ii) Rajendran’s Academic Stress Questionnaire. Results indicated that children from non-disrupted families have higher academic stress than children from disrupted families. Similarly, with regard to perceived problems, significant difference was found between the two major groups in the following sub-scales: Health and Physical Development, Finance, Living Conditions and Employment, Social-Psychological Relations, Personal Psychological Relations, Courtship, Sex and Marriage, Adjustment to School Work, Future: Vocational and Educational.

Marsiglia, Walczyk, Buboltz, and Griffith-Ross (2007) examined the impact of Locus of Control (LOC) and Perceptions of parenting Styles (PS) on the PsychoSocial Success (PSS) of Emerging Adults (EAs). PSS was defined as the successful resolution of the tasks postulated by Erikson’s stage theory of psychosocial development (1975). The Measures of Psychosocial Development (based on Erikson’s theory; Hawley 1988), the Parental Authority Questionnaire (Buri 1991), and the Internal-External scale of Rotter (1966) were completed by 334 undergraduates (ages 18-25). Analyses revealed associations between (1) authoritative parenting and PSS, (2) maternal authoritative parenting and internal LOC, and (3) external LOC and maternal permissive and authoritarian PS. The relation between paternal PS and PSS was also moderated by LOC. Emerging adults’ PSS might be affected both directly by their perceptions of the PS they encountered earlier in life and indirectly through LOC, which might also be influenced by perceived PS.

Daulita Meena (2008) was based on a sample of one hundred twenty students drawn from senior secondary schools of Panipat. It was planned to assess the effect of home environment on the scholastic achievement of children of class VIII. Misra’s Home Environment Inventory Scale was used to assess the quality of home environment and scholastic achievement was ascertained
with the help of report cards of students and other school records. The data revealed that boys of high home environment group achieved significantly greater mean score than the boys falling in the group of low home environment. The impact of home environment had also been observed in the mean values of scholastic achievement of girls belonging to high, medium and low home environment groups. But the difference was not significant at 0.05 level of significance. Results also showed that good quality of home environment had significant positive correlation with ‘high’ level of scholastic achievement in boys than among girls. It was found that as the quality of home environment gets deteriorated, the level of scholastic achievement also comparatively declines in boys.

Kaur, Rana and Kaur (2009) attempted to explore academic achievement and home environment as correlates of self-concept in a sample of 300 adolescents. The results of the study revealed self-concept to be positively correlated with academic achievement, though not significantly so. A significantly positive relationship of home environment components of protectiveness, conformity, reward, and nurturance with self-concept was revealed, thereby meaning that use of rewards and nurturance from parents should be done for positive self-concept development among adolescents. However, the correlation of social isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection components of home environment was significantly negative with self-concept among adolescents indicating that for positive self-concept development among adolescents, there should be less or no use of social isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection. The study had implications for educationists and parents as well.

Delva et al., (2009) in a cross sectional survey assessed the psychological well-being and socio-economic hardship of orphan and non- orphan children in Conakry, Guinea. The study included 133 orphan and 140 non-orphan children. Multiway analysis of variance and multiple
logistic regression models were used to measure the association. The result showed that the psychological well-being score was significantly lower among orphan children than non-orphan children. The study recommended for sustainable and holistic approaches to ensure the psychological and socio-economic stability of orphans and other vulnerable children.

Kaur and Singh (2009) investigated the relation between home environment, self-concept, and academic achievement in 2,297 14–15 yr old Koreans. Results showed that over the 4 samples, self-concept was a mediating variable between home environment and academic achievement. Results did not support the commonly held view that home environment exerts direct effects on academic achievement. Social status indicators had indirect effects on self-concept via family psychological characteristics. Academic self-concept affected academic achievement more strongly than did presentation-of-self or social self-concept.

Singh, Mittra and Upadhyay (2010) intended to investigate and compare the self-concept of the adolescents belonging to urban and slum area in relation to their family environment. The study was conducted on incidentally sampled 200 adolescents (100 from slum area and 100 urban area). Subjects were administered the Family Environment Scale (Moos & Moos, 1981) and the Self-Concept Questionnaire by Saraswat, 1989 (SCQ) in a group to collect data. Results showed that all the three domains of family environment (relationship, personal growth, and system maintenance) correlated strongly and positively with the six domains of self-concept in slum and urban sample. Sex difference was not found to be the predictor of both boys’ and girls’ self-concept in urban sample, but in the slum boys and girls significantly differed on two domain of SCQ (social and educational), comparison between slum and urban on SCQ was found to significantly differ on total self concept and all six separate dimension of SCQ. On the other hand there is significant difference on all domains of FES (except the cohesion and conflict
domain) and total FES between slum and urban adolescents. It was concluded that family environment of slum was significantly poorer than the urban areas and self-concept was also lower of slum’s adolescents. So it can be concluded that, for the positive development of adolescents, in terms of higher self-concept, a good family environment is essential prerequisite.

Enrique, Alfredo, de Miguel, Fernando and Martin (2010) analysed the relationship between psychosocial quality of family context and the cognitive development of a sample of 551 children of school age. The data were gathered at school and at home in two waves, when the children were 5 (T1) and 8 (T2) years old, respectively. In T1, three factors related to quality of family context were obtained: absence of conflict, child-family adjustment, and sociability. Two factors of cognitive development were obtained in T1 and T2. In T1, associations were found between all three factors and cognitive development. In T2, associations were found between the quality of family context and cognitive development. Cognitive development in T2 was predicted by the absence of conflict T1 factor, with a negative association. Children who were exposed to more conflicts in T1, and who scored higher on the HOME scale in T2, were found to have improved their cognitive development scores over time in comparison with their group.

Oliver, Gottfried, Guerin, Gottfried, Reichard and Riggioe (2011) examined in a long-term longitudinal study, the relation between aspects of adolescents' family context representing a supportive and intellectually stimulating environment and subsequent qualities of transformational leadership in every day leaders in early adulthood. In addition, they examined one pathway through which this link occurs. Specifically, they sought to determine whether the relation between positive family functioning and transformational leadership was mediated through adolescent self-concept. The results indicated a significant relation between family
functioning and transformational leadership mediated by self-concept, controlling for socioeconomic status. When parents provided a stimulating and supportive environment, adolescents reported a more positive general self-concept, which subsequently related to transformational leadership qualities in adulthood. These findings represented the first prospective data that support the relation of family environment in childhood to transformational leadership in adulthood.

Dhanya and Rekha (2011) attempted to compare the Self –concept, Educational and occupational aspirations, general expectation and general performance of adolescents from the community living with their families and those in the orphanages. They found that adolescent girls living with family had a secure, warm, supportive environment where they had more care, advice and encouragement from their parents. On the other hand adolescent girls living in orphanage were not blessed with a good living environment, which in turn affected their self-concept, aspirations, general expectation and performance aspects.

Ajidahun (2011) examined poverty, divorce and peer-pressure as correlates of behavioural problems among adolescents in Adekunle Ajasin University. A total number of 100 students were randomly selected from various Departments in the Faculty of Education. The research instrument titled: Adolescent Psychological Questionnaire (APQ) consisting of 18 items was administered to the adolescents in the Faculty. Four research hypotheses were formulated. The data were analysed using frequency count and Chi-Square statistics. Results showed that all the hypotheses tested were significant. This implied that poverty, divorce and peer-pressure were correlates of behavioural problems among adolescents in the Faculty of Education, Adekunle Ajasin University, AkungbaAkoko, Nigeria.
Deepshikha and Bhanot (2011) conducted a study at Kumarganj, Faizabad District of Eastern Uttar Pradesh. The purpose of the study was to assess family environment of adolescent girls and its impact on their socio-emotional adjustment. One hundred adolescent girls of age group between 17-18 years comprised the sample of the study. Family Environment Scale (FES) and Adjustment Inventory for School Students (AISS) were administered. Data was analyzed in terms of percentage and multiple regression analysis. The statistical analysis revealed that all the eight 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.

Chawla Anita (2012) aimed to test the relationship between family environment and academic achievements. The participants included in the study were two hundred students i.e. 100 boys and 100 girls, randomly selected from the 9th standard of Marathi medium schools of Nasik City. Family Environment Scale by Dr. Harpreet Bhatia and Dr. N.K. Chadha (1993) was used for the purpose of data collection. Second semester (yearly) marks of 9th standard were taken. Data analysis was done by using Pearson correlation coefficient. Findings of the study revealed that family environment score was positively correlated with the academic achievement of the students.

Pérez and Cumsille (2012) analyzed the way in which adolescents’ temperamental characteristics interact with parental control to shape adolescent decision making development. A sample of high school Chilean adolescents (N = 391) answered a self-report questionnaire that included measures of behavioral autonomy (the extent to which adolescents make decisions in personal and prudential domains), parental behavioral and psychological control, and temperamental characteristics. A path analysis model indicated that adolescents’ anger–
frustration had a direct association with decision-making in the personal and prudential domains; fearfulness had an inverse association with adolescent decision-making, but only in the prudential domain. Perceived psychological control was associated with adolescents’ reduced decision-making autonomy in the personal domain, while perceived behavioral control was associated with less adolescent autonomy in both personal and prudential domains. Additionally, a moderation effect was found such that the association of parental behavioral control on decision-making in the prudential domain was dependent on the adolescent fearfulness level.

### 2.2.1 Home environment Related to Demographic Factors

Rani and Kaushik (2005) aimed to find out the level of achievement motivation of adolescents (100 boys and girls) in the age group of 14-16; (ii) to find out the difference in achievement motivation among boys and girls; (iii) to find out the effect of home environment on the achievement motivation of the adolescent,; (iv) to find out effect of parent-child relationship on achievement motivation of the adolescent,; (v) to compare boys and girls on perception of parent-child relations for mother and father; and (vi) to study the interactive effect of home environment and parent-child relationship on achievement motivation of the adolescents. The findings revealed that there was no significant difference between girls and boys in achievement motivation. And there was no significant difference in perception of the mother and the father by both girls and boys. Also Achievement motivation was positively correlated with child’s perception of parent as demanding, loving, protecting and rewarding and negatively correlated with indifferent, neglecting, rejecting and punishing parent-child relationship.

Acharya and Joshi (2009) intended to study the influence of parental education level on achievement motivation of adolescents. A total of 200 intermediate students belonging to parents
having four levels of education (high school, intermediate, graduation and post graduation) were administered Deo-Mohan achievement motivation scale. The result indicated that parental education level influences the achievement motivation in academic area. Higher the level of parental education, better the achievement motivation in academic area. Other areas were not found to be significantly influenced by the level of fathers’ and mothers’ education.

Bandy and Ottoni-Wilhelm (2012) investigated whether family structure transition and low income are risk factors in the development of pro-social behavior. Models of young adults’ prosocial behavior charitable giving and volunteering were estimated as functions of their family structure and income during the stages of childhood. Participants were a representative sample of 1011 American young adults. In the full sample, family structure transition during adolescence was negatively associated with subsequent charitable giving in young adulthood. Low income during adolescence was negatively associated with both giving and volunteering in young adulthood. European-American young men also exhibited a negative association between family structure transition during adolescence and subsequent volunteering. The results did not seem to describe African-American young adults. Keeping this qualification in mind, the results suggested that adolescence is a sensitive stage in the development of charitable giving and volunteering.

2.3 Studies on Psychosocial Competence

Carter, DeSole, Sicalides, Glass and Tyler (1997) investigated whether Black racial identity attitudes predict psychosocial competence as defined by Tyler's tridimensional model. In particular, two aspects of Tyler's model of psychosocial competence were examined: self-attitudes and behavioral attitudes. Participants in this study were 103 (65 females, 38 males) Black undergraduates who completed the Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale, the Behavioral
Attributes of Psychosocial Competence Scale, and Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale. The study found gender differences in racial identity attitudes for the sample. However, multiple regression analyses found that Black racial identity attitudes are not associated with one's sense of psychosocial competence. Although the results were not significant, analyses of individual weights within the regression equations suggested that the influence of racial identity attitudes on psychosocial competence may operate differently for men and women.

Chou (1999) investigated whether participating in a uniformed group such as Boy Scouts, which can be seen as a meso-ecosystem, is likely to be beneficial for adolescents' psychosocial competence. The psychosocial competence of a representative sample of Hong Kong Chinese adolescents who were members of uniformed groups (N = 559) was compared with that of a corresponding sample of adolescents who were not members of uniformed groups (N = 834). Multiple regression analyses were used to examine how well participation in uniformed groups predicted the 3 measures of psychosocial competence concurrently. Results indicated that participation in uniformed groups was associated with higher levels of social skills, helping attitudes, and leadership. Results were discussed in relation to benefits of uniformed group participation.

Carson, Chowdhury, Perry C, and Pati (1999) examined the relationship among a host of family characteristics and indicators of adolescent competence in a sample (N = 107) of 8th- and 9th-grade students in one school located in Berhampur city in Orissa state, India. Social competence (SC) and antisocial behavior (AB) were assessed by teachers, and adolescents evaluated various areas of their own competence on a perceived competence scale. Final examination grades also were obtained as a general measure of cognitive competence. The results indicated that families of more socially competent participants tended to be verbally and
emotionally expressive; democratic with regard to discipline, input, and decision making; close but not enmeshed; higher in their level of parent-adolescent communication and family ideals; and lower in external locus of control. Consequently, families of more antisocial adolescents had more conflict and enmeshment and were more external-locus-of-control oriented and either permissive or authoritarian. Finally, several personal and family demographic traits were positively associated with SC and negatively associated.

Aishwarya and Arora (2006) investigated the perceived parental behaviour and its relationship with academic school success and academic competence. The sample comprised of 500 High School students (250 male and 250 female). The subjects were administered Adolescent’s Perception of Parental Behaviour Questionnaire (APPBQ) developed by Arora, Sinha and Lakshmi. A School Success was assessed by marks obtained in High School Board Examination. Academic Competence Scale was also developed by Arora and Lakshmi. Results of the study revealed that parental acceptance and encouragement scores were positively related with academic school success and academic competence scores. However, parental control (psychological and behavioral) showed negative relationship with academic success and competence. Parents who were perceived as being more acceptant and using less restrictive and hostile psychological control tended to have adolescents with higher academic success and competence.

Drózdz and Pokorski (2007) evaluated the relationships among perceived parental attitudes and domains of social competence in late adolescents. Forty boys and 40 girls, all aged 18, representing a population sample of high school second graders were examined. Self-report data were collected using questionnaires of parent-child relations and of social competence. Analyses detected a significant association between the maternal loving or protective attitude and
competence in interpersonal relations in the combined sample of adolescents. However, gender was a moderator of this general relationship. Maternal control fostered their sons’ interpersonal relations, and no such relationship was observed toward daughters. Adolescents’ behavior was somehow less influenced by fatherly control. The findings were in line with the concept of familism as a dominant form of family organization, but implicate constraints in parental sentiments whose overly expression may backfire and do more harm than good in other domains of social competence of adolescents, such as assertiveness and performance during social exposure. The study might contribute to future research on how parenting style shapes adolescent social outcomes.

Crimi, Hensley and Finn (2009) evaluated the relationships between selected psychosocial factors and the physical activity behaviors of children (grade 4-8) and adolescents (grades 9-12) in a rural community setting. The Children’s Physical Activity Scale (CPAC) was used to measure the psychosocial factors of physical activity, The Physical Activity Questionnaire-Children (PAQ-C), and Physical Activity Questionnaire-Adolescents (PAQ-A) were used to measure the physical activity behaviors of the 167 participants. All psychosocial factors were significantly correlated with physical activity in youth with the single highest correlation for males being “liking of exercise” (r = .61) and the highest correlation for females was “liking of games and sports” (r = .44). Stepwise regression analyses identified three subscales (liking of games and sport, liking of exercise, and parental support) in a significant prediction model of physical activity in both genders. The results indicated that children's physical activity is associated with a variety of psychosocial variables that represent important predisposing and reinforcing factors.

2.3.1 Parenting Style and Psychosocial competence
Tyler (1978) explored in two investigations of students entering college ($N_s = 84$ and 262), and one of the students completing high school ($N = 147$) the presence of a psychological competence configuration as a component of personality-functioning. That configuration was hypothesized to consist of self-attitudes (Rotter I-E), world attitudes (Rotter Trust), and behavioral attributes (Tyler, Behavioral Attributes of Psychosocial Competence). The configuration held across all 3 samples, with the self-attitudes-behavioral attributes relation strongest. Configural measures were independent of aptitude and grade point measures, but somewhat related to social desirability (Crowne-Marlowe). In the high school study, the BAPC significantly differentiated students selected by counselors as exemplary (“getting their lives and school together well”) in contrast to those selected as marginal. The differentiating power of the BAPC proved to be completely independent of social desirability and aptitude effects and partially independent of grade point average. Thus these studies established the presence of a functionally relevant behavioral attributes component of effectiveness.

Mondell, Tyler and Freeman (1981) evaluated the potential of a psychotherapeutic day camp to build “psychosocial competence”; attributes and to promote behavioral goal attainment. Forty-three 7 to 12 year old children with adjustment and behavior difficulties were studied. Psychosocial competence was defined as a personality configuration consisting of self-efficacy, optimistic trust, and an active, planful coping style; these characteristics were assessed before and after the therapeutic intervention with an objective and quantitatively scoreable incomplete stories measure (PCIST). Goal progress, perceived by campers, parents, and counselors, was measured by Goal Attainment Scaling. Children in the therapeutic camp increased significantly on all competence attributes and in goal attainment, while a test-retest comparison group showed no change. The rationale and successful use of a prosocial competence measure in child
psychotherapy evaluation was explored. The interrelationships of personality and behavior level changes were discussed with implications for therapeutic practice.

Grotevant and Cooper (1986) presented a relational perspective on adolescence as a model for understanding the origins of psychosocial competence. Changing qualities of the parent-child relationship during adolescence which involve increased symmetry of influence were examined, and individual differences in adolescents’ identity formation and role taking skill were linked to differences in their experience in the family. A model of individuation, which involves qualities of individuality and connectedness in relationships, was presented and used to account for individual differences in adolescent development. Findings from other studies of individuation and of family socialization were cited in support of the view of the origins of psychosocial competence in family experience.

Tyler and Verma (1988) researched on pro-social behavior that supported the belief that psychosocial competence characteristics enhance helping behavior. Tyler and others have hypothesized that help seeking is also a constructive competence-related behavior. The present investigation was designed to assess whether the correlates of psychosocial competence differences found in more effective psychosocial functioning among primary school children in the U.S. would characterize children in India and be reflected in their help-seeking and helping behaviors. Twenty-eight pairs of 8 to 10-year-old children participated in this $3 \times 2$ factorial design study. High and low competence subjects were selected using scores on the Psychosocial Competence Incomplete Stories Test (PCIST) adapted for Indian children. Results showed that constructiveness of help seeking and helping were a function of psychosocial competence. This was also a three-way interaction effect of sex and psychosocial competence level of the help seeker and of the helper on the level of constructiveness of help-seeking behavior. Tyler and
colleagues had previously demonstrated that children from the U.S. who are more psychosocially competent (more self-efficacious, interpersonally trusting, and actively planful) function more effectively in their lives. The current results extended those findings by demonstrating that help-seeking and helping behavior were also a function of these psychosocial competence characteristics. They also indicated sex differences in the relationship of psychosocial competence to interpersonal interactions among these children in India. Psychosocial competence and developmental and cultural implications were noted.

Zea, Tyler and Franco (1991) explored 2 components of F. B. Tyler's psychosocial competence configuration in 1,242 applicants to a university in Bogota, Colombia. Ss completed Tyler's Behavioral Attributes of Psychosocial Competence Scale and Rotter's Internal–External Locus of Control Scale. The 2 components—self attributes and behavioral attributes—held together significantly, and the reliability was adequate for this population. A moderate but significant relationship between competence and high school grade point average (GPA) was found. However, success in being admitted to the university was not related to psychosocial competence. Significant differences in internality and active coping were found among Ss in different professional programs. Women differed from men in externality but not in active coping.

East, Lerner, Lerner, Soni, Ohannessian and Jacobson (1992) studied 101 sixth graders at three points during the school year, to examine the within- and across-time interrelations among (a) the goodness of fit between early adolescents' temperamental characteristics and the temperamental preferences held by the peer group, (b) adolescents' peer relations, and (c) adolescents' psychosocial competence. Results were as follows: (a) All variables (fit peer relations, and competence) were highly stable across all times of testing; (b) for certain
temperament characteristics, early adolescent-peer group fit was positively related to favorable peer nominations and to self- and teacher-rated competence; and (c) favorable peer nominations were highly correlated with both self- and teacher-rated competence. Additional analyses revealed many across time-across domain patterns of covariation.

Papini and Roggman (1992) investigated the relationship between parental attachment and emotional autonomy, perceived self-competence, depression, and anxiety. Questionnaire measures of attachment to parents, emotional autonomy, perceived self-competence, depression, and anxiety were completed by forty-seven 12-year-olds at three times: the last semester of sixth grade, the first 2 months of seventh grade (in a junior high school), and the last semester of seventh grade. Correlational results revealed that attachment to parents was significantly and positively correlated with measures of self-perceived competence, especially during the child's transition into junior high (Time 2). Also, attachment to parents was found to be significantly but negatively related to adolescent feelings of depression and anxiety. These results supported the expected emergence, during transitional periods, of the buffering effect of parent-adolescent attachment for adolescent feelings of competence and emotional well-being.

Walker, Sandor and Sands (1994) aimed to test the effects of a self-help nursing intervention on adolescent psychosocial competence. A community sample of 139 adolescents was assigned to three conditions (intervention, delayed intervention, and control) within a pretest-posttest design. The self-help nursing intervention was a 9-page, 14-step self-help workbook for use by adolescents in dealing with upsetting situations in day-to-day living. After a self-assessment of coping, subsequent workbook steps aided adolescents in developing alternate coping responses and generating other ways to deal with the upsetting situation. Adolescents in the three conditions did not differ on pretest measures of psychosocial competence: problem-
solving appraisal, adolescent self-perception, and general self-efficacy. After statistically controlling for pretest scores, gender, and age, the intervention group showed more favorable self-perceptions in scholastic competence, social acceptance, and conduct/morality compared with the control group. However, expected differences in the delayed intervention group failed to appear. Thus, anticipated benefits in psychosocial competence were found inconsistently. Although not predicted, significant reductions in the prevalence of negative affect occurred among adolescents in both intervention groups. Overall, the self-help format for delivering psychosocial competence training lacked the power needed to bring about consistent benefits for adolescents. Testing the self-help workbook in a group context was recommended in future nursing intervention research.

Zea, Jarama and Bianchi (1995) examined relationships among social support, psychosocial competence, and adaptation to college in a sample of 357 African American, Asian American, Latino, and white college students. Social support and active coping were significant predictors of adaptation to college, whereas locus of control was not. However, there was an interaction between ethnicity and locus of control indicating that although internal African American, Latino, and white students had higher adaptation-to-college scores than external students, the opposite was true for Asian Americans. The relationships among social support, internality, and active coping were also explored. Satisfaction with social support and internality were positively related to active coping, but locus of control and social support were unrelated. Active coping and internality were significantly related to each other for all groups except for African Americans. Although most relationships were the same across groups, these findings call attention to the role of ethnicity as a moderator of college adjustment processes.
Schoenrock, Bell, Sun and Avery (1999) investigated linkages between adolescent self-monitoring, global social competence, and parenting and family environment dimensions of support and encouragement of autonomy. The sample consisted of 233 young women and 199 young men at 2 southwestern universities. The primary measures used were the Family Environment Scale (R. H. Moos, 1981), the Parent Behavior Form (L. Worell & J. Worell, 1974), the revised Self-Monitoring Scale (M. Snyder, 1987), and the Texas Social Behavior Inventory (R. Helmreich, J. Stapp, & C. Ervin, 1974). Findings indicated that family variables are more strongly associated with social competence than with self-monitoring; family support was, overall, a more important ingredient of social competence than was autonomy. Women and men had different patterns of associations among specific variables.

Barbarin and Richter (1999) reported that black children in South Africa commonly experience low socioeconomic status and community violence. Parents (N=625) in a longitudinal study of urbanization responded to structured questionnaires related to resilience, affability, maturity, and school readiness of their six-year olds. SES was found to have an inverse and linear relation to competence at age six; the relationship to violence was curvilinear, with children from moderately safe communities achieving better outcomes than those from very safe or very unsafe ones.

O'Hearn and Gatz (1999) evaluated a primary prevention program called Going for the Goal [GOAL], designed by Danish and colleagues to teach life skills to at-risk urban adolescents. The 10-week program was administered to 350 middle school students by 55 trained high school leaders in a predominantly Hispanic school district. The program focused on setting positive, reachable goals, anticipating and responding to barriers to goal attainment, using social support, and building on one's strengths. Participants were randomly assigned to treatment or waiting-list
control group conditions. Results demonstrated gains in knowledge of the skills being taught as well as attainment of goals set during the program. Leaders also showed an increase in their knowledge of life skills. The approach maximized both community resources and ecological validity while giving high school leaders the chance to benefit in their role as helpers.

Sim (2000) examined the importance and role of regard for parents (i.e., how important parents are regarded) for psychosocial competence, as indicated by self-esteem and susceptibility to antisocial peer pressure. Participants were 555 Singapore adolescents in 4 secondary levels (equivalent to Grades 7-10). Results showed that regard for parents was positively related to psychosocial competence, being positively associated with self-esteem and negatively associated with antisocial susceptibility. More interesting, regard for parents was found to have a role in 2 well-established relations between parental practices and psychosocial competence. Regard for parents moderated the relation between parental support and self-esteem (the relation being stronger when regard for parents was high) and mediated the relation between parental monitoring and antisocial susceptibility. These results suggested a need to consider regard for parents for a better understanding of the parent-adolescent dynamics in adolescent psychosocial competence.

Linares, Santiago and Juan (2002) examined the relationship between parenting styles and 372 adolescents' (aged 11-15 yrs) psychosocial competence. Parents were classified according to the adolescent's perception in 4 groups: permissive, authoritative, authoritarian and neglectful. Several aspects related to the adolescents' psychosocial competence were assessed through self-report measures. Results showed that both adolescents perceiving their parents as permissive and adolescents perceiving their parents as authoritative obtained the highest scores in perceived social competence and self-esteem. Moreover, their behavior in the classroom was
more positive, and they were less rejected by their classmates. These findings were discussed in terms of the dimensions of acceptance and control underlying the various parenting styles.

Sharma (2003) conducted a study with the objective to develop a scale to measure life skills and to assess the levels of life skills in adolescents of a secondary school at Kathmandu. A descriptive, cross-sectional survey of adolescents from class VIII, IX, and X of a public co-educational secondary school of Kathmandu was done with the help of self-administered questionnaires prepared in English and translated into Nepali. Focus Group Discussions consisting of boys only, girls only and a mixed group comprising of one student from each section of each class were conducted to confirm the results of the study. All the data obtained from the questionnaire survey were edited, coded and entered into EPI Info Version 6. Findings revealed that a total of 347 adolescents participated in the study. 176 adolescents (51%) had life skill scores above the mean, and were termed as having “high level” of life skills and 171(49%), had “low level” of life skills scores. Mother’s education was significantly associated with increased level of life skills in adolescents (P=.001). It was concluded that most of the teachers were not aware of the concept of life skills. Maternal education was significantly associated with higher life skill levels in adolescents. Connectedness and family support were other important factors influencing the level of life skills in the adolescents.

Slicker, Picklesimer, Guzak and Fuller (2005) surveyed at a large, mid-south university in the USA, 660 university freshmen (mean age = 17.9 years; 68.2% female; 86.5% non-Hispanic white) regarding their perceptions of their parents’ parenting behaviors and their perceptions of their own life-skills development. Simultaneous regression results indicated that parental responsiveness significantly predicted life-skills development in all four domains even when age, gender, and socioeconomic status were taken into account; whereas, parental
demandingness was not a significant predictor in any of the four domains of life-skills development. The results of this study suggested that positive life-skills development in older adolescents is related to having been reared by a parenting style high in responsiveness.

Yadav and Iqbal (2009) aimed to see the impact of life skill training on self-esteem, adjustment and empathy among adolescents. Total sample comprised of 60 students (30 males and 30 females) from the Hans Raj Model School, Punjabi Bagh who has received life skill training from the team of Expressions India. Self esteem inventory (school form), Adjustment inventory for school students (AISS) and the Empathy quotient (EQ) were administered in a group session one by one in two or three days both before training was given and after training. In the post condition, test scores were obtained after 5 months of training. The result showed that subjects improved significantly in post condition on self-esteem, emotional adjustment, educational adjustment, total adjustment and empathy. However, no significant difference was found on social adjustment in pre and post condition. Overall training was very effective as subjects improved in the post condition on all measures except one, thus showing that Life skill training did show positive results in bringing change in adolescent’s attitude, thought and behavior by providing supportive environment to them.

Steca, Bassi, Capara and Fave (2011) compared psychosocial adaptation in children of parents with high and low PSE during adolescence. One hundred and thirty Italian teenagers (55 males and 75 females) and one of their parents (101 mothers and 29 fathers) participated in the research. Data were collected at T1 (adolescents’ mean age = 13.6) and T2 (mean age = 17.5). Parents reported their PSE at T1. At T1 and T2, adolescents reported their perceived academic self-efficacy, aggressive and violent conducts, well-being, and perceived quality of their relationships with parents. At T2, they were also administered questions by using
Experience Sampling Method to assess their quality of experience in daily life. As hypothesized, adolescents with high PSE parents reported higher competence, freedom and well-being in learning activities as well as in family and peer interactions. They also reported fewer problematic aspects and more daily opportunities for optimal experience. Findings pointed to the stability of adolescents’ psychosocial adaptation and highlighted possible directions in future research.

Leung and Shek (2012) based on the responses of 275 Chinese adolescents experiencing economic disadvantage in Hong Kong, the relationships between family processes (including perceived parenting style, parental control, family functioning, and parental sacrifice for children’s education) and psychosocial competence were examined in the study. Results showed that parenting style, parental control, family functioning, and parental sacrifice for children’s education were positively related to adolescent psychosocial competence. Regression analyses indicated that family functioning, maternal control, and paternal sacrifice for children’s education were significant predictors of psychosocial competence of adolescents experiencing economic disadvantage. The theoretical and practical implications of the findings were discussed.

2.4 Studies on Resilience

Shehu and Mokgwathi (2008) compared internal resilience factors and health locus of control among 1700 physical education and non-physical education students in the central and south-central regions of Botswana. The study variables were assessed using the Multidimensional Health Locus of Control Scale (MHLC) (Wallston et al., 1978:165) and a modified version of the Resilience Scale (Wagnild & Young, 1993:160). Analysis of variance of the locus of control and resilience scores was conducted. Although 78% of the resilience scores
were well within the moderate range, females across the comparisons groups had significantly higher resilience scores than the males. On the MHLC subscales Physical Education students were significantly more likely than the referents to believe that their health is controlled by powerful others. Mean scores on the internal and chance loci of control scales were significantly higher among the males. Relationships among resilience and locus of control scores were statistically significant.

Abreu and Xavier (2008) attempted to understand the resilience phenomena in a group of adolescents at-risk to whom various risk factors were associated. The participants in this study (N=77), 28 girls (35.6%) and 49 boys (64.4%), mean age of 12.7, attended the 7th grade at a secondary urban school. Researchers have used the Life Event Checklist (Werner & Smith, 1992) to evaluate the risk status and identified a risk group (N=20). Using a resilient checking list (Howard & Johnson, 2000) they have identified a resilient and a non-resilient group. They have identified and analyzed the preferences and rejections of the risk group in the group/class with a sociometric test. With the academic results at the end of the year they were able to compare the risk group with the rest of the class. Most of the at-risk adolescent’s were accepted/rejected at school in their relationships with peers. School context played an important role promoting resilience in adolescent’s namely in their relationships with peers. The interviews made to the at-risks adolescents, with questions based on life situations within the school life and relationships with peers and also based on questions which aim to identify the type of relationships these adolescents had with their families, helped them to understand why some at-risk adolescents were rejected by their peers; they had lower academic grades than the rest of the class but associated in their lives they identified important protective factors.

2.4.1 Correlates of Resilience
Carbonell, Reinherz, Giaconia, Stashwick, Paradis and Beardslee (2002) identified adolescent protective factors for those at risk for depression that were associated with resilient outcomes in young adulthood in a longitudinal, community-based study that has traced the psychosocial development of a single-—age cohort from age 5 (1977) to age 26 (1998). For those with childhood risk factors for major depression, significant protective factors included family cohesion, positive self appraisals, and good interpersonal relations. Findings might help inform the development of prevention and treatment programs for adolescents vulnerable to depression.

Nakaya, Oshio and Kaneko (2006) reported that currently, individuals tend to encounter many unavoidable, painful events and hardships in the process of growth and development. To lead one's life adapting to these social conditions, it is necessary to maintain one's mental health even while experiencing challenging events; in other words, resilience is required. This study of 130 undergraduates focused on the Adolescent Resilience Scale which assesses capacity for successful adaptation despite challenging or threatening circumstances and examined correlations with scores on the Big Five Personality Inventory. A significant negative correlation of -.59 (p<.001) was noted for scores on the Adolescent Resilience Scale and the Neuroticism dimension of the Big Five Personality Inventory, accounting for 35% of the variance, and positive values with the Extraversion, Openness, and Conscientiousness dimensions (rs=.37, .40, .48, accounting for 14, 16, and 18% of the variance, respectively. Personalities of adolescents who have psychological traits leading to resilience may be partially predicted using these results.

Campbell-Sillsa, Cohana and Stein (2006) reported that developing a comprehensive understanding of resilience across the lifespan is potentially important for mental health promotion, yet resilience has been vastly understudied compared to disease and vulnerability. The present study investigated the relationship of resilience to personality traits, coping styles,
and psychiatric symptoms in a sample of 132 undergraduate college students from San Diego State University. Measures included the Connor–Davidson Resilience Scale, NEO Five Factor Inventory, Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations, and Brief Symptom Inventory. Results supported hypotheses regarding the relationship of resilience to personality dimensions and coping styles. Resilience was negatively associated with neuroticism, and positively related to extraversion and conscientiousness. Coping styles also predicted variance in resilience above and beyond the contributions of these personality traits. Task-oriented coping was positively related to resilience, and mediated the relationship between conscientiousness and resilience. Emotion-oriented coping was associated with low resilience. Finally, resilience was shown to moderate the relationship between a form of childhood maltreatment (emotional neglect) and current psychiatric symptoms. These results augmented the literature that seeks to better define resilience and provided evidence for the construct validity of the Connor–Davidson Resilience Scale.

Ahern, Kiehl, Sole and Byers (2006) evaluated the psychometric properties and appropriateness of instruments for the study of resilience in adolescents. A search was completed using the terms resilience and instruments or scales using the EBSCO database (CINAHL, PreCINAHL, and Academic Search Premier), MEDLINE, PsychINFO and PsychARTICLES, and the Internet. After instruments were identified, a second search was performed for studies reporting the psychometric development of these instruments. Using inclusion and exclusion criteria, six psychometric development of instrument studies were selected for a full review. A data extraction table was used to compare the six instruments. Two of the six instruments (Baruth Protective Factors Inventory [BPFI] and Brief-Resilient Coping Scale) lacked evidence that they were appropriate for administration with the adolescent population due to lack of
research applications. Three instruments (Adolescent Resilience Scale [ARS], Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale, and Resilience Scale for Adults) had acceptable credibility but needed further study in adolescents. One instrument (Resilience Scale [RS]) was determined to be the best instrument to study resilience in the adolescent population due to psychometric properties of the instrument and applications in a variety of age groups, including adolescence. Findings of this review indicated that the RS is the most appropriate instrument to study resilience in the adolescent population. While other instruments had potential (e.g., ARS, BPFI) as they were tested in the adolescent and young adult populations, they lacked evidence for their use at this time. An evaluation of the review and recommendations were discussed.

Fayombo (2010) investigated in a cross-sectional study the relationships between the big five personality traits: (conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to experience, extraversion) and psychological resilience among 397 Caribbean secondary school adolescents. Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Stepwise Multiple Regressions were conducted to analyse the data. Results revealed statistically significant positive relationships between the personality traits (conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience, extraversion) and psychological resilience, while neuroticism was negatively correlated with psychological resilience. The personality traits also jointly contributed 32% (R square = 0.324) of the variance being accounted for in psychological resilience and this was found to be statistically significant with conscientiousness being the best predictor while agreeableness, neuroticism and openness to experience were other significant predictors, however, extraversion did not contribute significantly. These results were discussed in the light of healthy personality beefing up and promoting adolescents’ psychological resilience.
Bergeron (2011) explored cognitive ability and social support as protective factors that promote resilience, in the form of employment, financial status, and education in a sample of 532 formerly maltreated adolescents transitioning into young adulthood. The study employed data from the National Survey of Child and Adolescent Well-Being (NSCAW), a nationally representative, longitudinal study of maltreated children and adolescents who had involvement with protective services. Maltreatment was expected to negatively affect social relationships with caregivers and peers and employment, household income, and education outcomes. Individuals with higher quality relationships and greater social support were predicted to have better transition outcomes. Consistent with the study hypotheses, findings implied that maltreatment type and duration were negatively associated with relationship quality, social support, and transition outcomes. Relationship with caregiver and peers were protective factors associated with competent transitions to adulthood.

Reuben, Ang and Ho (2012) examined the mediational role of resilience (positive thinking, tenacity and help-seeking), on the relationship between coping (approach and avoidance) and psychopathology (anxiety, depression, anger and aggression). Adolescents (n = 719) aged 14–15 completed questionnaires assessing study variables in school settings. The Mediation analysis using Structural Equation Modeling found that resilience factors mediated the approach coping–psychopathology relationship but not the avoidance coping–psychopathology relationship. Specifically, positive thinking mediated the approach coping–internalizing disorders (anxiety; depression) relationship; tenacity mediated the approach coping–aggression link; help-seeking mediated both the approach coping–internalizing disorders, and approach coping–externalizing behaviors (anger; aggression) links. Further, strength-of-mediation analysis revealed that help-seeking was a stronger mediator than positive thinking in the approach
coping–anxiety relationship. It was concluded that approach coping worked via resilience processes to bring about a decrease in internalizing (anxiety and depression) and externalizing (anger and aggression) conditions. Specific strategies to cope with these aforementioned conditions were: think positive for anxiety and depression; be tenacious when coping with aggression and seek help for anxiety, depression, anger and aggression. These findings laid the groundwork for resilience interventions.

2.4.2 Family Factors and Resilience

Luthar (1991) examined the factors that allow children to maintain socially competent behaviors despite stress among 144 inner-city ninth-grade students with a mean age of 15.3 years. Stress was operationalized by scores on a negative life events scale, and definitions of social competence were based on peer ratings, teacher ratings, and school grades. Moderator variables examined included intelligence, internal locus of control, social skills, ego development, and positive life events. Following theoretical models by Garmezy and Rutter, distinctions were made between compensatory factors (which are directly related to competence) and protective/vulnerability factors (which interact with stress in influencing competence). Ego development was found to be compensatory against stress. Internality and social skills proved to be protective factors, while intelligence and positive events were involved in vulnerability processes. This study also revealed that children labeled as resilient were significantly more depressed and anxious than were competent children from low stress backgrounds.

Grossman, Beinashowitz, Anderson, Sakurai, Finnin and Flaherty (1992) in an exploratory study focused on the role of risk and protective factors in 179 adolescents from a middle and lower income northeastern school district. The protective factors examined were family cohesion, locus of control, mother/father communication, and relationship with a
nonparent adult. The study found that the protective factors were powerful predictors of adaptation in their own right independent of risk. Protective factors were found to be highly context specific and there was no evidence of broadly applicable protective factors. Gender was found to be an important aspect of context, and there were significant sex differences. Most strikingly, the study did not find any significant interactions between protective factors and risk for girls or boys. Thus, these results supported the growing view that researchers must identify specific rather than global protective factors that provide protection in the space of specific risks for youth in specific life contexts.

Masten, Hubbard, Gest, Tellegen, Garmezy and Ramirez (1999) examined competent outcomes in late adolescence in relation to adversity over time, antecedent competence and psychosocial resources, in order to investigate the phenomenon of resilience. An urban community sample of 205 (114 females, 90 males; 27% minority) children were recruited in elementary school and followed over 10 years. Multiple methods and informants were utilized to assess three major domains of competence from childhood through adolescence (academic achievement, conduct, and peer social competence), multiple aspects of adversity, and major psychosocial resources. Both variable-centered and person-centered analyses were conducted to test the hypothesized significance of resources for resilience. Better intellectual functioning and parenting resources were associated with good outcomes across competence domains, even in the context of severe, chronic adversity. IQ and parenting appeared to have a specific protective role with respect to antisocial behavior. Resilient adolescents (high adversity, adequate competence across three domains) had much in common with their low-adversity competent peers, including average or better IQ, parenting, and psychological well-being. Resilient individuals differed markedly from their high adversity, maladaptive peers who had few
resources and high negative emotionality. Results suggested that IQ and parenting scores were markers of fundamental adaptational systems that protect child development in the context of severe adversity.

Leak (2003) intended to determine if patterns exist among at risk African American male students who defy the odds. This study focused on at risk African American male students whose circumstances made it likely that they would fail in school. Yet in spite of adverse life conditions, these students exhibited outstanding academic performance. This study also examined why some at risk African American male students flourish in spite of environmental disadvantages. Additionally, the study explored the factors that influence resiliency development, which contribute to our capacity for designing interventions that will enhance student outcomes.

Tugade and Fredrickson (2004) theory indicates that resilient individuals “bounce back” from stressful experiences quickly and effectively. Few studies, however, have provided empirical evidence for this theory. The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions (B. L. Fredrickson, 1998, 2001) was used as a framework for understanding psychological resilience. The authors used a multi-method approach in 3 studies to predict that resilient people use positive emotions to rebound from, and find positive meaning in, stressful encounters. Mediation analyses revealed that the experience of positive emotions contributed, in part, to participants’ abilities to achieve efficient emotion regulation, demonstrated by accelerated cardiovascular recovery from negative emotional arousal (Studies 1 and 2) and by finding positive meaning in negative circumstances (Study 3). Implications for research on resilience and positive emotions were discussed.
Fergus and Zimmerman (2005) discussed three models of resilience—the compensatory, protective, and challenge models—and described how resilience differs from related concepts. They described issues and limitations related to resilience and provide an overview of recent resilience research related to adolescent substance use, violent behavior, and sexual risk behavior. They discussed implications that resilience research has for intervention and described some resilience-based interventions.

Khushmand and Lynn (2006) examined the components of resilience in adolescents (aged 11-15 years; n = 816) who were referred to the child welfare system for maltreatment. Data from a national probability study of children and families in the child welfare system showed that adolescents faced a number of risk factors like maltreatment, poverty, and exposure to violence in the community. Social competence, academic achievement, and a sense of relatedness to caregiver were fit in a structural equation model as components of latent resilience. Social competence and the quality of relationship with a caregiver were strongly linked to latent resilience.

Ong, Bergeman, Bisconti and Wallace (2006) in 3 studies, investigated the functional role of psychological resilience and positive emotions in the stress process. Studies 1a and 1b explored naturally occurring daily stressors. Study 2 examined data from a sample of recently bereaved widows. Across studies, multilevel random coefficient modeling analyses revealed that the occurrence of daily positive emotions serves to moderate stress reactivity and mediate stress recovery. Findings also indicated that differences in psychological resilience accounted for meaningful variation in daily emotional responses to stress. Higher levels of trait resilience predicted a weaker association between positive and negative emotions, particularly on days characterized by heightened stress. Finally, findings indicated that over time, the experience of
positive emotions functions to assist high-resilient individuals in their ability to recover effectively from daily stress. Implications for research into protective factors that serve to inhibit the scope, severity, and diffusion of daily stressors in later adulthood were discussed.

LaFromboise, T.D., Hoyt, D.R., Oliver, Lisa and Whitbeck, L.B. (2006) examined resilience among a sample of American Indian adolescents living on or near reservations in the upper Midwest. Data were from a baseline survey of 212 youth (115 boys and 97 girls) who were enrolled in the 5th through 8th grades. Based upon the definition of resilience, latent class analyses were conducted to identify youth who displayed pro-social outcomes (60.5%) as opposed to problem behavior outcomes. A measure of family adversity was also developed that indicated only 38.4 percent of the youth lived in ‘low adversity’ households. Defining resilience in the context of positive outcomes in the face of adversity, logistic regression was used to examine the predictors of pro-social outcomes among youth who lived in moderate to high adversity households. The analyses identified key risk and protective factors. A primary risk factor appeared to be perceived discrimination. Protective factors were from multiple contexts: family, community and culture. Having a warm and supportive mother, perceiving community support, and exhibiting higher levels of enculturation were each associated with increased likelihood of pro-social outcomes.

Holmes (2006) reported that understanding the influences on, and outcomes of, adolescent resilience is essential to the practice of social work with children and families. Resilience was described as an internal characteristic, which is influenced by external factors, and aids in modifying the effects of adversity. Family-systems and resilience theories are used to describe the impact of family relationships and individual resiliency characteristics on adolescent development. This research examined parental favoritism and the quality of both sibling and
parent-child relationships, with respect to their impact on adolescent resilience and the combined impact of these variables on adolescent outcomes. The findings illustrated how resilience mediates the effects of these family factors on the individual outcomes of depressive symptomology, delinquency, and positive peer relationships. A nonprobability sample of 124 students, ranging from 11 to 14 years of age and attending a suburban middle school on Long Island within the state of New York was surveyed. The study questionnaires included four scales to assess family and peer relationships, affect, negative behavior, and resilience levels of participating adolescents. Path analysis was applied to test the theoretical model through conducting a series of linear regressions. The quality of both sibling and parent-child relationships explained a significant amount of change noted in the resilience levels for this sample of adolescents. Resilience mediated the relationship between the family dynamics (i.e. parental favoritism, and the quality of sibling, and parent-child relationships) and the outcomes of depressive symptomology, and positive peer relationships. According to participant reports depressive symptoms was directly related to parental favoritism. The results of this study indicated that adolescent interpretations of family relationships can significantly affect resilience to the extent of observable outcomes of affect, behaviors and social interaction. Implications for the practice of social work included the call for professionals within this field to draw attention to and nurture family dynamics when working with adolescents on resilience enhancement. The findings of this research also suggested that incorporating a resilience framework into clinical practice may facilitate a decrease in depressive symptoms for this population of youth while concurrently increasing the number and positive nature of peer relationships in their lives.

DeBaryshe, Yuen, Nakamura and Stern (2006) examined parenting practices and adolescents' sense of family obligation in promoting resilience in 155 Native Hawaiian youths
living in poverty. Two aspects of adolescent well-being, behavioral adjustment and physical health, were studied. Four variables—supportive parenting, punishment, youth respect, and youth support—predicted the likelihood of youths' engagement in internalizing/externalizing problem behaviors and youths' general health status after family demographics, family history of psychosocial risk, and chronic medical conditions were controlled. Results suggested that parenting practices and youths' values of family obligation were significant correlates of youths' behavioral adjustment and well-being. Greater attention should therefore be paid to the protective function of Native Hawaiian families and development of positive family value systems in Native Hawaiian youths.

Alriksson-Schmidt, Wallander and Biasini (2007) examined the influences from life stress and the hypothesized protective variables of social competence, family functioning, and peer social engagement on quality of life (QL) in adolescents with mobility disabilities within a stress–resilience model. Variables were assessed with questionnaires completed by 159 adolescents with a mobility disability (aged 11–18 years) and their parents. Both more subjective and objective QL measures were completed using both adolescent and parent reports. Results indicated that increased life stress was associated with worse QL. Hypothesized protective variables were used to explain significant variance in more subjective, but not objective, measures of QL beyond covariates and life stress. The hypothesized protective variables, however, did not moderate the effects of life stress on QL. There was a cumulative effect from the hypothesized protective variables such that adolescents with more of these factors had more subjective QL than those with just one factor, regardless of the specific factor. Authors concluded that consistent with the tested model, interventions to improve QL in adolescents with
a mobility disability may focus on reducing life stress and developing resilience by enhancing a variety of personal and social resources.

Bonanno, Galea, Bucciarelli and Vlahov (2007) reported that a growing body of evidence suggests that most adults exposed to potentially traumatic events are resilient. However, research on the factors that may promote or deter adult resilience has been limited. This study examined patterns of association between resilience and various socio-contextual factors. The authors used data from a random-digit-dial phone survey (N= 2,752) conducted in the New York City area after the September 11, 2001, terrorist attack. Resilience was defined as having 1 or 0 posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms and as being associated with low levels of depression and substance use. Multivariate analyses indicated that the prevalence of resilience was uniquely predicted by participant gender, age, race/ethnicity, education, level of trauma exposure, income change, social support, frequency of chronic disease, and recent and past life stressors.

Vanderbilt-Adriance and Shaw (2008) examined potential theoretical constraints on resilience across levels of risk, time, and domain of outcome. Studies of resilience were reviewed as they relate to the prevalence of resilience across levels of risk (e.g., single life events vs. cumulative risk), time, and domains of adjustment. Based on a thorough review of pertinent literature, they concluded that resilience, as a global construct, appears to be rare at the highest levels of risk, and that resilience may benefit from a narrower conceptualization focusing on specific outcomes at specific time points in development. The implication of this conclusion for future research and intervention efforts was then discussed.

Das Chaitali (2010) considered resilience as a dynamic concept by looking at risk and protective factors for children of divorce in British-Indian Hindu and Sikh families using Bronfenbrenner’s ecological model for human development. The paper drew from a qualitative
study which is based on data collected on experiences of twenty-one British-Indian Adult Children of Divorce to illustrate risk and protective factors within cultural ideology, community and macro contexts. The paper concluded that resilience in individuals and communities needs to be considered as a process that is influenced by the interaction of the ecological systems. Risk and protective factors cannot be categorically identified and dynamic processes need to be acknowledged within particular contexts. This was particularly important for practitioners working with minority ethnic children and families towards understanding diversity of experiences and perspectives within minority cultures.

Bowes, Maughan, Caspi, Moffitt and Arseneault (2010) examined the role of families in promoting resilience following bullying victimisation in primary school. Data were from the Environmental Risk (E-Risk) Study which described a nationally representative sample of 1,116 twin pairs and their families. They used mothers’ and children’s reports to examine bullying victimisation during primary school and mothers’ and teachers’ reports to measure children’s emotional and behavioural adjustment at ages 10 and 12. They used mothers’ and interviewers’ reports to derive measures of protective factors in the home including maternal warmth, sibling warmth and positive atmosphere at home. Results from linear regression models showed that family factors were associated with children's resilience to bullying victimisation. Maternal warmth, sibling warmth and a positive atmosphere at home were particularly important in bullied children compared to non-bullied children in promoting emotional and behavioural adjustment. Warm family relationships and positive home environments helped to buffer children from the negative outcomes associated with bullying victimisation. Warm parent-child relationships could exert an environmentally mediated effect on children's behavioural adjustment following
bullying victimisation. Identifying protective factors that promote resilience to bullying victimisation could lead to improved intervention strategies targeting the home environment.

Vetter, Dulaev, Mueller, Henley, Gallo and Kanukova (2010) evaluated a resilience-enhancing program for youth (mean age = 13.32 years) from Beslan, North Ossetia, in the Russian Federation. The program, offered in the summer of 2006, combined recreation, sport, and psychosocial rehabilitation activities for 94 participants, 46 of who were taken hostage in the 2004 school tragedy and experienced those events first hand. Self-reported resilience, as measured by the CD-RISC, was compared within subjects at the study baseline and at two follow-up assessments: immediately after the program and 6 months later. They also compared changes in resilience levels across groups that differed in their traumatic experiences. The results indicated a significant intra-participant mean increase in resilience at both follow-up assessments, and greater self-reported improvements in resilience processes for participants who experienced more trauma events.

**2.4.3 Demographic Factors and Resilience**

Wasonga, Christman and Kilmer (2003) evaluated urban student protective factors predicting resilience and academic achievement. A questionnaire was used to gather the data from 480 high school students. Findings suggested that ethnicity, gender, and age influenced protective factors predicting resilience and academic achievement. It was concluded that there is need for attention to non-instructional aspects of schooling. Schools, parents, community and peers should provide students with care, support, and opportunities for participation in activities that promote social bonding and life skills.

Sun and Stewart (2007) in a cross-sectional, population based study explored the effect of age and gender on resilience and protective factors for mental health in primary school aged
children in Brisbane, Australia. Surveys were administered to 1109 male and 1163 female students (N = 2492) in 2004 to assess self-perception of resilience and associated protective factors. Female students were found to be more likely to report higher levels of communication, empathy, help-seeking, and goals for future and aspirations. They also reported more positive connections with parents, teachers and adults in the community, and peers in school and outside school, as well as sense of autonomy experience. These differences, however, showed changes over time. The interaction between age and gender was significant for empathy and help-seeking, and for adult support at home, at school and in the community, peer support at school and outside schools, and autonomy experience. This was largely explained by the sharp decline in scores for Year 7 girls. The gender differences in individual characteristics and protective factors for primary school children deserved further investigation, in view of their potential implications for mental health prevention and promotion.

2.5 Studies on Vocational Aspiration

Patton and Creed (2007) surveyed occupational status aspirations and expectations and RIASEC coded aspirations and expectations of adolescents. The focus of the study was to explore relationships between these traditional constructs and key career development constructs. Measures of career maturity, career indecision, self-esteem, career goals and school achievement were also completed. Discrepancies between occupational aspirations and expectations were reported and the relevance of including career development constructs into these investigations was validated. Occupational status aspirations were associated with school achievement, self-esteem, and career maturity. Students who reported achieving well at school, were more career mature and had higher self-esteem were more likely to aspire to professional status occupations.
than students who held skilled status aspirations, and students who held semi-professional aspirations having more career knowledge than students who held skilled aspirations.

2.5.1 Correlates of Vocational Aspiration

Mello (2008) reported that adolescents’ future expectations are a potentially important precursor of adult attainment and may illuminate how males and females vary in schooling and work. Thus, this longitudinal study examined gender variation in developmental trajectories of educational and occupational expectations from adolescence to adulthood and in connection to corresponding adult attainment. National data (NELS: 88) including individuals aged 14 to 26 and hierarchical linear modeling analyses yielded several findings: Males and females had similar developmental trajectories of educational expectations from adolescence to adulthood with the sample average expecting to attend college. Probabilities of expecting a professional occupation were lower for males than females. Adolescent educational and occupational expectations predicted corresponding attainment in adulthood, although the relationship varied by gender. Males who reported high occupational expectations in adolescence had higher occupational attainment in adulthood compared to males with low occupational expectations, whereas females’ adult occupational attainment did not vary by their adolescent occupational expectations. Gender variation in expectations and attainment was discussed in light of historical changes, and future directions of research were proposed.

Onijigin (2009) examined financial benefit, prestige of the profession, job security as correlates of career aspiration of students in Ekiti State. A sample of 600 secondary school students comprising 311 boys and 289 girls, whose age ranged from 14-21 years, covering the whole state, was used. Purposive and stratified sampling techniques were used to select the sample. The data collected were analyzed using chi-square ($X^2$) statistic. The results showed that
financial benefit, job prestige and job security were significantly related to career aspiration of the students. It was therefore, recommended that guidance counselors, psychologists, career teachers, parents and school administrators should provide adequate and appropriate assistance to students by de-emphasizing financial package and remunerations as basis for career aspiration. So, also appropriate rating scale for the prestige students attach to various professions should be provided.

2.5.2 Family Factors influencing Vocational Aspiration

Marjoribanks (1985) examined relations between adolescents’ perceptions of school environments and their educational and occupational aspirations at different family environment levels. Data were collected from 16-year-old Australians from Anglo-Australian, Greek, and Southern Italian families. Regression surfaces were constructed from models that examined possible linear, interaction, and curvilinear relations among the variables. Generally, the findings indicated that while the school environment measure had moderate concurrent validities in relation to aspirations, it had either negligible or modest unique associations with aspirations after taking into account the family environment influences. The study did indicate, however, ethnic group differences in the relationships among the variables which suggests that results from investigations of family-school influences on children's school outcomes should not necessarily be generalized across social groups.

Marjoribanks (1987) examined relationships between family environments and the aspirations of 516 South Australian adolescents from six gender/social-class groups. Family environments were assessed initially when the adolescents were 11 years old when measures were obtained of parents' aspirations for their children and of their instrumental and affective orientations to learning. When the adolescents were 16 years old, their perceptions of their
parents' support for learning and of their own aspirations were assessed. Regression surfaces were constructed from models that included terms to account for possible linear, interaction and curvilinear relationships. The findings suggested the propositions that parents' aspirations have a direct impact (a) on female adolescents' educational aspirations and (b) on the educational and occupational aspirations of male working-class adolescents, after considering the effect on aspirations of the adolescents' perceptions of parents' support. The results also indicated gender/social-class differences in the relationships between family environments and adolescents' aspirations.

Moura and Veiga (2005) analyzed the relation between the statutes of vocational identity and family variables, throughout adolescence. The variables related to the family context that were taken into account were the following: parental authority, perception of parents’ support, parents’ qualifications, family self-concept, sibling friendship, divorce versus non divorce of parents, and television viewing of aggressive programs. The sample consisted of 357 students of different school years (7th, 9th and 11th grades) and of both sexes. Melgosa’s (1987) Occupational Identity Scale, already adapted to Portugal, was used as the evaluation instrument, with the following factors: diffusion, foreclosure, moratorium, achievement. Analyses of the results showed significant differences in most situations as regards the dimensions of vocational identity, according to each of the independent variables; these differences favored the groups belonging to better family contexts. In several of the situations the effect of the interaction of the variable school year with the variables related to the family context was also found.

Palos and Drobot (2010) aimed to identify in a pilot study some variables from the family environment which have an impact on adolescent decision for a future career. 60 pupils from the final high-school grade were included in the study. Parent Career Behavior Checklist (Keller and
Whiston, 2008); EMBU questionnaire (Perris et al., 1980); Adult Attachment Scale (Collins and Read, 1990) were used. The obtained results offered an image of the variables which influence career decision making process and the way in which vocational counseling and the role of the counselor were perceived in school.
2.5.3 Demographic Factors Influencing Vocational Aspiration

Holland and Gottfredson (1975) examined the psychological meaning and predictive value of a person's vocational aspirations by applying Holland's typology to the vocational aspirations of high school juniors (N = 1005), college juniors (N = 692), employed adults (N = 140), and a second sample of college students studied over a one-year interval (N = 624). The aspirational data were obtained from the Daydreams section of the Self-Directed Search (Holland, 1972). Categorical and correlational analyses showed that a person's retrospective vocational aspirations have coherence and yield efficient predictions of subsequently expressed choice. In addition, the degree of coherence or similarity among a person's vocational aspirations provided a potentially useful index of a person's decision-making ability.

McCracken and Barcinas (1991) intended to describe the relationships between school location (urban vs. rural) and students' occupational and educational aspirations. A secondary purpose was to explore the relationships between student background factors and location of school. A sample of urban and rural 12th-grade students and high school principals in Ohio was surveyed. Urban and rural schools differed, as expected, in size, cost per pupil, size of staff, and breadth of curricular and extra-curricular offerings. Urban and rural students differed on the background characteristics of ethnicity, grade-point average, curriculum of enrollment, SES, and educational level of parents. They also differed in aspirations as measured by plans for advanced education, occupational choice, and income expectations.

Marjoribanks (1995) examined relationships among birth order, family environments, and occupational aspirations for 320 21-yr.-old Australians. The results indicated that relations between birth order and aspirations were mediated by associations between the young adults' perceptions of their parents' involvement in learning and the measures of aspiration.
Steele (1995) investigated adolescents’ academic aspirations and expectations. The predictive roles of gender, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status were discussed. Data were collected during both the seventh and ninth grade as part of the Maryland Adolescent Growth in Context (MAGIC) study (n=1060). The sample was comprised of approximately 61% African American and 33% Euro American families. Results included significant gender differences with girls having higher aspirations and expectations. Results also included non significant differences between ethnic groups. Findings were discussed in terms of the uniqueness of the sample in providing data un-confounded by race and poverty.

Cook, Church, Ajanaku, Shadish, Kim and Cohen (1996) examined the occupational aspirations and expectations of two populations of boys in grades 2, 4, 6, and 8 in order to describe what is unique about the development of job preferences among urban ghetto children who live in settings where many adult males were not well attached to the labor force and to examine 6 reasons for any age- and population-dependent patterns there might be in job aspirations and job expectations. Findings showed that boys tend to be more realistic about occupational aspirations and expectations the older they are; that from second grade on the occupational expectations of inner-city boys mirrored existing race and class differences in adult job holdings; that the gap between occupational aspirations and expectations was greater for the ghetto boys and remains roughly constant in size across the grades examined; and that the lower occupational expectations of the inner-city boys were strongly related to their lower educational expectations, with these educational expectations being associated with fewer poor boys having a biological father at home and with more of these boys seeing obstacles to success in the local social setting. But, the lower occupational expectations of the ghetto boys were not due to having
fewer positive role models or believing that schooling will not pay off for them in the future as it does for others.

Rojewski and Yang (1997) using the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 investigated the longitudinal influence of select demographic and latent variables on the development of adolescents' occupational aspirations at 3 critical points in the career development process—early, mid-, and late adolescence. Linear structural equation analysis examined the contributions of demographic variables, SES, self-esteem, locus of control, educational aspirations, and academic achievement on adolescents' occupational aspirations measured at grades 8, 10, and 12. Occupational aspirations of adolescents were relatively stable across the 4-yr time period. Further, earlier aspirations offered significant predictive power for subsequent ones. Structural coefficients for social demographic variables indicated that SES had significant effects on adolescents' aspirations. In contrast, 2 latent variables, academic achievement and self-evaluation, initially represented only modest effects on aspirations which then decreased consistently over time.

Olga, Kimberly and Karen (1999) reported that the gender distribution of jobs remains vastly disproportionate, especially among minority groups: Women continue to be overrepresented in traditionally female occupied jobs and underrepresented in high-status, high-paying occupations. Literature on gender distribution of careers and factors affecting career choice remains sparse where ethnic minority females were concerned. The present study attempted to fill this gap and focused on adolescent females from Mexican American backgrounds. Descriptive findings indicated the general male dominance of females’ career aspirations. Compared to females aspiring to highly female-dominated careers, females aspiring to highly male-dominated careers were more acculturated, earned higher grade point averages
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(GPAs) and higher achievement scores in science and social studies, and held higher educational aspirations and expectations, and a greater number of this group evidenced a clear understanding of the steps needed to achieve career goals.

Mau and Bikos (2000) examined the relative importance of school, family, personal/psychological, race, and sex variables in predicting educational and vocational aspirations. A nationally representative sample of 10th-grade students was followed through 2 years beyond their high school. Results suggested that sex and race significantly predicted educational and vocational aspirations of students. The educational aspiration model was shown to be more robust than the occupational aspiration model. Overall, students showed increases in educational and occupational aspirations, regardless of sex and race. Compared with other groups, Asian Americans had the greatest increase in educational aspirations. Female students, on the average, had higher educational and vocational aspirations.

Armstrong and Crombie (2000) examined compromises in occupational aspirations made by adolescents who reported aspiration–expectation discrepancies. Participants were 502 adolescents (245 male, 257 female) who reported their occupational aspirations and expectations in Grades 8, 9, and 10. Occupations were coded for gender traditionality and socioeconomic status (SES). Adolescents who showed aspiration–expectation discrepancies in gender traditionality or SES, in either Grade 8 or Grade 9, changed their aspirations in the following year in the direction of their prior expectations. Substantial reductions were made in mean aspiration–expectation discrepancies and only 26 to 43% of discrepant adolescents were classified in the same discrepancy group a year later. Changes in adolescents' expectations also contributed to reductions in mean discrepancies. Obtained results provided support for
Gottfredson's (1981, 1996) compromise theory and raised questions about the role of expectation changes in the compromise process.

Watson, Quatman and Edler (2002) explored the career aspirations of high-achieving adolescent girls by comparing the to the aspirations of adolescent boys as well as by looking at the influence of grade in school, achievement level, and an all-girls school environment. The participants’ ideal and real career aspirations, scored in terms of prestige, were investigated via 2 sets of analyses, with coed (n = 704) and single-sex female (n = 494) adolescent samples. Results showed that high-achieving girls exceeded the aspirations of average-achieving girls and boys, and were the same as those of high-achieving boys. Gender and grade differences in ideal and real career choices over all achievement levels are also reported and discussed. Girls at single-sex schools had higher real career aspirations than did girls and boys at coed schools.

Rinn (2005) sought to determine whether honors college students differed with regards to academic achievement, academic self-concept, general self-concept, educational aspirations, and career aspirations as a function of their class standing. Participants included 298 honors college students from a large, Midwestern university. A demographic questionnaire, the general academic subscale and the general-self subscale of the Self-Description Questionnaire III (Marsh & O’Neill, 1984) and the Leadership and Achievement Aspirations subscale of the Career Aspirations Scale (O’Brien, 1992) were used. Results indicated significant differences between juniors and seniors with regards to academic self-concept, educational aspirations, and career aspirations. Implications for honors faculty and administrators were discussed.

Marjoribanks (2005) in a longitudinal study examined relationships between educational aspirations and educational attainment for Australian young adults from different ethnic and social status backgrounds. Participants included 6,811 (3,547 women and 3,264 men) young
adults (mean age = 20.3 years) who were in Year 9 when the study began. In the analysis, the AM Statistical Software was used to take into account the design features of the sample. The results indicated (a) that family background and adolescents’ aspirations combined to have large associations with young adults’ educational attainment, (b) there were gender differences in the linear and curvilinear nature of relationships among family background, adolescents’ aspirations, and young adults’ attainment, and (c) for young adults from lower social status families there were ethnic group differences in attainment at all aspiration levels, whereas for young adults from higher social status families, ethnic group differences in attainment were minimised at high aspiration levels.

Hasan (2006) examined empirically that whether or not self-concept, occupational aspiration and gender work independently or in interaction with each other were capable of generating variance in career maturity in case of Hindi speaking Indian adolescents studying in class X. Employing the stratified random sampling technique, finally 480 students of class X (240 males and 240 females) within the age range of 14 to 16 years were drawn randomly from different Hindi medium schools of Raipur City of Chhattisgarh State to serve as subjects in the present study. Employing a (2)3 ex-post facto, non-experimental factorial design (fixed model) the two levels of self-concept, i.e. high and low, the two levels of occupational aspiration, i.e. realistic and idealistic and the two levels of gender, i.e. male and female were manipulated in the study. All the three independent variables were found to be potential enough in generating variance in career maturity. Barring few exceptions, the first order interactions were not found significant whereas the second order interactions were found significant for almost all the components of career maturity. Theoretical interpretations have been given.
Amadi, Joshua and Asagwara (2007) investigated the vocational maturity and occupational preferences of adolescent students in Owerri Education Zone of Imo state, Nigeria. The sample consisted of 600 senior secondary students drawn from a population of 23,229 senior secondary school students. The instrument used for data collection was a 40-item questionnaire. Statistical tools used were the population t-test and one way analysis of variance. Some of the finding were: (a) that students were vocationally matured in four dimensions of vocational maturity namely: self knowledge, occupational information, involvement in decision making and independence in decision making (b) that gender had no significant influence on three out of four dimensions of vocational maturity.

Salami (2008) investigated the relationship between identity status and career maturity of secondary school adolescents. Five hundred and eighty-one (male = 275; female = 306) senior secondary school adolescents completed the Career Maturity Inventory and the Ego Identity Status Scale. The results showed that the identity statuses significantly predicted career maturity of the adolescents but gender did not. Diffused identity status made the highest (negative) contribution to the prediction of career maturity followed by achieved and moratorium identity statuses in that order. Foreclosure identity status did not make significant contribution to the prediction of career maturity. No significant differences were found between the males and females in their career maturity and identity statuses.

Brooks and Redlin (2009) used an intersectional theoretical approach to explain how race/ethnicity, gender, and class shape occupational aspirations and the migration decision. Using the NLSY79, race/ethnicity, gender, and mothers’ educational attainment were each combined with the respondent’s occupational aspiration to predict migration rates for selected intersectional groups. Results showed that females with high occupational aspirations, whites
with high occupational aspirations, and individuals with high occupational aspirations whose mothers had high educational attainments were more likely to migrate compared with other intersectional groups.

Creed, Wong and Hood (2009) tested the relationship between occupational aspirations/expectations (type and status) and decision-making difficulties, efficacy and career barriers in 498 Chinese high school students. Males aspired to investigative and enterprising types, but expected realistic and enterprising ones; females aspired to enterprising and conventional types, but expected conventional and social ones. Students with aspirations/expectations type discrepancies were more likely to be higher achieving females; those with aspirations/expectations status discrepancies had poorer academic achievement, less confidence and perceived more barriers.

Nazli (2009) attempted to determine the career development levels of junior high school students in Turkey. The Career Awareness Survey was undertaken with 644 Turkish junior high school students. It was observed that the junior high school students were able to associate their own characteristics with careers and knew the characteristics of careers, but their understanding of life/career implications and life/career management tasks levels were not sufficiently developed. The implications of the findings for career guidance and counseling practice are considered.

Misra Lakshmi (2010) made an attempt to see how the technical and non-technical education affects the occupational aspiration and attitude towards modernization of female students. Three hundred (150 from technical and 150 from non technical) female students were opted for this comparative study. On the basis of findings it was concluded that only quantitative difference in the scores have been found on dependent variables (occupational aspiration and
attitude towards modernization) because of technical and non-technical educations but qualitative changes in technical and nontechnical female students have been found in the same direction. Quantitative difference as found showed a difference in scores only but do not differentiate female students on being technical or non-technical on the dependent variables taken in present study. Many more female students would offer for higher technical education if they were given opportunity and proper guidance.

Polavieja and Platt (2011) reported that there is a high degree of sex-typing in young children's occupational aspirations and this has consequences for subsequent occupational segregation. Yet researchers still know surprisingly little about the mechanisms involved in the intergenerational transmission of sex-typical preferences and there is considerable theoretical controversy regarding the role of individual agency in the process of preference formation. This study analyzed the determinants of sex-typed occupational aspirations amongst British children aged between 11 and 15. Authors specified different mechanisms involved in the transmission of sex-typical preferences and proposed an innovative definition of individual agency that was anchored in observable psychological traits linked to self-direction. This allowed them to perform a simultaneous test of socialization and agency predictors of occupational sex-typing. They found that parental influences on occupational preferences operated mainly through three distinctive channels: 1) the effect that parental socio-economic resources have on the scope of children’s occupational aspirations, 2) children's direct imitation of parental occupations, and 3) children's learning of sex-typed roles via the observation of parental behavior. They also found a strong net effect of children's own psychological predispositions - self-esteem in particular - on the incidence of sex-typical occupational preferences. Yet large differences in the occupational aspirations of girls and boys remained unexplained.
Osa-Edoh and Alutu (2011) examined the effect of socio-economic status on vocation choices. The study examined Super’s theory on occupation and career and the series of proposition as well as Holland’s personality and career pattern. The importance of family on career choices was extensively discussed. Educational values and career aspirations of middle and low socio-economic status was discussed. Three hypotheses were used for this study with a population of 100 SS III students. Results showed that there was significant difference in educational values and career aspirations of the students from high and middle socio-economic homes in favour of the higher socio-economic status. There was significant difference in educational and career choices of students from middle and low socio-economic homes in favour of the former.

Cochran, Wang, Stevenson, Johnson and Crews (2011) investigated the relationship between adolescent occupational aspirations and midlife career success. The model for adolescent occupational aspirations was derived from Gottfredson's (1981) theory of circumscription and compromise. The authors hypothesized that parental socioeconomic status (SES), ability, and gender predict adolescent occupational aspirations and influence career achievement in later life. Gottfredson’s model was a good fit for the data. SES and ability influenced the formation of occupational aspirations, and ability and gender predicted career achievement in later life. Additionally, occupational aspirations predicted career achievement in later life. Adolescent girls achieved less career success in midlife than did adolescent boys.

Lee (2012) occupational aspirations have mainly been investigated with teenagers, high school students, and adults. Following Gottfredson’s (1981, 2002) theory of circumscription and compromise, in which it is proposed that occupational aspirations originate in the preschool years, in this study the occupational aspirations of 1,044 preschool children in Taiwan were
explored. Children who attended 38 kindergartens and were between the ages of 5 and 6, expressed their preferences about and gender orientations towards occupations and careers. In general, the occupations Taiwanese children said they most desired to pursue were teaching, being police officers, and working as doctors. Most children could recognize the occupations of their parents at this stage, and the results in this research showed that children still identify strongly with their parents’ stereotypical occupations. More boys than girls showed a preference for masculine-dominated occupations. More girls than boys showed a preference for nontraditional occupations. Factors that influence occupational aspirations were found to be parental identification and identifying with the role of teachers.

Tali and Rosy (2012) attempted to assess the vocational aspiration of +2 students in relation to their achievement motivation and some demographic variables i.e. gender, academic stream and type of schools. The findings were; +2 students belonging to high and low achievement motivation did not differ significantly with respect to their vocational aspiration. Male and female +2 students have equal aspiration and knowledge towards vocational choices. +2 science students have inclined more serious towards their career or vocation as compared to arts students. Arts and commerce +2 students have similar kind of aspiration on vocational preference or have equal knowledge and aspiration towards vocational choices. Science and commerce students do not differ significantly with respect to vocational aspiration. +2 students studying in private schools have more inclined towards choice of vocation than students studying in Govt. schools.

Lee and Rojewski (2012) examined the complex phenomenon of intraindividual and interindivdual differences in the development of occupational aspirations and factors influencing this development in a longitudinal sample of 5,727 Korean adolescents over a 4-year period. A
downward trajectory of occupational aspirations from junior high school to the first year of high school was found. Rate of change in expressed aspirations was different for men and women. Potentially important initial differences in occupational aspirations development, based on curriculum track, were also detected.

Shumba and Naong (2012) intended to determine factors influencing career choice and aspirations among South African students. A quantitative paradigm guided this study. A survey method in the form of a structured questionnaire was used in this study in order to identify the factors that influence career choice and aspirations among South African students. A purposive sample of 133 first and second year university students (77 females, 56 males; age range 15 to 30 years) participated in the study. The Career Aspirations Questionnaire was used in this study. Career Aspirations Questionnaire which explored the factors that influence medical students’ career choice and aspirations. Data were analysed using percentages and tables. The study found that the family; the ability of the learner self to identify his/her preferred career choice; and teachers were significant factors that influence the career choice and aspirations of students.

Obura and Ajowi (2012) reported that enrolment in courses leading to certain careers like engineering, architecture and technology in Kenya, reveal that female students were underrepresented in these courses. Males dominated in most courses except in education, home economics, nursing and secretarial studies. It was hypothesized that career aspirations were gender related. The purpose of the study was to determine the career each male and female secondary school student in Kisumu Municipality aspires for. The study used descriptive survey design. The study population consisted of 1596 students in Kisumu Municipality. Purposive sampling was used to select 8 public secondary schools that were likely to have a combination of students with different abilities and therefore likely to have different career aspirations. Stratified
random sampling technique was used to select a representative sample of 237 male, 238 female students and 8 teachers heading career guidance department in the selected schools. Data were collected using student questionnaires and interview schedules. Descriptive and chi-square statistics were used to analyze the relationships between the gender of the students and their career aspirations. Findings of the study indicated that there was gender disparity in career aspirations of secondary school students in Kisumu Municipality. The relationship between students’ career aspirations and their gender was found to be statistically significant.

Devroop (2012) designed a study to investigate the occupational aspirations and occupational expectations of college students majoring in jazz studies in the United States. Participants included the population of jazz studies majors ($N = 211$) at a large mid-southern university known for its prestigious and internationally recognized jazz program. A response rate of 85% was obtained. Occupational aspirations and occupational expectations were measured on the Jazz Occupational Prestige Index. Results indicated that students aspired to more prestigious occupations but expected to be employed in occupations less prestigious when considering the realities of the job market. A small percentage of students (4.7%) aspired to teach while a higher percentage (15.8%) expected to be engaged in teaching as a profession. The analysis of relationships between variables revealed a low positive relationship between occupational aspiration and support from significant others. All other relationships were negligible.

A detailed observation of the literature reviewed so far reveals that though many studies have been conducted on the impact of home environment on adolescents, there is dearth of studies related to variables such as psychosocial competence, resilience and vocational aspiration. Even though there are certain studies focusing on various aspects of psychosocial competence, resilience and vocational aspiration and family environment, studies on the impact
of home environment on these variables of adolescents are scanty, especially in India. Hence the present study is an attempt in this direction.

2.6 Need for the Study

“A baby is God's opinion that the world should go on” - Carl Sandburg

Undoubtedly children are greatest natural assets of every nation. Proper nurturance and guidance is very much essential to utilize these natural assets of our society. Due to a range of reasons, Indian family scenario is at the cross-roads of rapid shift. Rate of divorce is shockingly ever-increasing and non-intact/single parent families are rising; the typical joint family system of India is disappearing, some of the strange concepts like live-in-relationships have become familiar in metropolitan cities. Thus the traditional Indian family system has totally changed. In such a context, greater impact of family system on growing children is gaining the attention of scholars, researchers, social workers etc. In view of this, the present study is designed to identify the home environmental factors that have significant impact on the behavior of the children. Further, this provides guidelines to parents and elderly at home to make home environment conducive for the development of healthy personality of the children.

Though many studies have been conducted on home environment, studies focusing on the variables such as psychosocial competence, resilience and vocational aspiration of adolescents are found to be almost nil. Especially in these competitive days, psychosocial competence, resilience and vocational aspiration are to be necessarily studied to give directions to parents in order to nurture their wards in a proper manner. Therefore the present study is taken up with these following objectives.

2.7 Objectives of the Study
1. To examine the impact of home environment on the psychosocial competence, resilience and vocational aspiration of adolescents

2. To study the influence of demographic factors such as age, sex, SES, order of birth, number of siblings, primary educational background, religion, caste, type of family and type of stay on Psychosocial Competence, Resilience and Vocational Aspiration of adolescents

2.8 Research Questions

The above objectives led to the following research questions.

1. Do the adolescents belonging to Low, Moderate and High home environment groups differ significantly among themselves in their psychosocial competence, resilience and vocational aspiration?

2. Do the demographic factors such as age, sex, SES, order of birth, number of siblings, primary educational background, religion, caste and type of family of adolescents influence significantly their Psychosocial Competence, Resilience and Vocational Aspiration?

2.9 Hypotheses

Following hypotheses are formulated from the above raised research questions and are tested further.

Varying quality of Home Environment has varying influence on adolescents’ Psychosocial Competence, Resilience and Vocational Aspiration.

**Hypothesis:**

**Ha** 1 Adolescents belonging to Low, Moderate and High home environment groups differ significantly among themselves in their psychosocial competence, resilience and vocational aspiration.
Ha_{1,1} Adolescents belonging to Low, Moderate and High home environment (Dimensionwise) groups differ significantly among themselves in their psychosocial competence (Dimensionwise as well as Overall)

Ha_{1,2} Adolescents belonging to Low, Moderate and High home environment (Dimensionwise) groups differ significantly among themselves in their resilience

Ha_{1,3} Adolescents belonging to Low, Moderate and High home environment (Dimensionwise) groups differ significantly among themselves in their vocational aspiration

In addition to the above hypotheses, between-group differences are also verified with the help of the following hypotheses:

Ha_{1,1.1} Adolescents belonging to Low home environment differ significantly from adolescents belonging to moderate home environment in their psychosocial competence (Dimensionwise as well as Overall)

Ha_{1,1.2} Adolescents belonging to Low home environment differ significantly from adolescents belonging to High home environment in their psychosocial competence (Dimensionwise as well as Overall)

Ha_{1,1.3} Adolescents belonging to Moderate home environment differ significantly from adolescents belonging to High home environment in their psychosocial competence (Dimensionwise as well as Overall)

Ha_{1,2.1} Adolescents belonging to Low home environment differ significantly from adolescents belonging to Moderate home environment in their Resilience
Ha1.2.2 Adolescents belonging to Low home environment differ significantly from adolescents belonging to High home environment in their Resilience.

Ha1.2.3 Adolescents belonging to Moderate home environment differ significantly from adolescents belonging to High home environment in their Resilience.

Ha1.3.1 Adolescents belonging to Low home environment differ significantly from adolescents belonging to moderate home environment in their vocational aspiration.

Ha1.3.2 Adolescents belonging to Low home environment differ significantly from adolescents belonging to High home environment in their vocational aspiration.

Ha1.3.3 Adolescents belonging to Moderate home environment differ significantly from adolescents belonging to High home environment in their vocational aspiration.

Ha2 Demographic factors such as age, sex, SES, order of birth, no. of siblings, primary educational background, religion, caste and type of family of adolescents significantly contribute to their Psychosocial Competence, Resilience and Vocational Aspiration.

Ha2.1 Demographic factors such as age, sex, SES, order of birth, no. of siblings, primary educational background, religion, caste and type of family of adolescents significantly contribute to their Psychosocial Competence.

Ha2.2 Demographic factors such as age, sex, SES, order of birth, no. of siblings, primary educational background, religion, caste and type of family of adolescents significantly contribute to their Resilience.
Demographic factors such as age, sex, SES, order of birth, no. of siblings, primary educational background, religion, caste and type of family of adolescents significantly contribute to their Vocational Aspiration.