Chapter – Two

Literature Review

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Review of literature related to concepts, constructs and their variables concerning the study helps in many ways. In fact, it is an important pre-requisite to actual planning and then the execution of any research work. It helps in knowing the amount of work done on that subject. It enables us to understand the various aspects of the variables on which studies have been done and what are the recent findings.

Review of literature shows that there are different relations between variables which need to be studied. It helps in making foundations of hypothesis for research work and in findings, areas for research work which are untouched or those upon which less work has been done. It provides insight into the statistical methods through which validity of results is to be established. The important specific reason for reviewing the related literature is to know about the recommendation of previous researchers listed in their studies for further research.

2.1   Reviews Related to Social Competence:

A review of studies on social competence was made to understand the concept of social competence, and construct and variables of social competence, what are the theories and approaches to understand social competence, what are the characteristics of a socially competent person, how social competence develops, what is the importance of social competence in an individual's life, what factors affect social competence, how to measure and assess whether a person is socially competent or not and strategies or intervention programmes to develop social competence.

One **approach to understand social competence** was emphasis on social outcome that children achieve, like having friends, being popular or liked by others and engaging in effective social interaction with peers. (McFall – 1982; Merrell and Poppinga – 1984; Gutstein and Whitney - 2002)

Information processing models were suggested to explain how a person solves problems in social situations using his previous knowledge of that situation or similar situation. (Goldfried and D'Zurilla -1969; Spivack and Shure – 1974; Jahoda, Dodge and Pettite - 1986; Rubin and Krasnor - 1986; Semrud-Clikeman; Attel- 1990, 1996 and Cavell - 2003). Moving further away from Social and Cognitive skills, Emotional and Motivational components were added in the construct of social competence. (Welsh and Biermann – 2001; Stannet and Kunter – 2001; Broderick and Blewitt – 2010)

One aspect of Social Competence as adjustment or adaptive behaviour in family, school, workplace or community, to meet inter-personal demands consistent with social conventions and morals was also added. (Biermann – 2004; Schoon – 2009)

In the 1980s, Frank Gresham, a prominent researcher on social competence identified 3 sub-domains of social competence – adaptive behaviour, social skills, and peer acceptance. Gunderson and Moynahan (2006) define social competence as 3 separate concepts – social skills, social practice and emphatic understanding. Baumrind (1967), Rossman (1971), Rathjan (1980), Sharma, Shukla, Shukla, Scott, Semrud-Clikeman, White (1973), Ladd and Profilet (1996, 2000), Saarni reported some of the **criteria of social competence** as social power, social participation, communicability, self-control, cooperation, self-concept, consolidation of identity, habits of personal maintenance, appropriate regulations of anti-social tendency and so on. It was observed that social competence not only helps in maintaining social relationships, it is an integral part of most of the activities of life.

Positive relation of self-confidence and willingness to make friends with **pro-social behaviour** was found in studies (Jacob, 2004).Communication is found to be positively related to self-esteem (Thomas and King, 2007). **Influence of family and university** environment on development of identity and ego strength was observed (Adams *et al.* 2000).

Parents and friends play important roles in the life of young people (Tariq and Masood 2011). From a developmental perspective adolescents benefit when their parents and friends and friends' parents come together to form a network. Coleman (1988) termed this system intergenerational closure (Cleveland and Robert, 2004).

Role of family factors like different parental socialization practices in scholastic competence was observed in studies (Campbell *et al.* 2002, Salazar *et al.* 2000). Expected parental reactions to antisocial behaviour predicted lower levels of delinquency and antisocial behaviours. Expected parental reactions to pro-social behaviour predicted higher levels of pro-social behaviour and lower levels of delinquency and aggression (Wyatt and Carlo 2002).

Social initiative a form of social competence is directly or indirectly affected through the quality of interpersonal relationship (Barber and Erickson, 2001). The ability to have high quality intimate relationships is a keystone of adult mental health and well-being (Montgomery, 2005). Higher levels of parental support are related to lower levels of depression and loneliness (Mounts, 2004). High levels of perceived maternal support and low levels of maternal rigid control are related to adolescents' reports of sympathy, social competence and self-worth (Labile and Carlo, 2004).

Nagy (2000) also gave **component theory** of social competence stating that social competence is made up of sets of inherited and acquired components. So development of social competence is studied on temperamental and biological bases also. Behavioural genetic research has revealed that biogenic factors play a role in the development of antisocial behaviours (Beaver *et al.*2009)

Reference of host context like family, culture, age, gender etc. were also added to the multiple definitions of social competence stating that criteria for competence changes with these factors and thus explaining the dynamic nature of social competence (Combs and Slaby – 1977; Rinn and Marble – 1979; Runde – 2001; Spitzberg – 2003).

Social competence has been approached through **different theories** like psychosocial theory by Erikson (1950) which tells that at each developmental stage, the ego acquires attitude and skills that make the individual an active, contributing member of society (Berk, 2006). Results of studies reveal direct link between early ego development (age 15) and intimacy in romantic relationships (Beyers and Seiffge-Krenke 2010).

Attachment theory by Bowlby and Ainsworth (1960-70) suggests that securely attached children perform well. Vygotsky (1896-1934) gave sociocultural theory. It focuses on how culture- the values, beliefs, customs and skills of a social group- is transmitted to the next generation. He viewed cognitive development as a socially mediated process. Brofenbenn (1979) suggested impact of environment on human development in his ecological theory. Deci and Ryan (2000) gave self-determination theory (SDT) based on innate needs.

A top down approach to understand social competence considers social competence only in terms of positive social behaviour or which is morally good. A bottom up approach says a negative behaviour like aggression can also make a person competent in a particular situation, explaining again the dynamic and context specific nature of social competence.

As variables and concept of social competence changed, **assessment techniques** also changed. (Pellegrinny, 1985; Dodge, 1985; Hughes and Hall, 1987; Gresham and Reschly, 1987; Maoy, 1989; Merill 1989; Kelly Knapp, 2001)

Ecological assessment approach came into existence which helps in studying development of social competence and the influence of family, school, community values, social opportun ties and other environmental factors on social competence. (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Merrill, Ladd, Sheriden, 1990; Hunglemann and Maughan, 1999)

Considering various attributes of social competence and its relation with different contexts, multi-method, multi-source and multi-setting assessment for correct and valid evaluation is suggested (Huitt and Dawson, Juntilla *et al.* 2006).Lack of an appropriate assessment technique or tool is still felt in India (Devassy and Michele, 2013).

Importance of development of social competence in present and later life has been proposed by many researchers explaining its effect on social, emotional, academic and other important aspects of life (Parker and Asher 1987, Dodge 1987, Schneider

1987, Hartup 1992, Ladd 2000, Adams, Baronberg, Campbell, Hughes, Scott, Baron, Markman, Wayne *et al.* 1997, Myers *et al.* 2006, Gundersen 2010).

Knowing the importance of social competence, **intervention programme** for its development must be a combination of different methods based on the nature and severity of the problem. Teachers, parents, peers and others should contribute in it (Beelmann *et al.*1994, Lavoie 1994, Hazel, Schumaker, 1981, Rimm-Kaufman 2006, Ziomek-Daigle, 2010).

Result of school based intervention programme "second step" to develop skills in the area of empathy, perspective taking, impulse control, and anger management showed positive effect on social competence (Holsen *et al.* 2008).

Anticipatory socialization is the process of gaining knowledge from five sources: parents, educational institutions, part-time employment, friends and the mass media about work that begins in early childhood and continues until entering the workplace fulltime (Levine and Hoffner 2006).

Adolescents' participation in community service and youth development programme is positively related to their civic development and social adaptation (Metz *et al.* 2003, Bohnert *et al.* 2007, Kurtines *et al.* 2008, Lerner and Overton 2008, Montgomery *et al.* 2008, Osberg *et al.* 2007).

Results of studies indicate that cognitively focused intervention strategies were most efficacious in self-constructive identity processes whereas emotionally focused intervention strategies were most efficacious in affecting self-discovery identity processes (Schwartz *et al.* 2005).

Social competence is characterized by some attributes (Ladd and Profilet1996, 2000; McClellan and Kinsley 1999). Parents, teachers and others can assess individuals on these checklists as they serve as guidelines and aids. Occasional or short term fluctuations may occur and individuals who are doing well on most of the attributes and characteristics outgrow these difficulties without intervention.

These characteristics and attributes are:

I. Individual Attributes- The child: is usually in a positive mood, is not excessively dependent on adults, usually comes to the program willingly, usually copes with rebuffs adequately, shows the capacity to empathize, has positive relationships with one or two peers; shows the capacity to really care about them and miss them if they are absent., displays the capacity for humour, does not seem to be acutely lonely.

II. Social Skills Attributes- The child usually: approaches others positively, expresses wishes and preferences clearly; gives reasons for actions and positions, asserts own rights and needs appropriately, is not easily intimidated by bullies, expresses frustrations and anger effectively and without escalating disagreements or harming others., gains access to ongoing groups at play and work, enters ongoing discussion on the subject; makes relevant contributions to ongoing activities, takes turns fairly easily, shows interest in others; exchanges information with and requests information from others appropriately, negotiates and compromises with others appropriately, does not draw inappropriate attention to self, accepts and enjoys peers and adults of ethnic groups other than his or her own, interacts nonverbally with other children with smiles, waves, nods, etc.

III. Peer Relationship Attributes - The child: is usually accepted versus neglected or rejected by other children, is sometimes invited by other children to join them in play, friendship, and work, is named by other children as someone they are friends with or like to play and work with, adult relationship attributes, is not excessively dependent on adults, shows appropriate response to new adults, as opposed to extreme fearfulness or indiscriminate approach.

Assessing or evaluating on these criteria one can decide whether the individual is socially competent or not.

2.2 Reviews Related to Family Structure

In Indian context family structure involves type of family (joint or nuclear family), size of the family (number of persons), single parent family in case of death of the partner or divorce, step families, socio economic status of the family, available family resources, neighbourhood, ordinal number of the child, gender of the child etc. All these components of family structure provide opportunities for interactions and development of identity, self-esteem, self-efficacy and so on. Many studies have been done to find out the influence of these factors on development of social competence.

Researches reveal **relation between family structure and mental health**. Higher levels of depressive symptoms among step families, single parent families etc. were observed. (Barrett and Turner 2005, Avison *et al.* 2007). Lack of adequate resources and parents' employment problems explain adolescents' depressive symptomatology (Taylor *et al.* 2004).

Structural changes in family may affect school performance (Rice, 2007). Studies show that socioeconomic adversity is a significant risk factor for educational failure and it influences consequent adjustment in work and health related outcomes (Schoon, Parsons and Sacker, 2004).

Analysis of studies show that both **family constitution and socioeconomic status** are associated with life satisfaction in adulthood (Louis and Zhao, 2002).

Results of studies on low income early adolescents indicate higher levels of clinically elevated internalizing and externalizing symptoms (Grant *et al.* 2004). Higher family income is consistently associated with higher college attendance rates and spending on education (Han *et al.* 2003). Some results indicate that family structure has more influence on economic well-being than social and psychological factors (Williams *et al.*2000).

Behavioural problems across family structure are associated with household demographics, low income status, family dysfunctions and parental nurturance (Wu *et al.*2008).

Studies on **influence of neighbourhood characteristics** and quality on adolescent's education value and school were found to be significantly related (Ceballo *et al.*2004). Positive relationship between ethnic identity and self-esteem was observed

(Umana-Taylor *et al.* 2002). Adolescent's family structure, resources and processes influence adult identity, child disclosure (Benson, Johnson 2009, Padilla-Walker, 2010)

Sapru (2006) cites in her article that **child socialization in India is typically within an extended family**, with little emphasis on encouraging autonomy (Kakar, 1978; Roland, 1988) even during adolescence, as Saraswathi (1999) contended. Adolescence, according to her, is a stage marked by a discontinuity between childhood and adulthood. "We-ness" marks this interdependent "familial self" among Indians com- pared to the "I-ness" of an independent self (Roland, 1988). In Kagitcibasi's (1996a) view on self-other relations, however, relatedness and autonomy may coexist in individuals: separateness and relatedness being the two poles of interpersonal distance; autonomy and heteronomy being the opposing poles of the agency dimension in which autonomy suggests "subject to one's own law" and heteronomy "to another's law."

Padilla *et al.* (2010) in their article state that Family process research examines the inner workings of families in order to better understand the context in which individual behaviours and dyadic interactions occur. A significant proportion of this research literature has emphasized the processes associated with child and adolescent problem behaviours, with findings indicating that factors such as family expressiveness, emotional responsiveness, shared decision making, family cohesion, marital conflict, and parent-adolescent hostility are related to a variety of outcomes in youth, including self-regulation and externalized problems such as aggression, violence, substance abuse, and delinquency (Conger *et.al.* 1994; Han and Waldfogel, 2007; Jackson and Foshee, 1998; Lamborn, Dornbusch, and Steinberg, 1996; Lindahl, 1998; Ramsden and Hubbard, 2002; Repetti, Taylor, and Seeman, 2002).

Ronald D. Taylor *et al.* have stated in their article that a substantial body of evidence indicates that **economic hardship** has a negative influence on parent's **psychological functioning**. Conger *et al.*(1992) found that parents whose families have insufficient resources may express depressive symptomatology because of stresses in family and marital strife and mothers' depressive symptomatology is positively associated with adolescents' depressive symptomatology. Unemployment results in lack of time structure, means the perception that time is being used in a productive and

structured way and it is related with mental health also which includes depressive symptomatology and demoralization (Wanberg *et al.* 1997).

Economic resources and parents' employment may also have an influence on adolescents' functioning through the association with parenting practices such as unresponsiveness, inattentiveness, inept discipline, negative perceptions of children, lack of sensitive reciprocity and expression of pleasure. Depressed parents may display self- absorption and rumination in their inattentiveness to their children. It is associated with poorer parent- child or parent- adolescent relations. Economic hardship has been associated with diminished emotional support by parents and harsh treatment (Conger *et al.*, 1992). These influence adjustments in adolescents including increased rates of delinquency, drug use, socio-emotional distress, internalizing and externalizing problems, problems in peer relations, conduct disorders, poor school performance and low self-confidence.

Werner and Silbereisen (2003) investigated **gender differences** in the linkages between family relationship quality and the development of substance use and delinquency among German adolescents. They cited in the article that in an early review of gender differences in childhood psychopathology, Eme (1979) concluded that "boys are more vulnerable to adverse effects of family discord and disruption" (p. 578). This view has been supported by studies finding that marital conflict, divorce, and poor parenting are more strongly linked with the development of externalizing problems among boys than girls (Cummings and Davies, 1994; Hetherington, Cox, and Cox, 1985; see Rothbaum and Weisz, 1994, for a review).

Other investigations, however, reported equivalent associations between parenting behaviours (e.g., discipline practices, negative communication) and child behaviour problems for boys and girls (Fagot and Leve, 1998), while still others found more consistent associations for girls than for boys (Prior *et. al*, 1993; Webster-Stratton, 1996). Studies of adolescents, in contrast, have produced a more homogeneous set of findings that suggest that girls are particularly susceptible to the development of problem behaviours in the face of family adversity during adolescence.

Davies and Windle (1997) reported that maternal depression, negative life events, low family intimacy, parenting impairments, and marital dis- cord predicted girls' use of alcohol and participation in delinquent behaviour 6 months later. Few

significant associations between measures of family relations and boys' behaviour problems emerged. A similar pattern was reported by Dornfeld and Kruttschnitt (1992), who found stronger associations between inter-parental conflict, divorce, and single parenthood and adolescent substance use and delinquency for girls compared with boys.

Scaramella, Conger, and Simmins (1999) found that negative parenting practices (i.e., low warmth, low child management skill, and high hostility) predicted steeper increases in girls' externalizing behaviour over the course of adolescence compared with boys. Given that the onset of girls' problem behaviours typically occurs during adolescence (Silverthorn and Frick, 1999), these findings suggest that experiences in the family context may play a central role in the emergence of girls' behaviour problems.

One theory that offers insight into findings that low-quality family relations are particularly salient for girls' engagement in problem behaviours during adolescence is gender intensification theory (Hill and Lynch, 1983; Huston and Alvarez, 1990). According to this perspective, beginning in early adolescence, gender-differentiated socialization processes emerge which function to shape gender-appropriate behaviour of boys and girls. In particular, it has been argued that girls are encouraged to build and maintain close ties with others, whereas independence and exploration in the non-familial world better characterize the masculine gender role (Block, 1983; Cross and Madson, 1997).

This hypothesis is supported by evidence demonstrating that girls prefer interacting in dyads; they show more compliance, nurturance, and self-disclosure in their social encounters; they endorse communal goals; and they are more likely to have interdependent construals of the self (i.e., striving to develop self-defining relationships and maintaining connectedness with others) compared with boys (Beneson, 1996; Maccoby, 1990).

Although both boys and girls spend increasing amounts of time with peers during adolescence, continued reliance on family members for support is more consistent with the female gender role than with the male gender role. As a consequence, conflictual family relations are likely to be perceived by girls as highly stressful, which in turn, may lead to maladjustment (Colten, Gore, and Aseltine, 1991).

2.3   Reviews Related to Family Climate

Family climate is the consequence of type of interactions between parents and children in the family. Studies have shown that the strength of the bond between them, freedom of expression, opportunities for the development of self-identity and self-esteem etc. influence the development of children.

Display of **autonomy and relatedness** are positively associated with measures of ego development and self-esteem. Situations in which adolescents and parents disagree provide an opportunity to study autonomy and relatedness (Phinney *et al.* 2005). Developing independence and self-governance is viewed as a key developmental task in adolescence (Beyers and Goossens, 2003). A lack of communication with mothers and persistent conflicts with friends were related to decremental identity changes (Reis and Youniss, 2004, Hartos and Power, 2000) In decision making adolescents from an authoritative family are more likely to represent parents' views (Mackey *et al.*2001).

Gregory and Rhona (2004) found that combination of authoritative parenting and teaching style predicts greater academic growth in adolescents. Falbo, Lein and Nicole,(2001) identified **five forms of parental involvement** that helped students succeed which included monitoring the teen's academic and social life, evaluating the information about the teen, helping the teen with schoolwork, creating positive peer networks for the teen, and participating directly in the school. Bean *et al.* (2003) found that psychological and behavioural control were significantly related to adolescent self-esteem and academic achievement. (Shek, 2007)

A study (Colle*t al.* 2010) shows significant **association between family cohesion and adaptability** and psychosocial stages of trust and intimacy. Trust is significantly influential in the formation of intimacy. Inter-parental conflicts provide family environment that are associated with increased feelings of loneliness which may be associated with problems in adolescents' social interactions i.e., social anxiety and social avoidance (Johnson *et al.* 2001). People exposed to parental divorce experience a number of relational and attitudinal effects. One such effect, the inter-generational transmission of divorce, involves a greater risk for divorce, higher family conflict, more negative attitude toward marriage, among those adult children whose parents were divorced (Segrin *et al.* 2005).

Sun *et al.* (2010) examined the link between early **parental bonding** experiences and adult attachment and result indicated that securely attached individuals reported higher levels of parental care.

Parenting has long been found to have an effect on psychological adjustments in general. Factors such as **discipline style and degree of parental warmth** play an important role in it. A study (Peterson *et al* 2010, McNeely and Barber 2010) of protective factors against substance use and sexual risk taking was conducted among 610 high-poverty urban youth. Higher levels of family attachment, social support, involvement, and self-esteem were associated with lower levels of risk behaviours. Secure individuals report positive emotions, higher levels of energy and connections (Torquati and Raffaeli, 2004).

In a study (Weis, 2002), dismissive and distressed parents exhibited the least optimal behaviour, and their children displayed the poorest outcomes at 2-year follow-up. Results revealed a new parenting type, affectionate-distressed, that may be particularly salient in high-risk, African American populations.

A component that recently has been found to be important in children's development is **the way parents deal with emotions**. A study (Schwartz *et al.* 2006) reveals that for male participants, perceiving their parents as having a disapproving style was associated with a poor sense of self. For female participants, high levels of fusion and low levels of emotional cut-off were associated with low emotion coaching parents and disapproving mothers.

Parenting practices are among the strongest predictors of juvenile delinquency identified in the criminological literature and have been intimately connected to adult offending. Results of a study (Schroeder *et al.* 2010) show that parenting styles lacking in demandingness show significant and positive effects on adult criminal offending among the Black sample, but parenting styles exert little long-term effects on criminal offending among the White sample. Furthermore, negative emotionality, namely anger, significantly mediates the relationship between uninvolved parenting and adult criminality.

Difference between mothers' and fathers' parenting styles were studied. Findings suggests that different combinations of maternal and paternal parenting (e.g., a permissive father parenting with an authoritarian mother) are related to late

adolescents' emotional adjustment, with late adolescents who have at least one authoritative parent showing better adjustment than those who do not have such a parent (McKinney and Renk. 2008)

Friendships during adolescence have long been recognised as significant for individual psychosocial development. Studies are trying to examine how the peer and family spheres jointly influence adolescent development and psychological adjustment (Marshal *et al.* 2008)

Johnson *et al.* (2001) have stated about **inter-parental conflict**, family cohesion and adolescents' social and personal adjustment, in their article. They stated citing some references also that research has shown that perceptions of inter-parental conflict are associated with difficulties in social and personal development for children and adolescents. Exposure to continuously high levels of family conflicts is associated with psychological problems during adolescence and later in life (Collins and Laursen 1992). Harold, Fincham, Osborne and Conger (1997) and Synder (1998) suggest that perception and interpretation of intense inter-parental conflict may be more damaging to child and adolescent development than the act of witnessing conflict. This is associated with adjustment difficulties and internalizing symptoms such as anxiety, depression, worry and withdrawal.

Family cohesion (the emotional bonding among family members and the feeling of closeness) is expressed by feelings of belonging and acceptance within the family system. Studies show that adolescents' perceptions of low family cohesion are associated with heightened feelings of depression and low social acceptance. Although boys report a desire for closeness with their parents, the level of desired closeness with parents does not approach the level of girls.

Article by Tick N. Sim (2003) explains the status of **parents' and adolescents' relationship**. The article and findings from other studies suggest that the father adolescent relationship is characterised by physical and emotional distance and the mother adolescent relationship is characterised by attachment and intimacy. It has also been found that the adolescent's life satisfaction is related to the father adolescent bond and their conflict is more strongly related to adolescent's psychological well-being than is mother adolescent conflict. Johnson *et al.* examined how the combination of parenting styles of mothers and fathers predicted adjustment in adolescence. It was

found that adolescents whose mothers and fathers were either both authoritative or both permissive (i.e., congruent in parenting styles) had less adjustment difficulties than adolescents whose mothers were authoritative but fathers were rejecting or those whose fathers were authoritative but mothers were rejecting.

Nina S. Mounts in her article explains ways of **parental management through which parents influence children's peer relationships**. Parenting style is the emotional climate provided by parents that makes the child more open to parenting practices, whereas parenting practices have the more specific focus of affecting particular child behaviours such as peer relationships. In the article a model related to parenting practices suggested by Ladd and Le Sieur (1995) has been cited. The model shows four types of parenting practices. The first is the parent as a designer of the child's environment such as in selecting neighbourhood. The second practice is the parent as a mediator. In this role parents help children meet new friends. The third practice is the parent as a supervisor who monitors peer relationships. The fourth practice is the parent as a consultant to manage conflicts or difficulties with peers.

Bean *et al.* (2003) cite in their article about parenting styles stating that adolescents raised in families characterised by an authoritative parenting style (high level of parental support and behavioural monitoring and low levels of psychological control) are healthier and more competent than adolescent raised with non-authoritative parenting.

It is further stated in the article about the factors which have limited the studies in the past regarding effects of parenting styles such as the approach in which the main dimensions of parenting behaviour are aggregated to form parenting styles so the individual contributions of each parenting dimension cannot be isolated and examined. As an alternative of this approach more recent studies have examined the three main dimensions of parenting behaviour such as support, behavioural control and psychological control or autonomy, simultaneously while treating each dimension as a separate and distinct construct. In this manner the individual effect of each one can be isolated and studied. Lack of research on ethnic differences in socialization and developmental outcomes is also mentioned.

McNeely and Barber (2010) state in their article that **multiple theoretical perspectives** offer explanations for how supportive parenting facilitates positive social

consequences for children. None of these perspectives are mutually exclusive. First, attachment theory (Bowlby, 1959) posits that when parents express love for their children through affection and caring, children and adolescents develop a feeling of security and confidence, and exhibit help-seeking behaviours. These behaviours and self-perceptions become an internal working model that allows them to have successful relationships with others and to make pro-social decisions (Allen and Land, 1999; Sarason, Pierce, and Sarason, 1990). In contrast, adolescents with negative attachment or who lack attachment have poorer self-concepts and poorer skills in accessing supportive relationships, both within and outside their family. A second theoretical perspective relevant to understanding how parental support fosters positive developmental outcomes in children and adolescents is symbolic interaction theory (Cooley, 1902).

Cooley coined the term the looking-glass self to describe how children pick up signals about how other people view them, internalize that view, and make it their self-view. Children who are consistently nurtured and supported learn to believe they are competent, trustworthy, and likable. In contrast, negative evaluations, communicated through neglect or withdrawal of affection, create negative self-images (Stryker and Stratham, 1985). Thirdly, Bandura (1977) social learning theory stipulates a similar link between supportive parental behaviours and adolescent well-being.

Social learning results when children observe and adopt the behaviours and attitudes of people they value. Parents who **model supportive behaviours** increase the likelihood that their children will, in turn, adopt those behaviours with their peers, teachers, and others. Moreover, if adolescents have a warm, caring relationship with their parents, they are more likely to imitate their parents' health-related behaviours. To the extent that parents refrain from health-risk behaviours, such as substance use, smoking, or unhealthful sexual behaviours, social learning theory suggests that a supportive relationship will be protective for their children (Andrews, Hops, and Duncan, 1997; Brook, Gordon, Whiteman, and Brook, 1986).

Each of the above theoretical perspectives describes how supportive parenting contributes directly to long-term social development. These can be considered direct effects or main effects models whereby support has beneficial effects on development regardless of the individual attributes or conditions of the person perceiving support. In

contrast, the stress-buffering model proposes that supportive behaviours exert a positive influence primarily by buffering individuals from the negative consequences of stressful life events (Cobb. 1976: Cohen and McKay, 1984; Cohen and Wills, 1985).

According to this model, supportive parental behaviours enhance children's capacity to cope and reduce their perception of stressful situations as threatening. The stress-support matching hypothesis (Cohen and McKay, 1984) states that the helpfulness of any given supportive parenting behaviour depends on the nature of the stressor. For example, Cutrona and Russell (1990) demonstrated that reassurance of worth was the parental behaviour most important to fostering academic achievement because it matched the demands of the stressor: academic demands at college. There is also evidence, however, that emotional support provides protection against a wide range of stressors (Cohen and Wills, 1985).

Beaver and Wright (2007) shed light on the **role of the family in criminology**. They cite some theories which pinpoint certain dimensions of the family as important contributors to delinquency. For example social bonding theory highlights the importance of adolescents becoming attached to their parents to prevent antisocial outcomes (Hirschi, 1969). Social learning theory recognizes the importance of antisocial role models presented by such as criminal parents or deviant siblings which may lead to juvenile delinquency.

They further state that elements of the family life are also incorporated into strain theory, cultural deviance theory and social disorganization theory, among others.

A new **approach related to behavioural genetics** has also been mentioned. It says though the relationship between family functioning and child outcomes may seem logical, undeniable and intuitively obvious recent research however has put question whether the family has any lasting effects on their children. Harris's (1995, 1998, 2006) group socialization theory perhaps best exemplifies the logic of this argument.

According to her theory the relationship between parental socialization and child outcome is largely due to the genes that are shared between parent and offspring. The theory says that once genetic influences are held constant the relationship between family factors and child outcomes vanishes.

Much work in the family studies tradition has grouped supportive parenting together with behavioural control and autonomy into typologies of parenting (e.g., Baumrind, 1971, 1991). However, the different typologies— often labelled authoritarian, authoritative, and neglectful parenting—did not similarly predict academic achievement across cultural and economic sub- groups.

In particular, authoritarian parenting has been shown to have diverse associations with school achievement across different cultural groups (Chao, 2001).This divergence of findings across cultural groups, as well as the more general desire of some researchers to "unpack" the classic parenting typologies to better specify the effects of the distinct dimensions of parenting on children, has led to a re-emergence of the study of the discrete dimensions of parenting, including parental support, the focus of this study (Barber *et al.*, 2005; Gray and Steinberg, 1999; Rohner, Khaleque, and Cournoyer, 2005; Steinberg, 1990).

Whereas family researchers define supportive parenting as nurturing, affective, and companionate types of behaviours, social support researchers categorize supportive behaviours—whether enacted by the parents or others— on the basis of the functions they serve.1 Several multidimensional typologies of supportive behaviours have been proposed for adolescents (Barrera, Chassin, and Rogosch, 1993; Cutrona, 1989; Cutrona and Russell, 1987; Seidman *et al.*, 1995; Wills, Vaccaro, and McNamara, 1992; Wolchick, Ruehlman, Braver, and Sandler, 1989).

Most typologies include at least three forms of perceived support: emotional support, defined as behaviours that communicate the adolescent is cared for and loved; instrumental support, defined as practical and financial assistance to help with specific tasks; and informational support, defined as guidance or advice geared toward solving a specific problem. Additional dimensions of support appear in some but not all typologies. These include enhancement of worth (i.e., attesting to competence in a social role), companionship (i.e., spending time together in a way that feels supportive), the opportunity to provide nurturance to others, shared interests and concerns, support for autonomy, and respect (Barrera *et al.*, 1993; Cutrona and Russell, 1987; Newcomb and Bentler, 1986; Scholte, van Lieshout, and van Aken, 2001; Weiss, 1974; Wolchick *et al.*, 1989). Similar support dimensions have also been identified for adults (Cutrona and Russell, 1987; Vaux, 1988).

2.4   Reviews Related to Adolescence:

Lerner (2001) suggests that adolescence should be investigated with multivariate longitudinal designs and change sensitive measures and data analysis strategies. Bergman (2001) suggests a person **approach** for research on adolescence. . In a person approach the individual as a "functioning whole" is central and not the variable, as is the usual case.

Adolescence is a **vulnerable period** for prevalent disturbances in body image. It is widely reported that female adolescents are at greater risk for body related concerns. It is evident that body related thoughts and emotions are linked to various adolescent health behaviours (Sabiston *et al.* 2007).

Family and school support help adolescents to maintain mental health (Ozer, 2005, Way and Robinson, 2003).Studies have shown depressive disorders to have an age of onset in adolescence and that the presence of depression in adolescence tends to increase a risk for developing other psychiatric disorders in adulthood (Essau *et al.* 2000).

Mother's mental health such as depression also affect adolescents' adjustments. In children of depressed mothers, higher levels of emotional autonomy predicted increase in internalising and externalising problems (Garber and Stephanine, 2001).

Adolescents with **positive future orientations** are less likely to substance use (Robbins and Bryan, 2004). Pro-social activity participation of adolescents in school predicted lower substance use and higher self-esteem and an increased likelihood of college graduation (Barber *et al.* 2001).

Like adolescents in East Asia, Indian middle-class adolescents face a **highly competitive examination system**. Findings of study show that those who spent more time doing homework experienced lower average emotional states and more internalising problems, while those who spent more time in leisure experienced more favourable states but also reported higher academic anxiety and lower scholastic achievement (Verma, Sharma and Larson, 2002)

In **adolescents' friendship** Coherence and self -disclosure has been found to have direct effect on intimacy. Avoidant and anxious attachment had an indirect effect

on intimacy, and were mediated by coherence and disclosure (Bauminger *et al.* 2008). Emotionally close, intimate friendships can provide important developmental opportunities such as creating a comfort zone in which to explore and validate identities (Radmacher and Azmitia, 2006). There are several ways in which parents influence children's peer relationships. Higher levels of consulting and mediating are related to higher levels of positive friendship quality and higher levels of autonomy granting are related to lower levels of friend conflict, delinquent activity, and drug use (Mounts, 2004).

Lerner *et al.* (2001) have expressed their views on adolescence as" Adolescence has been described as a phase of life beginning in biology and ending in society (Petersen, 1988)." Indeed, adolescence may be defined as the period within the life span when most of a person's biological, cognitive, psychological, and social characteristics are changing from what is typically considered childlike to what is considered adult like.

Adolescence is a **period of dramatic challenges** requiring adjustment changes in the self, family, in the peer group and institutional changes also like transition from middle to high school or university. Previously adolescence was characterised by" storm and stress". Recent studies suggest that though it is a period of high challenges evidence is not consistent with the belief that adolescence is a protracted period of storm and stress for most individuals (Feldman and Elliott, 1990; R. Lerner, 1995; R. Lerner and Galambos, 1998; R. Lerner, Petersen, and Brooks-Gunn, 1991; Montemayor, Adams, and Gullotta, 1990; Petersen, 1988; Scales and Leffert, 1999).

They state that **multiple levels of context** are influential during adolescence. Due to combined effect of biological, cognitive, psychological and societal factors individual differences are present in the development of adolescence. The quality and timing of hormonal or biological changes influence and are influenced by psychological, social, cultural, and historic contexts. For example studies (Lynam *et al.* 1993), (Stattin and Magnusson 1990) state that early maturation in girls was linked to problem behaviours who were embedded in peer groups composed of older friends. Research on cognitive development suggest that there are integrated multilevel changes in thinking that occur during adolescence (Graber and Peterson, 1991). Pubertal

changes interact with contextual and experiential factors to influence academic achievement.

When these multiple changes of adolescence occur simultaneously there is a greater risk of problems occurring in a youth's development. The period of adolescence is one of continual change and transition between individuals and their contexts. Optimal adjustment occurs among adolescents who are encouraged by their parents to engage in age appropriate autonomy while maintaining strong ties to their families (Allen *et al.* 1994).

To meet these challenges, especially in social area, social competence is required. Identity formation, self-esteem, self-concept, these are important variables of social competence. Umana *et al.* (2002) have stated in their article that **identity development** is a critical factor in an adolescent's life because it is not until this time that individuals have developed the necessary elements such as physiological growth, mental maturation and social responsibility to examine their identity. Identity can influence the course of one's life as it guides carrier choices, expectations and aspirations. Although reformations of one's identity are expected throughout the life cycle, it is during middle to late adolescence that the optimal conditions like confluence of physical, cognitive and psychological changes, exist for the initial resolution of one's identity (Marcia 1994).

The in-depth literature review provided a theoretical frame work as well selecting the variables, their nature and interacting patterns. However, the literature review revealed the research gap in terms of non-availability of research study that investigate association between social competence, family structure and family climate or by subgrouping based on these variables. Therefore, to study their interaction pattern the present research work was undertaken.