CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

'Unless women of India are awakened, India cannot be awakened.'

Swami Vivekananda

Women in India represented nearly 48.2 percent of country’s total population i.e. 406.6 million as per 1991 census, yet they lagged behind the mainstream of national development and hold a low profile. Only in 1980’s women came to be recognised as a target group in the development sector, and were given a place in the development planning, by including a separate chapter on women’s development in the sixth five year plan (1980-85) document. The various developmental plans and programmes led to some improvement in the socio-economic status of women over the years, yet the desired social change still eluded.

WORK STATUS OF MOTHER AND ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

There have been perceptible changes in the recent decades in the life patterns of women all over the world. (Kapur, 1972). Their educational achievement and their entry into work force at various levels created for them the social and psychological pressure, to add to pressures of their homemaker role and work roles. Paloma and Garland (1971) observed that some women willingly and of their own choice or initiation took to employment, referred to as “women inclined to work”, while some women had no choice or volition called “women compelled to work”. Even women who chose to work could not dichotomise their work and home, and tried to balance their roles as much as they could.

A working mother had multiple and more complicated roles depending on the number of children, their birth order and ages. Despite entry in job market, her role in family remained primary. It was often said that caring for children was part of the myth of motherhood (Oakley, 1974). Also as employment did not fit into the cultural stereotype of “mother”, at
times she felt guilty for being away from home, neglect of home and children etc. Mother’s working hours, her nature of job, the values attached to her job were important features to determine the extent of adjustment to her working.

When the mother made special efforts and avoided imposing extra duties on family members, she was perceived as kind, positive and non-assertive. And when (either) she did not like her job or when she was too much involved with and felt guilty of it, her relationship tended to be disturbing and sometimes hostile. Mother’s negative attitude towards working, that was to say if she disliked her job, had a negative impact on her home life, and on her family members also. And, if she enjoyed her work, and felt satisfied, she provided a model for her children to imitate and develop a strong drive for achievement.

As far as discipline in life and regularity in work approach were concerned, mixed findings were observed for children of working and non-working mothers. Mother’s working outside affected the mother-child relations but it depended on how strong was the emotional bond. Mother’s entry into the job market disturbed the child only, when one got too accustomed to spend time with the mother, and if one accepted that the mother stayed away from home for long. However, if a satisfactory mother substitute was provided whom the child liked her methods of child discipline did not cause any confusion or resentment.

When the mother worked sporadically, the effect on parent – child relationship was more serious than when the mother worked continuously, may be due to the fact that the mother was unable to calculate and distribute her time leading to some kind of mismanagement in the work schedule. As Siegel, Stolz, Hitchcock and Adamson (1959) pointed out, “Maternal employment per se is not the overwhelmingly influential factor in children’s lives as some have thought it to be”. It could be not the ‘mother’s working’ that was effecting, but the individual mother figure that was influential. Maccoby (1958) noted that “clearly no single way of organizing family life is best for all. Some mothers should work while others should not”. For the children, mother’s job was important as was the value attached to the job in determining the child’s feeling about his mother’s working. As Hurlock put it, the effect was “…partly due to what his friend’s mothers do, and partly on the stereotype he has built up of ‘mother”. The working mother adopted certain disciplinary measures of behaviour patterns
at home, like being punctual, precise and specific in giving instructions that may not fit well in the home environment.

The role of a mother vis-à-vis her adolescent children turned different and even more important as adolescence was a period of transition from childhood to adulthood. The significant physical changes, and the feeling of independence from the adult (parental) rule led them to experience various stress and strains. The adolescent period extended from early adolescence to late adolescence, which started from the age of eleven/twelve to the age of twenty one years, when girls /boys achieved maturity legally. The major developmental tasks of adolescence were the preparation for adulthood. In early adolescence emphasis was on learning the specifics needed to be an adult, while late adolescence was looked upon as the last step in the long period of development. The period of adolescence was often described as a period of stress and strain, while few others described it as a period of defiance, contradictions, obstinacy, mood swings and so on. It was thus important to understand their family environment, interactions with parents, and peers and constraints in different areas of their functioning that determined their psychological well-being.

FAMILY ENVIRONMENT

The term family, family environment, home atmosphere were often used interchangeably, to mean the activities by and within the family. The family had been visualised in a variety of perspectives. Adler (1930) talked of family constellation, a term in individual psychology covering the influences on the individual (child), deriving from the number, age and personality characteristics of other members in the family and their relationship to him/her. Bossard and Boll (1960) defined home as the place the child comes back to, with his experiences. It was the layer to which one retreated to lick one’s wounds, the stage to which one returned to parade the glory of one’s achievements, the refuge one found in which to brood over one’s ill treatment, real or fancied. The family was the basic unit of society. It was probably the oldest social institution known to man. Although its specific form has changed, and will continue to change – it still remained as the basic unit of social order.

The family characteristics included the family size, family members, their personal and professional qualities and achievements, personal relationships, attitudes, expectations and
many more things. Here the family environment was conceptualized following Moos and Moos (1973). It was argued that behavior even though a joint function of both the person and environment a substantial proportion of the variance in it was accounted by the environmental variables (Moos, 1969), as the same individuals showed different behaviour in different milieus (Barker and Gump, 1964). Barker and his associates developed the concept of ‘behaviour setting’ and conceptualized these as ecological units. Behaviour ecology was conceptualized as concerned with molar behaviour and the ecological context in which it occurred. Barker pointed out that the behaviour settings were natural phenomenon. These had space and time locus, and were self generated. Barker (1968) presented a methodology to identify and categorise the behaviour setting. The most important aspect of this work was that behaviour setting could be shown to have pervasive effects on individuals, not only in terms of the specific behaviour which was demanded by the setting, but also on both behaviours and affects experienced by individuals. Thus behaviour setting was conceptualized as an ecological unit that had both an environmental and a behavioural component. The family setting had three dimensions:

1. Relationship dimensions, to assess the extent to which individuals were involved in the environment and the extent to which they helped and supported each other.

2. Personal development dimensions, to assess the basic directions along which personal development and self-enhancement tended to occur in the particular environment.

3. System maintenance and system change dimensions basically included order and organization, and clarity and control.

These dimensions were further developed by Moos and Moos (1974) to identify sub-dimensions of each. A typology of family environments was evolved using a cluster analysis technique (Moos and Moos, 1976). This showed following dimensions of family environment:
**Relationship Dimensions**

1. Cohesion: The degree of commitment held and the support family members provided to one another.

2. Expressiveness: The extent to which family members were encouraged to act openly and to express their feelings directly.

3. Conflict: The amount of openly expressed anger, aggression and conflict among family members.

**Personal Growth Dimensions**

4. Independence: The extent to which family members were assertive, self-sufficient and made their own decisions.

5. Achievement Orientation: The extent to which activities (such as school and work) were cast into an achievement-oriented or competitive framework.

6. Intellectual Cultural Orientation: The degree of interest in political, social, intellectual, and cultural activities.

7. Active Recreation Orientation: The extent of participation in social and recreational activities.

8. Moral-Religious Emphasis: The degree of emphasis on ethical and religious issues and values.

**System Maintenance Dimensions**

9. Organization: The degree of importance of clear organization and structure in planning family activities and responsibilities.

10. Control: The extent to which set rules and procedures were used to run family life.
These dimensions together determined the relation of the family with the family members on one hand and with the outside family environment (social relations) on the other hand. How differently the mothers and their adolescent children would perceive the various characteristics of the family would be crucial to explain their behavior.

**PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING**

Psychological well-being had been interpreted to include stress and adjustment of the individual, and often included here mothers and adolescent children. Family being the first and foremost source of influence on individual members, it was important to individual members' psychological well being. Inability to fit oneself to new situations could lead to stress and have consequential effect on the behavior patterns, which then demanded coping behaviors, (Lazarus, 1966; Coleman, 1976). If an individual was able to cope, one would be able to adjust.

**Stress**

Stress was defined as an internal state of the individual which could be caused by physical demands on the body (disease conditions, exercise, extremes for temperature and the like) or by environmental and social situations, which we evaluated as potentially harmful, uncontrollable, or exceeding one’s coping resources (Morgan, King, Weisz and Schopler 1986). Webster’s New World Dictionary gave the meaning of stress as “mental or physical tension or strain”.

With women entering into remunerative employment, new equations developed within the family, and interpersonal relations between family members assumed different nuances. Gap between actual roles and perceived roles led to different types of conflicts. In emerging situation family members had to accommodate themselves in order to fit into new paradigms. While adults in the family showed better adaptability, adolescents by virtue of their age (and therefore social and intellectual development) did not find it easy to accommodate the new situations. Failures to accommodate the new situations led to stress, which according to Lazarus (1966) connoted a particular type of emotion, a negative disturbing aspect as in fear, anxiety, anger and depression. According to cognitive-relational
theory, stress was defined as a particular relationship between the person and the environment that was appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). The cognitive-relational theory of stress emphasized the continuous, reciprocal nature of the interaction between the person and the environment. Since its first publication (Lazarus, 1966), it had not only been further developed and refined, but it had also been expanded recently to include a metatheoretical concept of emotion and coping processes (Lazarus, 1991, 1993a, 1993b; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984).

Within a meta-theoretical system approach Lazarus (1991) conceived the complex processes of emotion as composed of causal antecedents, mediating processes, and effects. Antecedents were person variables such as commitments or beliefs on the one hand and environmental variables, such as demands or situational constraints, on the other. Mediating processes referred to cognitive appraisals of situational demands and personal coping options as well as coping efforts being more or less problem-focused and emotion-focused. Stress experiences and coping results brought immediate effects, such as affects or physiological changes, and long-term results concerning psychological well-being, somatic health and social functioning. However, stress had to be analyzed and investigated as an active, unfolding process. More precisely, stress appraisal processes needed to be predicted by using the environmental and personal variables as antecedents, and coping strategies and long-term effects, as mediating processes and effects.

Cognitive appraisals included two component processes, primary and secondary appraisals. Primary appraisal referred to the stakes a person had in a certain encounter. In primary appraisals, a situation was perceived as being either irrelevant, benign-positive or stressful. Those events classified as stressful could be further subdivided into the categories of benefit, challenge, threat and harm/loss.

A stress-relevant situation was appraised as challenging when it mobilized one's physical and psychological activity and involvement. In the appraisal of challenge, a person might see an opportunity to prove herself or himself, anticipate gain, mastery or personal growth from the venture. The situation was experienced as pleasant, exciting, and interesting, and the person was hopeful, eager, and confident to meet the demands.
Threat occurred when the individual perceived oneself being in danger, and it was experienced when the person anticipated future harm or loss. Harm or loss could refer to physical injuries and pain or to attacks on one's self-esteem. Although in threat appraisal future prospects were seen in a negative light, the individual still sought ways to master the situation faced. The individual was partly restricted in his or her coping capabilities, striving for a positive outcome of the situation in order to gain or restore his or her well-being. Rather, threat was a relational property concerning the match between perceived coping capabilities and potentially hurtful aspects of the environment.

Primary appraisals were mirrored by secondary appraisals which referred to one's available coping options for dealing with stress, i.e., one's perceived resources to cope with the demands at hand. The individual evaluated his/her competence, social support, and material or other resources in order to readapt to the circumstances and to reestablish an equilibrium between the person and environment. In academic situations mostly the task-specific competence or the prerequisite knowledge to cope with the task was of primary importance. There was no fixed time order for primary and secondary appraisals. Moreover, they depended on each other and often appeared at the same time.

Stress could not be seen exclusively in the context of situations, as the capacity of any situation to produce stress was contingent upon the individual. Similarly conflicts occurred when two demands made on a person were incompatible – that is, when the behaviours evoked by one made it impossible for the person to do what was called for by another.

Pestonjee (1983) developed a model to explain the coping of stress reactions, called the 'bounce model' (Figure 1.2). According to the model, stress could be intra-psychic, physical or social and the behavioral decompensation was reflected in interpersonal and other reactions. The stressors were received and analyzed by the environment which in turn, bounced back, signaling to the individual to bring about a change either at the organismic level or at the response level.

In dealing with stress, the transactional model considered perceptions and reactions to events in addition to events themselves, as it was not the specific experience that produced stress for the individual, but the perception of lack of resources for dealing with the situation that
resulted in stress (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Therefore stress could be defined as an imbalance between individuals’ perceptions of demands and their capabilities to meet such demands (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). This theoretical construct was used here to identify the areas and sources of immediate stress for mothers and adolescents.

**Stressors**

- Intrapsychic
- External (Physical)
- External (Social)

Responses could be adaptive.

Responses could be mal-adaptive leading to decompensation.

Responses could be devastating.

**Figure 1.1: Bounce Model**

*Source:* D M Prestonjee (1983) *Stress and Coping the Indian Experience*

**ADJUSTMENT**

The adjustment was a process that helped one in adjusting or being adjusted. As Coleman (1976) put it, adjustment was the outcome of the individual’s efforts to deal with stress and meet his needs. According to Shaffer and Shoben (1956), “Life consisted of a series of
responses in which needs were aroused and then satisfied". It involved both mental and behavioural responses, by which an individual strove to cope successfully with inner needs, tensions, frustrations, and conflicts, and to effect a degree of harmony between these inner demands and those imposed on him by the objective world in which he lives. (Kumar, 1988).

Failure to devise mechanisms to come to terms with stress may lead to further stress and derail the family adjustment. Adjustment occupied a pivotal role in the family. Adjustment process was linked to the situation that a family encountered, and to individual traits of the family members, and therefore involved active cognitive and behavioral efforts of the individual. Folkman and Lazarus (1980) emphasized coping as a dynamic process that shifted due to the nature of stressful situations over time. It was a process of managing demands (external or internal). Adjustment therefore ought to be seen in the context of the stresses, that individuals encountered and the resources available to them to find solutions to these.

As given in the following model, adjustment was described as series of steps, beginning when a need was felt and ending when need was satisfied.

![Figure 1.2: The Adjustment Process](image)


A person proceeding in a motivated course of action (1), thwarted by some obstacles or circumstances (2), that prevented the fulfillment of one's need. One made varied exploratory
responses (3) until some response, (4) got one around the obstacle and one readjusted (5). In some instances however one's need to avoid the obstacle (6) was greater than the motive toward the goal and readjustment could not be achieved.

VARIETIES OF ADJUSTIVE BEHAVIOUR

1. Adjustment by defence. Mechanisms that were mainly aggressive or outgoing.

2. Adjustment by escape. Mechanisms characterized by withdrawing or escaping from the experiences that incited conflicts.

3. Adjustments involving focal fears. Although fear-like or anxious behaviour was a factor in all non-integrative adjustment, it appeared with prominence in phobias.

4. Adjustment by ailments, like physical illness.

5. Anxiety states. One found no way out and remained stirred up, anxious, exhausted, and "nervous."

STRESS-ADJUSTMENT CONTINUUM

The interplay of stress-adjustment continuum determined the psychological well being of the family in general, and of mothers and adolescents in particular. Shaffer (1956) propounded that ‘all living organisms tended to vary their activities in response to changed conditions in their environments. When circumstances changed, an animal must modify its behavior and discover new ways to satisfy its wants or it will not survive.’

There were various intervening factors that shaped this continuum, such as mother’s educational background, nature of occupation and remuneration. It was argued that a good combination of these could be less stressed and more adjustive for members and therefore better psychological well being. This, however, was not a simple phenomenon, as stress and adjustment could take many forms and lead to different levels of psychological well being.
On this stress-adjustment continuum, the adolescents were the most vulnerable persons. The period of adolescence often referred to as a period of transition from childhood to adulthood, had always been perceived as a period of turmoil, stress and strain. Adolescence, brought varying degrees of stress into the lives of adolescents (Compass, 1987). Many became particularly vulnerable during this period to a wide range of behavioral and emotional difficulties, as their personal and social resources were not sufficiently developed for coping with their developmental tasks. Challenged by personal or environmental demands and lacking appropriate coping skills, many youngsters developed maladaptive patterns of behavior to mediate or alleviate the effect of stress (Allison, Leone and Sepro, 1990; Elliot, Huizinga and Ageton, 1985; Jessor and Jessor, 1977; Silbereisen and Noack, 1988). Research studies indicated that interaction between parents and their children underwent significant changes during the adolescent period, changes that appeared to be negative in quality (Papini, Datan and McCluskey-Fawcett, 1988).

PERCEPTIONS OF MOTHERS/ADOLESCENTS OF HUSBAND'S/FATHER'S ROLE IN FAMILY INVOLVEMENT

The study probed the issue of role perceptions, as each family member had individual expectations and had perceptions of the roles related to the daily nuances. The perceptions of family members could vary across a range of situations. This was important particularly for the adolescents, perceptions exercised a profound influence in their lives. A person's perceived world was the world of one's immediate experiences. People perceived their environment in a way they had cumulatively built up their own experiences, the way they developed their value system, and the way they wanted to see their world. When an individual developed a set of perceptions, one tried to communicate, as “I behave according to the facts as I see them not as you see them. My needs and wants are paramount, not yours. I act on the basis of my perception of myself and the world in which I live. I react not to an objective world but to a world seen in terms of my own beliefs and values” (Davis and Newstrom, 1985).

Theories that described the process of perception range from information-processing models based on the rationalist tradition, to contrasting theories based on the inseparability of perception and lived experience. These variations helped to expand the limits of what was
pertinent to perception. The rationalist assumption of perception was essentially a method of representing a given reality. Correspondingly, it emphasized the predominant role of visual perception in erecting the boundaries of investigation (Descartes, 1965).

In the present context, how a working mother perceived her husband – was the outcome of her experiences with her husband. Similarly how an adolescent perceived his/her father depended on the kind of experiences he/she had with father. In a situation when the wife was in remunerative employment, she generally had the time crunch, because she had the primary responsibility for organizing and carrying out household chores and child care (Rapaport and Rapaport, 1976). In this situation father's involvement with children was needed to reduce maternal stress. If father got involved more in the family the children/wife could develop a positive image of him and could be a great social support for mothers (Zur-Szpiro and Longfellow, 1982).

A child's perception of his parents, in a particular situation could also be a projection of his own feelings. A boy whose mother was always away from home at work, could because of his self sufficient and independent nature feel that his mother was there whenever needed her, while a dependent and demanding child whose mother was away for only half the day could complain that the mother was always away from home (BayLey, Nancy, 1944). A child might place the parents on a pedestal and regard them as being more noble and saintly than they actually are, while another child could wrongly perceive parents as bad, when actually not bad. When a child had positive feelings about parents, one followed them more closely, than a child who negatively perceived parents.

When individuals interacted with each other in a particular setting like family or school, they acquired attitudes and values, some to be used as moral standards and others as ways of relating to people, such as loving, or hating and helping or hurting other persons. Accordingly relations were developed through the process of socialization. The principal agents in the socialization process were other significant persons. Much of what a person learnt in the process of growing up was not systematically and consciously grasped. Socialization was an interactional process, wherein a person's behavior was modified to conform to expectations held by members of the groups to which one belonged, and did not stop at a point of time, but instead, continued throughout (Secord and Backman, 1964).
Socialization processes were active each time a person occupied a new role and interacted with others in that setting.

TIME MANAGEMENT

There was no consensus on a definition of time. Immanuel Kant observed that time had no real existence outside the human mind—yet today all human beings were in a constant race with time.

One face of time was called physical or evolutionary time—the movements and changes in life, or the occurring of physical and mental events. This was the kind of time one referred to in the saying "Time and tide wait for no man."

A second face of time was what we call clock time—an arbitrary yet consensual measurement of physical time by various devices such as sun dials, clocks, and stop watches. Clock time was used for coordination (several people getting to a meeting "on time"), and for measuring the duration of activities, such as a one hundred meter dash. One might also call this quantity time.

Stephen Covey said, "Concerns about quality of life are just as likely to come from someone with a high level of [conventional] time management training as from someone without it." Time involved the events in the world, and the measurement of these events by clocks. But time was also the slow, dreary feeling when we are doing something boring—a 'long time', the anxiety and pressure when we're working against a deadline—a 'hard time', and the effortless flow from moment to moment—an 'easy time'. So one might say that time was about feelings of time passing. This may be called the third face of time psychological or inner time. Instead of clock-quantity time, it's quality time.

Rather than CTM's focus on what we want to do, inner time management (ITM) gave methods to optimize the moment-by-moment way we relate to, or the extent to which we got involved in, our current activity. ITM taught how to increase involvement by moving from (1) holding back from doing something, to (2) resigning ourselves to doing something, to (3) getting into it, to (4) being involved, to (5) being preoccupied, engrossed, or absorbed. By
moving toward the absorption of peak performance, one transformed troublesome feelings of
time passing--including overwhelm, time pressure, boredom, and anxiety about not having
enough time.

Since CTM did not resolve the issue of time pressures, Covey saw the need for a paradigm
other than the linear time model that usually accompanied CTM: "The very fact that ... the
fundamental problem remains...is a good indication that the basic paradigms are flawed." However, his suggestion of an alternative based on the importance of what we do, rather
than the urgency of tasks was not qualitatively different: (1) it still focused on what tasks we
do, and (2) tasks were presumed to occur within an objective flow of time. No matter
whether tasks were judged by importance or urgency, and no matter whether determined by
means of core principles or not, by keeping the focus on "what you do and why you do it,"
the underlying paradigm of linear time was left intact.

The analysis of time budgets provided an important tool to behavioral scientists and
developmentalists concerned with the welfare of the adolescents in the context of new family
paradigms emerging today. It provided a framework for integrating separate bodies of
knowledge and practices regarding household chores, employment, school work, leisure, and
social relationships.

Time constituted a very important resource in the contemporary world, and it was the most
inelastic element of human existence (Singhal, 1994). The advent of industrialization and the
current onslaught of liberalization created situations, wherein time had become a rare
resource. Time as a resource however, found different manifestations under different socio-
economic and demographic contexts. Measurement of the time spent in family settings could
provide an indication of how women and their adolescent children engaged themselves in
activities that were informative, challenging, and motivational along with other daily chores
(Csikszentmihalye and Larson, 1984)

The way mothers spent their time formed the context of activity related to the absorption of
their skills, knowledge and experiences. On the other hand the way adolescents spent time
was conceptualized as a learning environment (Whiting 1980). Each activity in which a child
got involved could be seen as an opportunity to experience and learn a set of skills and
knowledge. School work for example cultivated a sense of learning, literacy and career skills, social mores, sporting habits.

Time use was shaped by many factors including material conditions, normative patterns and cultural values. The involvement of children in various activities, time they spent on these activities could vary from child to child and from situation to situation. There were evidence to suggest that some uses of time were developmentally beneficial than others, leading to the question of what influenced adolescents and mothers time and what can be done to alter the given pattern of time distribution.

One important parameter to time use was the work status of the mothers. This was particularly significant in the context of the present study. The category of non-working mothers to a large extent resembled a traditional situation, where time was there, even if they invested it in all kinds of important activities necessary for the functioning of the family socializing. The working mothers on the other hand had limited time for the household chores, had differences due to different work conditions and working in different occupational categories. Mothers having fixed time at their disposal, had no option but to manage time properly if they wished to give quality time to their children.

The amount of time invested in the context of given activity could be considered as a proximal variable for the quantity of a particular set of socialization experiences. The association between the quantity of time as such and the quantity of a specific set of experiences were non-linear but interesting to be understood in the context of socialization experiences.

It could therefore be argued that the way of spending daily time was a crucial variable in the perception of family characteristics, stress and adjustment for mothers and adolescents. Proper time management and the availability of quality time for different family units could contribute to effective mutual relations, understanding, and better psycho-social well being.

**SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

A perusal of the various theoretical models and related research on aspects of family environment, stress and adjustment had indicated that often these aspects were researched
without deliberating about how these interacted on a continuum. Moreover, studies had focused on psychological well being of the working mothers, but not by using appropriate comparisons. The emphasis stemmed from the need to assess the impact of their working, on family. This however, constituted only one aspect of the reality. In the contemporary society, interactions between family environment, stress and adjustment constituted the thermodynamics of the family having different behavioural manifestations for working and non-working mothers. The relationship also has different nuances for the family as a whole and therefore family environment, stress, adjustment, individually and in conjunction with each other need to be analyzed.

The present study thus had its focus on examining the perceptions of family characteristics, and the psychological well-being of mothers by their work status for herself and their adolescent children. To examine these relationships, this research used the following analytical model.
It was assumed that both working and non working mothers and their adolescent boys and girls may have varied perceptions of dimensions of family environment. Further, mothers with different work status and their adolescent boys and girls may perceive the role of their husbands/fathers in the family differently. They may also differ in the time distribution pattern of the week days as well as holidays. The perceptions of family environment may show some significant correlations with measures of psychological well-beings and may account for variance to a good extent.