REVIEW
OF
LITERATURE
Adolescence is considered as that period of life during which maturity is being attained. Adolescence is a bridge between childhood and adulthood. It is a rapid development of growing sexual maturity, discovering one’s real self, defining personal values and social roles. At the stage of adolescence many physical and psychological changes occur. Stanley Hall denoted this period as one of ‘strom and stress’ and according him, conflict at this development stage is normal not unusual. Margaret Mead, on the other hand attributed the behavior of adolescents to their culture and upbringing. Several developmental stage models have placed adolescence in a period of human development. Freud saw it as the ‘genital phase’ of psychosexual development, where the child recaptures the sexual awareness of influence. Piaget focused on cognitive development, seeing adolescence as the ‘formal operative stage’ where the young person develops the ability to think abstractly and drawn conclusions from the information available. The theory of psychosocial development identified the identity crisis as central to the notion of adolescence (Viner and Deborach, 2005). It is characterized by innumerable and unique problems. With the demands of globalization, the nature and number of challenges have still become more compared to the yesteryears. It is the time where adolescent children need maximum attention and care of their parents. The home environment and family process provide a network of social, physical and intellectual forces. The home environment is very important for children as it sets the frame work and foundation for their physical and psychological development. In fact everyone’s life depends upon the home environment. What we are and what will we become all are affected by the home environment.

Home Environment

Children grow up in several environments; home occupies the first and most important place for the development of the individual. Home is the person’s primary environment from the time one is born until the day one dies; hence its effect on the individual is also most significant and enduring. Home environment is the most important institution for the existence and continuance of human life and the development of various personality traits. It is well known fact that most of those who
are successful in life have come from homes where parental attitudes towards them were favourable.

Demo and Acock (1996) examined that the influence of family structure and family relationships on adolescent well being. They examined the socioemotional adjustment, academic performance, and global well being among adolescents (ages 12 to 18) living in the four most prevalent family structures in the United States: (a) intact first-married family units, (b) divorced, single-parent families, (c) stepfamilies, and (d) continuously single mothers and their children, one of the fastest growing types of households. These four family types vary dramatically on socioeconomic characteristics and measures of family relations. Compared to the other family types, families headed by continuously single mothers have the lowest income, whereas divorced families and step families report the highest levels of mother-adolescent disagreement and the lowest levels of parental supervision and mother-adolescent interaction, Unadjusted comparisons across family types reveal that adolescents in first-married families have slightly higher scores on all three measures of well being, but few of the differences are statistically significant, Regression analyses indicate that the strongest and most consistent predictor of adolescent well being is mother-adolescent disagreement, Other family process variables directly involving the mother-adolescent dyad (mother-adolescent interaction, aggression, and support) are consistently related to adolescent adjustment, academic performance, and well being.

Mandara and Murray (2000) examined the effects of marital status, family income, and family functioning on African American adolescents' self esteem. One hundred sixteen adolescents participated, 64% of whom were female. Compared with boys with non married parents, boys with married parents had higher overall self esteem, even when family income and family functioning were controlled. Parental marital status had no effect on girls' self esteem. Family functioning was a very strong predictor of self esteem for both sexes. However, family relational factors were more important to girls' self esteem, whereas structural and growth factors were more important for boys. It was concluded that African American adolescent boys with non married parents are at risk for developing low self esteem compared with other African American adolescents, but a more controlled and structured environment may buffer the effects of having non married parents.
Bradley and Corwyn (2002) reported that socioeconomic status (SES) is one of the most widely studied constructs in the social sciences. Several ways of measuring SES have been proposed, but most include some quantification of family income, parental education, and occupational status. Research shows that SES is associated with a wide array of health, cognitive, and socioemotional outcomes in children, with effects beginning prior to birth and continuing into adulthood. A variety of mechanisms linking SES to child well being have been proposed, with most involving differences in access to material and social resources or reactions to stress-inducing conditions by both the children themselves and their parents. For children, SES impacts well being at multiple levels, including both family and neighborhood. Its effects are moderated by children's own characteristics, family characteristics, and external support systems.

Devi and Kiran (2002) found that there was close association between family factors and scholastic backwardness. 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.

Kaur and Kalaramma (2004) studied the interrelationships existing between home environment, social intelligence and socio-economic status (SES) across various age levels and two sexes. Results revealed that socio-economic status has got effect on social intelligence. Home environment also showed positive impact on social intelligence.

Finkenauer, Engels and Baumeister (2005) conducted a study cross-sectional data from 1359 boys and girls aged 10–14 years investigated whether parenting behaviours are directly or indirectly (through building self-control) associated with emotional (depression, stress, low self esteem) and behavioural (delinquency, aggression) problems among adolescents. Replicating existing findings, both types of problems were directly, negatively related to adaptive parenting behaviour (high parental acceptance, strict control and monitoring, and little use of manipulative psychological control). Extending existing findings, self-control partially mediated the link between parenting behaviour and adolescent emotional and behavioural problems. Contrary to earlier suggestions, there was no sign that high self-control was associated with drawbacks or increased risk of psychosocial problems.
Rani and Latha (2005) investigated 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. Boys and girls differed in perception of the home and environment.

Milevsky, Schlechter, Netter and Danielle Keehn (2006) examined the variations in adolescent adjustment as a function of maternal and paternal parenting styles. Participants included 272 students in grades 9 and 11 from a public high school in a metropolitan area of the Northeastern US. Participants completed measures of maternal and paternal parenting styles and indices of psychological adjustment. Authoritative mothering was found to relate to higher self esteem and life-satisfaction and to lower depression. Paternal parenting styles was also related to psychological adjustment, however, although the advantage of authoritative mothering over permissive mothering was evident for all outcomes assessed, for paternal styles the advantage was less defined and only evident for depression. The study also highlighted the importance of examining process-oriented agents as part of the broader interest in well being variations in adolescents.

According to Morris, Silk, Steinberg, Myers and Robinson (2007) family environment affects children's emotional intelligence in three aspects. Firstly children learn emotions by observing the people around them. Secondly their experiences and behaviours related to parent's emotions ensure children to become appropriate to society's expectations. Thirdly factors reflecting the emotional status of family such as the quality of emotional attachment between the child and the parents, attitude of parents, emotional and social openness, and marital relationship of parents have impacts on emotional intelligence. Therefore, the home environment is a most powerful informal learning situation in which the family, more especially parents, acts as educators.
Siwach nee Daulta (2008) studied the impact of home environment on the scholastic achievement of children and found 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 (2009) conducted that the gender differences in perceptions of home environment in a sample of 1011 Indian adolescents. The Home Environment Inventory (HEI) developed by Misra (1989) was used to measure adolescents' perceptions of home environment. The results of the study revealed significant gender differences in control, protectiveness, social isolation, reward, deprivation of privileges, rejection and permissiveness components of home environment. Male adolescents perceived their home environment to be significantly more controlled, socially isolated, deprived of certain privileges, rejected and permissive whereas females perceived their home environment to be more protective and rewarding than their male counterparts. The intervention strategies were also discussed to improve the home environment of adolescents for promoting their well being.

Walton and Takeuchi (2010) examined that how facets of family structure and processes are linked to self-rated health and psychological distress in a national sample of Asian Americans. The authors find little support for well-established theories predicting the effects of family structure. Marital status does not affect self-rated health and has limited effects on psychological distress. The only effects of family composition are evident among men and the U.S.-born, where the presence of extended family in the home is related to lower levels of psychological distress. The authors found important gender and nativity differences in the effects of family cohesion, which protected the physical and psychological well being of women and the U.S.-born but not men or foreign-born individuals. Findings suggested that the effects of family structure and processes on well being are not universal. Family studies among Asian Americans that do not account for gender and nativity differences may be overlooking underlying complexity.

Maganol and Gouws (2012) conducted an exploratory study on Black South African adolescents' academic self-concepts was undertaken in disadvantaged home environments where poverty, unemployment, single parenthood were prevalent. The
purpose of the study was to find out whether there is a relationship between the academic self-concept and a disadvantaged home environment. Quantitative and qualitative research methods were used in this study. A survey was done on 461 adolescents and concurrently twenty early and middle adolescents from disadvantaged home environments were purposely selected to participate in the qualitative part of the study. Findings indicated that a disadvantaged home environment does affect the academic self-concept of adolescents. Parental supervision does influence academic self-concept. Adolescents who stayed alone or with grandparent who were not supportive had a lower academic self-concept. An intervention model is proposed for educators working with adolescents in such environments.

Laxmi and Kadapatti (2012) examined that the adolescents' perceived mode of parenting styles and to find out its relationship if any on their interpersonal relationship. The specific objective of the study was to study the perceived mode of parenting style and to assess the kind of Interpersonal relationship of selected adolescent respondents. And to determine relationship between each perceived mode of parenting style and the kind of Interpersonal relationship of the respondents. A total of 200 adolescents (both boys and girls) in the age group 13-16 were considered for the study. Bhardwaj et al., Parenting Scale (1998) and Neera J.B Interpersonal Scale (2009) were used to elicit the information regarding trends in parenting styles and interpersonal relationship of adolescents. Student t test and Pearson test Co-efficient of correlation were used to analyse the data. The study concluded that boys and girls have different perception towards parenting styles and the difference between the gender was also statistically significant. Male and female respondents did not differ in their interpersonal relationship. The rejection Vs acceptance, neglect Vs Indulgence, faculty role Vs expectation, parenting style of both the parents were positively correlated to interpersonal relationship. The Pearson’s correlation for utopian Vs realism, freedom Vs discipline, parenting style of both the parents was negatively correlated to interpersonal relationship of the male and female respondents. There is no significant correlation between perceived mode of parenting styles and interpersonal relationship among the respondents.

Self Confidence

Self confidence relates to self assuredness in one’s personal judgement, ability, power, etc. It is a feeling or consciousness of one’s powers or of reliance on one’s circumstances, faith or belief that one will act in a right proper or effective way.
It refers to a person's perceived ability to tackle situations successfully and independently. A self confident person perceives himself to be socially competent, emotionally mature, intellectually adequate, successful, satisfied, decisive, optimistic, independent, self reliant, self assured, forward moving, fairly assertive and having leadership qualities.

Stolz (1999) studied the importance of self confidence in performance among students. The results showed that the students who received the negative encouragement and the poor grade on the questionnaire did more poorly than the students that received positive encouragement and good grades on the questionnaire. The results showed that there was a significant effect of self-confidence and self-efficacy in performance.

Neblett and Cortina (2006) examined the relation between adolescents' perception of their parents' jobs and their future orientation, and the role of parental support. 459 adolescents were surveyed about their parents, job rewards, self-direction, and stressors. Results suggested that higher levels of parental support may weaken the association between perceptions and future orientation when adolescents perceive their parents experiences unfavorable conditions at work.

Cheng and Furnham (2002) studied that peer relations, self confidence, and school performance correlated with self-rated happiness (OHI) and loneliness (UCLALS) in adolescents. Personality traits (EPQ), self confidence (PEI), friendship and school grades were all significantly oppositely correlated with happiness and loneliness. Regressional analysis revealed that extraversion and neuroticism were direct predictors of happiness and self-confidence, while psychoticism and extraversion were direct predictors of loneliness. The effect of sex on happiness and loneliness was moderated by friendship and neuroticism, and by neuroticism and psychoticism, respectively. Extraversion was also a significant predictor of general confidence and social interactions which directly influenced loneliness whilst psychoticism was a direct predictor of loneliness. Self-rated school performance was the only direct predictor of happiness whereas general confidence and social interactions were related to adolescents' self-reported loneliness.

Stepan (2009) examined the role of mothers' and fathers' internal working models of self and attachment in child loneliness, empathy, and self esteem in pre-
adolescence. The results showed that fathers', though not mothers, internal working models of self, accessed via self-reported self esteem, were significant predictors of child self esteem, empathy and loneliness in pre-adolescence. The results revealed robust and pervasive relations between indicators of fathers' internal working models of self and attachment and children's self esteem and loneliness and that many of these relations remained significant even when gender, stressful life events, and pubertal development were included in analyses. The findings showed that when fathers had more positive self-models, and more positive models of their attachment history and romantic attachment relationships, children had greater self esteem and were less lonely in pre-adolescence. The discussion focuses on the importance of fathers to child well being in pre-adolescence and the validity of self-report measures of attachment, and particularly of romantic attachment, in the context of intergenerational attachment studies.

Singh and Udainiya (2009) investigated the effects of type of family and gender on self efficacy and well-being of adolescents. Family is the source of support of any individual and one of the motivating factors for human being to grow and achieve. One hundred adolescents (50 boys and 50 girls) from joint and nuclear families were administrated the measures of self-efficacy and well being. Data were analyzed by ANOVA. Results revealed a significant effect of type of family and gender on self-efficacy. The interaction between type of family and gender was also found to be significant; however neither family type nor gender had significant effect on the measure of well being.

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 is 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 is 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 has implications for educationists and parents as well.
Fan and Williams (2010) examined whether various dimensions of parental involvement predicted 10th grade students’ motivation (engagement, self-efficacy towards maths and English, intrinsic motivation towards maths and English) using data from the Educational Longitudinal Study of 2002 (ELS 2002). Results showed that both parents’ educational aspiration for their children and school-initiated contact with parents on benign school issues had strong positive effects on all five motivational outcomes. On the contrary, parent–school contact concerning students’ school problems was negatively related to all five motivational outcomes investigated in the study. Additionally, parental advising positively predicted students’ academic self-efficacy in English as well as intrinsic motivation towards English, and family rules for watching television were positively linked to students’ engagement and intrinsic motivation towards both English and math.

Bhat and Aminabhavi (2011) studied that the impact of home environment on the psychosocial competence of adolescents. Data were collected from 100 adolescents studying in IX and X standards in English medium high schools of Dharwad. Home environment was assessed by using Mishra’s Home Environment Inventory (1989), psychosocial competence was measured using Dindigal and Aminabhavi’s Psychosocial Competence Scale (2007). Results revealed that adolescents with high control, social isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection at home have shown significantly lower problem solving, decision making, coping with emotion, coping with stress and overall psychosocial competence. Children with high protectiveness, punishment, conformity, reward, nurturance and permissiveness have better empathy, critical thinking, empathy, self-awareness, coping with stress, interpersonal relations and effective communication as well as overall psychosocial competence. Findings of the study reveal the significance of home environment in the development of life skills.

Sharma and Bandhana (2012) examined that the main and interactional effect of emotional intelligence, home environment and sex on the problem solving ability of adolescents. A random sample of 1007 adolescents (502 male and 505 females) was selected from government and private higher secondary schools of Jammu City. Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory by S. K. Mangal and Shubra Mangal, Home Environment Inventory by Karuna Misra and Self-concept by S. P. Ahluwalia were
used to collect the data. The data was analyzed by using three-way analysis of variance technique (ANOVA). The results revealed that emotional intelligence and home environment has a significant impact on self-concept.

Children and adolescents benefit from good relationships, experience, and positive thinking. Children need to know that they are important. When they feel accepted and loved by important people in their lives, they feel comfortable, safe and secure. It is necessary to build a child’s self confidence that would help him in developing self esteem in him.

Self Esteem

Self esteem is the reflection of a person’s overall evaluation or appraisal of his or her own worth. Self esteem encompasses beliefs and emotions such as triumph, despair, pride and shame. The self concept is what one thinks about the self; self esteem, the positive or negative evaluation of the self, is how one feels about it. Self esteem is related to an individual’s perception of their value or worth as a person.

Lanz, Lafrate, Rosnati and Scabini (2002) studied that there are some differences in parent–child communication and in adolescent self esteem among adoptive, separated and intact non-adoptive families and to investigate the extent to which parent–child communication is related to adolescent self-esteem in the three types of families. The study sample was composed of 450 adolescents aged between 11 and 17 years (160 from intact non-adoptive families, 140 from separated or divorced families and 150 from intercountry adoptive families). Subjects completed the Parent–Adolescent Communication Scale by Barnes and Olson, Rosenberg self esteem Scale and some socio-demographic items. The results showed that adolescents from separated families have more difficulties in their relationships with both the mother and the father than their peers, and that adoptive children perceive a more positive communication with their parents than biological children. Moreover, adoptees showed lower self esteem than the other two groups of adolescents. Lastly, it emerged that male and female adolescents' self esteem was related to positive communication with both parents in intact non-adoptive families, while no link was significant for male and female children of divorced parents or for adoptees.

Macuka, Prtotic and Soric (2004) examined that the contribution of the parent-child relationship quality to the level of child’s self esteem. The research was
conducted on the sample of 127 subjects, 72 boys and 55 girls (enrolled in seventh grade of primary school). All subjects completed the questionnaires for assessment of different aspects of family relations and the Coppersmith’s Scale of General self esteem. The results of researches showed differences between boys and girls in assessment of the perceived father control: boys showed a significant tendency to have a higher rate of the perception of father control. All the variables that represent family relations in this research were significantly correlated with the overall general adolescent’s self esteem. Significant correlation coefficients were found between self esteem and school achievements. Amongst all family variables, the best predictors of high self esteem are family satisfaction and positive emotional relationship with their fathers in girls sample, and school success, family cohesiveness and a low level of father control in boys sample. The results showed a considerable contribution of different aspects of family functioning to the development of a positive self-image in the period of early adolescence. However, it is important to state that different relations within a family have different effects to boys and girls.

Rattan, Kang, Thakur and Parthi (2006) examined that the current society emphasizes physical appearance and physical fitness. Individual’s self-esteem has been shown to be linked with physical appearance. A random sample comprising of 100 male and 100 female (N=200) adolescents was selected. The subjects were administered the Current Thoughts Scale and the Dieting Beliefs Scale for assessing their state self esteem and their weight locus of control. Boys had significantly higher appearance self esteem than girls, while girls had significantly higher dieting belief in comparison to boys. Performance self esteem was positively and significantly correlated with social self esteem and appearance self esteem in the total sample, and the sub-samples comprising of boys and girls.

Chang (2007) studied that adolescence can be a time when teens attempt to reconcile their own desires and needs with the wishes of their parents. While some adolescents get through this period of time e without many problems, others tend to experience many negative effects. It is possible that the parent’s role in the relationship may play a part in the development of teenager’s self esteem and self-satisfaction. Cultural values such as the Asian American emphasis s on interdependence and family harmony may influence the type of parenting style these parents may choose to adopt. A study was performed with 156 teenagers from central New Jersey to determine the effects of parenting styles on teenagers’ self esteem and
overall satisfaction with their parents and themselves. Results indicated that there were no significant differences between race and authoritative parenting style, however, significant differences were found in that Asian American parents tended to be more authoritarian than their Caucasian counterparts. Furthermore, authoritative parenting was found to be associated with higher self esteem and satisfaction. Findings from the study are discussed in terms of the impact of cultural expectations on adolescents’ satisfaction with self and with their parents.

Martínez and García (2007) examined that the relationship of parenting styles with adolescents’ outcomes was analyzed within a sample of Spanish adolescents. A sample of 1456 teenagers from 13 to 16 years of age, of whom 54.3% were females, reported on their parents’ child-rearing practices. The teenagers’ parents were classified into one of four groups (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, or neglectful). The adolescents were then contrasted on two different outcomes: (1) priority given to Schwartz’s self-transcendence (universalism and benevolence) and conservation (security, conformity, and tradition) values and (2) level of self-esteem (appraised in five domains: academic, social, emotional, family and physical). 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 obtained 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, assign the lowest priority to all of these values.

Huang, Norman, Zabinski, Calfas and Patrick (2007) studied the body image and self-esteem among adolescents undergoing an intervention targeting dietary and physical activity behaviors. They focused to determine the effect of a one-year intervention targeting physical activity, sedentary and diet behaviors among adolescents on self-reported body image and self esteem. Adverse effects on body satisfaction and self esteem were not observed among adolescents undergoing this behavioral intervention. These results suggested that a behavioral intervention directed at improving physical activity and diet habits may be safely undertaken by
adolescents, including those who are at risk for overweight with and without adverse psychological consequences. Inclusion of specific elements in the intervention that directly addressed body image and self esteem issues may have reduced the risk for negative psychological effects.

Martinez, Garcia and Yubero (2007) explored the relationship between parenting styles and self esteem among 1239, 11- to 15-yr.-old Brazilian adolescents (54% girls; M age = 13.4 yr., S!D= 1.4). Teenagers' families were classified into 1 of 4 groups (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, or Neglectful) based on adolescents' answers to the ESPA29 Parental Socialization Scale. Participants completed the AF5 Multidimensional Self Esteem Scale which appraises five dimensions: Academic, Social, Emotional, Family, and Physical. Analyses showed that Brazilian adolescents from indulgent families scored equal (Academic and Social) or higher (Family) in self esteem than adolescents from authoritative families. Adolescents from indulgent families scored higher than adolescents from authoritarian and neglectful families in four self esteem dimensions, academic, social, family, and physical. Adolescents from authoritative families scored higher than adolescents from authoritarian and neglectful families in three self esteem dimensions, academic, social, and family. These results suggest that authoritative parenting is not associated with optimum self esteem in Brazil.

Morgan and Brodie-Walker (2008) evaluated the impact of a distressed environment on self esteem in Jamaican adolescent girls and to assess the impact of behavioural patterns on self esteem. Participants were African-Jamaicans ages 13-17 years from a Place of Safety (experimental group) and local high schools (control group). All participants completed the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES) while the experimental group also completed the Child Behaviour Checklist (CBCL). Participants in the experimental group were classified as either internalizers (depressed, anxious and somatizing), externalizers (exhibiting aggressive, disruptive behaviours), both (externalizers and internalizers) or other (reporting no or very few symptoms). It was hypothesized that the participants residing in the Place of Safety would report lower levels of self esteem in comparison to the control group. Secondly, the 'both' group would report lower levels of self esteem than any other group. Results indicated no differences in self esteem scores; however, statistical significance was found between 'externalizers' and 'both' groups (p = 0.006). This
study challenges the assumptions of self esteem and its relationship to behavioural and emotional problems.

Mahmoudi (2012) studied adjustment, type of family environment and self esteem among adolescence. A total of 560 adolescent students studying in Mysore and Yasouj cities were randomly selected. The sample consisted of 560 Students of standard IX (310 Students from Mysore city and 250 Students from Yasouj city). Findings of this study revealed that Indian and Iranian students differed significantly in all areas of adjustment. But with respect to health and emotional adjustment, Indian students were better adjusted, than their counter parts at Iran and in cases of social and home adjustment, Iranian students were better adjusted than Indian students. With respect to self esteem, Indian students have significantly higher self esteem scores in all the components except for lie self esteem than their Iranian counter parts. On the whole, Indian students had significantly better family environment than Iranian students. The interaction effect of self esteem and family environment for various adjustments were found to be not-significant for among Indian and Iranian samples.

Well Being

General well being refers to harmonious functioning of physical as well as psychological aspects of personality, giving satisfaction to the self and benefits to the society. It is highly related with contentment, happiness and satisfaction with life's experiences. Well being as a person's evaluative reactions to his or her life either in terms of cognitive evaluations (satisfaction) or in emotional reactions (affect). The cognitive element refers to what one thinks about his or her life satisfaction in global terms (life as a whole) and in domain terms (in specific areas of life such as work, family, relationships, etc). The affective element refers to emotions, moods and feelings (positive as well as negative). People experience abundant psychological well being when they feel many pleasant and few unpleasant emotions, when they are engaged in interesting activities and when they are satisfied with their lives.

Lam and Manning (2001) studied that as children are spending more of lives in cohabiting parent families; it has become increasingly important to understand the implications of cohabitation for children's well being. National longitudinal study of adolescent health was used to determine whether adolescents in cohabiting parent stepfamilies fare as well as adolescents were living in married parent stepfamilies and whether teens in unmarried mother cohabiting families fare better or worse than
children living with unmarried single mothers. Adolescents living in cohabiting stepfamilies experience greater disadvantage than their peers living in married stepfamilies. Some of these differences in family structure can be explained by socioeconomic circumstances, but the effects of family structure on delinquency and PPVT cannot be explained by these factors. Generally, it was found that teens living with unmarried mothers are not advantaged or disadvantaged by their mother's cohabitation, exceptions include delinquency and grades. Yet, all of these family structure differences among children living in unmarried mother families can be explained by mother's marital history. These results have implications for the understanding of cohabitation, a family form that has received limited attention. Moreover, these findings may contribute to debates about the importance of marriage for children.

Callahan, Tolman and Saunders (2003) examined that the relationship between adolescents' dating violence victimization and their psychological well being. The participants were 190 high school students, ages 13 to 19 years, with just over half being boys (53%) and the remainder being girls (47%). Data were collected using self-administered questionnaires. For girls, increasing levels of dating violence (severity, frequency, injury) were related to higher levels of posttraumatic stress and dissociation, even after controlling for demographic, family violence, and social desirability variables. For boys, the levels of victimization were related to higher levels of anxiety, depression, and posttraumatic stress, even after controlling for other variables. For both boys and girls, victimization was related to lower levels of life satisfaction, but not after controlling for the demographic, family violence, and social desirability variables. The research questions and findings are discussed in relation to the developmental challenges faced by adolescents.

Tisdale and Pitt-Catsuphes (2004) conducted that the relationships between middle school-aged children's perceptions of their social environments (home, school, neighborhood, and parental work) with self-reports of well being. In the present study, well being was defined by measures of physical health and psychological happiness. Data from the Nurturing Families Study were collected during in-person interviews with adolescents in dual-earner and single working parent families. Adolescents' subjective assessments were analyzed through two hierarchical regression models: mothers' (N = 149) and fathers' (N = 150). Findings suggested that child gender, perceptions of the school environment and parents coming home from work in a good
mood significantly predict the variability in adolescent self-reports of well being. The school environment was found to have the strongest predictive power over variations in adolescents' well being. Implications for practice and research, including improving supports within schools and focusing more attention on parental mood after work, are discussed.

Karatzias, Chouliara, Power and Swanson (2006) studied that the association between the personalities constructs of self esteem/affectivity and General Well Being (GWB) in Scottish adolescents. A total of 425 secondary school pupils completed the P.G.I. General Well Being Scale, the Hare Self Esteem Scale (HSES) and the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS). Combined self esteem, positive and negative affectivity, age and gender accounted for 49.7% of the total GWB variance, 24.9% of the physical well being variance, 41.6% of the mood/affect well being variance, 33.3% of the anxiety well being variance and 44.3% of the self/others well being variance. Home self esteem was found the strongest predictor of mood/affect and self/others well being domains as well as well being total. It was also the second best predictor of anxiety well being domain. School self esteem was the strongest predictor of physical well being, whereas negative affectivity was the strongest predictor of anxiety well being domain. However age and gender were not significantly associated with GWB, total or domain specific. The study also provided evidence regarding the high association between GWB and personality factors in adult and adolescent populations.

Sarkova, Bacikova-Sleskova, Geckova, Orosova, Katrenikova, Heuvel and Dijk (2006) conducted a study to (1) an association between pupil peer relationships and psychological well being and self esteem, (2) an association between pupil-teacher relationships and psychological well being and self esteem, and whether (3) this association varies according to pupils' experience of bullying or being bullied. In 2006, in a sample of 3694 elementary school students in Slovakia (mean age 14.3 years, SD 0.62; 51% girls) psychological well being was measured using the GHQ-12 (depression/anxiety and social dysfunction) and self esteem using the RSE (positive and negative self esteem). Also, the pupil-peer, pupil-teacher relationship and bullying was measured in this study. Linear regression was used to analyse the data. Better pupil-peer relationships and also pupil-teacher relationships are significantly associated statistically with less depression/anxiety and social dysfunction (GHQ-12) as well as with more positive and less negative self esteem.
All bullying-categories were significantly associated with pupil-peer relationships and the four dependent variables. However, in the categories of aggressive victims and aggressive non-victims, the pupil-teacher relationship is not significantly associated with their psychological well being and self esteem. Also, in all Subgroups better pupil-peer relationships were significantly associated with less depression/anxiety and social dysfunction as well as with more positive and less negative self esteem.

Ciarrochi, Heaven and Davies (2007) examined the distinctiveness of three "positive thinking" variables (self esteem, trait hope, and positive attribution style) in predicting future high school grades, teacher-rated adjustment, and students' reports of their affective states. Seven hundred eighty-four high school students (382 males and 394 females; 8 did not indicate their gender) completed Time 1 measures of verbal and numerical ability, positive thinking, and indices of emotional well being (positive affect, sadness, fear, and hostility), and Time 2 measures of hope, self esteem, and emotional well being. Multi-level random coefficient modeling revealed that each positive thinking variable was distinctive in some contexts but not others. Hope was a predictor of positive affect and the best predictor of grades, negative attributional style was the best predictor of increases in hostility and fear, and low self esteem was the best predictor of increases in sadness. It was also found that sadness at Time 1 predicted decreases in self esteem at Time 2. The results are discussed with reference to the importance of positive thinking for building resilience.

Driscoll, Russell and Crockett (2008) studied that generational patterns of parenting styles, the relationships between parenting styles and adolescent well being among youth of Mexican origin, and the role of generational parenting style patterns in explaining generational patterns in youth behaviour (delinquency and alcohol problems) and psychological well being (depression and self esteem). This study uses two waves of data from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (Add Health). The proportion of teens with permissive parents increased with generation; other parenting styles declined. The rate of youth with behavioural problems increased with generation. Self esteem improved with generation; depression scores did not. Bivariate generational patterns of behavioural and psychological outcomes are a function of the patterns seen for youth with permissive parents, coupled with the increase in the proportion of permissive parents with each successive generation. In
contrast, these outcomes did not worsen with generation for youth with authoritative parents.

Farokhzad (2009) studied the perceived family environment and positive mental states viz. happiness, optimism and hope among the adolescents of two different cultures, Iran and India. The total sample comprised 400 adolescents aged 16-19 from Iran and India; Out of which, half were males and half were females. Family environment scale, The Oxford Happiness Questionnaire, Adult Trait Hope Scale, and The Life Orientation Test were performed and raw scores were subjected for various statistical analyses viz. Results clearly show that the family environment dimensions viz. relationship, personal growth (Goal Oriented), and system maintenance, are correlated with positive mental states viz. happiness, optimism and hope among the adolescents of the two above-mentioned cultures. It was also shown that there are cultural and gender differences among the studied variables.

Deepshikha and Bhanot (2010) assessed that 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.

Perez (2012) aimed to determine gender differences in various aspects of psychological well being among Filipino college students. A total of 588 college students from various schools in the Philippines participated in this project (males=110; females = 478). The participants completed eight scales measuring different aspects of psychological well-being. Gender differences were found in terms of daily spiritual experience, father relationship, peer relationship, autonomy, positive relations with others, and purpose in life. No gender differences were found in the aspects of positive affect, negative affect, mother relationship, teacher relationship, environmental mastery, personal growth, and self-acceptance.

Keeping in view the above literature one may now proceed towards the problem and hypotheses.