Chapter 2

Review of Literature

2.1 Home environment

2.2 Ego-strength

2.3 Self-disclosure
Chapter 2

Review of Literature

The review of literature in research provides one with the means of getting to the frontiers in a particular field

Borge .(1964)

Existing related literature provides a picture reflecting on adolescents’ home-environment, self-disclosure and ego-strength in different religion settings in relation to their gender. The reviews of related literature pertaining to the variable, under investigation are as follows

2.1 Home environment

Home environment is the quality and quantity of the cognitive, emotional and social support that has been available to the child within the home and connotes the psychological environment of home. The total home environment refers to both positive and negative conditions which interact with each other, either favourably or unfavourably, to determine home environment to be ‘better’ or ‘poor’. Home environment refers to aspects of people’s domestic lives that contribute to their living conditions. The literature regarding home environment relation to religious, gender, ego strength and self-disclosure reviewed in this study are as follows-
J. Patchaivaziamman and S. Krishnamurthy (2011) explored the relative relevance of Home environment of B.Ed trainee of Union Territory of Pondicherry. The sample consisted of 805 trainees and the investigator adopted the survey method. The finding reveals that there is significant difference between male and female in their nature of Home environment.

Deepshikha and Suman Bhanot (2011) conducted study at Kumarganj, Faizabad District of Eastern Uttar Pradesh. They studied on family environment of adolescent girls and its impact on their social and 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.

Anita Bhat and Vijayalaxmi Aminabhavi (2011) studied 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.

Kaur, Jagpreet (2009) studied male and female differences in their perceptions of home environment among school adolescents. A sample was selected from eleventh grade from different districts of Punjab. Total 448 male and 563 female were taken as a sample and administered on Home Environment Inventory (HEI) developed by Misra (1989). Results revealed that male adolescents perceive their home climate more controlled, autocratic, deprived, rejecting and authoritarian and permissive as compared to their female counterparts. Female adolescents perceive their parents to be more protective and preventive of independent behaviour. Male adolescents feel themselves to be significantly more socially isolated whereas female adolescents perceive their parents to be more rewarding. They observed no significant gender differences in perceptions of home environment components of punishment, conformity and nurturance among adolescents.

Sunitha N.H. and PushpaKhadi (2005) study on “Academic learning environment of students from aided and unaided coeducational high schools” The study was conducted at Dharwad, Karnataka in 2004-05. Total 240 high school children with age range of 12-16 years from different co-educational high schools were selected. Home environment schedules was used to collect the data. In result they found no difference between boys and girls in home learning environment.
Hindin (2005) found in his study that boys getting authoritative environment by their mothers attained more grades as compared to those who getting neglectful environment from mothers in their home.

Kaur and Kalaramna (2004) studied the interrelationships existing between home environment, social intelligence and socio-economic status (SES) across various age levels and gender. Results revealed that socio-economic status as well as home environment is significant influence on social intelligence. Home environment also showed positive impact on social intelligence.

Vialle et al. (2004) found in their study that females perceive their mothers to be more authoritative in their home. Female reported that their although mothers set clear boundaries and expectations of behaviour at home and discuss rules and decisions with them rather than imposing rules in a dictatorial manner.

Goel (2004) investigated the effect of home environment on educational aspirations of adolescents. Total 100 students (50 boys and 50 girls) of intermediate classes in age range of 16-20 years were comprised under this study. Mishra’s Home Environment Inventory (HEI) and Sharma’s Educational Aspiration Scale (EAS) were used to collect the data. The results revealed that girls had much higher educational aspiration than boys. They also reported that boys getting rejected environment with the autocratic atmosphere at home in comparison to girls whereas girls experienced more nurturance climate at home than boys. Overall they concluded that home learning environment has a significant effect on the academic achievement of the students.
In study of Frank J Elgar, Christine Arlett and Renee Grove's (2003) in habitance differences were studied in stress (life events, daily hassles and conflict), coping and behavioural problems in a community sample of adolescents. Not standing challenging socioeconomic conditions in rural areas, levels of stress and ways of coping were found to be similar in rural and urban adolescents. Apart from this urban males reported more conflict and also showing more externalizing behaviours than females and rural males. They also reported interrelation between stress, coping, and behavioural problems. To conclude coping strategies said to be significant in terms of behavioural outcomes.

Chris Stewart and John M. Bolland (2002) examined the potential relationship of religion and parenting style as protective factors in the prevention of adolescent substance abuse in African-American communities. Total 2,317 adolescents, living in metropolitan city of low-income areas were surveyed. Results provide support for the mediating effect of the parental style variables between religion and substance use.

Smith and Forehand (1986) found that females differed significantly from males on 4 of 10 family environment subscales of Moos and Moos.

Cubis et al. (1989) reported in their study that at home compare to boy, girl perceive their fathers as more personally intrusive and their mothers as less socially controlling and much more caring.

Rani (1998) revealed after her study that children those getting favourable environment at homes possess more warm-hearted, outgoing and socially intelligent characteristics in their personality than those getting unfavourable homes.
Shek (1997) reported in his study that family factors play a significant role for positive mental health of Chinese adolescents.

2.2 Ego strength

Ego-strength concept has a long history in the field of psychology which was traced back to the development of Sigmund Freud’s three-tiered view of personality in terms of id, ego, and super-ego. Ego-strength is the individual's capacity to hold on to his own identity despite distress, turmoil and conflict between opposing internal forces as well as the demands of reality (Brown et al., 1979). In general ego-strength is the ability to accept what is as existing and to then use our cognitive-behavioral, emotional and relational skills to deal with such.

Dr. Rambir Sharma (2012) explored the relationship between mal adjustment and ego strength among college going students and also studied the difference between male and female college going students with regard to their adjustment and ego-strength. 60 students (30 boys +30 girls) were purposively selected in the study Ego-Strength scale developed by Dr. Q. Hassan and BELL'S Adjustment Inventory developed by Dr. R.K. Ojha were used to collect the data. The findings of the study reveal that although college-going students face few problems regarding their adjustment in college environment. They also revealed that there was no significant difference between male and female students regarding their Ego strength.

Rhonda M. Laurencelle, Steven C. Abell & David J. Schwartz (2002) investigated the relationship between religious devotion and psychological well-being among adult. Results revealed that high faith in religious negatively correlated with anxiety and
depression and character pathology and positively correlated with ego strength. In addition average correlations were found between religious faith and well-being.

Carol A. Markstrom, Xiaoming Li, Shana L. Blackshire and Juanita J. Wilfong (2005) investigated the role of ego strengths in relation to adolescent involvement in adult-sponsored structured youth activities. 517 high school students were comprised under sample. In result they revealed that extracurricular activities were related to several of the ego strengths, whereas religious involvement was not related to the ego strengths. In analysis, they reported that ego strength predicted extracurricular activities among adolescents but not long lasting.

Gerald R. Adams, Bruce A. Ryan and Leo Keating (2000) assessed re of family and university environments on identity formation and ego strength. 294 university students were taken part in this study. Expressiveness and cohesion in the family, intellectual and supportive activity in academic departments, frequency of critical and analytic teaching in courses, and measures of avoidance decision making, dialectic thinking, identity diffusion and identity achievement, and the ego strength of fidelity were measured through mail survey. A bit developmental changes were observed in all measures across the 2 years. Intellectual and supportive academic departments and democratic family life was found to be significant predictor of ego strength.

Berit Hagekull and Gunilla Bohlin (1995) investigated effects of day care quality and effects due to interactions between such quality and the background characteristics of SES, home environment quality, gender, and infant manageability on social and emotional development of child. Social and emotional development was studied both in terms of externalizing and internalizing, positive emotional expressions and ego strength/effectance. The results revealed a main effect of day care quality on
emotional expressions in positive manner and also revealed high-quality care significantly affect externalizing behaviours of children for those getting less advantaged homes as well as positive effects on boys' internalizing problems and ego strength.

Stephen F. Davis, Sarah A. Bremer, Brenda J. Anderson & James L. Tramill (1983) investigated the interrelationships of ego strength, death anxiety and self-esteem. Total 79 male and female undergraduate university students were comprised under sample. The outcome measures were Barron Ego Strength Scale, Death Anxiety Scale and Texas Social Behavior Inventory. In result significant negative relationships between death anxiety and self-esteem and ego strength, and a significant positive relationship between self-esteem and ego strength were shown by both males and females. Further males were observed significantly higher self-esteem and ego strength and significantly lower death anxiety than females.

Padma Agrawal (1978) investigated self-image, ego strength, self-esteem, or level of psychological well-being of a normal adolescent group of Indians and to compare these aspects with youth of three other countries namely American, Irish, and Australian. Total 400 boys and 400 girls with ages 14 to 18, of middle class socioeconomic status from high school were included in sample. On the basis of obtained result they concluded that American and Australian adolescents possess higher self-esteem or ego strength than Indian and Irish adolescents.

K. Barton, T. E. Dielman & R. B. Cattell (1977) reported in their study that personality of children including ego-strength could be significantly predicted from the child-rearing practices at home.
Ralph W. Hood (1974) reported significant negative correlation between intense religious experience and Barron's (1953) measure of ego-strength although this correlation was found to be reduced to insignificance when the religion subscale was removed from Barron's total Ego-Strength Scale.

In study of Stark's (1971) intense religious experience was found to be more frequent among persons classified as low on Index of Psychic Inadequacy than among persons classified as high.

2.3. Self-disclosure

Self-disclosure is an interaction between individuals to deliberately divulge something personal to each another. According to Jourard and Jaffee (1970), Self disclosure is the act of revealing personal information to others.

Elegbeleye O. S., Taiwo M. O., Omole O. E., Adebusuyi A. S. and Atiri S. O. (2013) investigated the correlation between self-disclosure attributes (breadth and depth) and interpersonal dispositions among adolescents. 200 male and female adolescents were purposively selected from Osun, Oyo, Lagos and FCT in Nigeria. Findings revealed the significant correlation between the self-disclosure attribute and interpersonal disposition of the participants (r = 0.056). Male and female adolescents showed significantly high readiness to self-disclose and be involved in interpersonal relationship. Further they revealed that male adolescents displayed higher degree of willingness to self-disclose than their female counterparts. They finally revealed that self-disclosure is significant to foster healthy interpersonal attributes among adolescents.
Sweta Pathak (2012) examined the relationship between parental monitoring and self-disclosure of adolescents. The findings revealed that well-monitored youths are less involved in delinquency and other norm breaking behaviours. New advancements in technology, mass media and internet have increased the challenges of effective parental monitoring. They reported significance of self-disclosure. It was found that deliberate disclosure from child enables parents to know more about him/her and also helps to build positive atmosphere of trust and honesty towards each other at home.

Demographic and Religious Differences in the Dimensions of Self-Disclosure Among Hindus and Muslims in India were studied by Stephen M. Croucher, Sandra L. Faulkner, Deepa Oommen, Bridget Long (2010). Results indicated that across religions, women disclosed more than men. Comparisons based on religious identification and state of birth revealed significant differences between Hindus and Muslims and between states of birth on self-disclosure. They revealed predictive power of religious identification and state of birth vary dependent upon the dimensions of self-disclosure.

Cho (2006) studied self-disclosure between men and women and reported that males were more likely to disclose personal information in communication than in online chatting, while females express their feelings or personal information honestly and accurately without a difference between online and FTF communication.

Byers and Demmons (1999) found females disclosing more than males about all issues.
According to Pearson (1981), found that males self-disclosed more in big groups than they did in small-group settings, and females self-disclosed more in a small-group setting.

Collins and Miller (1994), studied male and female differences in self-disclosure preferences and found that men and women do not differ in their tendency to disclose to people they like.

Sine (1998) found that students who benefited from authoritative parenting style far and above those with authoritarian and permissive background exhibit a high degree of warmth, are able to regulate their emotions, develop trust in others and in themselves. The attribute of authoritative parenting mentioned above provide the building block for self-disclosure in an interpersonal relationship.

Meeks (1996) found that females tended to disclose significantly more than males.

Vera (1990), Vera and Betz (1992) found that female possess significantly higher levels of emotional self-disclosure than male. They also revealed self-disclosure as a significant predictor of relationship satisfaction for males but not for female.

Dindia and Allen (1992) performed a meta-analysis of 205 studies to determine whether there are sex differences in self-disclosure. When the target had a relationship with the discloser (i.e., friend, parent, or spouse), women disclosed more than men regardless of whether self-disclosure was measured by self-report or observation. When the target was a stranger, men reported that they disclosed similarly to women; however, studies using observational measures of self-disclosure found that women disclosed more than men.
**Garcia and Geisler (1988)** investigated gender differences in self-disclosure of male and female to each of four targets, namely mother, father, best female friend, and best male friend. No differences between males and females were found which leads them to the conclusion that adolescents were more homogeneous than adults in their disclosure patterns. In addition male and female adolescents' means for levels of disclosure to mothers and best female friends were found to be higher than those for fathers and best male friends, which indicating a preference for female targets of disclosure. They further reported that female peers may be perceived by adolescents as being more empathic relating to, or characterized by empathy, and understanding than are other target persons, particularly males.

**Millar and Millar (1988)** reported gender differences in self-disclosure and revealed that females disclose more and different things than males.

**Sprecher (1987)** revealed in his study that women and men both self-disclosed an overall great amount to their partner with women disclosing significantly more on eight topic areas of self-disclosure. For example, females disclosed significantly more than men on: “Things liked least about partner,” “Previous opposite-sex relationships,” “Feelings towards closest same-sex friends,” and “Things in life most afraid of.” The only thing that men disclosed more than women (the difference was not significant) was “Things about myself I am most proud of”.

**Rubin et al. (1980)** found a pattern among college students of significant gender differences on gender role expectations. To elaborate males were more likely to disclose about their political views, a traditionally masculine domain, and females were more likely to reveal in detail their feelings toward other people, which is traditionally a feminine concern. Male and female differences were found in particular
topic areas of self-disclosure. Women disclosed more than men on, “My feeling toward my parents,” “My feelings toward my closest friends of my own sex,” “My feelings about my classes or my work,” “The things in life that I am most afraid of,” and “My accomplishments at school or work.” Men disclosed more than women on, “My political views,” “The things about myself that I am most proud of,” and “The things I like most about (my partner).”

Baumrind (1985) reported that parenting style which influence home environment are the important hence it has been implicated to have a great impact on the self-disclosure attributes of children.

W. H. Rivenbark (1971) investigated self-disclosure behaviour of pre and post adolescents. Student from 4 to 12 standards were administered on Jourard's self-disclosure questionnaire. It was found that girls disclose more than boys, disclosure to peer targets increases with age, mothers are favoured over fathers as disclosure targets, and same-sex peers are disclosed to more than those of the opposite sex. Disclosure difference between boys and girls was found to be increased with age only for disclosure to parents.