CHAPTER VI
DISCUSSION

For the sake of convenience of presentation, this chapter has been divided into three sections. The first is the main findings of the research study, which is followed by the section on hypotheses based discussion and finally the summary and conclusion.

Section I: Main findings of the present study

The main findings of the present investigation with regard to self-concept, adjustment, social competence and achievement motivation are highlighted as herein under appearing:

Self-Concept:

✓ Students living with guardians had significantly higher scores than students living with parents.
✓ Male students had significantly higher self-concept than female students.
✓ As the year of study increased, the level of the self-concept also increased significantly and linearly.
✓ Age of the students had a direct relationship with self-concept, as the age increased, the self-concept of the students also increased.
✓ SES, Area of domicile and Streams of Study Course did not influence self-concept of the students.
Adjustment:

✓ Students living with guardians were found to be better adjusted than students living with parents.

✓ Male students were significantly better adjusted than female students.

✓ As the year of study increased, the students were better and significantly adjusted.

✓ Age of the students had a direct relationship with adjustment; as the age increased, the adjustment of the students also increased.

✓ Students from urban area were better adjusted than students from rural area.

✓ SES and Streams of Study Course did not have any influence on the adjustment of the student, hence, adjustment of the students was found to be independent of SES and Streams of Study Course.

Social Competence:

✓ Students living with guardians had higher social competence scores than those students living with parents.

✓ All the remaining factors like SES, streams of study course, year of study and age of the students did not influence their social competence.

Achievement Motivation:

✓ Male students had significantly higher achievement motivation compared to female students.

✓ Students from urban area had significantly higher achievement motivation than students from rural area.
✓ As the year of study increased, the level of achievement motivation of the students also increased linearly.

✓ Age of the students had direct relationship with achievement motivation; as the age of the students increased, the level of achievement motivation also increased linearly.

✓ SES and streams of study course did not influence the achievement motivation of the students living either under parents or guardians.

❖ Achievement motivation was related positively and significantly to self-concept, adjustment and social competence, so also adjustment and self-concept were significantly and positively related.

In summary, students living under guardians were found to have higher self-concept, better adjustment and higher social competency. Gender-wise comparison revealed that male students had significantly higher self-concept, better adjustment and higher achievement motivation. Urban area students had better adjustment, higher social competency and higher achievement motivation. The year of study and age of the students had direct influence on all the parameters except for social competence; as the said parameters increased, self-concept, adjustment and achievement motivation also increased. Lastly, SES and streams of study course did not have influence on self-concept, adjustment, social competency and achievement motivation.
Section-II: Hypotheses related discussion

Hypotheses developed for the research study have to be tested and proved. Six hypotheses were formulated for the present study and verification of the each of the hypothesis is given below:

**H1:** Students living under parents and guardians do not differ significantly in their self-concept scores with respect to the following variables.

- **H1a:** Gender (male and female).
- **H1b:** Socio-economic status (Low, Medium and High).
- **H1c:** Area of domicile (Urban and Rural).
- **H1d:** Streams of study course (Arts, Science and Commerce).
- **H1e:** Year of the study (I, II and III).
- **H1f:** Age (below and above 19).

H1 is rejected, as there was a significant difference between students living under parents and guardians and it was further noted that students living under guardians had significantly higher self-concept than students living under parents.

Though there are no direct studies related to self-concept of students living under guardians, some of the other studies related to self-concept and parental care are summarized below. Leflore (1988) found that delinquent adolescents often come from families with low levels of emotional expressiveness, little positive communication and with a lack of help or support from family members. West (1981) observed, from his study, that parents whose verbal interactions consist
mainly of guilt inducement, harsh criticism or intrusive questions and commands are fostering low self-esteem, negative attitudes and poor social competence in their children. Kelly and Goodwin (1983) observed that parenting style lay the groundwork for positive family relationship through adolescence. When parents have occasion to exercise power, adolescents who have been raised in a democratic environment, react more positively than those raised by authoritarian or permissive parents. Belsky, Lerner and Spanier (1984) found that mature well-adjusted parents are more likely to react with sensitivity and nurturance to their children’s signals and needs than immature and maladjusted parents; and that this kind of parenting promotes emotional security, independence, social competence and intellectual achievement.

Based on their study, Applegate, Burke, Burteson, Delia and Kline (1983) concluded that the social orientations of parents – their general conceptions of others – also affected their interactions with their children. Parents who stress psychological characteristics, motives and feelings – in contrast to those who think primarily in terms of concrete features such as physical appearance, occupation, or position in society – tend to use person-centered disciplinary techniques. Observations show that when they call their children’s attention to the feelings and motives of others and encourage them to reflect upon their own behaviour and emotions, it contributes to the development of the child’s understanding, sense of personal responsibility and autonomy. Cooper, Grotevant and Condon (1983) and Marcia (1980), in their studies on family interactions, found that an adolescent’s freedom to explore a variety of possibilities in pursuit of an individual identity is
significantly influenced by relationships within the family. West (1981) suggested that parents whose verbal interactions consist mainly of guilt inducement, harsh criticism, or intrusive questions and commands are fostering low self-esteem etc. Robinson (1995) observed that both parental and peer support are related to the adolescents' general self-worth.

Cooper et al. (1983) found that adolescents who scored high on a measure of identity exploration were more likely to come from families in which self-assertion and freedom to disagree (separateness) were encouraged along with "connectedness" to the family, including openness or responsiveness to the views of others (plurality) and sensitivity to and respect for the ideas of others (mutuality). In contrast, adolescents who scored lower in identity exploration were more likely to come from families in which individuality was not encouraged and mutual support and agreement were emphasized, whereas O'Koon (1997) found that strong attachment to parents is closely related to the development of positive self-image. O'Koon also found that those adolescents who had strong attachments to parents and continued it right into late adolescence and presumably beyond, and that those adolescents who were most attached to their parents also, on an average, had the highest self-esteem.

Scott, Scott and McCabe (1991) and Steinberg et al. (1992) studied the relationship between high self-esteem and nurturing parenting style in ethnic groups in the United States as well as in other countries like Australia and found that the
children who had high self-esteem were those whose parents practiced democratic style of parenting.

Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg and Dornbusch (1987) investigated patterns of competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful families. Results indicated that adolescents who characterize their parents as authoritative score highest on measures of psychological competence and lowest on measures of psychological and behavioral dysfunction; while the reverse is true for adolescents who describe their parents as neglectful. Adolescents whose parents were characterized as authoritarian score reasonably well on measures indexing obedience and conformity to the standards of adults but have relatively poorer self-conception than other youngsters. In contrast, adolescents from indulgent homes evidence a strong sense of self-confidence but report a higher frequency of substance abuse and school misconduct and are less engaged in school.

Barooah and Phukan (1999), from their study, tried to compare the self-concept of orphan children and children of natural parents. They did not find any difference in the physical self-concept, educational self-concept and moral self-concept of the two groups. However, children with natural parents were found to have higher social self-concept, temperamental self-concept and intellectual self-concept than orphan children.

In the present study, students living under guardians had higher self-concept than those living under parents. Several reasons could be attributed for the above
finding, as the students living under guardians will have higher levels of independence and will be given more responsibility and more opportunities to explore the self, while at the same time respect and recognition come forth from their guardians – attitudes and behaviours that students most value and need at this period of life.

**H1a: There will not be a significant difference between male and female students in their self-concept.**

H1a is rejected as male students were found to have higher self-concept than female students.

The studies regarding gender differences in self-concept have given contradictory and inconclusive results. Kalyani Devi and Amitha (2002) conducted a research study to find out the self-concept of adolescents in single parent and intact families. They also examined the grade and sex differences of self-concept of adolescents. The study revealed that the adolescents of intact families had greater self-concept than the single parent families. Girls were found to have significantly higher self-concept than boys. They found that adolescents of intact families had high self-concept in the dimensions of physical, family, social and personal identity and behavior. Whereas Coopersmith (1967), in his extensive investigation of parent-child relationships and self-esteem, found that parenting attributes like expression of affection, concern about the boys’ problems, harmony in the home, participation in family activities, setting of clear and fair rules, abiding by these
rules, allowing the boys freedom within prescribed limits are associated with highest self-esteem among boys.

Interactions with peers and satisfaction with one’s body form two especially-important sources of self-esteem in adolescence (Sinkkonen, Anttila & Siimes, 1998). Studies on gender difference in self-esteem are quite contradictory. A study by Kling, Hyde, Showers and Buswell (1999) revealed that males tend to have somewhat higher self-esteem than females, however, a study by Martinez and Dukes (1987) showed a reverse trend. In the present study no such difference was observed.

A three-year longitudinal study of Swiss 12 to 14 years-olds found girls to have somewhat poorer self-esteem than boys, most noticeably with respect to appearance and athletic ability (Bolognini et al., 1996). Essentially the same pattern of differences exists for American adolescents with boys having higher self-esteem than girls, especially with respect to body image and sports/athletic ability (DuBois et al., 1996). Simmons, Blyth et al. (1987) noticed that girls are more likely to negatively evaluate those characteristics about themselves which they consider to be most important.

In the Indian scenario, the boys are given more support and increased care as compared to girls. As the girls generally do not reside with the parents or caretakers after their marriage, the attitude of parents could be somewhat non-conducive to the development of higher levels of self-concept than in boys. Since the boys are considered to be potential family icons, maximum care and
opportunities are provided, which may lead to higher self-concept among boys. The so-called parental investment is differentially higher on boys than girls.

Self-concept during adolescence develops largely in the context of relationships with peers, particularly those of the same sex. In line, male self-concept seems to be linked with striving for individual achievement, whereas female self-concept depends more on connections with others. In one longitudinal study, eighty-four, mostly white socio-economically diverse young adults whose self-esteem has been measured at ages 14 and 18, described memories about their adolescence. They tended to recall wanting to assert themselves with male friends, whereas women who had high self-esteem recalled efforts to help female friends — efforts that involved asserting themselves in a collaborative rather than a competitive way.

For every adolescent (at approximately ages 11 or 12), the transition out of childhood offers opportunities for growth — not only in physical dimensions, but also in cognitive and social competence, autonomy, self-esteem and intimacy. This period also carries great risks. Some young people have trouble handling so many changes at once and may need help in overcoming dangers that arise along the way. Adolescence is a time of increasing divergence between the majority of young people, who are headed for a fulfilling and productive childhood and a sizeable minority (about one out of five) who will be dealing with major problems (Offer, 1987; Offer & Schonert-Reichi, 1992).
Some research suggests that adolescent girls have lower self-esteem than adolescent boys. Highly publicized studies during the early 1990s found that the girls' self-confidence and self-esteem stay fairly high until the age of 11 or 12 (Cairns, McWhirter, Duffy & Barry, 1990) and then they tend to falter (Daley, 1991). A recent analysis of hundreds of studies involving nearly 150,000 respondents concluded that boys and men do have higher self-esteem than girls and women, especially in late adolescence, but the difference is small. Contrary to the earlier finding, both males and females seem to gain self-esteem with age (Kling, Hyde, Showers & Buswell, 1999).

Because of pubertal changes adolescents find it difficult to think of themselves as they did during their childhood. But they also develop ways of thinking that give them the means to combine aspects of the old self with the new developing ones. They are able to make the distinction and when they try to describe who they are, they take both their own and others' views into account (Harter, 1990).

The literature cited earlier reveals quite contrary findings. However, it is said that adolescents who experience more serious problems tend to have poor self-concept. Infact, low adolescent self-concept is associated with a host of problems including drug and alcohol abuse, eating disorders, depression and suicide. A positive self-concept is indispensable to normal and healthy adolescent development because it provides resistance, strength and a capacity for regeneration. A central concern during adolescence is the search for identity, which has occupational, sexual and values components. Erikson (1968) described the psychosocial conflict of
adolescence as "identity" versus "identity confusion". The "virtue" that should arise from this conflict is fidelity.

One reason for girls to have low self-concept is that they are more concerned about their physical appearances and social success in addition to achievement than the boys. Although boys are also concerned about these things, their attitudes are often more casual (Unger & Crawford, 1992).

Society assigns specific gender roles e.g. girls are supposed to be more communication oriented, while boys are expected to be independent, strong, aggressive and non-emotional. These social norms have an impact on adolescents (Garton, 1987). It affects who they are, what they like and what they do. Society seems to advertise what is acceptable.

**H1b: Students with low, medium and high SES do not differ significantly in their self-concept.**

H1b is accepted as students with low, medium and high SES had statistically equal self-concept scores. The findings of the present study, in relation to self-concept and SES, are quite contradictory with the others. One research study found that SES influenced self-concept. Adolescents of higher SES generally have high self-concept than those of lower SES, particularly during middle and later adolescence. It is possible that the social status factors which specially enhance one’s standing and self-concept – such as having more expensive clothes, or a car – become more conspicuous in the later periods of adolescence (Savin - Williams & Demo, 1983;
Van'Tassel, Baska, Olszewski, Kubilius, & Kulieke, 1994). Gibbs and Huang (1989) reported that adolescents from lower income background tend to have more maladaptive and psychological problems such as depression, low self-confidence and juvenile delinquency than those from middle class income background. Researchers have examined a number of factors that are related to drug addiction in adolescence. Among others, especially the roles of development, parents, peers and school exert great influence on them (Petraitis, Flay, & Miller, 1995). The antecedents of delinquency include negative identity, low self-control, low SES, peer influence, low academic achievement, etc. Among the many factors for depression, peer pressure, family background and low socio-economic status are accepted as possible causes. However, a sizeable number of adolescents from low-income background do considerably well in intellectual abilities and perform very well at school. Middle Income Group parents often place high value on self-control and postponement of desired need-gratification. Such parents, while disciplining, will use reasoning, ask questions and use verbal praise (Heath, 1983).

The variation in neighborhood settings can affect adolescents’ adjustment, self-concept, social competence, etc e.g. adolescents, whose parents hold prestigious jobs, live in attractive houses and neighborhoods and attend school with high class and middle class children, have high self-concept. But adolescents, whose parents hold simple occupations, live in unattractive houses and neighborhoods and generally attend school with a mix of lower and middle class peers (Coulton & Korbin, 1995; Leffert & Blyth, 1966; Sampson & Earls (1995), will possess a negative self-concept.
However, the present findings are not congruent with the findings of earlier studies. Many reasons could be cited: In Goa, due to the high rate of literacy, the difference in SES is not clearly observed. The high per-capita income of the Goans also has an impact upon their upbringing. Probably the college environment as well as the social environment does not expressly make the distinction based on SES.

**H1c: Students from urban and rural area do not differ significantly in their self-concept.**

H1c is rejected as urban students had significantly higher self-concept scores than rural students.

Among the factors that influence the self-concept of urban students, it is possible that the prevailing life style of urban Goans, which offers greater social and other opportunities to students. Urban dwellers have more facilities and opportunities to travel, which in turn may enhance and develop their self-concept. Further, greater freedom and stronger influence of peers in the urban areas may have brought about changes in their self-concept.

**H1d: Students studying under different streams of study course do not differ significantly in their self-concept scores.**

H1d is accepted as the students studying under different streams of study course had statistically equal scores.
**H1e: Students studying in different years do not differ significantly in their self-concept scores.**

H1e is rejected as F test revealed significant difference and as the year of study increased, the level of self-concept also increased significantly.

The cognitive as well as academic growth that takes place at this stage helps them to discover their strengths and weaknesses, and adopt roles that they now have to play in the society, thus boosting their self-concept (Archer & Waterman, 1994). As they advance in the year of study, the societal pressures and responsibilities also increase bringing along with it difficult choices and challenges that they have to face in developing their own identity, which according to Erikson (1968), pursuing a psychological moratorium (taking time off from upcoming responsibilities of adulthood and explore various roles and possibilities).

**H1f: Students in different age groups do not differ significantly in their self-concept scores.**

H1f is rejected as students with higher age had significantly higher self-concept, and students with lower age had lower self-concept.

The present study recorded the impact of age on self-concept: as the college students moved from early adolescence to late adolescence, that is, from under 19 to over 19 years, the level of self-concept also increased. The students over 19 years had significantly higher self-concept than those below 19 years. Further, males had significantly higher self-concept than females, the possible reason may
be wider exposure and greater responsibility that the males are entrusted with as they move upwards in age. Further, males have more freedom and greater exposure to social and other situations. Similarly, the male dominated society and discrimination against women and as well as the women’s general outlook of life, effect the self-concept of the female students.

The search for identity is a central task facing all adolescents (Erikson, 1963). They are brought face to face with this task by two forces, one from within (puberty) and the other from without (adult expectations). As the age increases the way of explaining and interpreting the facts one experiences in daily life increases, which is nothing but self-concept. Adolescents’ ability to relate isolated events in terms of more general principles allows them to pool different experiences together into general assumptions about themselves. The capacity for self-reflection that comes from adolescence brings with it a concern about personality in general and thoughts about oneself in particular (Bluestein & Palladino, 1991).
H2: Students living under parents and guardians do not differ significantly in their adjustment scores with respect to the following variables.

H2a: Gender (male and female).
H2b: Socio-economic status (Low, Medium and High).
H2c: Area of domicile (Urban and Rural).
H2d: Streams of study course (Arts, Science and Commerce).
H2e: Year of the study (I, II and III).
H2f: Age (below and above 19).

H2 is rejected as there was a significant difference between students living under parents and guardians with regard to their adjustment and it was further noted that students living under guardians were better adjusted than those living with parents.

Some of the studies regarding adjustment and parenting styles revealed the following. Steinberg et al. (1988) demonstrated that adolescents' adjustment varies as a function of their parents' style (e.g. Authoritarian, indulgent, neglectful, and authoritative). After one year they conducted a follow-up in order to examine whether the observed differences were maintained overtime. They discovered that differences in adjustment associated with variations in parenting are either maintained or increased overtime. However, whereas the benefits of authoritative parenting are largely in the maintenance of previous levels of high adjustment, the deleterious consequences of neglectful parenting continue to accumulate. Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg and Dornbusch (1987) investigated patterns of competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian,
indulgent and neglectful families. Results indicated that adolescents who characterize their parents as authoritative score highest on measures of psychological competence and lowest on measures of psychological and behavioral dysfunction; the reverse is true for adolescents who describe their parents as neglectful. Adolescents whose parents were characterized as authoritarian score reasonably well on measures indexing obedience and conformity to the standards of adults but have relatively poorer self-conception than other youngsters. In contrast, adolescents from indulgent homes evidence strong sense of self-confidence but report a higher frequency of substance abuse and school misconduct and are less engaged in school.

Zea, Jarama and Bianchi (1994) examined relationships among social support, psychosocial competence and adaptation to college in African-American, Asian-American, Latino and White college students. Social support and active coping were significant predictors of adaptation to college, whereas locus of control was not. However, there was an interaction between ethnicity and locus of control indicating that although internal African, American, Latino and White students had higher adaptation to college score than external students, the opposite was true for Asian-Americans whose parents and family are focused.

Hurlock (1973) observed that a home environment characterized by affection, respect, cooperation and tolerance helps the adolescents to develop good adjustment to life while a home environment that is marked by friction stemming from conflict and destructive competition will militate against the wholesome
development of adjustment. Wamath (1955) opines that “the home thus appears indeed to be a seat of learning for the development of social skills, and perhaps of the desire to participate in activities with other individuals”. Bossard and Boll (1966) found that an adolescent who comes from a home with a frictional climate finds it difficult to establish affectionate relationships with outsiders just as he does with family members. Oliver, Rodriguez, and Mickelson (1985) conducted a study to investigate the social adjustment and academic performance of Chicano and Black students in a predominately White university. The findings indicated that the Blacks were more likely than Chicanos to feel alienated and to perform poorly and that social class makes no difference in these outcomes. Agliata and Renk (1993) studied the role of parents on college students’ expectations, discrepancies and communication reciprocity as predictors of college students’ adjustment and found that college students report experiencing lower levels of self worth and adjustment when higher expectation discrepancies are present between themselves and their parents, and expectation discrepancies and college students’ perceptions of communication reciprocity are important predictors of college students self-worth and self-adjustment.

Jackson and Sullivan (1993) hypothesized that mothers would be perceived as being more responsible than fathers; and that participation in non-traditional work and family roles would influence perceived responsibility. Contrary to the first hypothesis, college student-subjects perceived fathers as being more responsible than mothers for good adjustment, but not for poor adjustment. Divorced mothers were credited less and blamed more for school adjustment than married mothers,
especially when they worked outside the home. A study by Holmbeck, Grayson, Wandrei and Mary (1993) on college students revealed that separation-individuation, family relations and personality variables were better predictors of adjustment. Shields (2004) hypothesized that students who perceived greater difficulty would have fewer financial resources, higher external control orientation, greater attachment to family and romantic partners and greater attachment to place. Also those who perceived greater difficulty were expected to be less successful, have academically lower adjustment to college and have less satisfactory relationships with their parents. Availability of financial resources was not related to perceived difficulty in leaving the area. Attachments to persons and place were not related to being place-bound, except for women. For women, attachment to a romantic partner leads to a greater perceived difficulty in leaving the area. However, another aspect of attachment to place i.e. ‘rootedness’ had highly significant effects. Women who were higher on external control were also more likely to have a greater perception of difficulty in leaving the area. More place-bound students were not found to be at a disadvantage in terms of academic performance or adjustments to the university. The findings regarding students’ relationship with their parents were interesting; and contrary to prediction, men who perceived greater difficulty reported much more satisfactory relationship with their mother and father. It is suggested that these men might have chosen to stay in the area to attend college in order to remain near their families.

Though there were no direct studies available on the comparison between students living under parents and guardians with reference to adjustment, one can infer that
as the age increases there would be a tendency towards being rebellious at home by the adolescent, which might reduce the adjustment level of the student at home for various reasons mentioned in the above studies. The same trend may not be prevalent at guardians’ place where the student has to be more careful and at the same time the guardian’s attitude towards the students is more favourable, as their outlook towards students is much more varied and acceptable than that of parents at home, which probably, makes the overall atmosphere conducive to the student, which might reduce his/her maladjustment.

**H2a: There will not be a significant difference between male and female students in their adjustment scores.**

H2a is rejected as male students were found to be better adjusted than female students. The review of results as per the gender role and adjustment is conflicting and inconclusive. Joshi (1998) tried to find out differences, if any, in personality adjustment among the final year college students of Scheduled Caste and Non-Scheduled Caste college students. The study revealed that students’ area of domicile, gender, faculty of study, family type and caste did not produce significant differences on maladjustment. Also, students’ area of residence and gender, interact significantly on maladjustment. Similarly, students’ area of residence with faculty of study interacted significantly on maladjustment. Dutta, Baratha and Goswami (1998) found no significant difference between boys and girls in the area of social adjustment. High achievers had a better level of adjustment in the social aspect of life.
A study by Shreeshakumar (2006) revealed, with regard to home adjustment, that as the age increased from early to late adolescence, the level of adjustment also increased. Female subjects were found to have better home adjustment than male subjects. Only during late adolescence did males have better home adjustment than females. As far as health adjustment is concerned, adolescent age groups and differences in gender - male and female did not differ significantly. So also in social adjustment, the researcher found that as the age increased from early to late adolescence, the adjustment also increased. However, only in late adolescence, female’s students had higher scores than males. So also with regard to emotional adjustment, it was found that later adolescents were better emotionally adjusted than those in early adolescence. Thus, as age increased, so also the emotional adjustment increased. Further, female students were found to have higher emotionality than male students. With regard to pattern of educational adjustment there was no difference in male and female students in their respective age groups. In general, total adjustment improved as the age levels increased.

The possible reason for this phenomenon was that as the age increased, social support from friends also increased linearly from early adolescence to late adolescence. Further, gender-wise comparison revealed that males had significantly higher social support as compared to females. Social support from neighbours increased as the age levels increased. In social support from other sources also, a highly significant difference was observed, where we find age related increase from early adolescence to late adolescence. In total social support we find age related increase from early adolescence to late adolescence.
Only in adolescence between groups and gender, females had higher scores than males, whereas in the other two age groups, males had higher scores than females. In adjustment areas like health, social, educational areas including total adjustment male and female subjects were found to have equal scores (Shreeshakumar, 2006).

In the present study, males were found to be better adjusted than female students. The reason may be that females with more prominent physical and psychological changes find it difficult to adjust to various dimensions of life, which is not the case for male students. The societal and family expectations, multiplicity of roles, etc., are more rigorous on female students than male students. The exposure for males is quite high than female students. All such influences may bring about lower level of adjustment among female students.

**H2b: Students with low, medium and high SES do not differ significantly in their adjustment scores.**

H2b is accepted as students with low, medium and high SES had statistically equal adjustment scores. Oliver, Rodriguez and Mickelson (1985), from their study on social adjustment and academic performance of Chicano and Black students in a predominately White University, found that the Blacks were more likely than Chicanos to feel alienated and to perform poorly and that social class makes no difference in these outcomes. However, middle class Chicanos performed better and are better adjusted than working class Chicanos.
H2c: *Students from urban and rural areas do not differ significantly in their adjustment scores.*

H2c is rejected as urban students were better adjusted than rural students. Irfan, Trama and Sharma (2003) carried out a study to investigate the significant difference between rural-urban Muslim students for adjustment, achievement motivation and frustration. They found that rural Muslim students were more mal-adjusted, low achievers and more frustrated than urban Muslim students in Punjab. The present study is in agreement with the above result.

Further, students from urban areas will have more exposure, better facilities; increased social interactions including foreigners could end up in an urban students' being better adjusted than a rural students.

H2d: *Students studying under different streams of study course do not differ significantly in their adjustment scores.*

H2d is accepted as the students studying under different streams of study course had statistically equal adjustment scores. Though, theoretically one would expect students from an Arts background to have better adjustment than students from Science and Commerce background due to their curricular aspect, however, such observations are not reported, which requires further in-depth research.
H2e: Students studying in different years of study do not differ significantly in their adjustment scores.

H2e is rejected as F test revealed significant difference and as the year of study progressed, maladjustment decreased significantly and linearly. Though there are no studies available in this regard, one would hypothesize that at the initial level due to the novelty of the situation, shift from a closed to an open and diverse environment, one might expect that the adjustment may not be good, however, as the years increased due to simple adaptability principle, the adjustment level may be increased on a positive side. This shift may be because of the experience and the increased maturity level of the college students as they progress in their study course. The higher classes bring about seriousness and responsibility, which may compel the students to get adjusted to the demands of college and society.

H1f: Students in different age groups do not differ significantly in their adjustment scores.

H2f is rejected as students with higher age were better adjusted than those who are younger. Since age and study years are linearly associated, the same argument put forth for hypothesis H1e hold good for hypothesis H1f.
H3: Students living under parents and guardians do not differ significantly in their social competency scores with respect to the following variables.

H3a: Gender (male and female).

H3b: Socio-economic status (Low, medium and High).

H3c: Area of domicile (Urban and Rural).

H3d: Streams of study course (Arts, science and Commerce).

H3e: Year of the study (I, II and III).

H3f: Age (below and above 19).

H3 is rejected as there was a significant difference between students living under parents and guardians in their social competence and it was further noted that students living under guardians had higher social competency than those living under parents. A thorough search did not yield any study on social competence of students living under guardians. However, studies in general related to parenting and social competence are discussed below.

Studies by Elder (1963) suggest that teenagers who were rated highest in autonomy and independence tend to come from authoritative families. Kelly and Goodwin (1983) found that authoritative parenting methods also lay the groundwork for positive family relationships throughout adolescence, and the adolescents who were raised in a democratic environment, reacted positively than those raised by authoritarian and permissive parents. Bell and Bell (1983) observed from their studies that those who come from a home where family members respect and listen to each other without prejudice and respond to each other positively and acknowledge each other’s
viewpoint, experience few conflicts. Leflore (1988) has indicated that those adolescents who are troubled or delinquent come from families with low levels of emotional expressiveness, little positive communication and a lack of help and support for family members. West (1981), in his study on disturbed adolescents and their families, found that parents whose verbal interactions consist mainly of guilt inducement, harsh criticism or intrusive questions and commands, are fostering low self-esteem, negative attitudes and poor social competence in their children. Erwin (1993) and Feldman, Philippot and Custrini (1991), and Hubbard and Gore (1994) found that children high on social competence are popular children and are helpful; they co-operate with others on joint projects.

Huesmann and Eron (1986) reported that parental affection might also increase the child's social competence and willingness to explore and take risks. Rejection, on the other hand, leads to a variety of antisocial, aggressive or maladaptive behaviors that conflict with achievement. Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg and Dornbusch (1987) investigated patterns of competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful families. Results indicated that adolescents who characterize their parents as authoritative scored highest on measures of psychological competence and lowest on measures of psychological and behavioral dysfunction; the reverse was true for adolescents who describe their parents as neglectful. Adolescents whose parents were characterized as authoritarian scored reasonably well on measures indexing obedience and conformity to the standards of adults but have relatively poorer self-conception than other youngsters. In contrast, adolescents from indulgent homes
evidence strong sense self-confidence but report a higher frequency of substance abuse, school misconduct and were less engaged in school. Zea, Jarama and Bianchi (1994) found that social support and active coping were significant predictors of adaptation to college, whereas locus of control was not. However, there was an interaction between ethnicity and locus of control.

Although peer groups play a very important role in the adolescent’s life and that the intensity of friendship is higher in adolescence than at any other time in the life span, “peer power” is not everything. However, most adolescents have positive ties with parents (Hill, 1987) and maintain two reference groups, namely parents and peers. Parents have more influence on deeper concerns, i.e. career, education, morals, etc., and peers tend to have more to say about everyday social issues (Brittain, 1963; Emmerick, 1978). Research studies by Baumrind (1991), Boston et al. (1977), Anshu (1986), Madigan (1962) and many others have consistently revealed that parental encouragement, positive attitudes, affection etc has an important bearing on college students’ self-concept, adjustment, social competence, achievement motivation and performance. Therefore, the role of parent-child relationship in the development of children’s personality as well as on their adjustment and maladjustment was greatly emphasized. According to Erikson (1968), the crisis of adolescence involves establishing a sense of identity – called psychosocial or ego identity. A large number of studies, including Baumrind (1971) found that children with the highest levels of social competence tend to come from families characterized by the authoritative parenting style. Baumrind (1989, 1991) expanded on the earlier studies on the effects
of parenting styles on children’s behaviour. However, scientific research in the Indian context is scanty and inadequate.

The peer group can have both positive and negative influences. Adolescents who are rejected by peers tend to have the greatest adjustment problems. Friendships, especially among girls, become more intimate and supportive in adolescence. Patterns of friendship differ with the age and sex of adolescents. Early adolescent girls' friendships focus on the activities that bring friends together. In mid-adolescence girls are more concerned with the personal qualities of friends more than before. Girls want friends they can confide in and trust. Friendships in late adolescence focus more on personalities. Intimacy continues to grow and more friends are from the opposite sex. Boys' friendships in early adolescence are also centered on shared activities. By middle adolescence, their friendships are as close emotionally as girls' friendships but involve less discussion of feelings. Adolescents of both sexes experience greater pressure to grow up faster than adolescents of previous generations.

The peer group regulates the pace of socialization. Adolescents who either fall too far behind or move too far ahead of their friends are dropped from the group. The most common type of peer group is the clique, a small group of friends. Adolescents who are not in cliques but may be part of liaisons, which are socially active and have friends in several cliques, or isolates, which may have only a few individual friends and are not part of the social network. Crowds are groups of about 20. Adolescents try out new social skills at crowd events, the most im-
portant of which involve the opposite sex. The crowd is primarily important in helping adolescents move into mixed-sex interactions, whereas clique activities provide feedback about the success of new social skills, which they acquire. Cliques and crowds change in importance as adolescents’ grow. They are most important in mid-adolescence and become less so as adolescents begin to form couples who are "going together". Popularity for boys is closely tied to being good in sports while for girls it is related to being a social leader.

Several dimensions of social competence also contribute to popularity: assessing a situation, responding to it, and adopting a process approach to relationships. Popular individuals are better able to see what is going on in a social situation and adapt their behavior accordingly. They are also more responsive to the overtures of others, and they realize that developing friendships takes time. Dating can begin anywhere between the ages of 12 and 16 and girls start somewhat earlier than boys. The most important determinant of when they start to date is whether their friends are dating. Even before dating begins, adolescents go through a stage in which they develop crushes. Once dating begins, most adolescents practice multiple dating i.e. going out with many different partners.

Since students living with the guardians tend to have more diverse social interactions than those living under parents, one would expect that students living under guardians would have higher social competence than those living under parents. This is because living with parents brings about what is called parental
protection, while living with guardians brings about freedom and varied social interaction that results in high social competence.

**H3a: There will not be a significant difference between male and female students in their social competency scores.**

H3a is accepted as male and female students were found to have statistically equal social competence scores.

Some of the related studies indicated that authoritarian and permissive parents produced boys, as well as girls, who were moderately competent (Baumrind, 1989). The girls tended to be especially similar to their parents: The daughters of authoritarian parents were more assertive than responsible and the daughters of permissive parents were more responsible than assertive. Griffin and Korchin (1979), in their study, explored the nature and antecedents of personality competence in Black male adolescents. In general, the personality qualities of the two groups are more alike than different, though the more competent males are more inner than outer – directed; more sensitive to personal qualities than to outward appearances and their own acceptability to others. The study revealed that the competent young Black males differ importantly, although not always significantly, from their more average peers in being earlier and more thoroughly committed to a work ethic; they come from more stable homes, have more social contact with the White culture; and were more likely to be first or only children. Contradicting the findings of the present study, Shreeshakumar (2006) reported that in social maturity, in ability to take stress, communication, social commitment, and in total social maturity male subjects had higher scores than female counterparts.
**H3b**: Students with low, medium and high SES do not differ significantly in their social competence scores.

H3b is accepted as students with low, medium and high SES had statistically equal social competence scores.

No studies were available about the influence of SES on social competence. However, one can conclude that social competence is independent of SES.

**H3c**: Students from urban and rural areas do not differ significantly in their social competence scores.

H3c is rejected as urban students had significantly higher social competence scores than rural students.

No studies were available regarding the influence of the area of residence on social competence. However, one can conclude that social competence is independent of the area of domicile.

**H3d**: Students studying under different streams of study course do not differ significantly in their social competence scores.

H3d is accepted as the students studying under different streams of study course had statistically equal social competence scores. In other words, different streams of study course were independent of social competence.
H3e: Students studying in different years of study do not differ significantly in their adjustment scores.

H3e is accepted, as the students studying in different years did not differ significantly in their social competence scores. In other words, social competence was not influenced by years of study, and no studies till date were available in this regard.

H3f: Students in different age groups do not differ significantly in their social competence scores.

H3f is accepted as students with higher age and lower ages did not differ significantly in their social competency scores. In other words, social competence was not influenced by age of the students, and no studies were available in this regard.
H4: Students living under parents and guardians do not differ significantly in their Achievement motivation scores with respect to the following variables.

H4a: Gender (male and female).

H4b: Socio-economic status (Low, Medium and High).

H4c: Area of Residence (Urban and Rural).

H4d: Streams of study course (Arts, Science and Commerce).

H4e: Year of the study (I, II and III).

H4f: Age (below and above 19).

H4 is accepted, as there was no significant difference between students living under parents and guardians in their achievement motivation scores. Again studies related to achievement motivation of students living under guardians were not traced even after a thorough search on the Internet, books and other sources. Some of the studies in general could be summarized herein as hereinafter appearing.

Huston-Stein and Higgens-Trenk (1978) indicated, from their research, that independence training by parents promoted achievement but more recent research has revealed that parents need to set high standards for achievement, model achievement-oriented behaviour and reward adolescents for their achievement, if their adolescents are to be achievement-oriented.

Oayksib (1994) in his recent study observed that a combination of parenting style (demandingness and responsiveness) and involvement was related to positive adolescent achievement outcomes. Another study by Paulson, Marchant and
Rothlisberg (1995) revealed that middle school students had the highest grades when their parents, teachers and school authorities were authoritative. Winterbottom (1953) reported that early training in independence and mastery contributed to the development of strong achievement motivation in children. Herman, Ter Laak and Maes (1972) indicated that children with high achievement motivation come from parents who express high expectations and who praise successful moves towards solving problems. Touliatos and Lindholm (1977) found that college women who scored high on female sex role and achievement motivation were coming from parents who were demanding and caring in their attitude towards their children. Many researchers, including Draper (1977), Grover (1979), Sarkar (1983), Jagannadhan (1985), Maitra (1985) and Paul (1986) were drawn to investigate the influence of home environment on the achievement of the students. Sarkar (1983) observed significant differences between high achievers and low achievers on the home variables viz. educational environment, income, spatial environment, social background, provision of facilities and parent-child relationship.

In his study, Maitra (1985) found home environment to be an important variable, which could cause under-achievement among the gifted. Jagannadhan (1985) indicated that the home exerts a significant influence on academic achievement. From the research conducted, Paul (1986) concluded that the factors of home environment viz. recognition of the child’s achievement, parental aspirations, forbearance for the child’s wishes, parental affection, encouragement for initiative
and freedom etc. had positive and significant correlation with each of the four modes of cognitive styles. In another study, Draper (1977) found that academically unsuccessful students were lower in intellectual cultural orientation. And Grover (1979), in his study, found that there exists some influence of aspirations of father and mother upon the children’s academic achievement. Nelson (1984), Dornbusch (1987), Stevenson and Borker (1987), from their studies, concluded that children’s adequate academic achievement and adjustment were influenced by the quality of the adolescent’s relationship with his/her parents and other family members and the family’s general level of academic aspirations and achievement orientation.

Weiner (1985) observed that expectancy and affection guide motivated behaviour. Motivation incorporates a full range of cognitions and emotions and has an explicit effect on self. It follows that factors leading to negative emotions can adversely influence achievement motivation. Thus, a disturbed parent-child relationship results in negative emotions, which can lead to reduced or poor achievement motivation.

Chen and Stevenson (1995) put forth the view that beliefs and attitudes that lead to high level of motivation and achievement-related behaviors reflect a cultural heritage (including parental values) that emphasize education and the diligent application of effort. According to King-Fun-Li (1974), Epstein and Radin (1976), Prasad et al. (1979) the high achieving children were found to have parents who emphasized independence and achievement efforts. Their parents were also more
affectionate and permissive, less restrictive and hostile. Research studies by Baumrind (1991), Boston et al. (1977), Anshu (1986), Madigan (1962) and many others have consistently revealed that parental encouragement, attitudes, affection, etc., has an important bearing on college students’ self-concept, adjustment, social competence, achievement motivation and performance. Therefore, the role of parent-child relationship in development of children’s personality as well as on their adjustment and maladjustment was greatly emphasized. However, scientific researches in the Indian context are few and inadequate.

**H4a: There will not be a significant difference between male and female students in their achievement motivation scores.**

H4a is rejected as male students were found to have significantly higher achievement motivation than female students. The studies related to achievement motivation and genders are conflicting and inconclusive. Touliatos and Lindholm (1977) found that college women who scored high on female sex role and achievement motivation were coming from parents who were demanding and caring in their attitude towards their children. Suman and Umapathy (2003) did not find any significant difference between girls and boys in achievement motivation. In family environment, only in cohesion factor, female subjects were found to have higher levels of cohesion as compared to male subjects and in achievement factor; males had higher scores (Shreeshakumar, 2006).
H4b: Students with low, medium and high SES do not differ significantly in their achievement motivation scores.

H4b is accepted as students with low, medium and high SES had statistically equal achievement motivation scores.

The results of the present study are contradictory to those by Sharma (1984), Shukla (1984), Mehrotra (1986), Misra (1986) and Singh (1986) who revealed that there is a positive relationship between socio-economic status and academic achievement of the students. Chatterjee et al. (1972) found that socio-economic status, intellectual abilities and educational level of parents was directly related to the scholastic achievement of their children. In his study Rajput (1984) found that socio-economic status of students affected their achievement. Results reveal that though the groups having high socio-economic status and average socio-economic status did not differ, the high socio-economic status and low socio-economic status groups did differ significantly on achievement in mathematics. The reason for the contradictory findings may be due to a number of factors. A lower SES status may work as a motivation for some students to improve their low economic status and achieve high goals. That is why sometimes we find high achievers in lower SES group. The other reason is due to the social status and parental pressure of high SES parents on their children. The higher SES group students are forced to compete, set high goals and achieve them. However, this attitude does not go along with most of the high SES group students. Students with high SES whose needs are usually satisfied, do not indulge in
high goal setting and achieving it, instead their status may bring lethargy and devoid of motivation leading to antisocial activities, substance abuse and other thrill giving activities. Similarly, students in lower SES group may be struggling in satisfying their basic needs, hence find it difficult to survive, which may lead to frustration, giving up of setting higher goals and indulge in antisocial activities.

**H4c: Students from urban and rural area do not differ significantly in their achievement motivation scores.**

H4c is rejected as urban students had significantly higher achievement motivation scores than rural students. No studies were available on achievement motivation of the students living under guardians. Many researchers, including Draper (1977), Grover (1979), Sarkar (1983), Jagannadhan (1985), Maitra (1985) and Paul (1986), were drawn to investigate the influence of home environment on the achievement of the students. Sarkar (1983) observed significant differences between high achievers and low achievers on the home variables viz. educational environment, income, spatial environment, social background, provision of facilities and parent-child relationship. Further, it was found that Irfan, Trama and Sharma (2003) conducted a study to investigate the significant difference between rural and urban Muslim students for adjustment, achievement motivation and frustration. Results revealed that rural Muslim students were more maladjusted, low achievers and frustrated than urban Muslim students in Punjab.
H4d: Students studying under different streams of study course do not differ significantly in their achievement motivation scores.

H4d is accepted as the students studying under different streams of study course had statistically equal achievement motivation scores. In other words, different streams of study course were independent of achievement motivation. Saini (1977) observed that in the case of science students, academic achievement was significantly related to the educational standard of parents but not to the socio-economic status of the family.

H4e: Students studying in different years do not differ significantly in their achievement motivation scores.

H4e is rejected as the students studying in different years of study differed significantly in their achievement motivation and as the years increased, achievement motivation also increased. Since, during the second and final years of the study, usually the students are more focused on career selection and a future prospect, which automatically makes them more conscious, set higher goals and hence higher achievement motivation.

H4f: Students in different age groups do not differ significantly in their achievement motivation scores.

H4f is rejected as students with higher age had higher achievement motivation than students with lower age. In a study by Shreeshakumar (2006), independence and achievement of the subjects increased linearly as the age levels increased. Male
subjects were found to have higher achievement motivation scores as compared to female counterparts. In intellectual cultural orientation, pattern of intellectual cultural orientation is same for male and female subjects in different age groups. The findings of the present study are in agreement with the findings of Shreeshakumar (2006).

**H5: There will not be significant interaction effects between groups (students living under parents and guardians) and selected independent variables (gender, SES, Area of residence, streams of study course, year of study, and age).**

In self-concept, H5 is accepted for all the interaction effects (Groups and gender, groups and SES, groups and area, groups and streams of study, groups and year of study and groups and age).

In adjustment, H5 is rejected for interaction between groups and age groups and accepted for the remaining interaction effects.

In social competency, H5 is rejected for groups and gender interaction, groups and year of study, groups and age and accepted for remaining interaction effects.

In achievement motivation, H5 is accepted for all the interaction effects (Groups and gender, groups and SES, groups and area, groups and streams of study course, groups and year of study and groups and age).
H6: There will not be mutual relationship between self-concept, adjustment, social competence and achievement motivation.

H6 is rejected for there is a relationship between adjustment and self-concept, self-concept and achievement motivation, achievement motivation and adjustment, and achievement motivation and social competence. Sharma et al. (1989) reported that adjustment had a positive and significant correlation with academic performance of the students. Another study by Stagner (1933), Borrow (1945), Assum and Levy (1947), Sorenson (1950) and Saxena (1979) revealed similar results. This study revealed that the higher achievers tend to be more stable and adjusted much better than low achievers. Sundaram (1983) in his study of high and low achievers, demonstrated that the latter had more adjustment problems than the former. Research investigation by Subrahmanyam (1985) revealed that there is a high and positive correlation between academic adjustment and scholastic achievement of secondary school students. Students who adjusted well with academic environment performed better in their examinations and academic pursuits. Another study by Mehrotra (1986) also confirmed the earlier studies in a similar area that there exists a positive relationship between level of adjustment and academic achievement. Higher the level of adjustment, greater is the level of academic achievement. Parikh et al. (1986) found that high achievers exhibited better family adjustment than low achievers. Also, females had better family adjustment than the males. Jamur (1961), in his study, showed that academic achievement depends to a great extent on personality adjustment of students.

H6 is accepted for social competence and self-concept, social competence and adjustment. Research studies by Baumrind (1991), Boston et al. (1977), Anshu (1986), Madigan
(1962) and many others have consistently revealed that parental encouragement, attitudes, affection, etc., have an important bearing on college students’ self-concept, adjustment, social competence and achievement motivation and performance.

In a nutshell, one can say that psychologists and research studies place parents as the foremost and most important caregivers having the greatest influence on children and adolescents’ life. The kind of parenting, emotional and psychological bonding that parents provide to their children has positive influence on different aspects of their development. The socio-economic status and stability of the parents also affect their children’s self-concept, adjustment, social competence and achievement motivation. However, prolonged parental care beyond certain stages of development may affect children negatively as they mature to adolescence, whereby adolescents are highly influenced not so much by parents but by peers and society. This peer impact can adversely affect parent-adolescence relationship, which subsequently may affect their psychological development resulting in lowering many aspects of their personality or lead a number of them with maladaptive behaviors.

At this juncture, where adolescents crave for independence and greater autonomy from parental monitoring, non-parental care giving namely guardians would be appropriate parent-substitutes that would give adolescents the desired platform to further venture into mature adult. Guardians, unlike parents, provide responsible freedom, co-regulated responsibility, sharing in decision-making and, at the same time, give sufficient needed warmth/love and guided demandingness from
adolescents. In the western world adolescents, at the age of 18 years, leave their parental home and live on their own. Studies have revealed that those students who leave home early are better adjusted, highly motivated, they do much better at college and have much better relationship with their parents.

It is, but, imperative to mention another non-parental care giving which is found in the orphanages wherein a large number of orphans are sometimes placed under one unwilling care-giver, who does not provide the required care, warmth, etc., to them; on the contrary, the care-giver may neglect, avoid and even subject them to severe punishment and disciplining. Devoid of individual attention, caring and love, children in orphanages may mature with lower self-concept, poor adjustment, lack of social competence and high on maladaptive behaviors.

To conclude, the present study does not, in any manner whatsoever, propagate the substitution of parents with guardians. It reiterates the great and indispensable role played by parents in caring for and bringing up their adolescent children. The study brings to realization the constant need to update care-giving through the incorporation of newer attitudes and behaviours to the existing caring styles of parents. Certain situations in society have necessitated caring by guardians that has resulted in positive outcomes as herein outlined. Adopting and incorporating those favourable attitudes and behaviours of guardians into the caring styles of parents would perform a yeoman service to adolescents who, being at the ‘crisis stage’ of their lives, need to be cared for in an appropriate manner.