Chapter-III
Review of Related Literature
PRESENT conveys its meaning in terms of past. In a spirit of adventure, we should not neglect the past because it is only with the reference to the old that a new thing is learnt. It makes the investigator aware of present situations and also provides directions to the new work. These directions are taken from the studies already done in the field. In his book ‘Research Methodology: Techniques and Trends’, Y.K. Singh (2009) quoted that, “The review of related studies in any field forms the foundation upon which all future work is built.”

It is universally acknowledged that no work can be meaningfully conceived and soundly accomplished without critically studying what already exists in relation to it in the form of general literature and in the shape of outcomes of specific studies. It is the study of already established knowledge pertaining to an area that enables us to perceive clearly what is already lighted up in that area and what still remains enveloped in darkness. When once we come to know the lighted up and dark portions of an area of life, we can then proceed logically and purposefully, provided we have the necessary ability and will, to change any segment of its dark portion into a realm of clear knowledge.

It is exclusively man’s privilege to go on building up and accumulating knowledge. The study of related literature goes a long way in equipping the researcher with that understanding and knowledge which is necessarily needed to put one’s own problem in a proper perspective and which are essential for a valid interpretation of findings of one’s own research efforts.

Fully convinced of the need and importance of studying the related literature, the present investigator studiously scanned the available psychological and educational abstracts and other materials relevant to her problem.
2.1 STUDIES RELATED TO RISK TAKING BEHAVIOUR

Risk taking has got significance not only in research but practical utility in real life situation also. Risk taking in fact, has been a very fertile domain of research. A plethora of research studies have been constructed as risk taking behaviour in past few years. Attempts have also been made by some researchers to relate risk taking behaviour with intelligence, sex, socio-economic status and academic achievements.

Eysenck (1947) concluded that we can regard risk ness a state of suspense, strain and stress. A person high on neuroticism will hardly venture in to putting himself in a situation which increases his mental tension by inducing anxiety.

Atkinson and his associates (1960), in his study found the relationship between achievement motivation and risk taking were stronger when the risks involved concerned questions of skill rather than chance.

Torrance (1962) found that creativity was significantly correlated with risk taking attitude. The creative adolescent is willing to take a calculated risk.

Kogan and Wallach (1964) found that formulation about individual risk-taking makes a central distribution between motivationally and cognitively determined risk-taking behaviour. They described the risk-taking behaviour on the basis of kind of situations in which it is likely to be elicited. They stated that behaviour reflective of risk-taking dispositions occurs in situations where there is desirable goal and lack of certainty that can be attained.

Kass (1964), Chadha and Ghosh (1985) and Begum and Ahmad (1986) found a significantly greater degree of risk-taking tendency in males as compared to female adolescents.

Rim (1964) showed that high extraverts tend to score high on the initial measure of risk and reported insignificant relationship between extraversion and risk-taking. Extraversion refers to the outgoing, inhibited social inclination of a person. Keeping in view the finding of Rim as also the claim of the authors of the test, it was hypothesized that extraverts would tend to score significantly higher than their introvert counterparts.
Solvic (1964) asserts that all individuals are not equally prepared to take risk and there is a substantial subjective involved in it.

Brown (1965) found that the social values play a great role in the level of risk taking by individual members.

McClelland (1965) in a longitudinal study from 1947 to 1961 found that 83% of the entrepreneurs (risk takers) had been high in achievement motivation in years earlier versus only 21% of the non-entrepreneurs.

Atkinson (1966) has conceptualized behavioural tendency in an achievement situation in case of adolescents as being a multiplicative function of motivation to achieve success. Expectancy and incentive value are highly negatively correlated in an evaluation both of laboratory tasks and of occupations. The effect of this relationship is to concentrate the attractiveness of moderate risk tasks for adolescents high on achievement motivation but not for those low on achievement.

Morris (1966) found that achievement oriented and moderate risk takers tended to be attracted to difficult occupations in preferred occupational interest categories and to easy occupations in non-preferred, a pattern of choice reversed in the case of failure oriented individuals.

Singh (1968) conducted a study to measure risk taking and anxiety of agricultural entrepreneurs, found that at optimal level of anxiety, risk taking scores seem to be more stable than at the higher or at the lower level of anxiety. In another study, he obtained a positive non-significant trend of relationship between anxiety and risk taking scores in the case of successful entrepreneurs. Contrarily, a significant inverse relationship was found in case of unsuccessful combined, confirming in general findings of Kogan and Wallach in 1964.

Krishna (1972) studied some antecedents and personality correlates of risk-taking behaviour and found that the students differed significantly in risk-taking. Risk-taking and age were found to be independent. The high risk-takers did not differ from the low risk-takers in terms of socio economic status. He also showed that female students have greater magnitude of risk taking than their counterparts i.e. male students.
Pandey (1972) tried to find the relationship between the individual’s risk-taking behaviour and creativity. He found no relationship between risk-taking and any of the sub-dimensions of creativity like fluency, flexibility and originality etc.

Chaubey (1974) has also concluded that risk taking tendency; creativity and adjustment are salient features of personality and are inter-correlated.

Krishna and Ansari (1975) found that high risk takers, high anxious, high neurotics, preferred better choices than low risk takers, and extroverts.

Kishore (1976) has observed that risk-taking behaviour tends to bear significant positive association with under-motivation and significant negative relationship with achievement, change, heterosexuality and aggression motives.

Aggarwal, (1977) showed that age and sex are significantly related with risk taking attitude.

Singh, (1979) studied effect of cognitive dissonance on risk-taking behaviour in relation to certain personality variables and found that the condition of arousal of cognitive dissonance led to more changes of risk strategy.

Arora (1981) studied personality patterns of risk and non-risk-takers and found out that there were significant differences in aspiration, self esteem, deviancy and global personality patterns of risk and non-risk takers. He further reported the risk-takers possessed a dominating personality in society and positive relationship exists between risk-taking tendency and super ego strength. Socio-economic status did not lead to a difference in the level of risk-taking tendency. Also there was no significant age variation in the risk-taking tendency.

Reddy (1981) concluded that the studies related to the risk-taking behaviour showed there is significant superiority of the early born over the later born adolescents.

Kumari (1981) studied self-esteem and aspiration as factors affecting risk-taking and found that high aspiration and high self-esteem promoted risk-taking behaviour.

The study of Aggarwal (1982) indicates that risk taking more or less was found to be positive and significant factor in fostering creativity of sexes.
Thandari (1983) found that there is no significant relationship of fluency, flexibility and originality of verbal measures and collaboration of non-verbal measure of creativity with risk taking attitude. While originally verbal measure as creativity is significantly related with risk taking attitude.

Singh (1984) has found that high risk-takers have low achievements while high exhibition motivation is contrary to this finding.

Alam, Khan and Tondon (1987) found that those who are more anxious and have high risk-taking behaviour are poor in adjustment on home, social, emotional and overall dimension of adjustment.

Sharma, Singh and Garg (1988) studied sex difference in family and career values as related to Risk taking behaviour in adolescents. They found that the high achievers are ready to take risk in different fields of life as they are capable of estimating future consequences and new relationship and think they will be able to come out successfully from the risk revolving situations.

Pandey, and Rohatagi, Prabha (1991) found that male and experienced educational administrators have more ability of risk-taking than females and inexperienced educational administrators. The findings reveal that the risk-taking ability of the individuals is highly influenced by their qualities of educational leadership.

Verma (1991) found that male students seem to show superiority over female students. Male students possess greater magnitude of risk taking tendency than female students. Thus, females are less exposed to the environment which is full of risk than their counterpart males.

Furby and Beyth-Marom (1992) proposed that adolescent decision-making might be different from that of adults when it comes to risky behavior. The proposed differences are as follows: (1) adolescents and adults may consider different options; (2) adolescents and adults may differ in identifying the possible consequences of an option chosen; (3) adolescents and adults may place a different value on possible consequences; (4) adolescents may assess the likelihood of consequences differently; and (5) adolescents may use a different decision rule.
Wickwire, Whelan, and West (1993) reported that in general, involvement in high-risk activities has been positively associated with personality factors, such as social maladjustment, and with perceived benefit of risk.

Moore and Rosenthal (1993) reported that persons who are engaged in high-risk behaviours had higher scores on affiliation, desirability, dominance, exhibition, and self-esteem variables and they exhibited significantly higher sexual risk, smoking risk, driver and passenger risk, venturesomeness, and impulsiveness.

Panda, Nath and Bhujendra (1994) concluded that personality patterns of high and low risk-taking students differ from one another in different factors. The styles and functioning of high risk-taking groups were totally opposite in comparison to their counterparts.

Milistein and Igra (1995) found that risk-taking theories based on dispositional traits examine individual differences between persons that might account for a propensity to take risks. However, most of the research in this area is not conclusive enough to state that dispositional traits are causal factors in adolescent risk-taking.

Panchauri (1995) concluded that adjustment of scheduled caste females is effected with the creativity and risk taking.

Sharma and Singh (1997) indicated that adolescents of urban areas are ahead of adolescents of rural areas on taking risk.

Fahs, Smith, and Morgan (1999), reported that, when compared with urban, rural adolescents are not engaged in less severe risk taking behaviour.

Mohinderjit (1999) conducted an investigation on high risk taking behaviour of high school students in relation to curiosity and found that there exists no significant relationship between risk taking behaviour and curiosity of boys.

Panda (1999) concluded that the main effects of locus of control, risk taking behaviour and study involvement on the verbal creativity of the students are
not significant. The interaction effect between locus of control and risk taking behaviour on verbal creativity of the students is found to be significant.

Gurpreet (1990) concluded that there exists no relationship between value patterns and risk taking behaviour of students and found that there is no significant difference in value pattern of high risk takers and moderate risk takers.

Rolison and Scherman (2002) referred to a study conducted by Alexander and Kin in which they found that adolescents may not see the same types of behaviors as risky as do adults. They asked 8th and 9th graders what teenagers do for fun. Males' responses focused more on physical feats while females focused more on rule breaking. Results also showed a significant decline from 8th grade to 9th grade for involvement in physical feats. In examining risk-taking studies in general, most use self-report measures without giving participants an actual task that might represent risk-taking. This raises the concern that these self-report measures do not validly measure risk-taking or related constructs. In addition, many studies do not take into account the difference in cognitive maturity between younger and older adolescents.

Singh (2004) found that there exists no significant gender difference among adolescents of high school with respect to anxiety as well as behaviour.

Steinberg (2004) found that the greater propensity of adolescents to take risks is not due to age differences in risk perception or appraisal, but due to age differences in psychosocial factors that influence self-regulation.

Galvan, Hare, and Parra (2006) examined the neurobiological development of neural systems implicated in reward-seeking behaviours. Their findings suggest that maturing sub cortical systems become disproportionately activated relative to later maturing top–down control systems, biasing the adolescent's action toward immediate over long-term gains.

Fecteau, Knoch, Fregni, and Sultani (2007) found that their findings support the notion that the interhemispheric balance of activity across the dorsolateral prefrontal cortexes is critical in decision-making behaviours. Most importantly, they observed that populations with boundless risk-taking behaviours
leading to negative real-life consequences, such as individuals with addiction, might benefit from such neuromodulation-based approaches.

Sunstein (2008) concluded that society plays a large role in increasing or decreasing adolescent risk-taking.

Steketee and Frost (2009) found that both age and gender were related to risk-taking behaviour. They also concluded that older subjects and females show greater risk avoidance.

Cheah, Trinder and Gokavi (2010) revealed that compared to their urban counterparts, rural emerging adults were more likely to place importance on role and biological transitions as criteria for achieving adulthood, and engaged in more risk-taking behaviours (excluding smoking). Female emerging adults were more likely to believe in the importance of role transition, norm compliance, and family capacities compared to males, and were more likely to smoke. In contrast, males were more likely than females to espouse the importance of biological transitions and engage in non-smoking risk behaviours.

McNamara and Willoughby (2010) indicated that, compared to their non-learning disabled peers, adolescents with learning disabilities engaged more frequently in some risk-taking behaviours including smoking, marijuana use, acts of delinquency, acts of aggression, and gambling.

Rozin, Pillutla and Thau (2010) showed that people who were at risk of exclusion took less general risk compared with both control groups (people who received a non-social negative feedback and people who were actually excluded). This result demonstrates socially adaptive responses of people who are at risk of social exclusion.

2.2 STUDIES RELATED TO RISK TAKING BEHAVIOUR AND FAMILY VALUES

Krishna (1981) found that risk-taking behaviour is independent of home, health and emotional adjustments for boys and of health and social adjustments for girls.
Patel (1981) conducted an analytical study on the educational values practised in educational institutions of Satya Sai Trust. The scores were found high on religious, moral, spiritual and social values among the final year students at two campuses.

Bhatnagar (1982) studied occupational choices of school going adolescent girls in relation to their vocational interests and factors affecting their vocational choices.

Saha (1982) indicates that the professional women do not want to change to traditional aspects of their lives. It was also concluded that today’s professional women are going through a process of role expansion rather than a process of role redefinition which may be what tomorrow’s professional women will experience.

Tiwari (1983) studied the parent-child relation in cross-cultural perspective. In which he concluded that family with good climate have positive effect on the behaviour development of children.

Otis et al (1984) conducted a “Comparative Study of American Indian Students Value”. His finding revealed that there were significant value difference between Indian and non-Indian students. Indian students group also maintained the traditional Indian values.

Kaur (1985) studied the value pattern of teacher trainees and found that female and male teacher trainees significantly differ in respect of some of the values as humanitarian, social, professional and economic.

Methana (1985) studied values as function of sex and family’s socio-economic status. Results showed that males were higher on theoretical, economic and political values as compared to females. Females were higher on aesthetic, social and religious values as compared to males. There was no significant difference on any of six values of students from different socio-economic status, i.e., as regards annual income or residence. But when they were classified by their parents’ occupation, significant differences were found in economic and aesthetic values.

Swarn and Srivastva (1985) studied “Sex Difference among University Students towards Different Types of Values”. The findings revealed that there is
statistically significant difference between male and female students in economic, social, political, religious values.

Kohn, Slomczynski and Schoenbach (1986) found that the social stratification affects parental values primarily because of the impact of parents' occupational self-direction on their values. They also found the influence of cross-national difference and the relative roles of fathers and mothers in the intergenerational transmission of values. According to them, in the United States, fathers play at least as important a role as do mothers; in Poland, mothers play the predominant role.

Kumar and Mutha (1986) studied values of college students. It was found that there was no significant difference among their socio-economic status regarding social, political and religious values. Students belonging to upper and lower class differed significantly on their theoretical, economic and aesthetic values. Upper and middle class students differed on economic and cultural values. Theoretical and economic values of middle and lower class students differed significantly.

F.K. Singh (1986) in his study “Interest and Values of Advantaged and Disadvantaged Groups of College Students”, concluded that interests and values of advantaged group differ from disadvantaged group of college students.

Kaur (1987) conducted study of value dimensions of primary school teachers in relation to their socio-economic status and sex. She found that there were no significant differences in the value pattern of rural and urban teachers and male and female individuals.

In a Newsweek survey (1989), only 22% of the respondents believed that family was directly tied to blood lines, marriage, children, and adoption. More than 74% said a family is any group whose members love and care for one another.

Gurpreet (1990) conducted a study “An Impact of School Background on Value Patterns of Schools”. She found that there exists no relationship between value patterns and risk taking behaviour of students, and that there is no significant difference in value patterns of high risk takers and moderate risk takers.
Kapani (1992) conducted “A Case Study of Value Education Imparted in Sri Satya Sai Higher Secondary School”, to find out whether the children of that school were influenced with the value education and to what extent they had assimilated those values. It was found that children were very much influenced by the value education and they had assimilated the values to a great extent.

Wickwire, Whelan, and West (1993), reported that in general, involvement in high-risk activities has been positively associated with personality factors, such as social maladjustment, and with perceived benefit of risk.

Sood (1995) conducted study on values as related to adjustment of students at adolescent age and found that values and adjustment are not significantly related to male and female adolescents.

Bakshi (1998) studied home environment as conducive to value orientation and found that parental attitude of avoidance has non-significant relation with religious value but significant relation was found with social value. For the rest of values i.e. theoretical, economical, aesthetic and political values were found to be non-significant.

Lata and Aggarwal (1998) found that child getting proper environment of study with maternal care, concern, guidance and encouragement will flourish like a plant given good soil and sun-light. They concluded that there exists significant relationship between family environment and behaviour of young ones.

Using national data, Trusty (1998) investigated the influence of family and parenting variables as expectations regarding education among adolescents.

Mouline (1999) found that parental encouragement and students’ achievements link provides a scholarly basis for justifying and implementing parental-involvement programmes that produce significant and long lasting effects on the child’s various outcomes. In doing so, the educational institution can expect to reap the reward of improved students’ achievement.

Panesar (2000) studied “Value Pattern of Students in Relation to Risk Taking”. It was found that there was significant relationship of risk taking behaviour with aesthetic and political values among adolescents.
Scheer, Borden and Donnermeyer (2000) who found no significant difference in values of adolescents of rural, urban and sub-urban areas.

Plybon and Kliewer (2001) reported that in urban area, the environment of the family is significantly associated with risk behaviour of children. The children living in the most impoverished neighbourhoods with high levels of family cohesion demonstrate fewer behaviour problems.

Dr. Nandita (2002) conducted a study on “Role of Family and School in Inculcating Values in Young Children”; found that parents and teachers play a significant role in inculcation of values.

Velleman, Templeton and Copello (2005) reported that family directly influences the risk taking behaviour of young people and that family plays a key role in preventing young adolescents from risky behaviours. It means family is significantly related with the risk behaviour of adolescents.

Sadlik and Kim (2007) revealed that parents play an active role in the socialization process of adolescents.

Levin and Currie (2010) showed that the family and home environment plays a central role in the promotion of oral health, through mealtime routines, incorporating a fair parenting style and developing open and positive family relationships.

2.3 STUDIES RELATED TO RISK TAKING BEHAVIOUR

PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT

Affectionate relationship between parents and children is important because it builds the feeling of self-respect and confidence referred to as the sense of security. It gives the individual the courage to meet the challenges of life and permits him to utilize his experiences constructively.

Some studies on parent-child relationship documented that warmth, guidance and rewards served to produce effective discipline in children.

Kothari (1966) found that parents’ educational level was mainly related with the development of moral concepts of their children and found better inter-
personal relationship with parents, encouraged the development of moral concepts among their children.

Jemison (1971) found that education and parental encouragement made it possible for a young girl from South Chicago to grow up to become an entrepreneur, engineer, scientist, physician and former astronaut—all before the age of 40.

Sage (1980) declared that significant difference occurs in the parental encouragement of male and female adolescents, and that fathers are more supportive to their sons than to their daughters.

Zucknow (1980) found that parental warmth, use of praise and encouraging them to do work motivate the child towards high achievement and success.

Drawing from research conducted by Sroufe (1983), Hutt (1966), Vygotsky (1978), and Sigel (1982), Ferrari and Matthews (1983) concluded that the competent parent will guide and nurture the child's independent problem-solving, and encourage the acquisition of new and challenging social skills.

Meyers, Nihira and Mink (1984) have found that behaviour problems and maladjustment among adolescents are largely a consequence of home environmental conditions.

Aggarwal (1986) studied that the high achieving group had been getting higher parental encouragement than the low achieving group.

Aggarwal (1990) in her study “Educational Development of Students at Secondary Stage: The Effect of Parental Encouragement”, found that high achieving groups were normally found to be getting a higher amount of parental encouragement in almost all the groups.

Murlidharan (1990) investigated the effects of parent-child relationship and sex and other facilities which are provided at home and achievements of adolescents. He found that home variables have positive significant relationship with the achievement of child.
Wilson and Wilson (1992) reported that parent with higher education level had strong influence on their children’s school programmes as well as on career taking up. Their children also had higher expectations and outcomes.

Rani (1994) concluded that the level of parental encouragement would be different with different types of parents. The level of Parental Encouragement of uneducated parents may be different from the educated parents.

Paulson (1996) indicated that parental encouragement has a positive effect on adolescents’ behaviour and achievement.

Vamadevappa (2000) found that there is significant relationship between parental involvement and achievements. There is significant difference between high and low achievers with respect to parental encouragement.

Gafoor (2001) viewed that parental variables are significantly related to behaviour of the children even at primary level.

Kaur (2001) studied “Emotional Maturity of Adolescents in Relation to Parental Encouragement” and found negative significant relationship existing between various factors like emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality, disintegration, lack of independence and parental encouragement.

Henderson and Berla (2002) expressed that when parents show concern in schools, children perform better and they stay in school for longer time.

According to a new report, Missing the Boat: Why Some Make It to College and Others Don’t, (2002) conducted by the California Student Aid Commission and EDFUND, it is found that parental encouragement plays a key role in college enrolment. The report analyses the results of a survey of a random sample of high school students who filled out the Free Application for Federal Student Aid (FAFSA). The goal was to determine the differences between those who were enrolled in a postsecondary program six months after graduation and those who were not. The study found the biggest factor that differentiated those who were enrolled in college and those who were not was having an influential parent. The study noted that although California has one of the most accessible and affordable college systems in the world, only about half of high school seniors immediately
enrol in college after high school graduation. The research discovered the two most common reasons students did not enrol were, predictably, lower household income and lower academic achievement. However, two other significant factors affecting college enrolment emerged from the research: The importance of parental influence, and the exposure, during high school, to information about the long-term advantages of going to college as well as the student financial aid resources to help pay for it. Among those who were enrolled in college at the time of the survey, two-thirds rated their parents' influence as a 10 (on a scale of 1 to 10); for those who were not enrolled, only one-third rated their parents' influence as a 10. The average rating for how important parents were in the decision to go to college was 8.2. Statistical analysis shows that having parents who supported the decision to go to college mattered more than anything else in a student's decision to enrol. For enrolled students, parents also were the ones cited most often as helping with the financial aid process; non-enrolled students were far more likely to say no one helped them. "The high school years are a critical time to convey to low-income and first-generation students why postsecondary education is important, what it takes to get into and stay in college, and how to pay for it," said EDFUND President Becky Stilling in a press release accompanying the report's release. "In addition to promoting financial aid, this report tells us that we should be focusing on the important role of parental influence in order to increase college enrolment."

Kaur (2002) reported that there is significant positive correlation of behaviour with parental encouragement among adolescents.

Grayson, Nancy (2004) found that level of parental encouragement is associated with every success of the offspring.

In 2005, a survey conducted in the University of California, 47 percent of first-generation students (compared with 43 percent of non-first-generation students) reported parental encouragement as a very important reason for attending college.
Kumar (2006) concluded that there was no significant difference between parental encouragement and adjustment among adolescents of rural areas but there exists significant relationship in case of adolescents of urban areas.

Nanda (2006) studied the impact of parental encouragement on the mental health of adolescents and found that there exists no significant relationship among parental encouragement and mental health of adolescents of urban area but significant in case of rural areas. Male and female adolescents do not differ significantly on the same.

In a study conducted at the University of Pittsburgh, USA (2006) the possible-self construction and achievement process in students of colour from low-income communities was explored by investigating these processes in 28 college students. Findings suggest that while parental encouragement of college aspirations may affect age at which the college student possible self is constructed and expectancy level, development of schematic possible selves is more crucial to achievement of possible-self goals. Furthermore, findings point out a need to include conceptual schemas, in addition to procedural schemas, as potential predictors of possible-self achievement.

Kaur (2007) reported that no significant relationship exists between parental encouragement and moral judgement among college going students.

Bauer, Nelson and Boutelle (2008) concluded that parental encouragement was associated with increased physical activity among males and younger females. Younger adolescents appear to be especially influenced by their same-sex parent.

Savage, DiNallo and Downs (2009) suggested that, regardless of adolescent body mass index, fathers may play an instrumental role in adolescents' body image satisfaction by positively influencing their behaviour. However, the influence of perceived encouragement for physical activity from fathers on adolescent body satisfaction and physical activity behaviour may differ for boys and girls.

White and Cynthia (2009) found that there was a zero-order correlation between parental involvement and risk behaviour. Their mean comparisons failed to demonstrate any significant relationships between them.
Kozaryn (2010) indicated that parenting practices differ across gender and structure of parents’ work authority. In egalitarian families, fathers tend to be more involved with sons than with daughters. In patriarchal families adolescent girls spend more time with mothers in their households resulting in their showing least risk taking behaviour.

Miller and Plant (2010) explored the associations between different age groups among adolescents, other family background and psychoactive substance use variables. Substance use was least common amongst students whose parents discouraged drinking and those who claimed to have received no parental guidance. In logistic regressions parental guidance was consistently associated with substance use with several other background variables controlled.

Scott, Sylva, Doolan, Price, Jacobs, Crook and Landau (2010) found that play, praise and reward given by parents proved more effective than the harsh discipline maintained by them in shaping the behaviour of adolescents. The democratic environment provided by parents was significantly related with good behaviour of adolescents.

The literature cited above throw a considerable light on the study of risk taking behaviour of adolescents in relation to family values and parental encouragement. These studies show that risk taking behaviour depends on family background, degree of freedom in which an adolescent lives and most importantly the particular need at a point of time. Girls especially in the men-dominated society are exposed to lesser risk situations. In urban areas, since the pace of life is naturally more than that of rural areas, adolescents living there tend to fall in risky situations more often to stay in the race. But in modern times the difference between rural and urban situations is coming to a negligible point because of the globalisation of education and technology.

Risk taking behaviour is also shown to be significantly related with the parental attention for their children. Under parental control, adolescents take less risk or in other words, they need to show lesser risk taking behaviour as the experience of their ancestors pave the way for them in the most safe environment
and actions. Some parents encourage their children to take risk in order to get maximum benefit out of a situation under controlled conditions.

Family values also play a significant role in shaping the future of the young ones. Adolescents with good family values will show less risk behaviour as his background helps him to see the upcoming ‘horror’ and prevents him not to enter in a situation where the risk is involved and where no significant outcome is ensured.

From the above viewpoint the following hypotheses were framed:

**HYPOTHESES**

I. There will be no significant difference in the mean scores of risk taking behaviour of male and female adolescents.

II. There will be no significant difference in the mean scores of risk taking behaviour of rural and urban adolescents.

III. There will be no significant difference in the mean scores of family values of male and female adolescents.

IV. There will be no significant difference in the mean scores of family values of rural and urban adolescents.

V. There will be no significant difference in the mean scores of parental encouragement of male and female adolescents.

VI. There will be no significant difference in the mean scores of parental encouragement of rural and urban adolescents.

VII. There will be no significant relationship between risk taking behaviour and family values of adolescents.

VIII. There will be no significant relationship between risk taking behaviour and parental encouragement of adolescents.

IX. Independent variables such as family values and parental encouragement will differentially predict risk taking behaviour among adolescents.

The present chapter dealt with the review of related literature. The hypotheses were also framed on the basis of this review. These hypotheses will be verified and tested later on in this thesis.