

CHAPTER-III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Review of related literature is a pre-requisite to actual planning and the execution of any research work. A careful review of books, research journals, dissertations, theses and other sources of information on the problem to be investigated is one of the crucial steps in the planning of any research work (Koul, 2014). It helps the researcher to develop a thorough understanding and insight into previous works, practices and the trends that have emerged. It brings the researcher up-to-date on the work which others have done and thus helps in formulating the problem, objectives, and hypotheses. It gives an understanding of the research methodology, which refers to the way the study is to be conducted. It helps the researcher in determining sample size, in choosing appropriate tools and procedure of collecting data, in selecting appropriate statistical techniques and analyzing the data and interpreting the results. It helps in avoiding duplication, guides in carrying out the investigation successfully and makes the researcher familiar with the steps involved in it. Thus, the review of literature enlightens the researcher about the problem, sampling, methodology, tools, procedures, possible hazards, principal findings of previous investigations and also with joys and sorrows of research (Sing, 2011).

The present study is an attempt to examine the relationship between parent-adolescent relationships and social competence and emotional competence of adolescent boys and girls, and also to examine the effect of parent-adolescent relationships on

social competence and emotional competence of adolescent boys and girls. In this connection, the investigator has also endeavoured to examine the differences between adolescent boys and girls with respect to parent-adolescent relationships, social competence, and emotional competence. The investigator has attempted to present the review of the relevant literature in the following sections, under three heads.

- Studies on Parent-Adolescent Relationships
- Studies on Social Competence
- Studies on Emotional Competence

3.2 STUDIES ON PARENT- ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIPS

A review of studies on parent-adolescent relationships has been presented under the headings of Studies in India and Studies Abroad.

3.2.1 STUDIES IN INDIA

- **Kumar and Raj (2016)** assessed the effect of attachment styles on social competence of adolescent students of Kanyakumari, Tamilnadu. The sample consisted of 1152 adolescent male students and 1188 adolescent female students studying in class IX and X. Purposive sampling technique was used to select the sample. Two-way analysis of variance was used for analysis of data. Findings revealed that adolescents with secure and insecure attachment styles considerably differ on social competence. Further, adolescent girls were better on their social competencies. Findings also revealed a significant interaction effect of attachment styles and gender on social competence.

- **Ram et al. (2015)** studied parent-child relationship as a predictor of locus of control in school going adolescents and found that rejecting parent-child relationship had a negative effect on the locus of control of the school going adolescents.

- **Palit and Neogi (2015)** conducted a study on the impact of parent-child relationship on career maturity of adolescents. Their main objective was to identify the quality of the perceived parent-child relationship that fosters career maturity. The sample consisted of 200 adolescents of higher secondary schools of Kolkata. The study employed the Parent-Child Relationship Scale developed by Dr. Nalini Rao and Crite's Career Maturity Inventory-Indian Adaptation developed by Nirmala Gupta as tools. Correlation and regression coefficients were used for data analysis. Findings indicated that among the different dimensions, parent's love and protection had a significant contribution towards the career maturity of the adolescents.

- **Sharma and Dube (2015)** attempted to assess different dimensions of parent-child relationship of high school adolescent girls of Jaipur, Rajasthan. The sample comprised of 60 adolescent girls. The study used the multistage random sampling technique to select the sample. Results indicated that fathers were more close to their children than their mothers. Further, fathers and mothers were found almost equally protective, demanding and equal in symbolic rewards and object rewards towards their children. However, mothers were more rejecting, neglecting, and indifferent, and higher in object punishment as compared to fathers. The study also revealed that the father had leading scores on the dimension of love and care.

- **Khan (2014)** investigated the correlation of the parent-child relationship with social maturity and self-confidence, and the effect of the parent-child relationship

(mother-child relationship, father-child relationship, and overall parent-child relationship separately), gender, locale and their interaction on social maturity and self-confidence of the students. The sample consisted of 223 male and 231 female students from the rural area and 154 male and 145 female students from the urban area selected through stratified random sampling. Pearson product moment correlation, 2x2x2 factorial design, and ANOVA were employed to analyze the data. Findings revealed that protecting, object punishment, demanding, symbolic reward, loving and object reward behaviour of mothers were negatively related to the social maturity of the students, whereas rejecting, indifferent, and neglecting behaviour of mothers were positively related to the social maturity of the students. Further, rejecting, indifferent, and neglecting behaviour of fathers were positively related to the social maturity of the students, whereas protecting, object punishment, demanding, symbolic reward, loving and object reward behaviour of fathers were negatively related to the social maturity of the students. Overall parent-child relationship dimensions were not significantly related to the social maturity of students. Furthermore, social maturity scores of students having the favourable father-child relationship, mother-child relationship and overall parent-child relationship were higher than those having the unfavourable relationship. Regarding self-confidence, the study found that self-confidence scores of students having the unfavourable father-child relationship, mother-child relationship and overall parent-child relationship were higher than those having the favourable relationship. The study also revealed that social maturity of male students was higher than the female students, and the father-child relationship, mother-child relationship and overall parent-child relationship had the significant effect on social maturity and self-confidence of the students.

➤ **Dash and Patra (2014)** examined the influence of maternal neglect on the emotional, social and educational adjustment of high school students by employing a quasi-experimental design. From among a total of 94 students studying in grades VIII, IX, and X in a Bhubaneswar-based high school, top and bottom 25 students were selected as high and low maternal neglect group respectively by their scores on the Neglect subscale of the Parent-Child Relationship Scale developed by Nalini Rao. Emotional, social and educational adjustments of the students were assessed by Adjustment Inventory developed by Sinha and Sing. Statistical technique t-test was used to analyse the data. Results revealed no significant differences in emotional, social and educational adjustment between the students who perceived themselves to be highly neglected by their mothers and those who did not.

➤ **Dash and Sriranjana (2014)** conducted a study to examine the effect of maternal overprotection on achievement motivation of high school students, by following a quasi-experimental design. From among a total of 100 students studying in grades VIII, IX, and X of Ravenshaw Collegiate School, Cuttack, Odisha, top and bottom 25 students were selected as high and low maternal protection group respectively by their scores on the Protection subscale of the Parent-Child Relationship Scale developed by Nalini Rao. Achievement Motivation of the students was measured by the Achievement Motivation Test developed by Dr. Gopal Rao. The t-test was used to analyse data. Results revealed that students who perceived themselves to be more overprotected by their mothers had higher achievement motivation in comparison to those who perceived less maternal protection. The study also found that girls perceived themselves to be highly overprotected by their mothers than the boys.

➤ In a study, **Manhas and Kour (2014)** attempted to assess the perceived parent-child relationship during adolescence in the context of parents' and adolescents' sex. A sample of 100 adolescents (50 boys and 50 girls) in the age group of 11-18 years was drawn from high and higher secondary schools of urban areas of Jammu, Jammu and Kashmir. One specific criterion in the selection of the sample was that the adolescent must be the only child of their family. Adolescent's perceived parenting was measured by the Parent-Child Relationship Scale developed by Nalini Rao. Results revealed that male adolescents felt that fathers and mothers varied in dimensions such as protecting, indifference, and symbolic reward, while female adolescents felt that their fathers and mothers were different only in protecting dimension. Mothers were more protecting, but at the same time indifferent and used more symbolic reward than their fathers. Results also revealed that parenting of both fathers and mothers were varied significantly according to the sex of their adolescent, as with daughters, they were more protecting, but with sons, they were more punishing and strict.

➤ **Nidhi and Kotnala (2014)** in a study investigated the relation of the parent-child relationship with the aggression and self-confidence of female adolescents. A sample of 100 female adolescents was taken from Dehradun. Accidental sampling technique was used to select the sample. Parent-Child Relationship Scale developed by Nalini Rao (2005), Self-Confidence Inventory by Agnihotri (1985), and Aggression Scale by Pal (1983) were administered. Data were analysed with the help of the chi-square test. The study found a significant relationship between parent-child relationship and aggression, and self-confidence in female adolescents. The study revealed that female adolescents perceived favourable parent-child relationship which led to lesser aggression and high self-confidence.

➤ **Arora and Kaur (2014)** studied the relationship between emotional stability and dimensions of the parent-child relationship. The sample consisted of 200 adolescents (100 boys and 100 girls) of government and private secondary schools of Ludhiana district of Punjab. Parent-Child Relationship Scale by Nalini Rao (2005) and Emotional Stability Test by Dr. A. Sen Gupta and Dr. A. K. Sing (2005) were used as tools for data collection. Pearson's product moment correlation was employed to investigate the significance of the relationship. Results revealed that out of ten dimensions of the parent-child relationship, the relationship of six dimensions, namely, symbolic punishment, rejecting object punishment, demanding, indifferent, and the symbolic reward was significant and positive with the emotional stability of adolescents.

➤ **Gupta et al. (2014)** in a study found that loving and object reward dimensions of parent-child relationship were positively correlated to the locus of control of school going adolescents, whereas rejecting and neglecting dimensions were negatively correlated to it.

➤ **Shah (2014)** compared the self-concept, need-achievement, emotional intelligence and risk-taking behaviour of parentally accepted and rejected children of 13 to 14 years of age. Rohner's Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire-Child Form (1978) was used as tools for data collection. Findings revealed that parentally accepted children possessed high and positive self-concept, high need-achievement, high emotional intelligence, and low unhealthy risk taking behaviour as compared to parentally rejected children.

➤ **Singh (2013)** studied the relationship of academic achievement with the parent-child relationship with a sample of 200 high school students (100 boys and 100 girls) of Varanasi. Findings revealed that academic achievement was positively correlated with loving ($r = .45$ for boys and $r = .37$ for girls) and symbolic rewards ($r = .35$ for boys and $r = .278$ for girls) behaviour of parents, and negatively correlated with protecting ($r = -.32$ for boys and $r = -.35$ for girls), rejecting ($r = -.25$ for boys and $r = -.28$ for girls) and demanding ($r = -.32$ for boys and $r = -.24$ for girls) behaviour of parents. The study explored that positive parental behaviour is conducive for academic achievement.

➤ **Sharma and Manhas (2013)** made an attempt to compare the parent-adolescent relationship between government and private school girls. Four hundred adolescent girls were selected randomly from government and private school of the Jammu city with 200 girls from each. Results revealed a highly significant difference between the two groups on the domain protecting for both fathers as well as mothers. Findings indicated that parents of government school girls were more protective towards their daughters as compared to parents of private school girls. However, mothers of private school girls were perceived to be significantly high on the domains of symbolic punishment, indifferent, and object punishment from the mothers of government school girls.

➤ **Lal (2013)** compared the parent-child relationship between boy and girl students. The sample consisted of 200 students (100 boys and 100 girls) selected from the government and private secondary schools of Rohtak, Haryana. Findings indicated a significant difference in the parent-child relationship between boy and girl students of government secondary schools, whereas no significant difference was found in the parent-child relationship between boy and girl students of private secondary schools.

Further, no significant difference was found in the parent-child relationship between boy students as well as girl students of government and private secondary schools.

➤ **Thakar (2013)** examined the relation of adolescents' emotional maturity with their home environment and the parent-child relationship. The study also aimed to examine the difference in perception of the home environment and parent-child relationship on the basis of gender, family type, and inhabitation. Two hundred forty adolescents were selected from nuclear and joint families, urban and rural communities by using stratified random sampling technique. Home Environment Inventory constructed by Misra Karuna Sankar (1989), Parent-Child Relationship Scale developed by Dr. Nalini Rao (1971) and Emotional Maturity Scale by Dr. Yasvir Singh and Dr. Mahesh Bhargava (1971) were used. Correlational design and 2x2x2 factorial designs were employed. The obtained data were further statistically analysed under two techniques i.e., three-way ANOVA and Correlation analysis. Results indicated a significant difference in emotional maturity for gender and family type, but insignificant difference for inhabitation. On overall emotional maturity, girls were higher than boys, and adolescents who lived in the joint family scored less than those who lived in the nuclear family. Results also indicated significant gender differences in perception of home environment components. Boys were scored high in parental conformity and reward whereas girls were scored high in nurturance and rejection. The study also found significant gender differences in the protection and object reward dimension of the parent-child relationship. Girls perceived their parents as more protecting and rewarding than their boys' counterparts.

- **Sharma (2012)** intended to determine the effect of gender and academic achievement on the mother-child relationship of secondary school students. The sample consisted of 160 students of government secondary school of Shimla selected by cluster sampling technique. Findings indicated that boys developed a lower level of mother-child relationship on symbolic punishment and object punishment areas of parent-child relationship as compared to girls. The study also indicated that students with high level of academic achievement developed a higher level of mother-child relationship on loving, symbolic reward, indifferent, symbolic punishment, object punishment, demanding and neglecting areas of parent-child relationship as compared to students with low level of academic achievement.

- **Thaploo (2012)** studied the parent-child relationship among adolescents in relation to gender. Findings indicated that girls scored higher than boys in the relationship with their father in terms of protecting, symbolic punishment, rejecting, object punishment, symbolic reward and loving dimensions. Further, girls scored higher than boys in the relationship with their mother in terms of protecting, symbolic punishment and indifferent dimensions.

- **Shaban and Matto (2012)** investigated the relationship of both adolescent boys and girls with their mothers and fathers. Parent-Child Relationship Scale developed by Nalini Rao was used for data collection. Findings indicated a highly significant difference between the use of symbolic punishment, rejecting, loving dimension and gender of the adolescents, while no significant difference found when protecting dimension was compared to the gender of the adolescents.

➤ **Singh (2011)** explored the relationship between emotional maturity among senior secondary school students and various dimensions of the home environment. Findings revealed that control, protectiveness, punishment, conformity, social isolation, deprivation of privileges, and rejection dimensions of home environment showed significant negative correlation with emotional maturity, whereas reward, nurturance, permissiveness, and mental health dimensions of home environment showed significant positive correlation with emotional maturity. Furthermore, the study revealed no significant difference between male and female senior secondary school students in relation to emotional maturity.

➤ **Matheen (2011)** studied parent-child relationship and emotional maturity of city college girls. The age range of the sample (N=50) was from 19-22 years. Results revealed that except 'indifferent' all the dimensions of parent-child relationship (father and mother separately) were significantly related to the emotional maturity. Protecting, symbolic reward, loving and object reward of both father and mother had a negative relationship with the emotional maturity, and the neglecting, symbolic punishment, rejecting, object punishment, and demanding had a positive relationship with the emotional maturity of city college girls.

➤ In a study, **Shweta (2010)** attempted to assess the relation of temperament, parenting styles, and parenting stress with social competence and subjective well being. Findings revealed that adaptability, approach/withdrawal, quality of mood dimensions of temperament were positively correlated with social competence and subjective well-being. Results also revealed that authoritative parenting style was positively correlated with social competence and subjective well-being, while the authoritarian parenting

style was negatively correlated with social competence and subjective well-being. Further, parenting stress was inversely related to social competence. For subjective well being, results revealed that parental distress was correlated positively with negative affect and inversely with satisfaction with school, positive affect and entire domain-specific life satisfaction.

➤ **Jadav (2010)** investigated the relation of the home environment with emotional competence and emotional maturity of college going students. Three hundred college students were selected from different colleges of Belgaum district. The study used the Home Environment Scale developed by Beena Saha (1990), Emotional Competence Scale developed by Sharma and Bharadwaj (1995), and Emotional Maturity Scale developed by Sing and Bhargava (2006) to collect data. Home environment dimensions included confidence, socio-ability, self-sufficiency, personality and neutric tendency. Emotional competencies were the adequate depth of feeling, adequate expression and control of emotions, ability to functions with emotions, ability to cope with problem emotions, and enhancement of positive emotions; and emotional maturity dimensions were emotional stability, emotional progression, social adjustment, personality integration, and independence. Several moderator variables such as sex, religion, location, types of colleges, subject, and class were also explored in this study. Results revealed a significant positive relationship between the home environment and emotional maturity, and also between the home environment and the emotional competence of the college going students.

The study also explored the relationship between home environment dimensions and dimensions of emotional maturity, and emotional competence. Findings revealed

that confidence in the home environment was significantly associated with emotional stability, emotional progression and independence dimensions of emotional maturity, and with all dimensions of emotional competence. The socio-ability dimension of home environment was associated with emotional stability, emotional integration and independence dimensions of emotional maturity, and with adequate depth of feeling and adequate expression and control of emotions of emotional competence. Neutric tendency dimension of home environment was associated with emotional stability, emotional progression and personality integration of emotional maturity, and with adequate expression and control of emotions of emotional competence. Self-sufficiency dimension of home environment was associated with emotional progression, social adjustment and personality integration of emotional maturity, and to all dimensions of emotional competence. Personality integration dimension of home environment was associated with all dimensions of emotional maturity and emotional competence.

The study also revealed a positive and significant relationship between the home environment and emotional maturity, and emotional competence for both boy and girl students. The investigator also studied gender differences in all variables and found that boys and girls differ significantly in respect of confidence, neutric tendency, self-sufficiency and personality integration dimensions of the home environment, and in respect of emotional stability and emotional progression dimensions of emotional maturity, and also in all dimensions of emotional competence. Boys were higher than girls on emotional competence and its dimensions.

➤ **Pandey (2006)** attempted to study the parent-child relationship among adolescents of Kanpur city. Findings revealed that boys were scored higher in loving

dimension whereas girls were scored higher in the symbolic reward dimension. Most of the boys were treated by the rejecting dimension, while girls were treated by the protecting dimension. Fathers were perceived as high in the use of symbolic reward, and mothers were perceived as high in protecting.

➤ **Sethi (2006)** intended to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and the parent-child relationship of higher secondary school students and found that the students having good parent-child relationship possessed higher emotional intelligence as compared to those having a poor parent-child relationship.

➤ **Mathur and Sarma (2005)** studied the relationship between various perceived parenting patterns and emotional competencies of adolescents. The sample comprised of 180 boys and 180 girls of 13-15 years age studying in 9th class of government-aided schools of Agra city. The sample was selected by using the multi-stage random sampling technique. Parenting Scale developed by Bharadwaj and his associates (1998) and the Scale of Emotional Competencies by Sharma and Bharadwaj (1995) were used. Results indicated that adolescents' perceived rejection vs. acceptance had a highly positive significant relationship with adequate expression and control of emotions ($r = 0.222$) and encouragement of positive emotions ($r = 0.317$) and a highly significant negative relationship with the ability to cope with problem emotions ($r = - 0.247$). Again, adolescents' perceived neglect vs. indulgence had a highly significant relationship with the adequate expression and control of emotions ($r = 0.239$) and a highly significant negative relationship with the ability to cope with problem emotions ($r = - 0.204$). Adolescents' perceived freedom vs. discipline had a significant relationship with the adequate expression and control of emotions ($r = - 0.117$) and

encouragement of positive emotions ($r = 0.405$). Furthermore, adolescents' perceived faulty role expectation vs. realistic role expectation had a highly significant relationship with the adequate expression and control of emotions ($r = 0.297$) and encouragement of positive emotions ($r = 0.532$), and a highly significant negative relationship with the ability to cope with problem emotions ($r = - 0.195$).

➤ **Bhargava and Sidhu (2005)** in a study compared the personality characteristics of parentally accepted and rejected children. The study found that the accepted children were significantly different from rejected children on nine personality factors. Accepted children were outgoing, emotionally stable, obedient, happy, venturesome, vigorous, self-assured, controlled, and relax and unfrustrated, whereas the rejected children were reserved, emotionally less stable, aggressive, serious, shy, shrewd, apprehensive, careless, and tense.

➤ **Kaur and Kalasamna (2004)** investigated the level of parent-child relationship (father and mother separately) of adolescents by sex. Rao's Parent-Child Relationship Scale was administered on a sample of 160 adolescents of 14-16 years of Ludhiana. The study found that fathers were significantly higher in favour of punishment to their sons as compared to their daughters, whereas the mother's attitude towards daughter was more indifferent as they were more loving towards their son.

3.2.2 STUDIES ABROAD

➤ **Lougheed, Hollenstein, and Lewis (2016)** examined mother-daughter emotion socialization in 45 mother-daughter dyads with early adolescent daughters, 2 years apart. Mothers were more likely to respond to daughters' negative and positive emotions with supportiveness for daughters whose pubertal maturation occurred

relatively early. The study explored that mothers adjust their socialization of daughters' emotions according to their daughters' pubertal development.

➤ **Kretschmer et al. (2016)** examined associations of adolescents' peer experiences with parent-child relationship quality and parental problem behaviour. The study found that negative parent-child relationships in preadolescence reduced the likelihood of high-quality peer relations in mid-adolescence.

➤ **Hare, Szvedo, Schad, and Allen (2015)** in a longitudinal study, examined whether teens' perceptions of maternal psychological control predicted lower levels of adolescent autonomy displayed with their mothers and peers over time. Results indicated that significant predictions from teens' perceptions of maternal psychological control to teens' displays of autonomy in maternal and peer relations were found at age 16 after accounting for adolescent displays of autonomy with mothers and peers at age 13. The study highlighted the importance of minimizing psychological control to facilitate autonomy development for teens.

➤ **Ruhl, Dolan, and Buhrmester (2015)** conducted a longitudinal study to investigate the changes in the attachment with mothers and fathers during adolescence and to investigate the association of gender and parent-child relationship experiences with attachment trajectories. The study also attempted to examine the relative importance of specific positive and negative relationship experiences on attachment trajectories. One-hundred-ten adolescents of Grades 6, 8, 10 and 12 finally reported on relationships experiences and attachment avoidance and anxiety with mothers and fathers. Mothers and fathers reported on relationship experiences with adolescents. Hierarchical linear modeling showed that security with parents increased during

adolescence. Positive relationship experiences, such as companionship, satisfaction, approval, and support, predicted increases in security, and negative experiences, such as pressure and criticism, predicted decreases in security. The study also found that females reported less avoidance than males.

➤ **Harris et.al. (2015)** in a longitudinal study, examined the relation between parent-child closeness and self-esteem. They used data from Germany (N=982) and United States (N=451). The study inferred that the longitudinal effect of parent-child closeness and self-esteem is difficult to detect with adolescent samples.

➤ **Ali, Khaleque, and Rohner (2015)** in a meta-analysis, addressed a major question which was drawn from the basic postulates of Interpersonal Acceptance-Rejection Theory: Is the psychological adjustment of both males and females universally associated with children's and adult's perceptions of both maternal and paternal acceptance in childhood? The result showed that both paternal and maternal acceptance correlate significantly with the psychological adjustment of both children and adults across all cultures. Results also revealed no gender differences in the relationship between children's perception of parental acceptance and their psychological adjustment. However, remembrances of maternal acceptance in childhood had significantly stronger relations with adult sons' current psychological adjustment than that of adult daughters. Moreover, remembrances of paternal acceptance in childhood had significantly stronger relations with adult daughters' psychological adjustment than did daughters' remembrances of maternal acceptance.

➤ In a cross-cultural meta-analysis, **Ali, Khaleque, and Rohner (2014)** found that parental (paternal and maternal) and teacher acceptance correlate significantly with

psychological adjustment and school conduct of children regardless of gender differences.

➤ **Wang and Kenney (2014)** examined reciprocal relations between fathers' and mothers' harsh discipline and adolescents' conduct problems and depressive symptoms with a sample of 976 European American and African American families. The study found that mothers' and fathers' harsh verbal discipline at age 13 predicted an increase in adolescent conduct problems and depressive symptoms between ages 13 and 14.

➤ **Bireda (2013)** conducted a study to examine father-adolescent relationships and mother-adolescent relationships as perceived by adolescents and its relationship with adolescents' adjustment. Psychological control, involvement, parental warmth, and communication were used as measures of the parent-adolescent relationships. Further, self-esteem, school adjustment, substance use and depression were used as measures of adolescents' adjustment outcomes. A cross-sectional survey design was used for that study. The participants comprised of 809 adolescents (Males =427 and Females =382) from four private and government high schools of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, were selected by using stratified random sampling technique. Structured questionnaires were used as tools for data collection. Independent t-test, correlation, and regression analyses were used to analyze the data. Findings revealed that male adolescents perceived their mothers and fathers as more psychologically controlling than female adolescents. On the other hand, female adolescents perceived their mothers and fathers as more warm, more involved in their schooling, and engage in a more positive communication than the male adolescents. Further, a significant relationship was found among the four-parent adolescent relationship and adolescent adjustment variables. The regression

analysis also demonstrated that the four-parent-adolescent relation predictor variables account for adolescent adjustment, though their contribution to the prediction was varied by the gender of the adolescents' parents.

➤ **Kafle and Thakali (2013)** intended to explore the patterns of adolescent-parent relationship and peer relationship, and also the roles of parents and peer in adolescent psychosocial development. The study was a part of the ArctiChildren InNet project conducted in four countries of the Barents region - Finland, Sweden, Norway, and Russia. Narrative literature review method was used for the study. Findings revealed that adolescent-parent relationship and peer relationship lead to the development of identity, self-esteem, and social competence. The study also found that positive parent-adolescent relationships develop positive personality and positive outcomes such as mental and emotional well-being, adjustment, self-competence, and self-esteem. Similarly, supportive parental interaction encourages autonomy and connectedness which protect against stress from life events and can stabilize externalizing and internalizing problems. The study concluded that every single aspect of the positive adolescent-parent relationship and peer relationship lead to adolescent psycho-social development.

➤ **Padilla-Walker et al. (2012)** examined the bidirectional relations between authoritative parenting and adolescents' prosocial behaviour over a 1-year time period. Data were taken from Flourishing Families' Project and included reports from 319 two-parent families with an adolescent child. Cross-lag analyses supported bidirectional relations between parenting and prosocial behaviour with particular emphasis on the role of the adolescents' prosocial behaviour on subsequent parenting.

➤ **Lam, McHale, and Crouter (2012)** examined the development and adjustment correlate of parent-child social (parent, child and others present) and dyadic time (only parent and child present) from age 8 to 18. The sample was drawn from white families. Results revealed that social time decline across adolescence, but dyadic time with mothers and fathers peaked in early and middle adolescence, respectively. In addition, youths who spent more dyadic time with their fathers had higher general self-worth, and changes in social time with fathers were positively linked to changes in social competence.

➤ **Diamond, Fagundes, and Butterworth (2012)** examined the associations among empathic responsiveness, attachment style, and vagal tone in 103 mother-adolescent dyads. Multilevel modeling analyses revealed that adolescents' empathic responsiveness was predicted by attachment style, vagal tone, and interactions between them. Adolescents with the greatest empathic responsiveness had low levels of attachment insecurity and high levels of vagal tone.

➤ **Willemen, Schuengel, and Koot (2011)** examined whether the quality of parent-adolescent interactions moderates the association between stressful life events and internalizing and externalizing problems in referred adolescents (N=101). Adolescents and their parents reported on psychological problems at the time of referral and 4 years later. At follow-up, parents reported on stressful life events and an interaction task was conducted to observe autonomy and relatedness promoting behaviours. For adolescents exposed to stressful events, levels of internalizing and externalizing problems went up except if observed parent-adolescent interactions were

characterized by high autonomy and relatedness. The results implied that autonomy and relatedness protect adolescents against the deleterious effects of stressful life events.

➤ Using an ecological-transactional model of human development, **Roche, Ghazarian, Little, and Leventhal (2011)** examined reciprocity and contextual variability in associations between maternal punitive discipline and adolescent adjustment (N=1147). Findings indicated that delinquency and depressive symptoms during pre- and early adolescence were associated with increased punitive discipline about a year later (Time 2). When mothers reported less neighbourhood disorder, punitive discipline was associated with increased delinquency (for boys) and depressive symptoms (for girls) during mid-to-late adolescence.

➤ **Khalque and Rohner (2011)** in a meta-analysis explored that the mean weighted effect size of the correlation between paternal acceptance and psychological adjustment was significantly stronger than the mean weighted effect size of the correlation between maternal acceptance and psychological adjustment for children (but not for adults).

➤ **Turley, Desmond, and Bruch (2010)** used the data from the Texas Higher Education Opportunity Project (N=5,836) to study the educational consequences of a positive parent-child relationship. Findings revealed that positive parent-child relationships were associated with better academic achievement in high school.

➤ **Parmar and Rohner (2010)** explored the relationship between Indian adolescents' perceptions of their parents' (mothers' and fathers') acceptance and behaviour control, students' conduct in school, and students' psychological adjustment. The sample consisted of 217 high school students in India. Results showed that the

students perceived their mothers and fathers as warm, accepting and firm in behaviour control. Boys experienced more maternal acceptance than girls. Girls were well behaved than boys. Both boys and girls self-reported minor psychological adjustment problems. Perceived paternal and maternal acceptance was associated with boys' school conduct. However, the parent's acceptance and behaviour control were significantly associated with girls' school conduct.

➤ **Yap, Schwartz, Byrne, Simmons, and Allen (2010)** examined the relation of mothers' positive and negative interaction behaviours during mother-child interactions with the emotion regulation and depressive symptoms of their adolescent offspring. Based on observation of 163 mother-adolescent dyads in event-planning (EPI) and problem solving interactions (PSI) and adolescents' self reports of emotional regulation (ER) responses and depressive symptoms, the study revealed that adolescents whose mothers displayed less positivity and more negativity during the EPI displayed more emotionally dysregulated behaviours in the PSI and reported more frequent maladaptive ER responses. Adolescents whose mothers behaved negatively toward them more frequently during mother-adolescent interactions also reported more depressive symptoms.

➤ In a study, **Khan et al. (2010)** found that perceived maternal acceptance (but not paternal acceptance) was significantly correlated with boys' academic achievement. Neither maternal nor paternal acceptance was correlated with girls' academic achievement. However, the more accepting boys and girls were found better in school conduct.

- **Simpkins et al. (2009)** studied the adolescent adjustment and patterns of parents' behaviour (school involvement, community involvement, rule-setting, and cognitive stimulation) in early and middle adolescence (N=668 and 634 respectively). The study used data from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics-Child Development Supplement. Findings revealed that adolescents whose parents provide high cognitive stimulation and engage in all parenting behaviours had the highest academic and social adjustment. On the other hand, adolescents whose parents set a large number of rules or were also heavily involved in the community had the lowest adjustment.

- In a longitudinal study, **Doyle, Lawford, and Markiewicz (2009)** assessed self-reported attachment styles with father, mother, best friend and romantic partner across adolescence (N=373). Findings revealed that adolescents were more secure with mother than with their father, and most dismissive and fearful with father. Further, attachment insecurity with father was associated with insecurity with a best friend. Attachment insecurity with a romantic partner was associated primarily with insecurity with the friend, but changes over time tended to be associated with insecurity with mother.

- **DeGoede, Branje, and Meeus (2009)** examined the developmental changes in adolescents' perceptions of parent-adolescent relationships by assessing parental support, conflict with parents, and parental power with a sample of 951 early adolescents (50.4% boys) and 390 middle adolescents (43.3% boys). Findings revealed that parental support decreased from early to middle adolescence for boys and girls and increased from middle to late adolescence for girls while stabilizing for boys. Further, parental conflict temporarily increased during middle adolescence, and parental power decreased from early to late adolescence. The study explored that parent-adolescent

relationships became more egalitarian during adolescence. Parents perceived by adolescents as powerful were supportive, especially in early adolescence, and perceived conflict with parents was related to changes in parent-adolescent relationships towards more equality.

➤ **Crockett et al. (2007)** examined the perceptions of good parent-adolescent relationships among Mexican American high school students aged 14-17. Both genders described distinct relationships with mothers and fathers. Relationships with mothers were closer and more open than fathers, and mothers were seen as being more affectionate, lenient, and emotionally supportive, whereas fathers tended to express caring indirectly by providing instrumental and financial support and by just being there.

➤ **Steinberg, Blatt-Eisengert, and Cauffman (2006)** studied the patterns of competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful homes. The study collected data from a sample of 1,355 serious juvenile offenders. Findings showed that adolescents who perceive their parents as authoritative were psychologically mature, more academically competent, less prone to internalized distress, and less prone to externalizing problems than their peers, whereas those who perceive their parents as neglectful were less mature, less competent, and more troubled.

➤ **Steely and Rohner (2006)** conducted an ethnocultural research to analyze the relationships among perceived parental justness and harshness of corporal punishment, perceived parental acceptance-rejection, and psychological adjustment of Jamaican youths. The sample comprised of 97 youths aged 7 through 18 years. Results showed that the harshness of parental punishment by itself had little effect on variations in

youths' psychological adjustment. However, the perceived harshness of punishment increased the feeling of rejection which impaired psychological adjustment. The perceived justness of punishment was unrelated to variations in youths' adjustment.

➤ **Orbuch et al. (2005)** investigated the link between perceived parental relationships and quality of life of childhood cancer survivors. Findings indicated that survivors who reported better relationships with their parent consistently report a higher quality of life. Further, survivors reported better relationships with their mothers than with their fathers, but, better relationships with their fathers were found highly associated with overall quality of life, psychological well-being, and spiritual well-being.

➤ **Liabre and Carlo (2004)** examined how the parental relationship dimensions of both mothers and fathers independently and together predict adolescent outcomes. Worell and Worell's (1974) Parents Behaviour Form was administered to 180 adolescents to assess their perceived relationship with parents on seven dimensions- acceptance, active involvement, equalitarianism, cognitive understanding, support, strict control and rejection. Findings revealed that perceived maternal support and rigid control were the most consistent predictors of adolescent adjustment. In contrast, support and control from fathers were generally unrelated to adolescent adjustment. High levels of perceived maternal support and low levels of maternal rigid control were related to adolescent's reports of sympathy, social competence, and self-worth.

➤ In a study, **Eisenberg et al. (2003)** revealed that warm, positive parents may promote over controlled behaviour in their children, which predicts lower levels of

children's emotional expressivity. Cold, negative parents may foster under controlled behaviour in the children which fosters children's high expressivity.

➤ **Rohner and Britner (2002)** in a review explored that four classes of mental health issues such as psychological adjustment, unipolar depression and depressed affect, behaviour problems such as conduct disorder, externalizing behaviours, and delinquency, and substance abuse are possible worldwide correlates of parental acceptance-rejection.

➤ **Matza, Kupersmidt, and Glenn (2001)** found that rejected adolescents were differed from their accepted peers in their perceptions of relationships with both parents, specifically, with respect to warmth from both parents and autonomy from mothers. The study also found that rejected adolescents reported lower standards for parental monitoring and a range of support qualities from both parents.

➤ **Kobak et al. (1993)** found that secure adolescents participated in interactions with their mothers involving more positive engagement and less dysfunctional anger. The study also reported that secure adolescents displayed relatively more balanced assertiveness in their interactions; they presented their viewpoints and freely discussed their disagreements.

➤ **East (1991)** conducted a study to examine the extent to which the support within the parent-child relationship, and the parent-child agreement about this support, differ for withdrawn, aggressive, and sociable children. Data from 290 six graders and their parents were used. Results indicated that withdrawn girls and aggressive boys perceived less support in their father-child relationships than did other children, and the mothers of withdrawn and aggressive children and the fathers of aggressive children perceived

less support in the relationships with their children than did their parents. In addition, sociable children were more likely to agree with their parents about the supportiveness of their parent-child relationships than withdrawn and aggressive children. Further, results revealed that withdrawn and aggressive children had less supportive relationships with their parents than did sociable children. Finally, mother-daughter relationships were perceived as more close by both mothers and daughters than mother-son relationships.

➤ **Richardson, Abramowitz, Asp, and Peterson (1986)** investigated the effects of family size, sibling spacing, and gender on young adolescents' relationships with their parents. Multivariate analysis of variance revealed that mother-child relationships in early adolescence were influenced by child's gender. The study explored that daughters spend more time with their mothers and perceived them as less strict. The sex difference in the quantity of mother-adolescent interaction was evident in large families. In small families, mothers spend similar amounts of time with daughters and sons. On the contrary, father-child relationships were influenced by sibling spacing. Results indicated that a wider spacing appeared more beneficial to the father-adolescent relationship. Adolescents who were further in age from their siblings reported spending more time with their fathers and receiving less strict discipline.

➤ **Crook, Raskin, and Eliot (1981)** studied the association of early parent-child relationships with the depression of adult life. Reports of early parental behaviour provided by 714 hospitalised depressed patients and 387 normal adults. Findings indicated that depression in adult life was associated with parental rejection and control through such psychological damaging techniques as derision, negative evaluation,

withdrawal of affection, and manipulation through guilt and anxiety during childhood. Maternal rejection appeared more closely associated with depression in females than males among black as well as white subjects. On the contrary, paternal rejection appeared more closely associated with depression in males than females among blacks, while among whites paternal rejection was related to depression in females rather than males.

3.3 STUDIES ON SOCIAL COMPETENCE

A review of studies on social competence has been presented under the headings of Studies in India and Studies Abroad.

3.3.1 INDIAN STUDIES

- **Kaur (2018)** studied social competence among adolescents in relation to emotional maturity. The sample consisted of 100 students of government and private senior secondary schools of Mohali. Social Competence Scale by V. P. Sharma and P. Shukla and Emotional Maturity Scale by Y. Singh and M. Bhargava were used as tools for data collection. Findings revealed that emotionally mature adolescents had the more social competence and vice versa. Further, social competence and emotional maturity among adolescents were not varied on the basis of sex and type of school.

- **Kumari (2017)** made a comparative study of social sensitivity, social skill and social relation of rural area and urban area working women of Himachal Pradesh. The study used the Social Competence Scale developed by V.P. Sharma, P. Shukla, and K. Shukla as data gathering tool. Findings revealed that the rural area working women were more socially sensitive, had better social skills and effective social relationship.

➤ **Singh (2016)** made a comparative study to assess the difference in degree of social competence among the students of Bathinda city. The sample comprised of 200 students (100 male students and 100 female students, further 100 hostelers and 100 day-scholars). The study used the Social Competence Scale developed by V.P.Sharma, P. Shukla, and K. Shukla (1998) as tool for data collection. Findings revealed no significant difference in social competence between hostelers and day-scholars as well as between day-scholar boys and day-scholar girls, but significant difference found between hosteler boys (M=174.9) and hosteller girls (M=180.5).

➤ **Singh (2015)** investigated the relationship of social competence of adolescents with their emotional intelligence and home environment. The sample comprised of 100 students of class VIII of the government schools, Ludhiana, Punjab. The study used Social Competence Scale developed by Sharma, Shukla, and Shukla (2013, Revised), Emotional Intelligence Scale developed by Singh and Narain (2014) and Home Environment Inventory developed by Mishra (2012) as tools for data collection. Pearson's coefficient of correlation was used to find the correlations. Results revealed a significant positive correlation between social competence and emotional intelligence among adolescents. Results also revealed that punishment, isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection dimension of the home environment had a significant negative association with the social competence of adolescents whereas control, protectiveness, conformity, reward, nurturance and permissiveness dimension of the home environment had a significant positive association with the social competence of adolescents.

➤ **Sing and Kaur (2015)** investigated the relationship of academic achievement with the social competency and emotional intelligence among adolescents. A sample of

110 students (50 boys and 60 girls) was drawn from the secondary schools of Ludhiana. Social Competence Scale developed by Sharma, Shukla, and Shukla (1992) and the Emotional Intelligence Scale developed by Hyde, Pethe, and Dhar (2002) were administered. Results indicated a low positive correlation between academic achievement and social competency as well as between academic achievement and emotional intelligence among total sample adolescents and among both adolescent boys and girls.

➤ **Sharma (2015)** investigated the relationship between primary care giver's emotional intelligence and the optimistic explanatory style and social competence of their children. The sample consisted of 301 parent-child dyads. The study used a self-report Emotional Intelligence Scale, Children Attribution Style Questionnaire, and School Social Behaviour Scale for data collection. Findings revealed no significant influence of emotional intelligence of primary care giver's on the social competence and optimism of children. The investigator reported that pattern of parent-child interaction, level of involvement, secure attachment, etc. are some of the parameters which provide the foundation for optimism and social competence.

➤ **Roma and Bakashi (2015)** conducted a study to examine the social competence of secondary school students in relation to study habits and academic achievement. Social Competence Scale developed by Sharma, Shukla, and Shukla and Study Habits Inventory developed by B. V. Patel were administered on a sample of 200 students (90 girls and 117 boys) of the government and private schools of Jammu. Results revealed a significant positive correlation between social competence and study habits for the total sample students ($r = 0.18$) and among girl students ($r = 0.15$). However, the study

revealed an insignificant correlation between social competence and study habits among boy students and for students having above average, below average and average academic achievement.

➤ **Nayak (2014)** examined the influence of different demographic variables such as gender, age and cultural settings on the social competence of adolescents. The sample consisted of 240 students (120 boys and 120 girls) of 15-18 age groups randomly selected from higher secondary schools of Odisha, India. Standardized questionnaires were used. Data were analyzed by using descriptive statistics, multifactorial analysis of variance, post hoc test, correlational analysis, and factor analysis. Findings revealed that adolescent girls were more socially competent than adolescent boys of the same age group and same cultural environment. Social competence was found positively correlated with age. Older adolescents were higher in social competence than younger adolescents. Findings also indicated that both urban adolescent boys and girls were higher in social competence than their rural counterparts.

➤ **Syiem and Nongrum (2014)** studied the social competence of secondary school students of Shillong town in relation to age, sex, community, and type of school. The study also attempted to examine the relationship between social competence and academic achievement of secondary school students. Social Competence Scale developed by V.P. Sharma, P. Shukla, and K. Shukla was administered on a sample of 83 students selected randomly from five schools of Shillong Town. Findings revealed no significant difference in social competence in relation to age, sex, and community. But, the significant differences were found between students of the deficit and private schools, and private and government schools. Further, findings revealed no significant

relationship between social competence and academic achievement of secondary school students.

➤ **Sanwal (2013)** conducted a study to assess the social competence of adolescents of Jaipur. The sample consisted of 120 adolescents of 13-15 age group selected randomly from Sadhu Vaswani Public School of Jaipur, Rajasthan. Social Competence Scale developed by Sharma, Shukla, and Shukla was used. Frequencies, percentage, and t-test were computed to analyse data. Results revealed a significant change in the social competence level with regard to their gender. Adolescent boys were better in the social competence level than the adolescent girls.

➤ **Aman and Basanti (2013)** studied the level of social competence among tribal adolescents in relation to gender, family, fathers' occupation and their level of intelligence. Social Competence Scale developed by Sharma, Shukla, and Shukla was used. The sample comprised of 200 students (100 boys and 100 girls) studied in class X in high and higher secondary schools of Kinnaur, Himachal Pradesh. Findings revealed that tribal adolescents were not significantly different in their social competence with respect to gender, family type, and fathers' occupation. But they were different in social competence with respect to the level of intelligence. Results indicated that tribal adolescents with high intelligence levels were more socially competent than those with comparatively low intelligence levels.

➤ In a study, **Yadav and Singh (2011)** attempted to compare the social competence of undergraduate male and female students as well as undergraduate urban and rural students. The study followed the descriptive method of research. The sample comprised of 320 undergraduate students (160 male and 160 female) of rural and urban

areas (180 urban and 140 rural) of Kanpur, Uttarpradesh. The study used Social Competence Scale developed by Sharma, Shukla, and Shukla. Results revealed a significant difference between social competence of undergraduate male and female students as well as undergraduate urban and rural students. Findings indicated that the social competence of undergraduate male students (M=194.41) was higher than that of undergraduate female students (M=186.50) and social competence of urban undergraduate students (M=192.90) was higher than that of rural undergraduate students (M=186.28).

➤ **Lawrence and Jesudoss (2011)** studied the relationship between social maturity and academic achievement of higher secondary school students, and also gender differences in social maturity. The study found a positive relationship between social maturity and academic achievement. Further, girls were found more socially mature than boys.

➤ In a study, **Anita (2011)** investigated the influence of residential background, gender, academic stream, the frequency of internet access and their various interactions on social competence, emotional maturity and general well-being of internet user adolescents of Delhi and Bahadurgarh. Descriptive survey research with the factorial design was applied. The sample consisted of 496 internet user adolescents. Stratified multistage sampling technique was used to select the sample. The study used Social Competence Scale by Sharma, Shukla, and Shukla (1992), Emotional Maturity Scale by Singh and Bhargava (1990), the self-constructed scale of general well-being, and the internet use questionnaire. Findings revealed no significant influence of residential background, gender, academic stream, and frequency of internet access on social

competence of internet user adolescents. However, the study revealed significant interactive influence between residential background and academic stream on the social competence of internet user adolescents.

➤ In a study conducted with a sample of 400 high school students (200 boys and 200 girls) of New Delhi, **Singh and Thukral (2010)** found that boy and girl students did not differ significantly on the basis of their social maturity. However, the mean social maturity score of girls was higher than those of boys.

➤ **Rani (2010)** assessed the social competence of vocational stream students in relation to their family relationship, emotional maturity, and academic achievement. Three dimensions of family relationships, i.e., parental acceptance, concentration, and avoidance were included in the study. The sample was limited to 500 vocational stream students of government senior secondary schools of Chandigarh. Family Relationship Inventory developed by Sherry and Sinha (1977); and Emotional Maturity Scale developed by Sinha and Bhargava (1985) and self-developed Social Competence Scale were used for data collection. Results indicated that social competence was significantly and positively correlated with parental acceptance (total, father, and mother), and negatively correlated with parental avoidance (total, father, and mother), whereas no significant relationship found with parental concentration. The study also explored that the mother's role was more crucial in determining social competence as compared to the father's role. Furthermore, the study revealed a significant and positive correlation of social competence with emotional maturity and academic achievement.

➤ **Desai (2007)** compared emotional maturity, social competence and personality factors among only born adolescents and sibling adolescents. The study used Emotional

Maturity Scale by Sharma and Bhargava, Social Competence Scale by Sharma, Shukla, and Shukla, and Personality Questionnaire by Kapoor for data collection. Results indicated that only born adolescents were significantly different in emotional maturity, social competence, and personality factors as compared to sibling adolescents.

3.3.2 STUDIES ABROAD

➤ **Monahan and Steinberg (2011)** investigated how early pubertal maturation and school transition alter youth trajectories of social competence during the transition to adolescence. The study reported that early pubertal maturation and school transitions accentuate individual differences, increasing social competence among more competent youth, but further diminishing social competence among less competent individuals.

➤ **Sorlie, Hagen, and Ogden (2008)** examined the degree of continuity and distinctiveness in social competence and antisocial behaviour in a longitudinal structural equation model. Participants were 391 Norwegian middle school students, their parents, and teachers. Students were assessed when they were approximately 13 years of age and again when they were about 15 years old. Findings revealed that low social competence at age 13 predicted antisocial behaviour at age 15. Social competence was found much stable across middle school, more than did the antisocial behaviour. Further, social competence and antisocial behaviour had a relatively strong negative association with each other.

➤ In a study, **McDowell, Parke, and Wang (2003)** found that parental advice-giving style (i.e., controlling interaction style and parental warmth) and content (i.e., number and quality of solutions) were negatively related to children's social competence. The study also revealed that father's advice-giving characteristics (content

and style) predicted children's social competence above and beyond that of mothers, and paternal and maternal advice-giving characteristics were related to depressive symptoms and loneliness.

➤ **Lindsey and Mize (2000)** examined connections between parent-child pretense and physical play and children's social competence and found that mutually responsive parent-child interaction during both pretense and physical play was associated with children's social competence. In addition, parent-child joint pretense play was linked to social competence.

➤ **Gresham and MacMillan (1997)** in an empirical review on social competence and affective functioning of students with mild disabilities found that children with mild disabilities had poorer social skills, exhibited more interfering problem behaviours and were poorly accepted or rejected by peers.

➤ **Wentzel (1991)** examined the relationship between academic performance and three aspects of social competence, namely, socially responsible behaviour, sociometric status, and self-regulatory processes (goal setting, interpersonal trust, and problem-solving styles). Based on a sample of 423 students of 12 and 13 years of age, the study found that each aspect of social competence was related significantly to students' grades. Findings indicated that children who were perceived as being socially responsible, trust their classmates, and solve interpersonal problems in adaptive ways earned higher grades than those who did not. In addition, popular and neglected children earned higher grades and rejected children earned lower grades than average children.

3.4 STUDIES ON EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

A review of studies on emotional competence has been presented under the headings of Studies in India and Studies Abroad.

3.4.1 STUDIES IN INDIA

- **Sati and Gir (2016)** attempted to assess and compare the emotional intelligence of late adolescent boys and girls residing in the nuclear family. The study found that in the nuclear family, girls had a better level of emotional intelligence, interpersonal awareness and intrapersonal awareness as compared to boys, whereas boys had a better level of intrapersonal and interpersonal management skills as compared to girls.
- **Godati, Bhagyalakshmi, and Hemalatha (2015)** studied differences between adolescent boys and girls in emotional intelligence with a sample of 50 boys and 50 girls selected randomly from Sri Chaithanya junior college of Tirupati. Mangal's Emotional Intelligence Scale was used. Results revealed no significant difference in emotional intelligence between adolescent boys and girls.
- **Karmvir (2015)** assessed the emotional competence and academic performance among learning disability group of students, and studied the impact of cognitive behaviour therapy on their emotional competence as well as on academic performance and its efficacy across gender. The cognitive behaviour therapy was administered in the experimental group. Emotional Competence Scale by Sharma and Bharadwaj was used. Findings indicated a significant positive correlation between enhancement of positive emotions and academic performance. However, a significant negative correlation was found between the adequate depth of feeling and academic performance. Results also indicated that the emotional competence of learning disabled students enhanced with

cognitive behaviour therapy. Furthermore, no difference was obtained in overall emotional competence and academic performance of the experimental group across gender. However, a significant difference was found on dimensions of emotional competence except for adequate expression and control of emotions.

➤ **Kumar, A. (2015)** intended to study the relationship between self-concept and emotional competence of 200 secondary school students of Moga District, Ludhiana. The study also attempted to explore the gender difference in emotional competence among the secondary school students. Findings revealed no significant relationship between self-concept and emotional competence of students. Further, a significant difference in emotional competence was found between boy and girl students. Girl students were more emotionally competent than their counterparts.

➤ **Dutta, Chetia, and Soni (2015)** attempted to study the gender differences in emotional maturity among secondary school students of Lakhimpur and Sonitpur Districts of Assam. The study found that male students of government secondary schools were higher in emotional maturity than their counterparts. But, no significant gender difference was found in the emotional maturity of private secondary school students.

➤ **Kumar and Malik (2014)** in their investigation on the relationship between emotional competence and academic achievement of 100 prospective teachers of two self-financed colleges of education situated in Bahadurgarh, Haryana, found no significant relationship for both male and female prospective teachers.

➤ **Suthar (2014)** investigated the emotional competence of adolescents in relation to the type of family, gender, and living area. Eighty adolescents of Vadodara district

were the respondents of that study. The Scale of Emotional Competencies developed by Sharma and Bharadwaj (2007) was used. Findings showed that adolescents of the joint family had better emotional competence than adolescents of the nuclear family. However, no significant difference was found in the emotional competence of adolescents in relation to gender and living area.

➤ **Mehrotra and Dua (2014)** studied the variations in the emotional competence of higher secondary level students in relation to their gender and locality. A sample of 600 adolescents studying in class XI and XII was selected through multistage random sampling from Bareilly and Budaum districts of Rohilkhand Region (India). Emotional Competence Scale by Bharadwaj and Sharma was employed. Findings revealed that girl students were higher in the enhancement of positive emotions than the boy students, and in other dimensions of emotional competence, boy and girl students were similar. Furthermore, urban students were higher in the enhancement of positive emotions than rural students.

➤ In a study, **Saini (2013)** examined the emotional competence among successful, unsuccessful athlete and non-athlete adolescents, and found that both male and female successful athletes exhibited better on emotional competence than their counterpart unsuccessful and non-athlete adolescents. The study explored that the male successful athletes demonstrated better on the adequate depth of feeling, adequate expression and control of emotions, ability to cope with problem emotions and total emotional competence than their counterpart female successful athletes. Further, the male unsuccessful athletes exhibited better on the adequate depth of feeling, adequate expression and control of emotions, ability to function with emotions, ability to cope

with problem emotions, enhancement of positive emotions and total emotional competence than their counterparts. In addition, the male non-athletes demonstrated better on the adequate depth of feeling, adequate expression and control of emotions, ability to function with emotions, ability to cope with problem emotions and total emotional competence than female non-athletes.

➤ **Kumar, S. (2013)** studied the interactional effect of gender and emotional competence on aggressive behaviour of secondary school students. The study found that gender and level of emotional competence did not interact significantly with regard to their combined influence on the aggressive behaviour of secondary school students. Findings also revealed no significant difference in aggressive behaviour of secondary school students at the different level of emotional competence.

➤ **Sharma and Lata (2013)** attempted to compare the emotional competence among students in relation to gender and types of schools. Two hundred students of class IX from K.V. and Non-K.V. schools of Ludhiana, Punjab were selected for the study. The study used the Emotional Competence Scale of R. Bharadwaj and H.C. Sarma (1998) for gathering data. Findings revealed that K.V. students were more emotionally competent than Non-K.V. students. However, no significant gender differences were found between K.V. boys and K.V. girls, and between Non-K.V. boys and Non-K.V. girls in relation to emotional competence.

➤ **Sharma (2013)** made an attempt to study the emotional competence of visually impaired adolescents. A sample of 18 visually impaired adolescents (12 boys and 6 girls) was selected by quota sampling technique. The study used the Scale of Emotional Competence developed by H.C. Sharma. Results indicated that both genders possessed

an average level of emotional competence, and no significant gender differences were found in the emotional competencies among visually impaired adolescents. However, mean score comparison revealed that female adolescents were higher than male adolescents only in the encouragement of positive emotions component of emotional competence.

➤ **Khan and Bhat (2013)** found a significant difference between adolescent boys and girls in emotional intelligence. Adolescent boys were found more responsive, better able to make intelligent decisions using the healthy balance of emotions and reasons, more aware of their weakness, high in self-development and value-orientation than adolescent girls.

➤ In a study, **Katoch (2013)** found no significant gender difference on the emotional intelligence of senior secondary school students of Shimla, Himachal Pradesh.

➤ **Bala (2012)** examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and occupational success in the Indian context, and focused on the impact of various emotional intelligence competencies in predicting occupational success. The study explored that seven key emotional competencies were the predictor of seven variables of occupational success. Those were: Self Control (Self Regulation), Optimism (Self-Motivation), Adaptability (Self Regulation), Influence (Social Skills), Team Capabilities (Social Skills), Developing others/Coaching (Social Awareness), and Initiative (Self Motivation). The attitude of having successfully contributed to an organization was influenced by optimism; to consider ones efforts as being well rewarded is an important constituent of job satisfaction was influenced by ‘developing

others/coaching'; adaptability and team capabilities contributed positively to the job satisfaction variable of 'learning'; being optimist and being influential were positive contributors to creating successful relationships. The job success attitude of handling emotions well was influenced significantly by the competency of being an optimist; being adaptive contributed positively to success expectation, and the attitude that one is balancing work-life well was influenced by team capabilities.

➤ **Joshi and Yumlembam (2012)** studied differences in personality pattern and emotional competence among high and low socially intelligent subjects. The sample for the study was selected from Dehradun district which consisted of 102 low socially intelligent and 96 high socially intelligent subjects. The sample was drawn from the Zoological Survey of India, Wadia Institute of Himalayan Geology. The study used Social Intelligence Scale by Chadha and Ganeshan, Differential Personality Inventory developed by Singh and Singh and the Scale of Emotional Competencies by Bhardwaj. Findings revealed that high and low socially intelligent subjects were significantly different from each other on personality pattern and emotional competence. As far as the difference in emotional competence was concerned high socially intelligent subjects exhibited higher emotional competence than the low socially intelligent subjects. In addition, in the dimensions of emotional competence, high socially intelligent subjects had a higher tendency of adequate expression and control of emotions, and ability to functions with emotions than the low socially intelligent subjects. On the contrary, low socially intelligent subjects had a higher tendency of adequate depth of feeling, ability to cope with problem emotions and enhancement of positive emotions than the high socially intelligent subjects.

- **Bala (2011)** attempted to examine the role of home environment in predicting emotional intelligence of higher secondary school students of Drug district, Chhattisgarh, and found home-environment as an insignificant predictor of emotional intelligence. The study also revealed that male students were higher in emotional intelligence than female students.

- **Naghavi and Redzuan (2011)** made a review of empirical studies on the relation between gender and emotional intelligence, and found that girls were higher than boys in their emotional Intelligence, but high emotional intelligence in boys was a better predictor of achievement.

- **Illiyas (2011)** intended to ascertain the need achievement of the three groups of students (viz. visually challenged, physically challenged, and normal students) in order to compare them in relation to emotional competence and its dimensions, namely, perceiving and understanding emotions, expressing and labeling emotions, and managing and regulating emotions. Findings indicated that managing and regulating emotions dimension of emotional competence significantly predicted the need achievement of visually challenged students as well as normal students, whereas perceiving and understanding emotions dimension of emotional competence significantly predicted the need achievement of physically challenged students. The study also indicated no significant differences in any dimensions of emotional competence between visually challenged students and physically challenged students, visually challenged students and normal students, and physically challenged students and normal students.

➤ **Mohani (2008)** studied the effectiveness of guidance services on academic achievement, self-concept and emotional competence of adolescents by using the experimental method. The study found that guidance services were useful in improving the level of academic achievement, self-concept and emotional competence of adolescents. The study also revealed a significant difference in the gain scores in academic achievement and self-concept of male and female adolescents, whereas no significant difference was found in terms of emotional competence.

➤ **Desai (2006)** examined the relation of work status, educational level, caste and emotional maturity or emotional and mental competency of mothers, whether working or non-working, with the emotional and mental competency of their adolescents. Emotional and Mental Competency Scale by Dr. Patel, both adult form and adolescent form, were administered to the sample of 640 mothers and their youngsters. Result revealed that work status and educational level of mothers were not significantly related to the emotional and mental competency of the adolescents, but the caste of mothers influenced to some extent. In addition, the emotional maturity of mothers contributed very significantly to the emotional and mental competency or behavioural efficiency of their adolescents.

3.4.2 STUDIES ABROAD

➤ **Domitrovich, Durlak, Staley, and Weissberg (2017)** made a critical review of the essentiality of social-emotional competence in school children. The review reported that social-emotional competence associates with social-behavioural and academic outcomes that are important for healthy development; and predicts important life

outcomes in adulthood. Further, social-emotional competence can be improved with interventions.

➤ **Modecki, Zimmer-Gembeck, and Guerra (2017)** in a critical review of the literature on emotional regulation, coping, and decision-making skills reported that all these three capabilities are critical to helping young better navigate challenges and prevent or reduce externalizing problems in adolescence. Further, interventions can successfully improve these three capabilities and produce behavioural improvements.

➤ **Rowell, Ciarrochi, Deane, and Heaven (2016)** examined the longitudinal relationships between emotional identification skill (EIS) and social support in adolescence. Participants were 903 Australian high school students, with 314 participating in all four waves (Grade 9 to Grade 12). Students completed questionnaires annually, including self-report measures of EIS and social support. Findings indicated that social support and emotion identification skill were mutually influencing each others' development.

➤ **Hessel, Loeb, Szvedo, and Allen (2016)** examined adolescents' ability to utilize emotional repair (i.e., ability to actively change negative moods to more positive moods) as a predictor of the quality of their developing peer and romantic relationship over time. Based on observational data and partners' reports, the study found that adolescents with initially stronger emotional repair abilities were rated as increasingly socially competent over time, and both displayed and experienced increasingly positive interactive behaviours with close peers over time. Further, adolescents' romantic partners reported more positive relationships, with enhanced communication, and fewer critical, blaming, or hostile interactions.

➤ **Lemerise and Harper (2014)** reviewed the models of emotional competence and developed a definition of emotional competence as the ability to accurately perceive and identify emotions, regulate emotional arousal and enacting appropriate behavioural responses during emotion-eliciting events. Emotional competence incorporates children's abilities to use several skills successfully, such as accurately perceiving and identifying emotions, regularizing emotions and enacting appropriate emotional responses in emotionally charged situations. These researchers also reviewed the development of emotional competence in the context of parent-child relationships and discussed how the emotional competence skills, acquired through parent-child relationships, help children to negotiate the broader world of peers. The review reported that successful skill development in young children is highly dependent upon the parent-child relationship. Parenting characterised with higher levels of warmth, responsiveness, and reciprocity creates the most optimal environment for the successful development of emotional competence. The skills that comprise emotional competence are also crucial for peer relationships and have been linked to positive peer relations, behavioural adjustment, and school readiness in the preschool and early elementary school years. Infants' and children's early relationships with care givers contribute to the development of emotional competence. The review also stated that as children develop, relationships with siblings, peers, and others provide additional relational contexts for the development of the skills that comprise emotional competence, and skills acquired in the context of the parent-child relationship help children negotiate these new relational contexts.

➤ **Chaplin and Aldao (2012)** made a comprehensive empirical review of gender differences in childhood and adolescent emotional expression. The study explored that

girls showed greater positive emotional expressions than boys, and this gender difference become increasingly evident as the age increased into adolescence and in situations with an unfamiliar adult and in which there was social pressure to make negative emotions. Further, girls also expressed more internalizing emotions such as sadness, fear, sympathy and share than boys. In comparison to girls, boys showed greater externalizing emotion expressions, particularly anger expressions up-to middle childhood periods. The study also explored that in adolescence, girls expressed more externalizing emotions than boys.

➤ In a literature review, **Hubbard and Coie (2000)** attempted to explore the role of emotional functioning in the social competence of children. The focus of the study was on peer relations. The study used social success as a criterion for defining competence rather than social skills. The study explored that the socially competent children were able to recognize affect in others and in self more readily and accurately than less competent children.

3.5 RESUME OF THE RELATED STUDIES

The following observations are made by the investigator on the basis of the review of related literature presented.

(a) Studies on parent-adolescent relationships: Regarding studies on parent-adolescent relationship it is observed that many of the earlier studies done in India investigated the relation of parent-child relationship during adolescence with different variables such as adjustment (Dash and Patra, 2014), locus of control (Gupta et al., 2014; Ram et al., 2015), career maturity (Palit and Neogi, 2015), achievement motivation (Dash and Sriranjjan, 2014), aggression and self-confidence (Nidhi and

Kotnala, 2014), academic achievement (Singh, 2013; Sharma, 2012), personality characteristics (Bhargava and Sidhu, 2005), emotional stability (Arora and Kaur, 2014), emotional maturity (Matheen, 2011), etc. A few studies focused on the relationship between attachment style and social competence (Kumar and Raj, 2016), parenting styles, parenting stress and social competence (Sweta, 2010), perceived parenting patterns and emotional competencies (Mathur and Sarma, 2005), home environment and emotional competence (Jadav, 2010), home environment and emotional maturity (Singh, 2011; Jadav, 2010).

A few studies investigated the parent-child relationship of adolescents by sex (Sharma and Dube, 2015; Manhas and Kour, 2014; Lal, 2013; Kaur and Kalasamna, 2004), age (Pandey, 1992), and type of school (Sharma and Manhas, 2013).

A large number of studies done abroad focused on diverse parenting variables and its relation to various aspects of adolescents' development, e.g., maternal psychological control and adolescent autonomy (Hare et al., 2015); parent-child closeness and self-esteem (Harris, et al., 2015); parents' harsh discipline and adolescents' conduct problems and depressive symptoms (Wang and Kenney, 2014), and adjustment (Roche et al., 2011); patterns of adolescent-parent relationship and psychosocial development (Kafle and Thakali, 2013); and authoritative parenting and adolescents' prosocial behaviour (Padilla-Walker et al., 2012).

Studies abroad also focused on the association of parent-child social and dyadic time with development and adjustment (Lam, McHale, and Crouter, 2012); empathic responsiveness, attachment style, and vagal tone (Diamond, Fagundes, and Butterworth, 2012); mothers' positive and negative interaction behaviours and emotion regulation

and depressive symptoms (Yap et al., 2010); mother-daughter emotion socialization (Lougheed, Hollenstein, and Lewis, 2016); attachment with mothers and fathers during adolescence (Ruhl, Dolan, and Buhrmester, 2015).

Several studies focused on the relationship of maternal and paternal acceptance and psychological adjustment (Ali, Khaleque, and Rohner, 2015; Khalque and Rohner, 2011; Parmar and Rohner, 2010; Steely and Rohner, 2006), school conduct (Ali, Khaleque, and Rohner, 2014; Parmar and Rohner, 2010), and academic achievement (Khan et al., 2010; Kim and Rohner, 2002).

A few studies abroad explored the association of parent-adolescent interactions with stressful life events and internalizing and externalizing problems (Willems, Schuengel, and Koot, 2011), educational consequences (Turley, Desmond, and Bruch, 2010), and adjustment, (Simpkins et al., 2009). Some studies found on attachment styles with father, mother, best friend and romantic partner across adolescence (Doyle, Lawford, and Markiewicz, 2009); competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful homes (Steinberg, Blatt-Eisengert, and Cauffman, 2006).

A few studies focused on the relationship of parent-adolescent relationships with emotional expressivity (Eisenberg et al., 2003), quality of life (Orbuch et al., 2005), and adolescent outcomes (Liable and Carlo, 2004).

Studies found on continuity in parent-child relationships from infancy to middle childhood and relations with friendship competence (Freitag et al., 1996); family experiences and school adjustment (DuBois, Eitel, and Felner, 1994); parent-child relationship among withdrawn, aggressive, and sociable children (East, 1991); effects of

family size, sibling spacing, and gender on young adolescents' relationships with their parents (Richardson et al., 1986), and association of early parent-child relationships with the depression of adult life (Crook, Raskin, and Eliot, 1981).

(b) Studies on social competence: Previous studies done in India investigated the relation of social competence with emotional intelligence (Sharma, 2015; Singh, 2015), home environment (Singh, 2015), academic achievement (Sing and Kaur, 2015), and family relationship (Rani, 2010). Studies also focused on the assessment of the social competence among adolescents (Desai, 2007; Sanwal, 2013). Some of the studies focused on social competence in relation to study habits and academic achievement (Roma and Bakashi, 2015), age, gender/sex, locality, type of school, community, and cultural setting (Syiem and Nongrum, 2014; Nayak, 2014; Aman and Basanti, 2013; Yadav and Singh, 2011; Anita, 2011).

Studies conducted abroad found on early pubertal maturation, school transition and social competence (Monahan and Steinberg, 2011), the degree of continuity and distinctiveness in social competence and antisocial behaviour (Sorlie, Hagen, and Ogden, 2008), the relation between academic performance and social competence (Wentzel, 1991), etc. Many studies have been conducted on the social competence of pre-school children, school-aged children at the international level which are not included in the present review.

(c) Studies on emotional competence: Regarding studies on emotional competence it is observed that many of the earlier studies done in India investigated emotional competence in relation to gender, types of schools, locality, etc. (Mehrotra and Dua, 2014; Sharma and Lata, 2013); relationship of emotional competence with

different variables such as academic achievement (Karmvir, 2015; Kumar and Malik, 2014), self-concept (Kumar, 2015) and need achievement (Illiya, 2011). Some of the studies found on emotional competence among successful, unsuccessful athlete and non-athlete adolescents (Saini, 2013), among visually impaired adolescents (Sharma, 2013); effect of emotional competence on aggressive behaviour (Kumar, 2013); personality pattern and emotional competence among high and low socially intelligent subjects (Joshi and Yumlembam, 2012); effectiveness of Guidance services (Mohini, 2008) and cognitive behaviour therapy (Karmvir, 2015) on emotional competence.

Further, studies found on some other variables related to emotional competence such as emotional intelligence of adolescent boys and girls (Naghavi and Redzuan, 2011; Godati, Bhagyalakhmi, and Hemalatha, 2015; Sati and Gir, 2016); emotional maturity of secondary school students (Dutta, Chetia, and Soni, 2015).

Some studies in India have been found on the emotional competence of teacher educators which are not included in the present review.

Studies abroad investigated relationship between emotional identification skill (EIS) and social support in adolescence (Rowell et al., 2016); emotional repair ability as a predictor of peer and romantic relationship (Hessel et al., 2016); gender differences in preschoolers' socialization of emotion and its contribution to emotional competence (Denham, Bassett, and Wyatt, 2010); role of emotional functioning in the social competence of children, with a particular focus on peer relations (Hubbard and Coie, 2000). Some studies reviewed the essentiality of social-emotional competence in school children (Domitrovich et al., 2017), the emotional regulation, coping and decision-

making skills (Modecki et al., 2017), gender differences in childhood and adolescent emotional expression (Chaplin and Aldao, 2012), etc.

From the literature reviewed above, it is quite clear that a few studies have been found on the association of parenting styles, parenting stress, and family relationships with the social competence of adolescents, and association of parenting patterns, and home environment with the emotional competence of adolescents. But, no study has been found on the association of parent-adolescent relationships with social competence and emotional competence of adolescents. Therefore, the researcher has identified a gap in the literature on the influence of parent-adolescent relationships on the social and emotional competence of adolescents and hence feels a need for the present study.

In the next chapter, a detailed account of the plan and procedure of the study has been provided.