

CHAPTER I

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CHAPTER-I

INTRODUCTION

It is universally acknowledged that adolescence is the most crucial period in the life span of human-beings, when a number of changes occur in physical, intellectual, emotional and social dimensions of development. The life span of an adolescent is full of opportunities and can explore his environment to enable him to cope with the problems which emerge during this transitional period. This is the stage when adolescent should be helped and guided properly.

MEANING OF ADOLESCENCE

The term adolescence is derived from the Latin verb 'adolescere' which means 'to grow up'. The period of transition from childhood to adulthood or from dependence on adult direction and protection to self-direction is referred to variously as adolescence, adolescent age, or adolescent period of development. The length of time generally recognized as a transition from childhood to adulthood varies with differing cultures. In modern western societies adolescence includes the years approximately from age 12 to 19 or older. This period sometimes is called teen-age years. Ages 8, 11, 14 and 17 are representatives of childhood, pre-adolescence, early

adolescence and later adolescence respectively. Raynolos, M.M. (1950) defines adolescents as childhood is behind them, adulthood just a step away. They are capable young people ready to assume their share of responsibility in a world that insists on treating them as children. 'Adolescence', says Cole (1970), is perhaps no more important a stage of development than any other. But it is the last stage before adulthood, and it offers, therefore, to both parents and teachers the last opportunity to educate a child for his adult responsibilities.

This is a period when the individual faces new and frequently different problems. Concerning this, Lawrence Frank (1951) has stated, "The second decade of life - the teen-ages - are necessarily difficult and problematic, because the child is being transformed into adult, physically, intellectually, culturally and socially. In that process the boy and the girl must relinquish much of their previously learnt patterns of action, speech, beliefs and feelings and learn new patterns as they struggle to master their life task. It is a period of physiological, psychological and sociological development.

SOCIAL FACTORS AFFECTING ADOLESCENT'S ATTITUDES - SOME VIEWS

The home, school and community environments are the milieu in which the child develops. Attitudes and

beliefs are 'soaked up' in this milieu. As boys and girls mature, their attitudes and beliefs develop and change, as a result of their influence of their families, community mores, religion and peer culture.

Attitudes are inclinations, prejudices, or preconceived notions, and feelings towards persons, things, situations, and issues. Newcomb (1948) offers a functional definition of attitude, "An attitude is not a response but a more or less set to respond in a given way to an object or situation. The concept of attitude relates the individual to any aspect of his environment which has positive or negative value for him. Thus, in adolescent development interest and attitudes of adolescent are affected by his physical condition, his mental and emotional status and the social environment in which he is being reared.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE HOME IN ATTITUDE DEVELOPMENT

Adolescents learn many of their attitudes from their parents, their teachers and their associates. Of all these factors, the home is the primary societal unit. "Of all educational institutions", says Pall Monroe (1911), "the most fundamental is the family". Family relationship plays an important role in an individual's life pattern from childhood through adulthood. Especially during the

adulthood period, family attitudes and behaviour become matters of great concern to the developing boy or girl. Home is a transmitter of attitudes and values. Much of individual personality pattern originates in home. Not only does the child inherit certain family potentialities but during his developing years his attitudes, beliefs, ideas and overt behaviour reflect the influence on him. The home is the person's primary environment from the time he is born until the day he dies. Relation between the individual and the members of his family unquestionably rank first.

THE IMPORTANCE OF PARENT-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIP

Since ancient times, especially in Indian philosophy, the relations between children and their parents have been expressed in various 'Sanskrit Slokas' (in Sanskrit literature). The parents have always looked upon their children as carriers of their family culture. Not only this, the word 'Putra' means that the son protects the father from the Hell named 'Pun'. Such noble aspirations have been preserved in the minds of parents and children.

Apart from these ancient/vedic views, one reads somewhat similar feelings in different words, ideologies expressed by modern thinkers. These views have been

presented in the pages that follow.

Rosen (1953) asked adolescents to name persons whose opinions were of great importance to them. Some 90 per cent of the adolescents named one or both parents as people whose opinions mattered a great deal to them.

Pall Monroe (1911) says, "Parental separation, disharmony, permanent or temporary break-up in the family, long illness or unemployment, outward family stability, over ambitious parents, lack of love, over-protection are some of the various causes which tempt children at some abnormal behaviour. Epperson (1964) in his study about adolescent has indicated that parental disapproval would be difficult to bear, even harder than disapproval by a best friend or favourite teacher". Scientific studies of the family in a wide variety of culture have revealed why family has such impact on the developing concept of self in childhood and why this impact persists relatively unchanged throughout the life span. Elizabeth B. Hurlock (1976) gives reasons which are universal.

(1) Time spent in home - Family influence on personality is the greatest when the major part of one's time is spent in home and with members of the family. The amount of time you spend with a person is one

of the chief determinants of how significant that person will be in your life and how much influence his attitudes, values, and behaviour will have on your behaviour and on your attitude towards self.

(2) Control over behaviour - Family members exert more control over a person's behaviour. Teacher for example is in control of the child's behaviour for only a few hours a day. This contrasts with parental control which extends from year to year during the first 18 to 21 years of the personal life.

(3) Emotionally toned relationship - Family relations have permanency and persistence. A child or adolescent may have a strong emotional attachment to a teacher or a friend or a sweet-heart, but this attachment has rarely permanency that family relationships have. According to Bossard, J.H.S. and E.S. Boll (1966), the persistence of family relationships has the effect of the emotional tie. Even when a family relationship is broken by death, its influence on the family members who survive may be greater than it was during the lifetime of the deceased member. For example, a boy may hero-worship a dead father to the point where he tries, as he grows up, to reproduce in his own life all the behaviours and attitudes that he attributed to his father.

(4) Early social experience - Child's primary social experiences take place in the home. It is from these early experiences that the child acquires his attitudes, values, and patterns of social behaviour. Glanser (1961) states, "Personality is formed in the first instance within the womb of family relationships. Since the child's early social experiences are mainly with his parents, it is they who play the dominant role in the moulding of his personality pattern". Bishop (1951) states, "The pattern of personality development in the young child is established primarily within the framework of his relationship with parents. During the child's earliest years the parents constitute the chief social influence which the child experiences. The techniques which the parents employ in the treatment of the child, that is, the incentives they offer, the frustration they impose, their methods of control, together with the character of their general attitude towards him serve as formative forces on the child's behaviour. According to Siegleman (1965), "The persistence of these early foundations can be observed in the personality patterns of college students. When parents are rejecting, their adolescent children are reported to be suspicious, timid, insecure, anxious and tense. When they are loving, their children become extroverted, warm, conscientious, composed

and happy. When they are neglectful, their children become serious, retiring, aloof and anxious.

(5) Security of environment - The importance of the home to the child's feeling of security has been emphasized by Bossard, J.H.S. and Boll (1966), "Home is the place the child comes to back to with his experiences. It is the lair which he retreats to lick his wounds. The stage to which he returns to parade the glory of his achievements, the refuse he finds in which to brood over his ill treatment, real or fancies. Home in other words, is the place to which one brings the everyday run of social experience, to sift, to evaluate, to appraise, to understand or to be twisted to, to be magnified or ignored, as the case may be.

VARIETIES OF PARENTAL ATTITUDES IN ADOLESCENT-PARENT RELATIONSHIP

Home influences probably outweigh the effects of all other environmental impacts, combined in determining the fundamental organization of children's behaviour. According to psychoanalytic theory, social values and controls are largely interiorized (made an integral part of the child's superego) on the basis of early parent-child reactions. Patterns of dependence-independence, ascendance-submission, cooperation-competition and

conservation-liberalism have their genesis in early parent-child interactions within the home.

Parents are varied in their rearing practices and frequently unpredictable. Their interactions with children are often tinged with odd combinations of tradition, personal prejudice, emotional regard and rule-of-thumb procedure.

Champney (1963) an early and influential investigator in the area of parent-child relationship, expressed the opinion that parent-child behaviour is too complex to be handled by the purely objective approach. Karl C. Garrison (1965) gives various patterns of parent-child behaviour.

(1) Acceptant Pattern - Acceptant homes are democratic homes. The policy is one of freedom in which the parents respect the individuality of each other and of the children in the family. Acceptant homes have been classified into three types: (a) those which fit the indulgent homes; (b) those which fit the democratic syndrome but not indulgent called democratic homes; and (c) those which fit both the indulgent and democratic syndromes called democratic-indulgent. The policy is one of freedom in which the parents respect the individuality of each other and of the children of the family.

Emotionally, the democratic parents tend to be objective but above the average of affection and rapport. According to Baldwin (1962) and others, in acceptant democratic home the parents deal with the problems around the home in a cold scientific manner and at the same time apply the philosophy of human relations involving the different members of the family in planning and policy-making. The workings of democracy are carefully adapted to the children's ages and capacities.

(2) Family Authority Pattern - In such a family there can be three divisions of parental control. Authority may be in the hands of mother, the father, or may be divided in some manner between the two. This controlling power relates to the activities of the family. H.L. Ingersoll (1946) by his investigation gave the following major types of authority pattern:

- Mother-controlled autocratic pattern of authority
- Mother-led democratic pattern of authority
- Balanced control.
- Equalitarian-democratic pattern of authority
- Equalitarian-indulgent pattern of authority.
- Equalitarian-conflicting pattern of authority
- Father-controlled autocratic pattern of authority
- Father-controlled pseudo-autocratic pattern of authority

Father-led democratic pattern of authority.

In the mother-controlled family the husband is passive, being somewhat indifferent to his wife and leaving the problems of child rearing to her. Decisions regarding family policy are jointly made with the mother assuming the lead. There is warmth and affection in the family, towards the children who usually show the general attachment to the mother, who is generally regarded as the stronger personality. The parents prepare the children jointly for increased participation in planning and policy-making relative to matters of the home.

In an equalitarian control pattern the parents have worked out a unified system of authority based on a common philosophy of family life. This philosophy is most frequently found among college-educated parents. The equalitarian democratic pattern of authority guides children from early dependency to a place of responsibility and individuality in the family group. The children are encouraged to become self-reliant and independent and develop ability to make decisions regarding themselves.

In the father-led family, the pattern of authority is democratic. Family policy is unified with the husband's leadership being more frequently followed. The wife

manages the home and rearing of children to conform to joint policy and in line with the husband's expectations. In father-dominated home father sets the family policy and makes the major plans and decisions. Conflicts between husband and wife are often unresolved. As a parent, husband is autocratic, erratic and unpredictable.

The laissez-faire families are characterized by a father who delegates the major tasks of rearing the children to the mother. The mother on the other hand sets up fairly definite standards for child-behaviour but neither she nor the father enforce their rules and regulations. The children do almost as they please and as a result show little respect or consideration for their parents.

(3) Rejectant Patterns - This is also known as a pathogenic family pattern. There are two types of rejections: (1) Nonchalant or casual rejection may result from the busy life of the parents, (2) Active rejection may result from psychological disturbances.

According to James E. Cotman, Rejection may be manifested in various ways by physical neglect, individual's comparison with other children, denying him, obvious lack of respect for him and his feelings, lack of interest in him, covert or overt hostility and coercive

control techniques, such as intimidation. Parental rejection may be partial or complete, passive or active, behavioural or verbal and subtly or overtly cruel.

The effects of rejection vary considerably depending upon the degree of rejection, whether both parents are involved, the degree of acceptance and affection shown by the non-rejecting parent or other adults.

Pepitone and Wilpizeski (1960), Bandura and Walters (1959), Siegelman (1965), Jenkins (1968) state that rejected children tend to be anxious, insecure, low in self-esteem, jealous, attention-seeking, aggressive, hostile, lonely and slow in conscience and development. Coopersmith (1967) found, "feelings of personal insignificance". If his parents do not see him as being of worth, it is difficult for the child to view himself in a positive way and to develop the feelings of self-esteem needed for confident interaction with his world.

Baldwin (1955) found that rejected children tended to be less alert mentally and to do poorer schoolwork. Glen Elder (1962) studied parental variations in child-rearing techniques, ranging from complete parental domination to complete self-direction. Seven parental structures were defined:

- (1) Autocratic - no allowance is provided for youth to

express their views on a subject nor for them to assert leadership or initiative in self-government.

- (2) Authoritarian - Although the adolescent contributed to the solution of problems, the parents always decide issues according to their own judgement.
- (3) Democratic - The adolescent contributes freely to discussion of issues relevant to his or her behaviour, and may make decisions; however, in all instances, the final decision is either formulated by parents or meets their approval.
- (4) Equalitarian - This type of structure represents minimal role differentiation. Parents and the adolescents are involved to a similar degree in making decisions pertaining to the adolescent's behaviour.
- (5) Permissive - The adolescent assumes a more active and influential position in formulating decisions that concern him or her that do the parents.
- (6) Laissez-faire - The position of the adolescent in relation to that of the parents in decision-making is clearly more differentiated in terms of power and activity. In this type of relationship the youth has the option of either subscribing to or

disregarding parental wishes in making decisions.

- (7) Ignoring - This type of structure, if it can be legitimately considered as such, represents actual parental divorcement from directing the adolescent's behaviour.

Radke (1997) summarized the kinds of child behaviour most commonly associated with different types of homes.

Table No.1

Type of home and type of children behaviour

TYPE OF HOME 1	TYPE OF CHILD BEHAVIOUR 2
Rejective	Submissive, aggressive, adjustment difficulties, feeling of insecurity, nervous, sadistic, stubborn, noncompliant
Over-protective 'babying'	Submissive, infantile, jealous, nervous, aggressive, feeling of insecurity
Dominating parent	Dependable, shy, submissive, polite, self-conscious, tense, quarrelsome, disinterested, uncooperative, bold
Inharmonious Defective discipline	Aggressive, neurotic, jealous, deligent, poor adjustment, aggressive, rebellious, jealous, deligent
Harmonious, well-adjusted, calm, happy, compatible	Good adjustment, cooperative, independent, superior adjustment, submissive
Logical, scientific approach	Self-reliant, cooperative responsible

contd.

TABLE No. 1 contd.

1	2
Child accepted	Socially acceptable, faces future confidently
Parents play with child	Security feeling, self-reliant
Consistent, strict discipline	Good adjustment

Children's Characteristics and Typical Family Background

Bandura and Walters (1963), Becker (1964), Berkowitz (1964), Douvan and Adelson (1966), Hoffman (1963), Kogan and Moss (1962), Kohlberg (1964), Mccord, Mccord and Mccord and Verdon (1962).

Achievement Motivation: High achievement-oriented parents who have high aspirations for children, are interested in and encourage them.

Low: 'Unconcerned' families, content if child keeps out of trouble; emotionally disturbed homes; socially disadvantaged homes.

Aggression (Boys): Lack of consistent standards; punitive, restrictive, cold parents; aggressive personal models; physical punishment; family disharmony; broken home.

Conscience (Self-control): Good; parental warmth and acceptance; clear-cut standards consistently enforced; love-oriented discipline; good parental models; poor; maternal coldness; rejection; unclear or shifting standards; inconsistency; over-indulgence; poor parental models.

Sociability Leadership: Good; parental warmth and involvement, democratic climate in home; love-oriented discipline, greater salience of same-sexed parent without marked dominance of either parent.
Poor; overindulgence or parental restrictiveness; parental rejection, neglect or absence; cold, demanding parents.

Autonomy: Parental warmth and acceptance, high parental standards strictly enforced; reinforcement of independent behaviour without punishment of dependent behaviour; parental guidance towards competence, parental support during special stress; chance for the child to share in formulation and enforcement of rules.

Dependency: Early severe social deprivation; rejecting, punitive parents or combination of warmth and restrictiveness, either reward or punishment for

dependency.

Self-Identity, Self-Esteem: Good; Parental love and acceptance, fostering identification and feeling of belonging, democratic home in which all members have roles and responsibilities commensurate with their stable, meaningful, supportive environment, mature, well-differentiated parental models.

Poor; Rejection; parental dominance or overprotection; power-coercive discipline, lack of close, continuing ties to desirable adult model.

Children are greatly influenced by parent-child relationship. The chart presented on the following page gives the idea. (page no. 19)

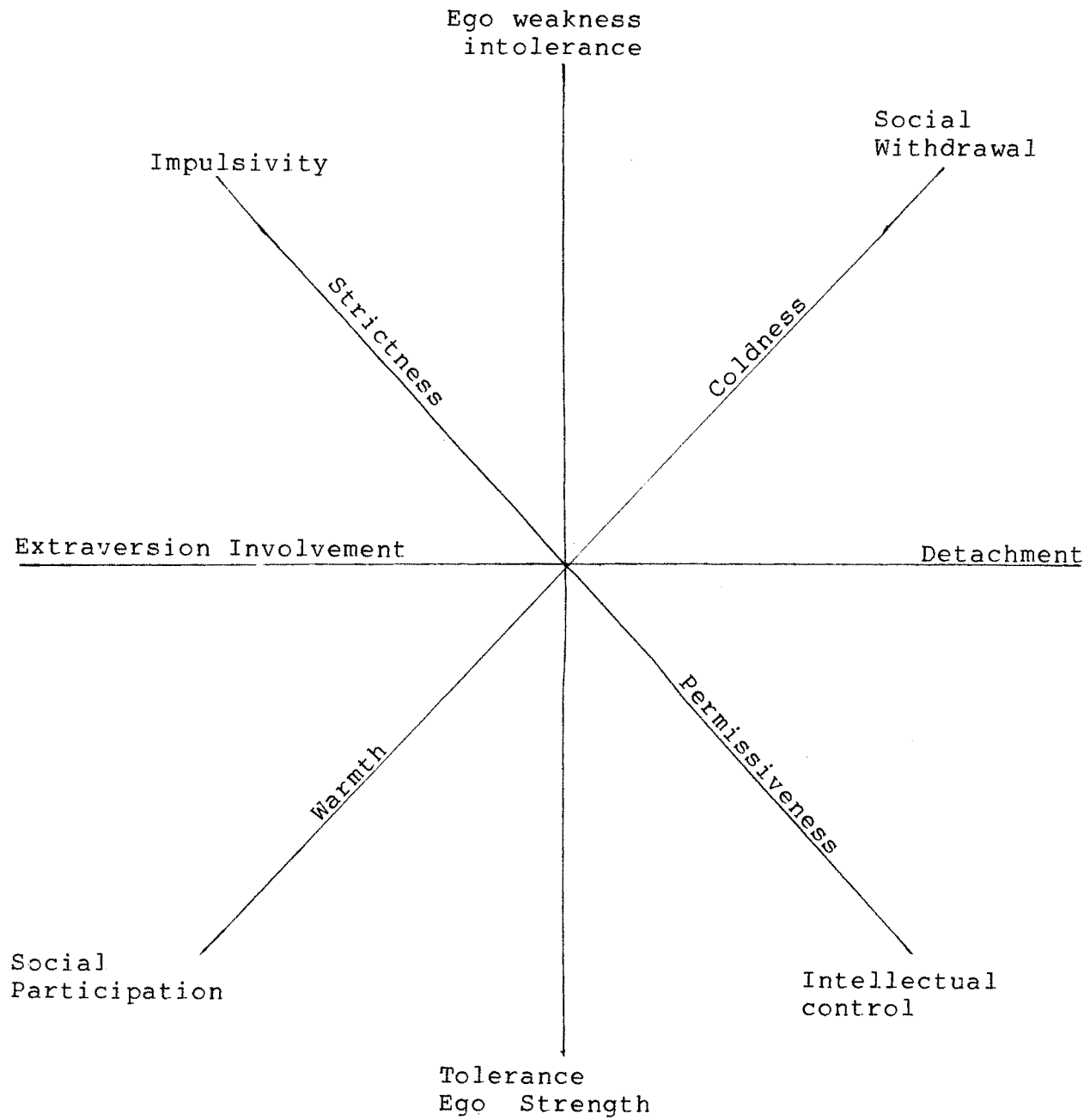
Faulty Parent-child Relationships

Several types of faulty parent-child patterns have been consistently found in the background of children evidencing emotional disturbances and other types of faulty development. James C. Coleman (1971) in his book gives various types of faulty parent-child relationship.

Over-protection and Restrictiveness

Maternial overprotection or, 'momism' involves the 'smothering' of the child's growth. The mother may watch

P.E. Slater (1962) gives the diagram of effects of parent-child relationships on the child's personality pattern.



over the child consistantly, prevent him from the slightest risk, overtly clothe and medicate him, protect him from others and make up his mind for him at every opportunity. Often the parent spends too much time with the child so that he has little or no exposure to other children. Children of overly protective mothers usually lack self-reliance and ability to cope realistically with their problems.

Closely related to over-protection is restrictiveness. Here the parents exercise maximal control over the child, rigidly enforcing restrictive rules and standards and giving the child little autonomy of freedom for growing in his own way. Douvar and Adelson (1966) found 'parental restrictions' to be the most common complaint of adolescent girls against their parents. Becker (1964) concluded that while restrictiveness fosters well controlled socialized behaviour, it also tends to foster fearful, repressed hostility, and some intellectual striving.

Over-permissiveness (Indulgence)

Where the home is overly permissive or indulgent, one or both parents may cater to the child's every whim and fail to teach or reward desirable standards of behaviour. Becker (1964) and Watson (1965) found that such

overly indulged children have been found to be characteristically spoiled, selfish, inconsiderate and demanding. Sears (1961) also found that high permissiveness and low punishment in the home positively correlated with antisocial, aggressive behaviour particularly during middle and later childhood.

Unrealistic Demands

Some parents, particularly middle class parents, pressure their children toward high level performance and goals. They are extremely anxious for their children to excel in school works. Although high parental expectations are both common and desirable, they need to be realistic and to take into consideration the capabilities and temperament of the child. Too often such standards become a matter of what the parent value rather than what the child wants to do and achieve. Coopersmith (1967) found that the children of such parents were significantly lower in both, achievement and self-esteem than children whose parents had high but realistic expectations for them.

Faulty Communication

Sometimes parent-child problems are rooted in faulty communication, perhaps reflecting the gap in viewpoints between the generations. Some parents are too busy with their own concerns to listen to their children

and try to understand the conflicts and pressures they are facing.

Faulty Discipline

There are various types of discipline but parents have been particularly baffled during recent years with respect to appropriate forms of discipline. Some parents misinterpret the psychological findings and theories which led to the view that all punishment and frustration should be avoided lest the child be warped in his development. In other cases parents have taken the view of "spare the rod and spoil the child" and have resorted to excessively harsh discipline for what they thought was the child's good. In still other cases, the parents seem to have had no general guidelines, punishing the child one day and ignoring or even rewarding him the next for doing the same thing.

Watson (1965) and Becker (1964) found that harsh or overly severe discipline may have a variety of effects, including fear and hatred of the punishing person, little initiative or spontaneity, and a lack of friendly feeling towards others. Inconsistent discipline makes it difficult for the child to establish stable values for guiding his behaviour.

Sibling Rivalry

When a child feels that more parental love and attention are directed towards a brother or sister than toward himself, or when a new arrival in the family replaces him as the centre of attention personality difficulties commonly ensue. In younger children these changes are typically of a regressive nature; thus the child may wet himself, resort to baby talk, show off, and evidence other behaviour designed to elicit parental attention.

Undesirable Parental Model

Parents are the key models of child and their behaviour can have a beneficial or detrimental effect on the way the child learns to perceive, think, feel and act. When parental behaviour is based on undesirable moral values or is inconsistent, it provides a faulty model for child. For example, the parent who sets unrealistic goals for himself or who refuses to face family problems and deals with them realistically provides undesirable model for the child. Similarly, the parents who lie and cheat or espouse criminal values is an undesirable model. Jenkins (1966) found that nearly half of a group of children diagnosed as 'over anxious - neurotic' has mothers who were disturbed as neurotic because of extreme anxiety, nervousness and related symptoms. Perhaps most important

of all as a form of guidance are the behavioural models the child sees in his parents. Especially if he loves and admires them, he sees their behaviour as a visible demonstration of how he should behave and tends to pattern his attitudes, opinions, approaches to problems, and relationship with other people on what he sees his parents do.

The above discussion of various views expressed by different thinkers points out that unhealthy parent-child relation leads to faulty development of the children, the children hesitate to become self-reliant or fail to solve their problems realistically on their own. Children may become fearful and hostile. Hence the need to be realistic and not overambitious.

Parent-Adolescent Conflicts

There are many reasons of conflict between parent and adolescent. For example -

- (1) The boundaries of his freedom are not clearly defined
- (2) Parents and teen-agers look at life in different perspectives
- (3) Problems that are extremely important to adolescents are unimportant to parents
- (4) Identification with parents - Father's part in

character development of adolescents is important. Glimore (1951) found that nonachievers had poor relations with both father and mother and were more dependent and passive. The achieving student had a much happier relationship with his father, a closer identification with his mother, and a marked quality of independence.

- (5) Block (1937) in her study dealing with adolescent conflicts found that most conflicts were due to differences in opinion over personal appearances, habits and manners. Vocational, social, recreational and educational choices also caused some contention.
- (6) Teen-agers' complaints - The first and foremost complaint of teen-agers is that parents are dictatorial. They sometimes cut off discussions with 'I don't want to hear any more about that'. Parents blindly make rules and decisions.

Ernest Havemann (1956) asked teen agers from various parts of the country about their complaints against parents. The most common complaints were -

- (a) Adults refuse to recognise that teen agers are human being with feelings, dignity and pride of their own;
- (b) Teen-agers claim that parents often fail to

observe even the most elementary rules of courtesy. For example, they often think nothing of scolding their children in front of friends.

- (c) On social matters, too many mothers and fathers consider it as a personal reflection if their sons and daughters are not good miders.
- (d) Overambitious fathers and mothers expect too much of their children. Often the complaint centres around the rapport card.

Ginott's (1969) in his book, "Between Parent and Teenager" advise to parents for helping parents get along better with teen-agers:

- (1) Accept the adolescent's restlessness and discontent
- (2) Don't try to be too understanding
- (3) Differentiate between acceptance and approval
- (4) Don't emulate the teenager's language and conduct
- (5) Don't 'collect thorns'. It is often too threatening to a teen-ager to have to cope with his personal faults. It does little good to "fling his flaws in his face".
- (6) Don't 'step on corns'. All teen-agers suspect that they have not really left their childhood yet and therefore are very sensitive to being treated like a baby.

- (7) Don't invite dependence. The wise parent is sympathetic to his child's growth, tries to make himself dispensable, and resists the desire to intervene too often.
- (8) Don't hurry to correct facts. Truth without compassion can destroy love.
- (9) Don't violate the teenagers' privacy
- (10) Try to avoid preaching and the use of cliches
- (11) Most particularly, try not to lecture
- (12) Don't label the teenager in presence
- (13) Don't use reverse psychology. Avoid statements like, 'You probably won't be able to do this.'
- (14) Try not send contradictory message. For example, don't say things like, "I hope you have a very good time - of course, I won't be able to sleep until you get back".
- (15) Don't futurize - No one can be sure what his future will bring. If you predict your teen-ager's future, you may be creating a self-fulfilling prophecy.

SECTION-II**THE PROBLEM****NEED OF THE STUDY**

In adolescent period the atmosphere of the school and the home appears to be of critical importance in determining the ways of which children tackle many of the academic tasks that face them. In this period the parents' attitude towards the adolescent plays an important role in shaping his personality. Roe (1957) hypothesized that family plays an important role in the educational and vocational progress of children. He hypothesized that acceptance, concentration and avoidance of parents are associated with the development of the adolescent. Parents who adopt unwholesome and undesirable attitude towards their children through ignorance, carelessness and lack of foresight or parents who dominate and do not permit their children to express their feelings, may develop in the adolescents submissiveness and lack of confidence to cope with the problems in future. Overprotection and negligence by parents also create problems. Thus, parental attitude towards their children determines the organization of their behaviour patterns of: dependence, independence, ascendance, submission, cooperation, competition and conservatism liberalism which may be related to their

academic achievement. Research literature has revealed that family relationships do effect the adolescent's personality in various ways. The relationship may have either a positive effect or a negative effect. The academic achievement of the adolescent is dependent on the various factors and is very crucial to his further development as an adult. This study will probe into how family relationships, in particular the parental attitude towards their children, effect the adolescent's academic achievement. This study has great significance as no such study has been undertaken on adolescents and moreover, such a study has not been attempted on the adolescents of such a semi-urban geographical area.

The result of this study will be useful to the parents of the adolescents, to adopt the right type of attitude which will benefit their children for their better academic performance, which this study will suggest based on the results.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A STUDY OF THE ADOLESCENT-PARENT RELATIONSHIP AND ITS EFFECT ON THE ADOLESCENTS ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

DEFINITION OF THE TERMS

ADOLESCENCE

State of growing up to manhood. It is the spring

of life, a period when an individual is neither a child nor adult. There are many definitions of the 'Adolescents'.

'Adolescence' according to Rogers - "A process rather than a time period, a process of achieving the attitudes and beliefs needed for effective participation in society". (Mitzel, Harold (Ed.), 'Encyclopedia of Educational Research', 5th Ed., Vol. 3).

According to E. Hurlock (1959) the adolescence period could be broadly called -

Pre-adolescence - 10-12 years

Early adolescence - 13-16 years

Late adolescence - 17-21 years.

This study deals with the middle adolescence stage. For this study adolescents studying in XI standard are chosen for the sample.

ADOLESCENT-PARENT RELATIONSHIP

Parental attitude (Acceptance, Concentration, Avoidance) which they express towards their sons and daughters. For the purpose of this study, the adolescent-parent relationship is what the 'Family Relationship Inventory' (FRI) by Dr. (Mrs) G.P. Sherry and Dr. J.C. Sinha measures. In this inventory only the parents'

attitude towards their children is measured.

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

'Academic Achievement' means knowledge acquired and skill developed in school subjects generally indicated by marks obtained in test. (Encyclopedia Dictionary and Directory of Education, Vol. 1)

For the purpose of this study marks attained by the XI standard students in their final examination will be taken as their academic achievement score.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- (1) To study the effect of acceptance of the mother on adolescent's academic achievement
- (2) To study the effect of acceptance of the father on adolescent's academic achievement
- (3) To study the effect of parents' acceptance on adolescent's academic achievement
- (4) To study the effect of concentration of the mother on adolescent's academic achievement
- (5) To study the effect of concentration of the father on the adolescent's academic achievement
- (6) To study the effect of concentration of the parents on the adolescent's academic achievement
- (7) To study the effect of avoidance of the mother on the adolescent's academic achievement

- (8) To study the effect of avoidance of the father on the adolescent's academic achievement
- (9) To study the effect of parents' avoidance on adolescent's academic achievement.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

- (1) There is no significant effect of acceptance of mother on the adolescent's academic achievement
- (2) There is no significant effect of acceptance of father on the adolescent's academic achievement
- (3) There is no significant effect of acceptance of parents on the adolescent's academic achievement
- (4) There is no significant effect of concentration of mother on the adolescent's academic achievement
- (5) There is no significant effect of concentration of father on the adolescent's academic achievement
- (6) There is no significant effect of concentration of parents on the adolescent's academic achievement
- (7) There is no significant effect of avoidance of mother on the adolescent's academic achievement
- (8) There is no significant effect of avoidance of father on the adolescent's academic achievement
- (9) There is no significant effect of avoidance of parents on the adolescent's academic achievement.

DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Due to the time constraint of 2 years for this study, the following limitations are laid:

- (1) The study is restricted to only adolescents from Junior Colleges attached to Highschools of Kolhapur city
- (2) The present study is restricted to only XI standard Arts students.

SECTION-III**ABOUT THE THESIS**

The present study is described in **five chapters**.

Chapter I - deals with the background of variables under consideration. It describes meaning of adolescent, social factors affecting adolescent's attitudes, significance of the home in attitude development, varieties of parental attitudes and practices in child rearing, defining the problem, need of the study, objectives, hypothesis, limitations of the study.

Chapter II - deals with reviews of research studies related to adolescent-parent relationship in various contexts, studies having varied aims and objectives, procedures and samples, tools and techniques, it also tells how this study is different from the other studies.

Chapter III - deals with plan and procedure of study. It contains method of research, data gathering tool, sample, collection of data and method of analysis of data.

Chapter IV - presents analysis of data in pursuance of the objectives stated earlier in.

Chapter V - presents summary and conclusions of the study undertaken. Further it contains discussion and interpretation of the results in the light of its implications on the educational practice. The last chapter is concluded with suggestions for further research.