

Impact of areas of home environment on psychological wellbeing among adolescent

Pavithra Raj^{1*}

ABSTRACT

Objective was to study the impact of areas of home environment on psychological wellbeing among adolescents and to study the relationship between areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing among adolescents. The hypothesis states that there is no significant relationship between areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing among adolescents. A sample of 60 adolescents aged between 18-23 was considered for this study. Pearson's product moment correlation was tabulated to obtain the results. The results showed that the dimension of control, protectiveness, punishment, conformity, social isolation, reward, nurturance, rejection and permissiveness are not related to psychological wellbeing thus accepting the hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between the areas of home environment and psychological well being. The dimension of deprivation of privileges is related to psychological wellbeing thus rejecting the hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between the areas of home environment and psychological well being.

Keywords: *Home Environment, Psychological, Adolescent*

In modern industrial societies the passage from childhood to adulthood is marked by a long transitional period known adolescence. It is generally considered to begin with puberty, the process that leads to sexual maturity, or fertility-the ability to reproduce. Adolescence lasts from about age 11 or 12 until the late teens or early twenties, and it entails major interrelated changes in all realms of development.

Adolescence is a social construction. Early adolescence, the transition out of childhood offers opportunities for growth- not only in physical dimensions, but also in cognitive and social competence, self esteem, and intimacy. This period also carries great risks. Some young people may have difficulty in handling so many changes at once and may need help in overcoming dangers along the way. Adolescence is a time of increasing divergence between majority of young people, who are headed for a fulfilling and productive adulthood and a sizeable minority who will be dealing with major problems.

¹Assistant Professor, Mount Carmel College, Autonomous, India

*[Responding Author](#)

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Parent-Adolescent Relationships: Of the many contexts in which adolescents develop, none has received as much concerted attention as the family. Research on family relationships has focused predominantly on the parent-adolescent relationship, although there is small but growing literature on adolescents and their siblings (see section on siblings, below). Studies of changes in family relations during adolescence continued to focus on parent-adolescent conflict (e.g. Smetana 1995), although a number of investigations examined changes in closeness and companionship as well (e.g. Mayseles et al 1998; for a recent review, see Grotevant 1998). Much of this work continued to build on theoretical models articulated in the early and mid 1980s, which framed transformations in family relations in terms of the adolescent's need to individuate within the context of close and harmonious parent-adolescent relations (Cooper et al 1983, Hauser et al 1984). Several broad conclusions have emerged from this research. First, there is genuine increase in bickering and squabbling between parents and teenagers during the early adolescent years, although there is no clear consensus as to why this occurs when it does; psychoanalytic (Holmbeck 1996), cognitive (Smetana et al 1991), social-psychological (Laursen 1995), and evolutionary (Steinberg 1988) explanations all have been offered. Second, this increase in mild conflict is accompanied by a decline in reported closeness, and especially, in the amount of time adolescents and parents spend together (Larson & Richards 1991). Third, the transformations that take place in parent-adolescent relationship have implications for the mental health of parents as well as for the psychological development of teenagers, with a substantial number of parents reporting difficulties adjusting to the adolescent's individuation and autonomy-striving (Silverberg & Steinberg 1990). Finally, the process of disequilibrium in early adolescence is typically followed by the establishment of a parent-adolescent relationship that is less contentious, more egalitarian, and less volatile (Steinberg 1990). The study of adolescent socialization in the family context was an exceptionally popular topic of inquiry during the past decade or so (Darling & Steinberg 1993). Most of the work in this area derived in one form or another from Baumrind's (1978) seminal studies of parental influences on the development of competence in childhood, which demonstrated that children whose parents were "authoritative"—warm and firm—showed higher levels of competence and psychosocial maturity than their peers who had been raised by parents who were permissive, authoritarian, or indifferent. Dozens of studies of adolescents and their parents conducted during the last 12 years, using different methods, measures, and samples, have reached the same conclusion—namely, that authoritative parenting is associated with a wide range of psychological and social advantages in adolescence, just as it is in early and middle childhood. Although various researchers have labeled and operationalized authoritative parenting in different ways (e.g. "effective parenting," "positive parenting"), the combination of parental responsiveness and demandingness is consistently related to adolescent adjustment, school performance, and psychosocial maturity (Steinberg 2000).

The notion that authoritative parenting influences, rather than merely accompanies, or perhaps even follows from, adolescent adjustment was challenged on several fronts during the 1990s, however. Some writers argued that the link between parental authoritative parenting and adolescent adjustment was due to the genetic transmission of certain traits from parents to children (see Behavioral Genetics, below). Others argued that parents' influence on adolescent behavior and development was insignificant and far less important than the influence of peers and the mass media (Harris 1995). These claims were countered by researchers who pointed to conceptual problems in the behavioral genetics analyses that led to the overestimation of shared genetic variance, the success of experimental interventions designed to enhance parental effectiveness and children's adjustment, and longitudinal studies indicating that parental influence during childhood affects adolescents' choices of peers (Collins et al 2000). It seems

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safe to say that adolescent development is affected by an interplay of genetic, familial, and non familial influences, and that efforts to partition the variability in adolescent adjustment into genetic and various environmental components fail to capture the complexity of socialization processes.

The generally consistent pattern of results concerning parenting and adolescent adjustment prompted many researchers to investigate how factors external to the parent-child relationship moderate the link between parental authoritativeness and adolescent adjustment. These studies have examined the moderating roles of ethnicity (Steinberg et al 1991), interparental consistency (Fletcher et al 1999), social networks (Fletcher et al 1995), neighborhood influences (Furstenberg et al 1999), family structure (Hetherington et al 1992), and peer groups (Steinberg et al 1992). Whereas the general relation between authoritativeness and adjustment is found across a variety of contextual conditions, the strength of the relation between authoritativeness and adolescent adjustment varies across samples, contexts, and the specific outcome measures in question (Steinberg 2000).

Puberty and Its Impact: Advances in methodological techniques for assessing pubertal maturation sparked an increase in the amount of research devoted to this topic during the past two decades. Much of this research has focused on the ways in which puberty affects adolescents' relationships with their parents. Studies indicate that pubertal maturation leads to a more egalitarian relationship between adolescents and their parents, with adolescents having more autonomy and influence in family decision-making. There is also evidence that conflict between adolescents and parents, especially mothers, increases around the onset of puberty. It was once believed that this conflict subsided as adolescents matured; however, there is now less certainty that parent-child conflict declines in later adolescence (Laursen et al 1998, Sagrestano et al 1999). Although negativity may increase between parents and adolescents during puberty, positive affect and emotional closeness likely remain unchanged (e.g. Holmbeck & Hill 1991, Montemayor et al 1993). One interesting controversy to emerge in the recent study of puberty concerns the causal direction of the link between pubertal development and relational transformation in the family (Steinberg 1988). Several studies have indicated that the Quality of family relationships may affect the timing and course of puberty, with earlier and faster maturation observed among adolescents raised in homes characterized by less closeness and more conflict (Graber et al 1995, Kim & Smith 1998) and among girls from homes in which their biological father is not present (Surbey 1990). Although the underlying mechanism for this is not understood, the general observation that reproductive development in adolescence can be influenced by close relationships has been documented in studies of menstrual synchrony (e.g. McClintock 1980) and is well established in studies of nonhuman primates and other mammals (see Steinberg 1988).

Recent studies of early versus late maturation have confirmed earlier finding, indicating that the impact of pubertal timing differs between boys and girls. Late maturing boys have relatively lower self-esteem and stronger feelings of inadequacy, whereas early-maturing boys are more popular and have a more positive self-image (Petersen 1985). At the same time, however, early-maturing boys are at greater risk for delinquency and are more likely than their peers to engage in antisocial behaviors, including drug and alcohol use, truancy, and precocious sexual activity (e.g. Williams & Dunlop 1999). This increase in risky behavior is likely due to early-maturers' friendships with older peers (Silbereisen et al 1989). Recent research on the timing of puberty among females also has corroborated earlier studies indicating that early-maturing girls have more emotional problems, a lower self-image, and higher rates of depression, anxiety, and disordered eating than their peers (e.g. Ge et al

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1996b). These effects are particularly strong in Western countries where cultural beliefs about attractiveness emphasize thinness, consistent with other research indicating that the effects of early or late maturation vary across social contexts. Interestingly, girls' perceptions of their maturational timing relative to peers may be more influential than their actual physical maturation (Dubas et al 1991). Like early-maturing boys, early-maturing girls are more popular, but they are also more likely to become involved in delinquent activities, use drugs and alcohol, have problems in school, and experience early sexual intercourse (e.g. Flannery et al 1993), although there is some suggestion that early maturation may be associated with an increase in problem behavior only among girls who have had a history of difficulties prior to adolescence (Caspi & Moffitt 1991). It also has been found that early-maturing females spend more time with older adolescents, particularly older boys, and that these relations have a negative influence on their adjustment (Silbereisen et al 1989). Indeed, early-maturing girls are more vulnerable to psychological difficulties and problem behavior when they have more opposite sex friendships, and when they attend co-educational, rather than single-sex, schools (Caspi et al 1993).

Another area of recent study concerns the effects of puberty on adolescent moodiness, and the role of hormonal changes in emotional development more generally. On the whole, evidence for hormonally driven moodiness in adolescence is weaker than popular stereotypes would suggest, although few studies have examined moodiness per se (as opposed to negative affect) (Buchanan et al 1992). Richards & Larson (1993) found no association of average mood or mood variability with puberty among girls, and among boys they found that more advanced pubertal status was associated with positive, not negative, feelings. Also, whereas moodiness may be more characteristic of adolescence than adulthood, it is no more characteristic of adolescence than childhood (Buchanan et al 1992).

There was a surge of research in the late 1980s and early 1990s on the direct and indirect effects of hormones on psychosocial functioning in adolescence. Studies indicate that puberty is not characterized by "raging" hormones, and that the turmoil once associated with puberty was exaggerated (Brooks-Gunn & Reiter 1990, Petersen 1985). When studies do find a connection between hormones and mood it is typically in early adolescence, where fluctuations in hormones are associated with greater irritability and aggression among males and depression among females (Buchanan et al 1992). Nevertheless, variation in hormone levels account for only a tiny percentage of the variance in adolescents' negative affect, and social influences account for considerably more (Brooks-Gunn et al 1994). Although there is little evidence that psychological difficulties stem directly from hormonal changes at puberty, it is likely that the bodily changes of adolescence play a role in the development of depression and disordered eating among girls (Wichstrom 1999). As body mass increases during puberty, adolescent females may develop a more negative body image and, in turn, disordered eating and depression (Archibald et al 1999, Keel et al 1997). This phenomenon may be accentuated among girls who are especially interested in dating. There is evidence that the combination of puberty and involvement in romantic relationships may place girls at special risk for the development of eating problems.

Home Environment: Human beings are always immersed in a social environment which not only changes the very structure of the individual or just compels him to recognize facts but also provides him with a ready-made system of signs. It imposes on him a series of obligations. Two environments namely, home and school environments, share an influential space in adolescent's life. Family is the social-biological unit that exerts greatest influence on the development and perpetuation of the individual's behavior. The psychological

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atmosphere of a one may fall into any of the four quadrants, each of which represents one of the four general combinations: acceptance-autonomy, acceptance-control, rejection-autonomy and rejection-control (Johnson & Medinnus, 1969) reported that nurturance-affection and achievement expectations, demands and standards constitute the two dimensions of parental behavior that have been regarded as important by previous researchers. Various researchers have identified the following characteristics of home environment- permissiveness, parental guidance, parental aspiration for achievement, instrumental companionship, prescription, physical punishment, principled discipline, neglect, deprivation of privileges, protectiveness, power, indulgence, conformity, independence etc.

The kind of household a child lives in, and the relationship within the house, can have profound effect on the psychosocial development in the child, when children are developing a stronger sense of what it means to be responsible, contributing members, first in the family. The family is a web of contextual influences, including the peer group, the school, and the neighborhood that the family lives in.

Adolescents spend more time away from home and become less close to their parents. With the upsurge in dual earner and single parent families, greater emphasis on education, and the tighter pace of family life, adolescents spend more time at school. They have less free time for, outdoor activities, and leisure family dinners. Much of the time parents and children spend together is task centered like shopping, preparing meal, cleaning house and doing homework. Still, home and the people who live there remain an important part of adolescent's life.

Adolescence Psychological Well-Being: Effects of Problems with Parents

Adolescence is a period where great changes take place and although change is always present during most of our life, this particular phase includes profound modifications in many areas of functioning (Elliott & Feldman, 1990; Offer & Schonert, 1992; Weiner, 1992). In fact, we observe physical, cognitive, social, emotional transformations, either within the person, either in the interpersonal domains. New and complex situations appear more often. These new situations or events, also called developmental tasks, generate new demands and adjustment resources (Weiner, 1992; Weissberg & Kuster, 1997). Being adolescence a long period and the complexity of developmental tasks bigger, the adolescents may not be prepared to deal with the demands of the new situations and contexts where they occur. If some can deal with the challenges and demands of developmental tasks with no significant psychological disturbance, others may experience a profound alteration of their psychological well-being. This could emerge because the adaptation efforts the new tasks demand, provoke a probable exhaustion of their emotional, cognitive and social resources (Bizarro, 1991, 1992; Compas, 1993). The unfavourable consequences that this process may lead are that the changes in psychological well-being could be the precursors of more severe psychological disorders (Dryfoos, 1997). In fact, some authors point that the changes of psychological well-being could be the first signs of more severe emotional or behavioural problems (Crockett & Petersen, 1993; Geldard & Geldard, 1999 ; Weissberg & Kuster, 1997).

One of the most important domains for the adolescent development is the relationship with parents. Here the big developmental task for the teenager is to continue to be the son, with the rights and obligations this role implies and at the same time gradually acquire the autonomy and independence appropriated to his age (Walsh & Scheinkman, 1993). During this process it is supposed the adolescent will restructure attitudes and behaviour patterns, which is not always easy, and so, he may experience alterations of his psychological wellbeing (Goodnow,

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1994; Hauser, Powers, & Noam, 1991; Youniss, 1994). Usually the most difficult developmental tasks are related with domains of autonomy, control and rules and values of the family structure. Although many parents understand the adolescent should be autonomous, very often this autonomy is denied because is difficult for them to really accept it and to know how to negotiate with the teenager this new demands, taking the adolescent to be resentful, to adopt a negative attitude and to provoke internal conflicts and also conflicts within the family relationship (Emery, 1992; Goodnow, 1994). Adolescents who have fewer opportunities to experience more autonomy, to participate in family decisions and to socialize with their peers are in greater risk for shifts in their psychological well-being and also for psychological problems (Smetana, 1994; Youniss, 1994). Parent child relationship is usually asymmetric in terms of power and authority. By the early adolescent years, the teenager begins to notice and questioning this asymmetry in family. The changes in the cognitive and social domains, especially in the relations with their peers where the adolescent live more equal situations in terms of interpersonal power and authority and also experiences different values and belief systems, take the adolescent to question the legitimacy of parental rules and authority and to pressure them or a more symmetric relationship (Damon & Hart, 1982; Selman, 1980; Smetana, 1988, 1994). Also, the rapid social and cultural changes provoke difference of opinions between parents and children, so adolescents see the world differently from their parents, which elicit arguments and discussions between them. The more or less difficulty for adolescents to deal with those situations depends on the style of parental discipline (Smetana, 1994; Youniss, 1994). To find a satisfactory equilibrium between adolescents and parents needs and interests is sometimes very difficult. Thus, throughout adolescence changes in the family domain could be characterized by a transformation in the parent-adolescent relationship. This alteration represents a developmental challenge to all family members but especially to the adolescent, who often experience difficulties with these kinds of situations and consequently has alterations of his psychological well-being.

In the face of what it is exposed the aims of this work was : a) to analyse eventual alterations of adolescents psychological well-being during adolescence ; b) to identify adolescent self-perception of problems with parents through adolescence ; c) to analyse the influence of gender, socio-economic level and family structure on psychological wellbeing and perception of problems ; d) to search for an association between psychological well-being and self-perception of problems with parents and the causal relationship between them (is adolescent psychological well-being influenced by problems with parents or it is the self perception of problems with parents influenced by the level of psychological well-being) ; e) to find if there is developmental differences through adolescence between this association.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The main objective of the reviews was to see the level of home environment and psychological wellbeing on adolescents. Home environment and psychological wellbeing were considered as variables by different researchers in their studies.

Marcoen, Goossens & Caes, (1987) investigated the influence of loneliness and relationships with parents and friends on the psychological well-being or adolescent malaise. Data were collected via two questionnaires from a sample of 330 Italian adolescents, males and females, aged between 11 and 19. As hypothesized, results showed that a positive relationship with friends and parents promotes psychological well-being in adolescents and reduces malaise. In addition, the study showed that the adolescents were able to distinguish between different states of loneliness; on one hand they could recognize the pain of isolation and social refusal, and on the other, they could recognize the pleasant dimension of loneliness, according to the

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age and sex. Therefore, loneliness can be a risk for the adolescent's well-being if it is caused by social refusal, but it can also be a developmental need (parallel to the need for attachment), and can promote psychological well-being when adolescents choose to be alone.

Havey. J Michael and Dodd. K. David (1992) conducted a study on nonclinical, adolescent children of alcoholics (COAs) and their peers from non-alcoholic homes (CONAs) who responded to questionnaires of environmental variables, depression, and anxiety. Multivariate (discriminant) analyses revealed several meaningful differences between the two groups. Although the two groups differed on the measures of anxiety and depression, environmental stressors contributed most to the discriminant function that differentiated between the two groups. Also, gender differences were discovered, suggesting that males and females perceive problem drinking differently and that home environments may be different for the two genders. Implications for research and intervention are discussed.

Chow. H.P.Henry (2000) conducted a questionnaire survey of university students' scholastic achievement and psychological well-being in a Canadian prairie city. Multiple ordinary least-squares regression analyses revealed that sex, educational aspirations, hours spent on studying, father's education, physical health, financial stress, and stress due to balancing work, school, and social life were found to be significantly associated with academic performance. More specifically, female students and those who reported higher educational aspirations, indicated better physical health, experienced less financial stress or stress due to finance or to balancing work, school, and social life, spent more time on studying, and those whose father had a higher level of education were found to perform better academically. On the other hand, income, physical health, relationship with significant other, relationship with family, relationships with friends, self image, and academic stress were found to be significantly related to psychological well-being. Put succinctly, respondents who had a higher family income, reported better physical health, expressed a higher degree of satisfaction with their relationships with family, friends, and significant other, indicated a more positive self-image, and experienced less academic stress were found to exhibit a significantly higher level of psychological well-being.

Shek. L.T. Daniel (2004) studied the relationship between Hong Kong adolescents' beliefs about adversity and their adjustment was studied using a scale measuring positive and negative Chinese cultural beliefs about adversity (N = 1519). Results showed that adolescents with stronger endorsement of positive Chinese beliefs (or weaker endorsement of negative Chinese beliefs) about adversity generally had better psychological well-being and school adjustment and less problem behaviour. Although adolescents' degree of agreement with Chinese cultural beliefs about adversity was generally associated with adolescent adjustment, this relationship was stronger in adolescents with economic disadvantage than in adolescents without economic disadvantage.

Spera Christopher (2005) conducted a study on the relationship among parenting practices, parenting styles, and adolescent school achievement. The review of the empirical research indicates that parental involvement and monitoring are robust predictors of adolescent achievement. Several studies, however, indicate that parental involvement declines in adolescence, prompting the call for future research on the reasons for and associated consequences of this decline. Furthermore, the review indicates that authoritative parenting styles are often associated with higher levels of student achievement, although these findings are not consistent across culture, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status. Darling and Steinbergs contextual model of parenting provides a promising model to help resolve these

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discrepancies, however, further research is needed to examine the major linkages of the model. It is also argued that the contextual model should expand its notion of context towards the larger cultural and economic context in which families reside.

Caskey. M. Micki (2009) conducted a research which suggests that parent involvement in school directly impacts student success. However, different types of parental involvement and the efforts of middle school personnel to educate parents about these effective practices have received scant attention in the literature. The level and type of parental involvement, as perceived by adolescents, is correlated with adolescent psychological wellbeing. Perceived parental involvement positively or negatively affects adolescents' sense of psychological well-being, especially self-esteem, self-evaluation, and peer relationships. Parenting style greatly influences children's development as well. The authoritative/democratic parenting style influences middle school children, leading to positive developmental outcomes, positive adolescent self-evaluations, higher levels of adolescent self-esteem and adjustment, while also positively influencing levels of intrinsic motivation for learning. This article reviews research related to (a) adolescents' their parents. Whether parents are involved in and support their adolescents' school life can directly affect their personal and social development as well as their academic success (Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986; Harris & Goodall, 2008; Jeynes, 2007). Previous research has shown parent involvement in school directly impacts student success (Harris & Goodall, 2008; Jeynes, 2007; Sirvani, 2007; Whitmore & Norton-Meier, 2008). However, types of involvement and efforts to educate parents about the most effective types of involvement during the middle school years have received scant attention in the literature.

Bandhana & Dr. Darshana Sharma (2011) conducted a research to ascertain the main and interactional effect of Emotional Intelligence, Home Environment and Sex on the Problem Solving Ability of Adolescents. A random sample of 1007 adolescents (502 male & 505 females) was selected from government and private higher secondary schools of Jammu City. Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory by S. K. Mangal & Shubra Mangal, Home Environment Inventory by Karuna Misra & Self-concept by S. P. Ahluwalia was used to collect the data. The data was analyzed by using three-way analysis of variance technique (ANOVA). The results revealed that Emotional Intelligence & Home Environment has a significant impact on Self-concept. The adolescents having higher Emotional Intelligence & good Home Environment are better in Self-concept. However, no interaction effect of Emotional Intelligence & Sex, Home Environment and Sex, and triple interaction effects of Emotional Intelligence, Home Environment and Sex were found on the Self-concept of Adolescents.

Jagpreet Kaur and Kulwinder Singh conducted an investigation which is an attempt to study home environment as a determinant of psychological hardiness in a random sample of 1,011 Indian adolescents through descriptive method of research. The results of the study revealed creative adolescents to be more hardy than their non-creative counterparts. Further, the adolescents having higher levels of control, protectiveness, conformity, reward, nurturance and permissiveness were hardier than their counterparts with lower level of these home environment dimensions. Further, creative adolescents with more protectiveness and permissiveness component of home environment were found to be hardier than their counterparts having low level of these home environment dimensions. The results of the study emphasize upon the improvement of home environment in terms of parental control, conformity, reward and nurturance for enhancing psychological hardiness and creativity among adolescents.

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Jagpreet Kaur, J. S. Rana and Rupinder Kaur conducted a research on academic achievement and home environment as correlates of self-concept in a sample of 300 adolescents. The results of the study revealed self-concept to be positively correlated with academic achievement, though not significantly so. A significantly positive relationship of home environment components of protectiveness, conformity, reward, and nurturance with self-concept is revealed, thereby meaning that use of rewards and nurturance from parents should be done for positive self-concept development among adolescents. However, the correlation of social isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection components of home environment is significantly negative with self-concept among adolescents indicating that for positive self-concept development among adolescents, there should be less or no use of social isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection. The study has implications for educationists and parents as well.

METHODOLOGY

Problem: To study the impact of areas of home environment on psychological wellbeing among adolescents.

Objective: To study the impact of areas of home environment on psychological wellbeing among adolescents and to study the relationship between areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing among adolescents.

Hypotheses: There is no significant relationship between areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing among adolescents.

Variables: Independent variable: Areas of home environment
Dependent variable: Psychological well being

Design: Correlational design is used for this study.

Sample: Purposive sampling is used for this study. A sample of 60 subjects aged between 18-23 is considered for this study.

Tools: 1) Home Environment Inventory by Dr. Karuna.S Mishra
2) Psychological Wellbeing Scale by SK. Verma & Amita Verma

Description of Tools: Home Environment Inventory Contains 100 items related to ten dimensions of home environment. The ten dimensions are-(A) Control, (B) Protectiveness, (C) Punishment, (D) Conformity, (E) Social Isolation, (F) Reward, (G) Deprivation of Privileges, (H) Nurturance, (I) Rejection, and (J) Permissiveness. Each dimension has ten items belonging to it.

| Sl No. | Dimensions | Items |
|--------|---------------------------|-------|
| 1. | Control | 10 |
| 2. | Protectiveness | 10 |
| 3. | Punishment | 10 |
| 4. | Conformity | 10 |
| 5. | Social Isolation | 10 |
| 6. | Reward | 10 |
| 7. | Deprivation of Privileges | 10 |
| 8. | Nurturance | 10 |
| 9. | Rejection | 10 |
| 10. | Permissiveness | 10 |
| | Total | 100 |

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Reliability and Validity of HEI: The Split half reliabilities of the Home Environment Inventory was worked out separately for all ten dimension of home environment. The Split half reliability coefficients for ten dimensions of Home Environment as measured by HEI are:

| SI No. | Dimensions | Items |
|--------|---------------------------|-------|
| A | Control | .879 |
| B | Protectiveness | .748 |
| C | Punishment | .947 |
| D | Conformity | .866 |
| E | Social Isolation | .870 |
| F | Reward | .875 |
| G | Deprivation of Privileges | .855 |
| H | Nurturance | .901 |
| I | Rejection | .841 |
| J | Permissiveness | .726 |

Home Environment Inventory has been found to possess content validity as measured with the help of views expressed by judges.

Psychological Wellbeing Scale: The PGIWBM is developed by SK Verma & Amita Verma consisting of 20 items.

Procedure

After establishing rapport with the subject provide him/her the questionnaire of home environment. Ask him/her to fill in the background details on the front sheet. Then request the subject to turn over the page and start answering the questions in the booklet itself. There is no time limit but it generally takes about 15-20 minutes to complete the inventory. Any doubts should be cleared by the experimenter.

Give a break of 5minutes before providing the psychological well being questionnaire to the subject to avoid fatigue.

After a 5minutes break provide the subject with the psychological well being questionnaire to the subject. Request the subject to indicate his/her answer by giving a tick mark against each question. Remind him that there is no time limit but he has to be quick in answering the questions.

Instructions

“please be seated comfortably. This is a questionnaire regarding your environment around your home. All are simple questions. Give your answer by putting a cross mark in the box given under ‘Mostly, Usually, Seldom, Very less, or Never’ against each statement. If you have any doubt you can ask me. There is no time limit but try to finish the questionnaire as soon as possible.”

“This is again a questionnaire regarding of how you are feeling for the past one month. You have to indicate a tick mark against each appropriate question. There is no time limit but be try to finish it as soon as possible. Shall we start?”

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Analysis of Results: Pearson's Product Moment Correlation is tabulated to obtain the results.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Descriptive Details of Areas Of Home Environment And Psychological Well Being

Table 4.1: showing the descriptive details of the areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing.

| | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---------------------------|---------|---------|---------|----------------|
| Control | 8.00 | 36.00 | 24.1667 | 5.21135 |
| Protectiveness | 16.00 | 36.00 | 26.8000 | 4.77564 |
| Punishment | 13.00 | 36.00 | 25.9833 | 4.87293 |
| Conformity | 16.00 | 36.00 | 27.3333 | 3.99435 |
| social isolation | 1.00 | 36.00 | 19.5833 | 7.82497 |
| reward | 19.00 | 39.00 | 29.3833 | 4.46110 |
| deprivation of privileges | .00 | 34.00 | 17.6167 | 8.32210 |
| nurturance | 17.00 | 35.00 | 25.8500 | 4.52797 |
| rejection | 2.00 | 35.00 | 19.6000 | 8.14529 |
| permissiveness | 10.00 | 34.00 | 26.3333 | 4.39825 |
| psychological well being | 2.00 | 20.00 | 11.1333 | 3.20734 |
| Valid N (listwise) | | | | |

The study on areas of home environment and psychological well being was conducted on an age group ranging from 18 to 23 adolescents. A total sample size of 60 was taken into consideration. According to the table 4.1, the mean score for the dimension of control is 24.16 with an SD of 5.21. The protectiveness dimension has a total mean score of 26.80 with an SD of 4.77. The mean score for the dimension of punishment is 25.98 with an SD of 4.87. The conformity dimension has a total mean score of 27.33 with an SD of 3.99. The social isolation dimension has a mean score of 19.58 with an SD of 7.82. The reward dimension has a mean score of 29.38 with an SD of 4.46. The deprivation of privileges dimension has a mean score of 17.61 with a SD of 8.32. The nurturance dimension has a mean score of 25.85 with a SD of 4.52. The rejection dimension has a mean score of 19.60 with a SD of 8.14. The permissiveness dimension has a mean score of 26.33 with a SD of 4.39. The scale of psychological wellbeing has mean score of 11.13 with a SD of 3.20.

Table 4.2: showing the correlation between control and psychological well being

| Variables | Mean | Correlation(R) |
|--------------------------------------|-------|----------------|
| Control And Psychological Well Being | 24.16 | -.127 Ns |
| | 11.13 | |

Ns-Not Significant

Table 4.2 shows the results of the control dimension and psychological well being. The obtained mean score is 24.16 and 11.13 respectively. The Pearson product moment correlation was tabulated to see the significance relationship between both the variables and the obtained r is $-.127$ which is statistically not significant at 0.01 level. Hence it is shown as a negative correlation which indicates that the dimension of control and psychological wellbeing is not related which states that when control level increases psychological wellbeing decreases. This implies that many restrictions imposed on adolescent's by their

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parents in order to discipline them is not related to psychological wellbeing. Thus accepting the hypothesis which state that there is no significant relationship between the areas of home environment and psychological well being.

Table 4.3: showing the correlation between protectiveness and psychological well being

| Variables | Mean | Correlation(R) |
|---|-------|----------------|
| Protectiveness and Psychological Well Being | 26.80 | -.050 Ns |
| | 11.13 | |

Ns-Not Significant

Table 4.3 shows the results of the protectiveness dimension and psychological wellbeing. The obtained mean score is 26.80 and 11.13 respectively. The Pearson product moment correlation was tabulated to see the significance relationship between both the variables and the obtained r is -.050 which is statistically not significant at 0.01 level. Hence it is shown as a negative correlation which indicates that the dimension of protectiveness and psychological wellbeing is not related which states that when protectiveness level increases psychological wellbeing decreases. This implies that prevention of independent behaviour and prolongation of infantile care is not related to psychological wellbeing. Thus, accepting the hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between the areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing.

Table 4.4: showing the correlation between punishment and psychological well being

| Variables | Mean | Correlation(R) |
|---|-------|----------------|
| Punishment and Psychological Well Being | 25.98 | -.090 Ns |
| | 11.13 | |

Ns-Not Significant

Table 4.4 shows the results of the punishment dimension and psychological wellbeing. The obtained mean score is 25.98 and 11.13 respectively. The Pearson product moment correlation was tabulated to see the significance relationship between both the variables and the obtained r is -.090 which is statistically not significant at 0.01 level. Hence it is shown as a negative correlation which indicates that the dimension of punishment and psychological wellbeing is not related which states that when punishment level increases psychological wellbeing decreases. This implies that physical as well as affective punishment to avoid occurrence of undesirable behaviour is not related to psychological wellbeing. Thus, accepting the hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between the areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing.

Table 4.5: showing the correlation between conformity and psychological well being

| Variables | Mean | Correlation(R) |
|---|-------|----------------|
| Conformity and Psychological Well Being | 27.33 | -.136 Ns |
| | 11.13 | |

Ns-Not Significant

Table 4.5 shows the results of the conformity dimension and psychological wellbeing. The obtained mean score is 27.33 and 11.13 respectively. The Pearson product moment correlation was tabulated to see the significance relationship between both the variables and the obtained r is -.136 which is statistically not significant at 0.01 level. Hence it is shown as a negative correlation which indicates that the dimension of conformity and psychological

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wellbeing is not related which states that when conformity level increases psychological wellbeing decreases. This implies that demand to work according to parents desire and expectations is not related to psychological wellbeing. Thus accepting the hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between the areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing.

Table 4.6: showing the correlation between social isolation and psychological well being

| Variables | Mean | Correlation(R) |
|---|-------|----------------|
| Social Isolation and Psychological Well Being | 19.58 | -.186 Ns |
| | 11.13 | |

Ns-Not Significant

Table 4.6 shows the results of the social isolation dimension and psychological wellbeing. The obtained mean score is 19.58 and 11.13 respectively.. The Pearson product moment correlation was tabulated to see the significance relationship between both the variables and the obtained r is -.186 which is statistically not significant at 0.01 level. Hence it is shown as a negative correlation which indicates that the dimension of social isolation and psychological wellbeing is not related which states that when social isolation level increases psychological wellbeing decreases. This implies that use of isolation from beloved persons except family members for negative sanctions is not related to psychological wellbeing. Thus accepting the hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between the areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing.

Table 4.7: showing the correlation between reward and psychological well being

| Variables | Mean | Correlation(R) |
|-------------------------------------|-------|----------------|
| Reward and Psychological Well Being | 29.38 | -.019 Ns |
| | 11.13 | |

Ns-Not Significant

Table 4.7 shows the results of the reward dimension and psychological wellbeing. The obtained mean score is 29.38 and 11.13 respectively. The Pearson product moment correlation was tabulated to see the significance relationship between both the variables and the obtained r is -.019 which is statistically not significant at 0.01 level. Hence it is shown as a negative correlation which indicates that the dimension of reward and psychological wellbeing is not related which states that when reward level increases psychological wellbeing decreases. This implies that material as well as symbolic rewards to strengthen or increase the probability of desired behaviour is not related to psychological wellbeing. Thus accepting the hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between the areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing.

Table 4.8: showing the correlation between deprivation of privileges and psychological wellbeing.

| Variables | Mean | Correlation(R) |
|--|-------|----------------|
| Deprivation Of Privileges And Psychological Well Being | 17.61 | -.357** |
| | 11.13 | |

** p < 0.01 level.

Table 4.8 shows the results of the deprivation of privileges dimension and psychological wellbeing. The obtained mean score is 17.61 and 11.13 respectively. The Pearson product

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moment correlation was tabulated to see the significance relationship between both the variables and the obtained r is $-.357$ which is statistically significant at 0.01 level. Hence it is shown as a negative correlation. The significance indicates that the dimension of deprivation of privileges and psychological wellbeing is related which states that when this level increases psychological wellbeing also increases. This implies that controlling the adolescent's behaviour by depriving them off their rights is related to psychological wellbeing. Thus, rejecting the hypothesis which state that there is no significant relationship between the areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing.

Table 4.9: showing the correlation between nurturance and psychological well being

| Variables | Mean | Correlation(R) |
|---|-------|----------------|
| Nurturance and Psychological Well Being | 25.85 | -.020 Ns |
| | 11.13 | |

Ns-Not Significant

Table 4.9 shows the results of the nurturance dimension and psychological wellbeing. The obtained mean score is 25.85 and 11.13 respectively. The Pearson product moment correlation was tabulated to see the significance relationship between both the variables and the obtained r is $-.020$ which is statistically not significant at 0.01 level. Hence it is shown as a negative correlation which indicates that the dimension of nurturance and psychological wellbeing is not related which states that when nurturance level increases psychological wellbeing decreases. This implies that existence of excessive unconditional physical and emotional attachments of parent with the adolescent is not related to psychological wellbeing. Thus, accepting the hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between the areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing.

Table 4.10: showing the correlation between rejection and psychological well being

| Variables | Mean | Correlation(R) |
|--|-------|----------------|
| Rejection and Psychological Well Being | 19.60 | -.137 Ns |
| | 11.13 | |

Ns-Not Significant

Table 4.10 shows the results of the rejection dimension and psychological wellbeing. The obtained mean score is 19.60 and 11.13 respectively. The Pearson product moment correlation was tabulated to see the significance relationship between both the variables and the obtained r is $-.137$ which is statistically not significant at 0.01 level. Hence it is shown as a negative correlation which indicates that the dimension of rejection and psychological wellbeing is not related which states that when rejection level increases psychological wellbeing decreases. This implies that conditional love recognising that the adolescent has no rights as a person no right to express his feelings and no right to become an autonomous individual is not related to psychological wellbeing. Thus accepting the hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between the areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing.

Table 4.11: showing the correlation between permissiveness and psychological well being

| Variables | Mean | Correlation(R) |
|---|-------|----------------|
| Permissiveness and Psychological Well Being | 26.33 | -.146 Ns |
| | 11.13 | |

Ns-Not Significant

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Table 4.11 shows the results of the permissiveness dimension and psychological wellbeing. The obtained mean score is 26.33 and 11.13 respectively. The Pearson product moment correlation was tabulated to see the significance relationship between both the variables and the obtained r is $-.146$ which is statistically not significant at 0.01 level. Hence it is shown as a negative correlation which indicates that the dimension of permissiveness and psychological wellbeing is not related which states that when the permissiveness level increases psychological wellbeing decreases. This implies that provision of opportunities to individual to express his views freely and act according to his desires with no interference from parents is not related to psychological wellbeing. Thus accepting the hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between the areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing.

SUMMARY & CONCLUSION

In modern industrial societies the passage from childhood to adulthood is marked by a long transitional period known adolescence. It is generally considered to begin with puberty, the process that leads to sexual maturity, or fertility-the ability to reproduce. Adolescence lasts from about age 11 or 12 until the late teens or early twenties, and it entails major interrelated changes in all realms of development.

Adolescence is a social construction. Early adolescence, the transition out of childhood offers opportunities for growth- not only in physical dimensions, but also in cognitive and social competence, self-esteem, and intimacy. This period also carries great risks. Some young people may have difficulty in handling so many changes at once and may need help in overcoming dangers along the way. Adolescence is a time of increasing divergence between majority of young people, who are headed for a fulfilling and productive adulthood and a sizeable minority who will be dealing with major problems.

Human beings are always immersed in a social environment which not only changes the very structure of the individual or just compels him to recognize facts but also provides him with a ready-made system of signs. It imposes on him a series of obligations. Two environments namely, home and school environments, share an influential space in adolescent's life. Family is the social-biological unit that exerts greatest influence on the development and perpetuation of the individual's behavior. The psychological atmosphere of a one may fall into any of the four quadrants, each of which represents one of the four general combinations: acceptance-autonomy, acceptance-control, rejection-autonomy and rejection-control. Various researchers have identified the following characteristics of home environment- permissiveness, parental guidance, parental aspiration for achievement, instrumental companionship, prescription, physical punishment, principled discipline, neglect, deprivation of privileges, protectiveness, power, indulgence, conformity, independence etc.

Adolescence is a period where great changes take place and although change is always present during most of our life, this particular phase includes profound modifications in many areas of functioning. The unfavorable consequences that this process may lead are that the changes in psychological well-being could be the precursors of more severe psychological disorders. In fact, some authors point that the changes of psychological well-being could be the first signs of more severe emotional or behavioral problems. Adolescents who have fewer opportunities to experience more autonomy, to participate in family decisions and to socialize with their peers are in greater risk for shifts in their psychological well-being and also for psychological problems. Objective was to study the impact of areas of home environment on psychological wellbeing among adolescents and to study the relationship between areas of

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home environment and psychological wellbeing among adolescents. The hypothesis states that there is no significant relationship between areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing among adolescents. A sample of 60 adolescents aged between 18-23 was considered for this study. Pearson's product moment correlation was tabulated to obtain the results.

CONCLUSION

The results showed that the dimension of control, protectiveness, punishment, conformity, social isolation, reward, nurturance, rejection and permissiveness are not related to psychological wellbeing thus accepting the hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between the areas of home environment and psychological wellbeing. The dimension of deprivation of privileges is related to psychological wellbeing thus rejecting the hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between the areas of home environment and psychological well being.

Limitations: The sample is too small to generalize. Not many reviews could be collected due to time constraints.

Implications: Can be used in clinical settings to avoid adolescent adjustment problem. Useful in cross-cultural environment.

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Conflict of Interest

The author declared no conflict of interest.

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