INFLUENCE OF HOME ENVIRONMENT ON PERSONALITY TRAITS OF ADOLESCENTS

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INTRODUCTION

In modern industrial societies, the passage from childhood to adulthood is marked by a long transitional period known as adolescence. Adolescence has been defined in a number of ways, from different points of view, as a period of physical development, a chronological age-span or a sociological phenomenon. Hurlock designates the years from 10-12 as pre-adolescence, 13-16 as early adolescence and 17-21 as late adolescence. Whatever may be the definition, the psychology of the adolescent, who is no longer a child, but not yet an adult, is important in the study of human behaviour. The term adolescence comes from the Latin word 'adolescere' meaning 'to grow into maturity'. The chief task of adolescence is to resolve the "crises" of identity versus identity confusion or identity versus role confusion (Erickson, 1968), so as to become a unique adult with a coherent sense of self and a valued role in society.

Over the years adolescence has been portrayed as a period of storm and stress, inner turmoil, transition and a way-station in development. Just as every other stage of life, adolescence has special problems which must be understood and solved by appropriate technique based on a sound knowledge of the psychology of the adolescents and so also many developmental changes takes place during this period, including personality development. Thus there is an urgent need for parents and society to understand the psychology of adolescence in the light of these considerations and facilitate the adolescent's achievement of total development.

Personality is the special group of traits that makes one unique. Looks, actions, and interests all contribute to one's personality. It also includes skills, achievements, feelings, thoughts, and habits. It even includes how one gets along with others and what others think of the person. In fact, personality is a product of physical, social, emotional, and intellectual growth. As one grows and changes in each of these ways, personality grows and changes, too. This will continue throughout the lifetime. In case of the personality pattern, the different psychophysical systems that make up the individual's personality are interrelated, with one influencing the others. The two major components of the personality pattern are the core- the 'concept of self'- and the spokes of the wheel- the 'traits' which are held together and influenced by the core. The real self concept is the concept that people have of who and what they are. It is a mirror image determined by their roles, their relationships with others and what they believe the reactions of others to them are. Each kind of self concept has a physical and a psychological aspect. The physical aspect is composed of concepts individual have on their appearance, their sex appropriateness, the importance of their bodies in relation to their behaviour, and the prestige their bodies give them in the eyes of others. The psychological aspect is composed of concepts individual have on their abilities and disabilities, their worth and their relationships with others. At first these two aspects were separate but they gradually fuse as childhood progresses. And traits are specific qualities of behaviour or adjustive patterns, such as reactions to frustrations, ways of meeting problems, aggressive and defensive behaviour, and outgoing or withdrawing behaviour in the presence of others. Traits have two outstanding characteristics, individuality which is shown in variations in the quantity of a particular trait rather than in a trait peculiar to that person, and consistency, which means that the person behaves in approximately the same way in similar situations or under similar conditions. Everyone's personality is a mixture of traits. People who have a pleasant mixture of personality traits are easy to like. They are not always silly or serious, not always forceful or weak, not always outgoing or quiet. People with healthy, well-balanced personalities may show a little of each trait at different times.

Studies of the development of the personality pattern have revealed that three factors are responsible for its development; hereditary endowment, early experiences within the family, and events in later life. The pattern is closely associated with maturation of the physical and mental characteristics which constitutes the individual's hereditary endowment. Heredity refers to all the traits that are passed from ancestors to the person. It is the environment that may help in bringing out certain traits more than others. Heredity forms the basic personality and then, the effects of the environment add to the personality development. Environment is made up of everything and everyone around. It includes home, school, neighbourhood, family, friends, teachers, etc. All parts of the environment, particularly home environment has the greatest effect on personality. The way a person relates to his family affects his personality development.

It has been rightly said that home life is the highest and finest product of civilization. Home, being the first and the major agency of socialization, it has great influence on the development of the child, particularly in shaping his attitudes and behavioural patterns.

The early life experiences of the child in the family lay the groundwork for the type of future behaviour and the development of attitudes, values and a lifestyle. It is here that the child learns his first lesson in citizenship and true moral discipline through face-to-face contacts. Family members, particularly parents, are considered to be the architects in shaping the personality of a child during the first few years of life. Parental behaviour perceived by children plays an important role in their personality development. Further, their relationships with family members are greatly influenced by the home setting- the pattern of life in the home, the kind of people who make up the group living in the home, the economic and social status of the family in the community and other conditions that give the home a distinctive character. It is a well known fact that most of those who become successful in life have come from homes where parental attitude towards them is favourable and where a wholesome relationship exists between parents and children. If parents want their children to achieve better, they should provide and maintain in the family highly congenial atmosphere.

Some of the other important personality determinants are cultural influences, physique, physical condition, attractiveness, intelligence, emotions, names, success and failures, social acceptance, status symbols, school influence, etc. Analytically, personality of a child is the consequences of acquisition, assimilation and adaptation of cultural norms and values of one's own groups, through social interaction, social learning and socialization process. The nature of personal experiences which may be emotional, social and intellectual are unique to each individual child and that is one of the factors of personality differences among children. Nevertheless, each child is born with potentialities for his own individual responses and for resistance to environmental influences.

However, home/ family sets the pattern for a child's understanding towards life in general. Moreover, as the child lives in the close contacts with the family members, he/she initiates behaviour patterns and learns to adjust to life as they do. Basically there are two major effects that home puts on the life of a child. First, it provides the condition that facilitates acceptance or rejection of behaviour. The second, the individual expression in the ways in which the child's personality is shaped.

So, in order to understand the various personality traits of urban and rural adolescents and the influence of their home environment and other factors on personality traits of them, the present study is undertaken with the following objectives:

1. To understand the personality traits of adolescents.
2. To compare the personality traits of urban and rural adolescents.
3. To study the influence of child, parental and familial factors on personality development of adolescents.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A comprehensive review of studies is an essential step in any research endeavour to provide base for developing a framework, insight into the methodology and working out a basis for interpretation of findings. Keeping in view the objectives of the study, the literature pertaining to personality traits are reviewed and presented under the following headings:

2.1 Concepts and definitions.

2.2 Personality theories

2.3 Personality traits

2.4 Factors influencing personality traits.

2.1 CONCEPT AND DEFINITIONS

2.1.1 Concept of personality and personality development

The term personality comes from the latin word persona, meaning 'mask'. To the Romans, persona meant 'as one appears to others', not as one actually is. From this connotation of the word persona, our popular idea of personality as the effect one has on others has been derived. What a person feels, thinks and is are included in that person's whole psychological make-up and are, to a great extent, revealed through behaviour. Personality, then, is not one definite, specific attribute; rather, it is the quality of the person's total behaviour. Personality is also used colloquially to imply personal attractiveness, the ability to withstand hardships and other specific qualities.

Kempf (1919) has defined personality as"the habitual mode of adjustment which the organism effect between its own egocentric drives and the exigencies of the environment".

According to Prince (1924), "Personality is the sum total of all the biological inmate dispositions, impulses, tendencies, appetites and instincts of the individual, and the acquired dispositions and tendencies". This definition places a potentially useful emphasis on the inner aspect of personality.

Watson has called attention to the fact that character is part of personality. He says, "Personality includes not only these (character-conventional) reactions but also the more individual personal adjustments and capacities as well as their life history. Popularly speaking we would say that a liar and a profligate had no characters, but he may have an exceedingly interesting personality".

Symonds (1928) has defined personality as "the portrait or landscape of the organism working together in all its phases", and May (1929) speaks of "the social stimulus value of the individual".

Allport (1937) has defined personality as a dynamic organization within an individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his unique adjustment to the environment. He also defined personality traits as "modi vivendi", they have significant role in advancing, adaptation within, and mastery of personal environment.

McCrae and Costa (1996) based on the five-factor model organized the personality traits under five broad dimensions: emotional stability, extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness.

Personality traits are defined as developmental constructs that change across the life course (Roberts and Caspi, 2006) in response to the environments being mastered.

2.1.2 Concept of 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 recognise 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 child's life.

Various researchers have identified the following characteristics of home environment or parental child rearing practices – permissiveness, willingness to devote time to the child, parental guidance, parental aspiration for achievement, provisions for the child's intellectual needs, affective rewards, instrumental companionship, prescription, physical punishment, principlined discipline, neglect, deprivation of priviledges, protectiveness, power, achievement demands, indulgence, conformity, independence, dependence, emotional and verbal responsivity.

Involvement with the child, avoidance of restriction and punishment, etc. There exists a great overlapping in the kinds of behaviour which are in association with different characteristics.

2.2 PERSONALITY THEORIES

In 400 BC, Hippocrates, a physician and a very acute observer, claimed that different personality types are caused by the balance of bodily fluids. The terms he developed are still sometimes used today in describing personality. Phlegmatic (or calm) people were thought to have a higher concentration of phlegm; sanguine (or optimistic) people had more blood; melancholic (or depressed) people had high levels of black bile; and irritable people had high levels of yellow bile.

Psychoanalytic theories:

By the early years of the twentieth century, Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) had begun to write about psychoanalysis, which he described as 'a theory of the mind or personality, a method of investigation of unconscious process, and a method of treatment'. Central to a psychoanalytic approach is the concept of *unconscious mental processes*– the idea that unconscious motivations and needs have a role in determining our behaviour. This approach also emphasizes the irrational aspects of human behaviour and portrays aggressive and sexual needs as having a major impact on personality. He developed a number of hypothetical models to show how the mind (or what he called the *psyche*) works:

a) a *topographic model of the psyche* – or how the mind is organized;

b) a *structural model of the psyche* – or how personality works; and

c) a *psychogenetic model of development* – or how personality develops.

Trait theories – aspects of personality:

Traits – or descriptors used to label personality – have their origins in the ways we describe personality in everyday language. In the early years of personality theory, many theorists used the term *types* to describe differences between people. Sheldon, for example, categorized people according to three body types and related these physical differences to differences in personality. Endomorphic body types are plump and round with a tendency to be relaxed and outgoing. Mesomorphic physiques are strong and muscular, and usually energetic and assertive in personality. Ectomorphic body types are tall and thin and tend to have a fearful and restrained personality. Not only is it unlikely that personality can be mapped to body type, but the idea that all people can be allocated to a small number of categories is challenged by modern trait theories.

Modern theorists view traits as continuous rather than discrete entities. So, rather than being divided into categories, people are placed on a trait continuum representing how high or low each individual is on any particular dimension. The assumption is that we all possess each of these traits to a greater or lesser degree, and that comparisons can be made between people.

Cattell's 16 trait dimensions

Like Allport, Cattell believed that a useful source of information about the existence of personality traits could be found in language, the importance of a trait being reflected in how many words describe it. Cattell called this the *lexical criterion of importance*. Building on Allport's work, Cattell collated a set of 4500 trait names from various sources and then removed obvious synonyms and metaphorical terms, until he reduced these to 171 key trait names. He collected ratings of these words and factor-analysed the ratings. His subsequent investigations yielded three types of data, which he categorized as follows:

1. L-data – life record data, in which personality assessment occurs through interpretation of actual records of behaviour throughout a person's lifetime (e.g. report cards, ratings by friends and military conduct reports);

2. Q-data – data obtained by questionnaires (e.g. asking people to rate themselves on different characteristics); and

3. T-data – or objective psychometric test data (e.g. the Thematic Apperception Test).

On the basis of this research, Cattell (1946) developed a model of personality describing 16 trait dimensions. He then developed a questionnaire to measure these traits called the Sixteen Personality Factors Questionnaire (16PF).

Eysenck's supertraits:

Hans Eysenck (1916–97) was a contemporary of Cattell and also used factor analysis to classify personality traits. But Eysenck began with a theory of personality which he based on two *supertraits – extraversion– introversion a*nd *neuroticism–* stability. According to this theory, people who are highly extraverted are sociable and outgoing, and crave excitement and the company of others. People who are highly introverted are quiet and introspective; they tend to prefer time alone and to be cautious in the way they plan their lives. People who are highly neurotic tend to be anxious, moody and vulnerable, whereas people who are low on neuroticism tend to be stable, calm and even-tempered. Eysenck viewed the supertraits of extraversion and neuroticism as independent, and believed that different personalities arise from differing combinations of the two supertraits.

Five factors of personality:

Although trait theories were well established by the 1960s, there was no consensus concerning the number or nature of the traits that make up personality. Replications of Cattell's work in factor analysis often failed to find the original factor structure he described. Instead, a number of studies using Cattell's variables came up with a simpler five factor structure. Since then, further research has confirmed a basic *five factor model of personality* or 'Big Five':

1. Extroversion
2. Agreeableness
3. Conscientiousness
4. Neuroticism
5. Openness

Extraversion and neuroticism are defined in the same way as Eysenck defined them. Openness to experience/intellect refers to receptivity to new ideas and experiences. People low on this trait prefer the familiar, practical and concrete, whereas those high on this trait are open to new experience, curious and imaginative. Agreeableness means the extent to which people are trusting, generous and concerned for others. Those low on agreeableness are viewed as antagonistic, tough-minded and hard-headed. Conscientiousness relates to organization and achievement. Highly conscientious individuals are ambitious, hard-working, competent and organized, and those low in conscientiousness are easy-going, low in self-discipline and not goal-driven.

2.3 STUDIES ON PERSONALITY TRAITS

Personality is made up of many traits such as extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experience. Studies on different personality traits are presented in this section.

Singh (1990) conducted a study on affiliation motive as related to personality ergs and sentiments. The subjects were 200 undergraduate students whose mean age was 18.5 years. Subjects were administered an adopted version of McClelland's TAT and 16 personality questionnaire (16PF). Motivation analysis test developed by MAT Cattell and Horn (1964). Results showed significant correlations of affiliation with Factor A (warm-hearted, participating), factor N (forthright), Factor M (venturesome), Factor I (sensitive) drive for self-assertion and chronological age. These correlations suggest that high scores on the projective measure of affiliation motive tended to be participating, warm hearted, forthright, venturesome, sensitive and assertive.

Laidra *et al.* (2006) studied personality traits from the Five-Factor model as predictor of academic achievement. The sample comprised of 3618 Estonian school children from elementary to secondary school (Grades 2, 3,4,5,6,8,10 and 12 students). 1746 of them were boys and 1872 of them were girls. Results revealed that among personality traits (measured by self-reports on the Estonian Big Five Questionnaire for children in grades 2 to 4 and by the NEO Five Factor Inventory in grades 6 to 12), openness, agreeableness and conscientiousness correlated positively and neuroticism correlated negatively with GPA in almost every grade.

Heller *et al.* (2007) examined the within-individual dynamics of Big-5 personality states over time in people's daily lives. They focus on the magnitude of this within-individual variability and the associations between personality states, short term goals and subjective well-being states. Samples comprised of 101 undergraduate students (69 females, 39 males and 3 unknown) with a mean age of 18.59 years from the University of waterloo.

They participated in a 10-day interval- contingent diary study. Findings established a considerable amount of within-individual variability that is both equal or larger than the observed between individuals and larger or similar to other constructs assessed with a state approach (eg. self-esteem and mood). Both neuroticism and extraversion are systematically related to short-term pursuit of approach-avoidance goals. Also support was obtained for mediating role of both neuroticism and extraversion states of the association between goals and subjective well-being.

Donnellan *et al.* (2008) used behaviour genetic methods to estimate genetic and environmental contributions to (a) attachment-related anxiety and avoidance and (b) the overlap between theses attachment dimensions and the Big Five Personality traits. Participants in this study were 134MZ pairs and 139 DZ pairs drawn from the Mitchigan State University twin study of behavioural adjustment and they were between the ages of 18 and 28 years. Results revealed that much of the overlap between adult attachment and the Big Five Personality traits was due to shared genetic influences. Neuroticism accounted for all the genetic variance in the Anxiety dimension both neuroticism and Extraversion accounted for genetic variance within the avoidance dimension. And the majority of the environmental influences on personality were independent of the environmental influences on attachment (and vice-versa).

Ludtke *et al.* (2009) conducted a longitudinal to examine continuity and change in the Big Five Personality and in the importance of life goals from eight domains (personal growth, relationships, community, health, wealth, fame, image and hedonism). The data were obtained from students in 149 randomly selected upper secondary schools in a single German state and there were 2141 students in a 2 year period at the transition from school to college or employment with a mean age of 19.51 years(SD=0.77). Results indicated that both personality traits and life goals demonstrated high levels of rank-order and structural stability and showed significant individual differences in individual change. Mean level changes were in line with the maturity principle; scores on agreeableness, neuroticism decreased. However the importance of life goals decreased in all domains except health.

Mettali *et al.* (2009) conducted a study on 'The development of gendered interests and personality qualities from middle childhood through adolescents: A biosocial analysis'. This study charted the development of gendered personality qualities and activity interest from age 7 to 19 in 364 first and second born siblings from 185 white, middle/working class families, assessed links between time in gendered social context (with mother, father, female peers and male peers) and gender development and tested whether changes in testosterone moderated links between time use and gender development. Results showed that pattern of change varied across dimensions of gender and by sex and birth order and that time in gendered social contexts was generally linked to development of more stereotypical qualities. Associations between time with mother and expressivity and time with father and instrumentality were stronger for youth with slower increase in testosterone.

Chen and Bond (2010) conducted a study titled 'Two languages, two personalities? Examining language effects on the expression of personality in a bilingual context' and tested the cultural accommodation hypothesis by examining the impact of language use on personality as perceived by the self and by others. In study I (N=213; 104 males and 109 females, mean age =20.58). Hong Kong Chinese-English bilinguals responded to personality inventories and results indicated that target of perception effects were evident for all five factors with the hypothesis except for the direction of agreeableness. Study 2 (N= 76 females, mean age=20.34) adopted a repeated measure design and collected data at three time points from written measures and actual conservations to examine whether bilinguals exhibited different patterns of personality. Results from observers' ratings, participants were perceived to be more extraverted, open, assertive, helpful and higher on application and intellect when talking with Caucasian interviewers than Chinese interviewers. And when talking with Chinese interviewers, they were rated as more extraverted, open assertive helpful and higher on intellect and application when talking in English than Cantonese.

Fleischhaver *et al.* (2010) examined the relation of need for cognition (NFC) to well-established personality concepts on a sample of 307 students of Dresden University of Technology, of which 87 of them were male and they were in the age range of 18-42 years. It was observed that NFC was positively correlated with openness, emotional stability and traits including goal orientation. Using confirmatory factor analysis and event-related potentials, incremental validity of NFC and openness to ideas was demonstrated, showing that NFC is more predictive of drive-related and goal oriented behaviour and attention resource allocation.

Kandler *et al.* (2011) conducted a study on 'The genetic links between the big five personality traits and general interest domains' with an aim to examine genetic and environmental effects on interest based on scores of self and peer informants and to examine the phenotypic, genetic and environmental relations between the five broad personality traits and interest domains using multiple rater scores. The sample consisted of 844 individuals including 450 monozygotic, 226 dizygotic and 168 unmatched twins in age between 21 and 74 years. Multiple-rater scores (composites) revealed that the averaged levels of genetic and environmental effects on seven broad interest domains were similar to those on personality traits. About 35 per cent of the genetic and 9 per cent of the environmental variance in interests were explained by personality domains, in particular by openness.

Mehmood *et al.* (2012) studied the impact of co-curricular activities on personality development of secondary school students. A sample of 480 students was selected randomly from 24 secondary schools of Attock districts. Results revealed that co-curricular activities have stronger relationship with developing adaptation, self-confidence, honesty, sociability, sympathetic attitude, social obligations, and sense of responsibility among male than female secondary school students. Also co-curricular activities were found to have significant impact on personality development of secondary school students.

2.4 STUDIES RELATED TO FACTORS INFLUENCING PERSONALITY TRAITS

Studies related to factors influencing personality traits are presented under the following subheadings as socio-demographic and home environment.

2.4.1 Socio-demographic characteristics and personality traits

Studies related to socio-demographic characteristics namely, age, gender, caste, SES, parental education, parental occupation, type of family and locality on personality traits are reviewed and presented below:

Age

Bilquis and Mayuri (1999) undertook an investigation to study the personality development of rural children belonging to Andhra, Rayalaseema and Telangana regions of Andhra Pradesh. The sample consist of 922 boys and girls (498 boys; 424 girls) drawn randomly from primary, secondary schools and junior colleges and in the age range of 6-18/20 years. Results showed that child's personal and social background and age related variables did have significant relationship with the child's overall personality development.

Mayuri and Devi (2001) in their study on the personality development of rural adolescents of Andhra Pradesh found that age related variables – age, class, weight and stature were significantly related to personality dimensions of the rural adolescents.

McCrae *et al.* (2002) studied the personality trait development from age 12 to age 18 to assess the mean level changes in personality traits during adolescence, results revealed that personality factors were reasonably invariant across ages, although rank-order stability of individual difference was low. Neuroticism appeared to increase in girls, and openness to experience increased in both boys and girls; mean levels of extroversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness were stable.

Allik *et al.* (2004) conducted a study on 'Personality development from 12 to 18 years of age: Changes in mean levels and structure of traits.' The sample consisted of 2650 adolescents (1420 girls, 1230 boys) in the age range of 12 to 18 years drawn from 27 Estonian-speaking public secondary schools and gymnasiums from different regions of Estonia. And data from adolescents were compared with a representative sample of adults consisting of 1905 individuals. Findings revealed that the level of openness increased and the levels of Agreeableness and Conscientiousness decreased between 12 and 18 years of age. Self-reported personality trait structure matures and become sufficiently differentiated around age 14-15 and grows to be practically distinguishable from adult personality by age of 16. Personality of adolescents becomes more differentiated with age along with the growth of mental capacities, the correlations among the personality traits and intelligence become smaller.

Steiner *et al.* (2012) carried out a study titled 'Do agreeableness and neuroticism explain age differences in the tendency to forgive others and tested the hypothesis that agreeableness and neuroticism partially mediate the association between age and forgiveness.

Data from two cross-sectional samples of adults were used to test this hypothesis. Results from Study I (N=962, age range=19-84 years) indicated that agreeableness and neuroticism explained, in part, age differences in tendencies to forgive. Study 2 (N=451, age range=20-83 years) replicated and extended the results by including transgression occurrences as a third mediator. Results showed that agreeableness and neuroticism explained the association between age and the tendency to forgive others over and above the effect of transgression occurrences.

Gender

Fiengold (1994) conducted a study on 'Gender differences in Personality: A meta analysis'. Four meta- analyses were conducted to examine gender differences in personality in the literature and in normative data for well-known personality inventories. Results showed that males were found to be more assertive and had slightly higher self-esteem than females. Females were higher in extraversion, anxiety, trust and especially, tender-mindedness (e.g. Nurturance). Gender differences in personality traits were generally constant across ages, year of data collection, educational levels and nations.

Mayuri and Devi (2001) conducted a study on the personality development of rural adolescents of Andhra Pradesh. The sample comprised of 596 rural adolescent boys and girls. Multi dimensional assessment of personality series developed by PSYCOM series was used to collect the data. Results indicated that girls scored high on competition, maturity, self-control whereas boys scored more on guilt proneness. All scored well on boldness, self-sufficiency and were low on tension.

Tyagi and Kaur (2001) studied the perceptions of behavioural and other personality problems of adolescents with the aim of finding the self perception of adolescent girls and boys with regard to various aspects of behaviour, intellectual, physical, social and emotional aspects of personality. The study was conducted in randomly selected schools of Hisar city on 200 respondents (100 male, 100 female) in the age group of 15-16 years, studying in XI standard. Results revealed that the respondents in general have positive self concept towards themselves. However girls have higher level of self concept than the boys, especially in the subscales of behaviour, intellectual and school status and popularity. The opinion of parents, teachers and friends ad perceived by the adolescents is also highly positive.

Paul *et al.* (2001) studied gender differences in personality traits across 26 different cultures and found that contrary to predictions from evolutionary theory, magnitude of gender differences varied across cultures. And contrary to the predictions from social role model, gender differences were most pronounced in European and American cultures in which traditional sex roles are minimized.

Singh *et al.* (2007) revealed through their study that boys are reserved in nature, less intelligent, enthusiastic, shy, timid, sensitive, tough-minded uncontrolled and careless of social life whereas girls are more outgoing, intelligent, emotionally stable, sober, serious, socially bold, tender-minded, sensitive, more advanced, active, careful, more social, controlled and self disciplined.

Zupancic *et al.* (2008) studied gender differences in child/ adolescent personality traits. Results revealed that gender differences were small and similar across countries, and their patterns were closer to each other for the same data source across countries than they were for the two sources of information within the country. At the higher-order trait level, girls were perceived to be more conscientious and agreeable relative to the boys, especially from the middle childhood onwards.

Kaur (2010) conducted a study on gender differences in perceptions of home environment of adolescents. A sample size of 30-45 students from each of the 44 selected schools, totalling 1011 students (448 male and 563 female) was taken. Results revealed that male adolescents perceived their home environment to be significantly more controlled, socially isolated, deprived of certain privilege, rejected and permissive whereas female adolescents perceived their home environment to be more protective and rewarding.

Ordinal position

The order in which a person is born into their family plays a substantial role in the individual's development of personality.

Falbo and Poston (1993) conducted a study on 'The Academic, Personality and Physical outcomes of only children in China' with an objective to compare the outcomes of only children to those of first-born and later-born children.

The sample comprised of 1000 school children from 4 Chinese provinces and was in the age range of 8-17 years, with half of them in the third grade and the other half sixth grade. Results revealed that in terms of personality evaluations, very few only child effects were found.

Beer and Horn (2000) studied the influence of rearing order on personality development within two adoption cohorts. Between- and within- family analysis of the study indicated that rearing order's influence on personality was very weak. The only clear difference was for conscientiousness, on which first reared siblings scored higher.

Collins (2006) studied the relationship between birth order and personality on a sample of 100 Providence College students, 38 males and 63 females (mean age=20.13years). Analysis revealed there is statistically significant data regarding the relationship between first children and predicted, typical first child personality traits (namely responsible, cautious, motivated, driven, shy and intelligent).

Armitage (2007) conducted a study on "Birth Order: College students' perceptions of their ordinal position compared to Alfred Adler's categories". The sample comprised of 54 undergraduate college students in a rural Midwestern Campus. Among them 3 were male, 51 were female and 19 were first- born, 3 were born, 9 middle and 23 youngest children. Results indicated that majority of students' responses confirmed Adler's birth order theory to their birth order. Some characteristics were shared between the youngest and the oldest because both orders felt they had this characteristic most strongly.

Dixon *et al.* (2008) studied personality and birth order in large families. The influence of birth order on the personality traits of siblings belonging to large families (P6 siblings) was investigated using 361 sibling members (190 females, 171 males, mean age 32 ± 9.14) belonging to 42 large families. Results revealed that the youngest and three youngest siblings significantly differed from the oldest and oldest three siblings for Extraversion within and across families. The effects of age, gender and family size category on these personality traits were examined based on a hierarchical linear model. An age effect was detected for Extraversion in the model, whereas gender and family size did not have an impact.

Healey (2008) conducted a study on 'Effects of Birth Order on personality: a within- Family examination of sibling niche differentiation'. Study 1 (N=203) sought to replicate previous birth order findings for the two big-5 traits- Conscientiousness and Openness to experience. Study 2 compared the efficacy of four different types of stimulus material (ranking, ratings, independent ratings and real world scenario) in observing birth order effects (combined N=544). Results revealed general support for the Sibling Niche Differential model across studies and across stimulus materials. Also conscientiousness was rated more often as first born characteristic whereas Openness to experience was more often rat5ed as a second-born characteristic.

Ha and Tam (2011) conducted a study on birth order, academic achievement and personality with the aim to investigate birth order effect on personality and academic achievement. The sample comprised of 30 firstborns, 30 middle children, 30 last born and 30 only children from Klang valley, mostly from Sunway University College. There were 35 (29.2%) and 85 (70.8%) males and females respectively, in the age range of 17-24 years. Every participant was Malaysian and seventy-five percent were science stream students when they were in high school. Results indicated that participants of different birth positions did not differ significantly in terms of personality and academic achievement.

Caste

Caste was found to contribute indirectly to the personality development of children. It was indicated by a study conducted by Bilquis and Mayuri (1999) on personality development of rural children belonging to Andhra, Rayalaseema Telangana regions of Andhra Pradesh.

Mehta *et al.* (2008) conducted a study to unravel and make a comparative study of the personality patterns of SC, ST and non–backward higher secondary boys. The study was conducted on a sample of 600 rural and urban male students of XI standard from Jaipur district belonging to SC, ST and non-backward classes. Results revealed significant differences in personality patterns among SC, ST and non-backward boys. These differences were more prominent in rural areas in comparison to urban areas.

Socioeconomic status

Pramanick (1996) conducted a study on 'Socio-economic status and personality' to determine the effect of socio economic status on hostility, self concept and self disclosure, 340 urban college students (200 mates & 140 females) aged 16-18 years were selected randomly from intermediate classes of 24 constituent colleges of Bhagalpur University and ere administered Kuppuswamy Socio-economic status scale, Bending Hostility scale, Mohsin Self-concept Inventory and Jourard Self Dislosure Inventory. It was found that SES of father was inversely related to hostility of college adolescents. No significant SES differences occurred in self-concept or self-disclosure.

Among SES variables, parental education, occupational caste were found to be significantly related to personality dimensions of the rural adolescents on a study on the personality development of rural adolescents of Andhra Pradesh conducted by Mayuri and Devi (2001)

Fatima *et al.* (2009) studied the impact of socio-economic status of parents on personality formation of children. A sample of 120 respondents who were mothers of school going children, were selected by employing systematic sampling technique. Results revealed that as educational level increases, there might be more favourable attitudes towards modern pattern of personality formation it was statistically proved that parents with better occupational status are expected to develop the personality of their children on modern lines.

Savita *et al.* (2012) conducted a study titled 'Socio-economic variables: A contributing factor for adolescent's personality development' with an aim to assess and compare the personality components of the adolescents from disorganised families. The sample comprised of 45 urban male respondents from Hissar city and 45 rural male respondents from selected villages of Hissar I-block who were in the age range of 13-18 years. Results revealed that caste, parental educational level and family income are the contributing factors in personality of adolescents along with their family structure. Significant difference was found between maturity, mental health, self control, self-sufficiency and tension level of adolescents from different caste. Moreover, adolescents on the basis of family income and parental education differed significantly on their boldness, guilt proneness, leadership, maturity, mental health, self- control, self- sufficiency and tension level.

Parental education

Bilquis and Mayuri (1999) found parental education to be significantly related to all dimensions of personality in their study titled 'Personality development of rural children in three regions of Andhra Pradesh'.

Gupta (2007) undertook a study to find out the influence of education of mother and family climate on the selected personality aspects of high school girls. The sample consisted of 200 girls students of selected co-educational and girls high school of Barda city.results revealed that the influence of education of mother was significant on the level of vocational interest.

Parental occupation

Singh (1996) conducted a study on some personality characteristics of school adolescents in relation to their mother's employment. The sample consisted of 200 students reading in degree classes in the colleges located in Ara (Bihar). Out of these 100 of them belonged to both mothers and fathers as earning members and 100 of them whose mother were housewives and father was earning. The adolescents were in the age group of 18-21 years. Results revealed that the two groups of adolescents differed significantly on personality factors measured. Those in the working group of mothers generally seemed to be out-going, open-minded, emotionally more stable, bold, venturesome, adaptive to change, independent in taking decisions and actions. While students of non-working groups of mothers were found more reserved, less outgoing, easily moved by emotions and feelings, shy, conservative, with drawing, traditional-oriented and depending on others to take decisions and actions.

Sandhu (1998) aimed to determine the personality differences in working and non-working mothers on a study titled 'Differential patterns of the daughters of working and non-working mothers'. The sample consisted of randomly selected 50 girls (25 of whom had working mothers and the other 25 had non-working mothers) in the age range of 12-14 years. They were taken from seven schools of Agra city.

Results revealed that daughters of non-working mothers scored significantly higher on factor A, F and G. this indicate that they were easy going, ready to cooperate, soft-hearted, participating, more enthusiastic, talkative, cheerful, frank, persevering, determined, responsible, dominated by duty, etc. daughters of working mothers scored higher on factor I and G_4 indicating that they were more tender-minded, attention seeking, insecure, anxious about self, tense, frustrated, driven, fretful, overwrought, etc.

Bilquis and Mayuri (1999) undertook an investigation to study the personality development of rural children belonging to Andhra, Rayalaseema and Telangana regions of Andhra Pradesh wherein they found occupational status to be significantly related to all the dimensions of personality in all the three regions.

Bala and Nanda (2007) conducted a study titled 'Impact of maternal employment on personality traits of urban adolescents' on adolescents of 100 working and 100 non-working mothers. Multidimensional assessment of personality series (MAP Series form-T) for teenage designed by Psy. Com Services (1993) was used to assess the personality traits. Results revealed that adolescents of working mothers were more enthusiastic, more excited, better in general ability and more prone to guilt whereas adolescents of non-working mothers scored almost equal scores in individualism.

Johnson *et al.* (2013) examined the association between typical parental work hours (including non employed parents) and children's behaviour in two-parent heterosexual families. Child behaviour was measured by the child behaviour checklist at ages 5, 8 and 10 in the western Australian pregnancy Cohort (Raine) study (N=4201 child year observations). Results revealed that compared to those whose fathers worked fewer hours per week, children whose fathers worked 55 hours or more per week had significantly higher levels of externalizing behaviour. Further when stratifying the analysis by child gender, this association appeared to exist only in boys. However mothers work hours were unrelated to children behavioural problems.

Type of family and size of family

Bilquis and Mayuri (1999) through their study proved that family type and size contribute indirectly to the personality development of children.

Dayal and Mishra (2012) aimed at investigating the patterns of personality formation of children as affected by family size, age and gender. The sample comprised of 100 school going children from low income group families selected purposively from the school of Lucknow city in UP. Results indicated that some of the personality factors were affected by family size. The children of small family were more reserved, detached and critical in comparison to large family children. Also they were more excitable, impatient, demanding and overactive. No significant difference was found among boys and girls of small size family and a significant difference was found among boys and girls of large families in personality factor 'I', the boys being more tough-minded than girls.

Locality

Gill and Kang (1995) reported that in urban and rural homes where environment was rich, there were fewer children who suffered from behavioural problems and in poor home environment; there were more children with behavioural problems. Further the result also revealed that in urban and rural areas, the number of children with les behavioural problems was where family size was found to be large.

Roy (2002) studied differences in personality traits across four metropolitan cities and the model personality structure of the people in four cities were examined. Mean age of the sample was 43.69 years and they were employed in different government schools, government hospitals, nationalized banks and art colleges. These samples were drawn from Calcutta (N=93), Madras (N=78), Bombay (N=64) and Delhi (N=51) contributing to a total sample of 28.6 individuals. Results revealed that personality patterns of the four cities were significantly different in four personality factors, namely dull-bright, submissive-assertive, tough minded- tender minded and group dependent-self sufficient. Samples in Calcutta were significantly higher in all four factors.

Jyothi and Devi (2011) studied the personality development of rural child labourers in rural areas of Ranga Reddy district of Andhra Pradesh. The sample consists of randomly selected 120 working children (60 boys, 60 girls) in the age range of 9-12 years. Results revealed that majority of the child labourers were found poor in most of the positive traits like adaptability, academic performance, competition and creativity.

They were also found poor in enthusiasm, individualism, independence, leadership, social warmth and boldness dimensions. Also, girls score high on sensitivity while boys score low on it.

Savita and Duhan (2012) conducted a study on 'Personality Assessment of Rural and Urban Adolescent Boys from Disorganized Families'. Results showed that rural adolescents were significantly higher in their boldness, leadership, sensitivity and social warmth. Significant results were also found in the level of general ability, guilt proneness, mental health, self -sufficiency and tension.

2.4.2 Studies on home environment and personality traits

Agarwal (1997) conducted a comparative study of the effect of parental environment upon the educational development of students on the basis of sex. The sample comprised of randomly selected 100 students (50 boys, 50 girls) of Pauri district studying in class 8,9,10 and 11. Results revealed that there exist a significant difference in parental encouragement amongst the high, middle and low groups of boys and girls. Girls of Pauri district are getting more amount of parental encouragement in all the three groups of educational development

Rai and Singh (1996) conducted a study on 'Perceived parental rearing styles and personality: A study among Mizo adolescents'. The sample comprised of 100 Mizo students adolescents in the age range of 14-16 years selected randomly from two high school situated in and around Aizawl, the capital town of Mizoram and they were from class IX and X. It was found that high scorer boys on emotional warmth and overprotection scales of PPRSQ manifested extraverted and introverted personality patterns respectively and high scorer girls on the rejection scale and overprotection scale indicated introverted and extraverted personality patters respectively. Both boys and girls showing high scores on rejection manifested unstable personality while girls showing high scores on emotional warmth manifested stable personality pattern.

Bharadwaj (1997) conducted a study on perceptions as regards to fathering among labourer and non-labourer early adolescents. It was found that perceived fathering of labourers is associated with acceptance, protection and moralist as against rejection, carelessness and lenient standards of non-labourers respectively. And the perceived fathering of non-labourers is associated with realism as against ectopian expectations of labourers.

Nakao *et al.* (2000) studied the influences of family environment on personality traits. The sample comprised of 150 children; 104 males and 46 females with mean age of 13.2±2.4 years. The influences of various aspects of family environment on personality traits were examined when both family environment and child personality traits were evaluated objectively. Results showed that extroversion was negatively associated with overprotection/ interference and with maternal participation in childrearing. Maturity correlated with high socioeconomic status, appropriate childrearing patterns and paternal participation in childrearing. And, intellect correlated positively with high socioeconomic status and with maternal participation in childrearing.

Sangwan (2001) conducted a study on 'Family Environment in different ecological aspects' in Hissar city of Haryana state. The sample comprised of 100 respondents (50 males & 50 females) in the age range of 18-25 years. From the results it can be concluded that male and females have same qualitative norms in all dimension of family environment viz., cohesion, expressions, conflicts, acceptance and caring, independence, active recreational orientation, organization and control. Low income groups have average qualitative norms in all the dimensions, middle income group have high qualitative norms in active recreational orientation and high income group have high qualitative norms in active recreational orientation and organization.

Davey *et al.* (2003) examined the potential for different associations of two correlates of resilience (self worth and coping) with a third (personality dimensions). The final sample consisted 181 students of 11^{th} grade (48% male of which78% were white). Consistent with prior research, the combination of being extraverted, agreeable, positive coping was also associated with compensatory mechanisms for adolescents who were high on disagreeableness and emotional instability. These findings suggest that there may be different compensatory mechanisms operating for adolescents with different personality profiles.

Carlson (2006) studied family structure, father involvement and behaviour outcomes using data (N=2733) from the 1979 National Longitudinal survey of Youth (NLSY) to assess whether father involvement mediates the relationship between family structure (i.e. father absence) and four measure of adolescent behaviour namely externalizing BPI (Behaviour problems Index, Delinquency, negative feelings and internalizing BPI.

Results showed that difference in father involvement are shown to account for a sizeable fraction of the variance in outcomes by family structure. Father involvement does not affect boys and girls differently but is more beneficial when the father lives with the adolescent.

Bester (2007) conducted a study 'Personality development of the adolescent: peer group *versus* parents' with an aim to determine if peers and parents had a different impact on the personality development of the adolescent. A second aim was to determine if gender played a role in this regard. The study was carried out on 98 learners from Grades 8 to 11 (53 boys and 55 girls). Results indicated that the peer group, when compared with parents, had a stronger relationship with the personality development of the adolescent. This stronger relationship was more prominent in boys than in girls.

Gupta (2007) undertook a study to find out the influence of education of mother and family climate on the selected personality aspects of high school girls. The sample consisted of 200 girls students of selected co-educational and girls high school of Baroda city. Girls belonging to moderately stereotyped family climate and had mothers with high educational level were found to have high levels of selected personality aspects.

Kadhiravan and Suresh (2007) carried out a study to find out the relationship between environment awareness ability and personality among 400 college students. Finding revealed that environmental awareness ability is affected is affected by demographic variables such as subject of specialisation, residential area, parental income and parents' level of education. Further it was found that gender does not affect the personality of students whereas subject specialization, residential area, parental income and parents' level of education significantly influence certain dimensions of personality (intuitions, thinking, extraversion, sensing, perceiving).

Parveen (2007) conducted a study to examined the effect of home environment on the academic achievement and personality of students. The sample comprised of 724 students (40 female & 314 male) selected from 10 female and 11 male colleges of Rawalpindi, Jhelum, Attick and Chakwal district using cluster sampling technique. Findings revealed that students' personality was partially influenced by home environment, SES, family relations and all the other independent variables.

Singh *et al.* (2007) studied the impact of perceived parental behaviour in relation to personality pattern in boys and girls on a sample of 200 adolescent students (equal no. of boys and girls) with the age range of 15-18 years studying in class XI and XII in Jaipur city. Results revealed that object reward giving behaviour of father is perceived more by girls than boys. Mother showed more protecting behaviour towards girls than boys and they are perceived as more symbolic punishment by girls. Also mothers are perceived more demanding by boys.

Rai *et al.* (2009) attempted to point out the perceived parental rearing style and personality among Khasi adolescents, a distinct tribe and matrilineal society of Meghalaya state from North-eastern region of India. The sample consists of 100 Khasi adolescents (50males, 50females) studying at plus two, drawn randomly from various Kendriya Vidyalaya of Shillong. Their age ranged from 17 to 19 years. Results revealed that boys have significantly more rejection from father as compared to girls and girls have shown significantly better emotional warmth in comparison to boys from father. The comparison of boys and girls on anxiety, depression, somatic problems, anger hostility and self-esteem indicated significantly higher anxiety, more somatic problems and higher anger hostility among boys and high self-esteem in girls.

Xu *et al.* (2009) examined on additive and interactive effects of temperament and harsh and indulgent parenting on Chinese children's proactive and reactive aggression. Participants comprised of 401 children of which 203 were girls, with a mean age of 9.29 years and their parents who were recruited from 2 elementary schools in shanghai, people's Republic of China. Results showed that children's sensation seeking was associated with reactive aggression. Subtypes of aggression were negatively related to children's effortful control but positively related to harsh parenting. Significant Temperament X Temperament and Parenting X Temperament interactions were also found.

Choudhary and Kang (2010) undertook a study on 'Family Environment: perception of urban adolescents' with the aim to study the family environment of urban adolescent and to find out the gender differences in the family environment of urban adolescents (100 males and 100 females) in the age range of 16-18 years belonging to middle socio-economic status families who were drawn purposively from senior secondary schools in Ludhiana city.

Results indicate that among the 8 dimensions of family environment, none of the subject perceived high level of expressiveness, acceptance and caring, independence, active recreational orientation and control in their respective families. Almost 50 per cent of them perceived low level of cohesion and medium level of family conflict and organization. No significant gender differences existed in all the eight dimensions.

Khalane and Borse (2010) studied the parental attitude towards child rearing in single and sibling child families on a study entitled 'The influence of parent-child relationship on the personality of single and sibling child'. By purposive sampling technique 180 boys and 180 girls in the age range of 14-17 years from single and sibling child families respectively were chosen for the study from Pune district. Parent-child relation test (by Govind Tiwari) and 16 P.F was used for the study. Results showed that between the groups of single and sibling child families, single subjects were found more emotionally stable and more tender-minded whereas sibling subjects were more conscientious and more experimenting. Also, single subject subjects' fathers were more affectionate towards the subject, mother's and father's identification were found more in single child family. And differences between the groups of male and female showed those males were found more outgoing and tender-minded whereas female subjects were found more conscientious. Mothers of the male subjects were more aggressive to the subjects and fathers were also found to be stricter towards the male subjects than the female counterparts.

Nokali *et al.* (2010) studied parent involvement and children's academic and social development in elementary school. Samples were drawn from the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) study of early child care and youth development (N=1364) and investigated children's trajectories of academic and social development across 1st, 3rd and 5th grades. Findings suggested that within-child improvement in parent involvement predicts declines in problem behaviours and improvements in social skills. Between- child analyses demonstrated that children with highly involved parents had enhanced social functioning and fewer behaviour problems.

Bhanot and Gupta (2011) conducted a study in Faizabad district of eastern Uttar Pradesh to assess the home environment of adolescent boys and relationship between mother's occupation and home environment of adolescent boys. 100 adolescent boys of age group 13-19 comprised the sample of the study. It was found that adolescent boys with working mothers have better (protected) environment than boys with non-working.

Singh and Bajwa (2012) studied father-daughter relationship of urban families in Ludhiana city. The sample comprised of 160 respondents in the age range of 13-15 years, belonging to middle socioeconomic status selected purposively from government senior secondary schools, Ludhiana city. Results revealed that majority of the daughters had an average relationship with their fathers, and daughters in the age group of 15years enjoyed a slightly better relationship with their father as compared to other age group. Also, father's involvement was positively associated with children pro-social behaviour and had an effective relationship on certain dimensions like self-confidence

Viswanathappa and Janapati (2012) aimed to assess the relationship between social skills and home environment of secondary level tribal students of Khammam district in Andhra Pradesh on a study titled ' Social skills and home environment of secondary level tribal students of Khammam district in Andhra Pradesh (India)'. The total sample comprised of 317 students (235 tribal boys, 82 tribal girls) of classes VIII and IX drawn by using simple random sampling method covering government schools managed by state government, ITDA and APTWREIS. Results revealed that there is a lot of heterogeneity in the social skills and home environment among the secondary schools tribal students. Tribal boys possess better social skills than tribal girls; tribal perceived healthy home environment more than tribal boys. The tribal students studying in the school of excellence managed by the tribal welfare department were found to exhibit better social skills and home environment were found to exhibit better social skills and home environment than students of other types of schools

2.4.3 Studies on home environment

Votruba and Drzal (2003) examined the influence of household income on cognitive stimulation during the transition to school (aged 3-4 years to 7-8 years). The data was drawn from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (N=2174). Results revealed that household income was positively related to level of cognitive stimulation in children's home environment. Home environments of children in low-income households were particularly sensitive to income changes over time.

Goel (2004) investigated the effect of home environment on educational aspirations. The sample comprised of 100 students (50 boys & 50 girls) of intermediate classes who were in the age range of 16-20 years. Results revealed that girls had a much higher educational aspiration than boys. Boys feel more rejected with the autocratic atmosphere at home in comparison to girls who experience more nurturance than boys.

Daulta (2008) assessed the impact of home environment on scholastic achievement of children of class VIII. The sample comprised of 120 students in the age range of 12-14 years who were randomly drawn from two institutes of Panipat city. Results showed that home environment have positive impact on the mean values of scholastic achievement of both boys and girls. It was also observed that good quality of home environment had more significant positive correlation with 'high' level of scholastic achievement in boys than among the girls. Good quality of home environment had more significant positive effect on 'high' level of scholastic achievement in children.

Pushpalatha *et al.* (2008) carried out a study 'Home Environment as a determined of social competence of preschoolers with an objective to assess the influence of home environment on social competence of pre-schoolers. The sample consists of 200 children in the age group of 2-4 years who were randomly selected from reveal and urban areas of Hisar district, Haryana. Results revealed that in reveal areas social competence was not significantly related to home environment in all its factors/ dimensions. However, language stimulation and academic stimulation were the two factors which significantly influenced social competence in urban areas.

Kaur *et al.* (2009) made an attempt to explore academic achievement and home environment as correlates of self-concept on a representative sample of 300 adolescents of 9th class selected randomly from different government and private schools of Patiala district of Punjab. Results showed a significant positive relationship of home environment components of protectiveness, conformity, reward and nurturance from parents should be done for positive self-concept development among adolescents.

Kaur *et al.* (2009) studied self concept among adolescents in relation to home environment. The sample comprised of 300 adolescents of ninth class selected on the basis of randomized technique of sampling from different government and private schools of Patiala district of Punjab. Results revealed 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 or rejection.

Sharma and Kaur (2009) conducted a study on the effect of home environment and level of intelligence on the obedient and disobedient tendency among students. The sample comprised of 200 students (100 boys and 100 girls) studying in 8^{th} class in different schools in both urban and rural areas of Jammu district. Results revealed that the condition of home environment of the students (both male and female) belonging to both urban and rural area possessing obedient tendency has been found significantly better than that of their counterparts possessing tendency. Thus it can be estimated that home environment serves as a significant factors responsible for determining the obedience and disobedience tendency among the students.

Sharma and Nagar (2009) studied the influence of home-environment on psychomotor development of infants in Kangra district of Himachal Pradesh. The sample comprised of 145 male and female infants in the age group of birth and eighteen months from two villages, Bundla and Kandi of Kangra district. The results revealed significantly differences in home environment, motor age and psychomotor developmental indices between the experimental and control group infants. A significant association was also found between home environment and psychomotor developmental indices of infants.

Jadhav (2010) studied the relationship between home environment and emotional maturity of college going students of Belgaum district in Karnataka. The sample consists of 200 students randomly, out of which 120 were boys and 80 were girl students. Results revealed that there is positive significant relationship between home environment and emotional maturity among boys and girls.

Deepshikha and Bhanot (2011) conducted a study at Kumarganj, Faizabad District of Eastern U.P. to assess family environment of adolescent girls and its impact on their socio-economic adjustment. The sample comprised of 100 adolescent girls selected randomly from three colleges of rural areas of the district and who were in the age range of 17-18 years. The sample comprised of 100 adolescent girls selected randomly from three colleges of rural areas of the district and who were in the age range of 17-18 years. The overall results revealed that most of the environmental factors have played negative role in influencing the overall socio-emotional adjustment of the adolescent girls.

Chawla (2012) conducted a study on 'The relationship between family environment and academic achievement' with an objective to test the relationship between family environment and academic achievements. The sample consisted of 200 high school students of 9^{th} class, including randomly selected 100 girls and 100boys. Findings revealed that family environment score was positively correlated with the academic achievement of the students.

Sharma and Sahni (2013) studied the influence of home environment, personality and their interaction on emotional intelligence of adolescents. The sample comprised of 300 adolescents to randomly selected from various secondary schools of Haryana who were in the age range of 14-16years studying in class IX and X. Results revealed significant effect of home environment and personality on emotional intelligence and significant two factor interactive effect of variables on emotional intelligence of adolescents.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The study entitled 'Influence of home environment on personality traits of adolescents' was conducted during the year 2012-2013 in Dharwad district of Karnataka. The materials and methods used in the study are discussed under the following headings:

3.1 Research design

Differential design was used to study the difference in personality traits of urban and rural adolescents. Further, correlation research design was employed to know the relationship between dependent and independent variables.

3.2 Population of the study

The population of the study consisted students, both boys and girls who were studying in 8^{th}, 9^{th}, 10^{th}, PUC-I^{st} and PUC-II^{nd} year classes from junior colleges (13-19 years) located in both urban and rural areas of Dharwad taluk.

3.3 Sample for the study

Totally there were 36 numbers of high schools with pre-university education in Dharwad city and 24 in rural areas of Dharwad taluk. Out of these, two high schools from Dharwad city namely, KPES English medium high school/ college and Sharada English medium high school/ Sharada pre-university arts and science college and two from rural areas *i.e.*, Jai Kirti Higher Primary school, Garag/ SGM College, Garag and Higher primary school J.P Hebbali/ Neharu PU college were selected randomly.

The list of the schools was obtained from the office of Block Education Office, Dharwad. From each class 6 boys and 6 girls from 8^{th}, 9^{th} and 10^{th} while 7 girls and 7 boys from PUC – I and PUC – II were selected which comprised the total sample to be 256 adolescents from both urban and rural areas (*i.e.*, 128 each from both urban and rural areas). The criteria used while selecting the samples for the study was that the subjects should be living with both parents.

3.4 Tools used for the study

3.4.1 Self-structured questionnaire

Pretested questionnaire formed the broad frame-work for eliciting required general information of the samples. The questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first part had items to collect information about the subject (age, gender and ordinal position) and the second part had items to collect background information of family of the subject (caste, type of family, size of family, income parents' education, parents' occupation and type of locality). Appendix – I.

3.4.2 Big five factors of personality

The big five factors of personality were assessed using the big five inventory developed by John *et al*. (1991). This inventory consists of 54 items categorized into 5 factors viz. extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experience (Appendix – II). The five factors are discussed below:

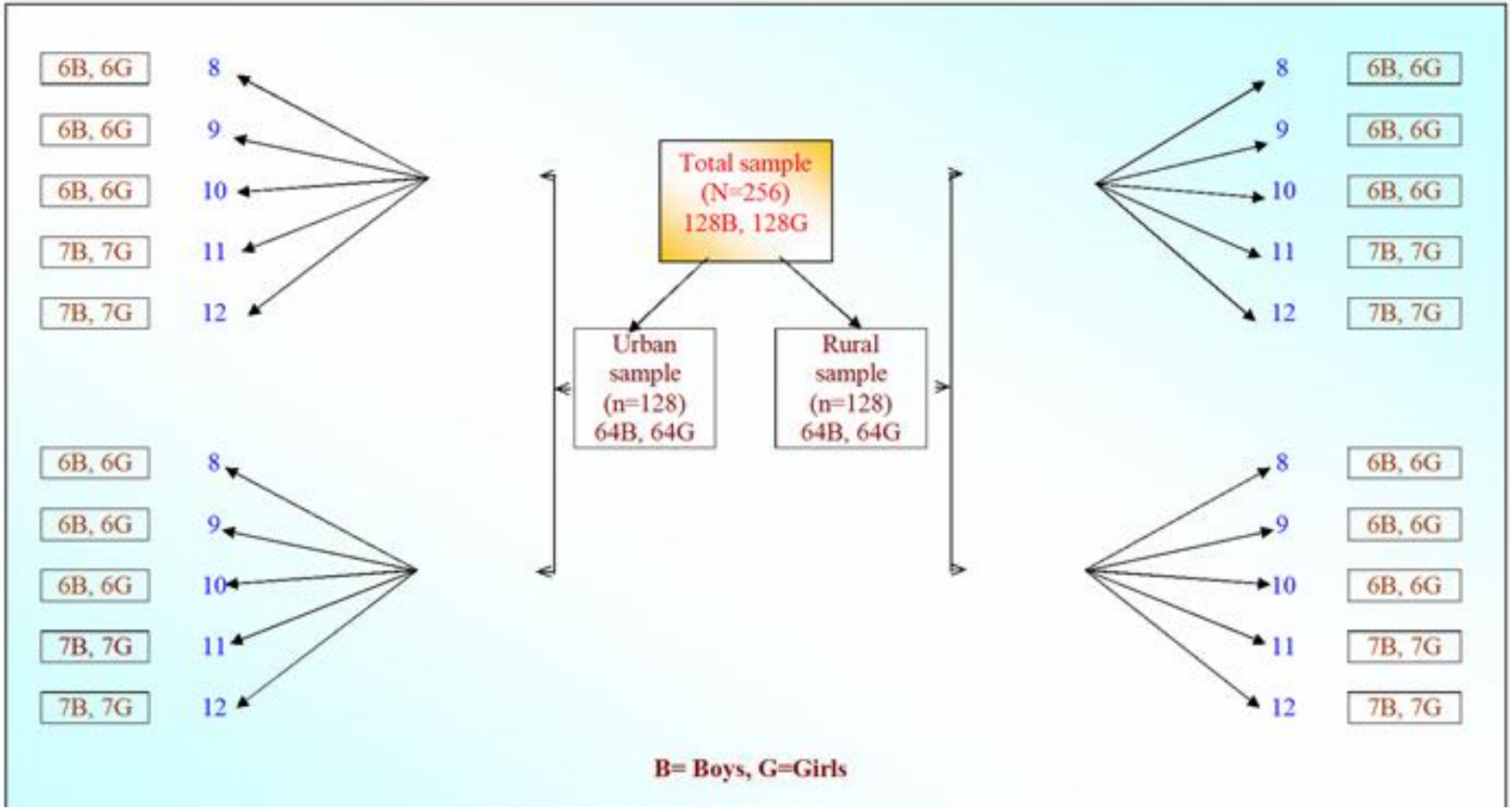

Fig. 1. Flowchart depicting sample selection for the strudy

i) Extroversion: People vary in their tendencies to be vigorously, actively and surgently involved with the world around them. Extraverted individuals have the tendency to be sociable, adventurous and energetic. This factor consists of 9 items, 6 positive and 3 negative. The minimum score is 9 and maximum score is 45.

ii) Agreeableness: Agreeableness includes a variety of traits that foster congenial relationships with others. Agreeableness individuals are cooperative, considerate, empathic, generous, polite and kind. Disagreeable individuals are aggressive rude, spiteful, stubborn, cynical and manipulative. There are 9 items under this category 5 positive and 4 negative. Total score ranges from 9-45.

iii) Conscientiousness: Conscientious individual are responsible, attentive, careful, persistent, orderly and planful; those who are low on this trait are irresponsible, unreliable, careless and distractible. High conscientiousness is seen as willingness to follow authority and conform to group norms or positive "engagement within task related endeavors". It contains 5 positive and 4 negative statements. The minimum score is 9 and maximum score is 45.

iv) Emotional stability: All temperament and personality taxonomies include a trait that encompasses the tendencies to experience the world as distressing and threatening. Adults who are Neuroticism are anxious, vulnerable to stress, guilt prone, lacking in confidence, moody, angry, easily frustrated and insecure in relationships individuals low on this traits are emotional stable and adaptable. There are 4 positive and 5 negative items included in this category. Total score range from 9-45.

v) Openness to experience: imaginative, creative and aesthetically sensitive are the core of this trait. Tendency to seek stimulation and to explore new environments actively in early childhood predicts later academic achievement and IQ. These behaviors also predict later openness or intellect. Orienting sensitivity which includes the tendency to be sensitive to internal and external sensory stimulation is concurrently related to openness in adulthood. This factor contains 14 positive and 4 negative statements and the total score ranges from 18 to 90.

This is a 5 point likert scale with each statement to be answered as strongly agree, agree a little, neither agree nor disagree, disagree a little and disagree strongly with a scoring of 5,4,3,2 and 1 respectively for positive statement and the scores are reversed i.e. 1,2,3,4 and 5 respectively for negative statement. Based on the score obtained the total score can be classified as under:

Big 5 Factors of Personality	Category		
	Low	Average	High
Extroversion	9-20	21-32	33-45
Agreeableness	9-20	21-32	33-45
Conscientiousness	9-20	21-32	33-45
Emotional stability	9-20	21-32	33-45
Openness to experience	18-41	42-65	66-90

3.4.3 Home environment

The home environment of the adolescents was assessed using the 'Home Environment Inventory (HEI)' developed by Mishra (1983) (Appendix – III). HEI measures the psychosocial climate of home as perceived by children. It provides a measure of the quality and quantity of the cognitive, emotional and social support that has been available to the child within the home. It has 100 items depicting ten dimensions of home environment and each home environment dimension consists ten items. The dimensions of home environment are as follows:

(A) Control- It indicates "autocratic atmosphere in which many restrictions are imposed on children by the parents in order to discipline them".

(B) Protectiveness- It implies "Prevention of independent behavior and prolongation of infantile care".

(C) Punishment- It includes “Physical as well as affective punishment to avoid the occurrence of undesirable behavior”.

(D) Conformity- It indicates “Parent’s directions, commands or orders with which child is expected to comply by action”. It refers to “Demands to work according to parent’s desires and expectations”.

(E) Social isolation- It indicates “Use of isolation from beloved persons except family members for negative sanctions”.

(F) Reward- It includes “Material as well as symbolic rewards to strengthen or increase the probability of desired behavior”.

(G) Deprivation of privileges- It implies “Controlling children’s behavior by depriving them or their rights to seek love, respect and child care from parents”.

(H) Nurturance- It indicates “Existence of excessive unconditional physical and emotional attachment of parents with the child. Parents have a keen interest in and love for the child”.

(I) Rejection- It implies “Conditional love recognizing that the child has no rights as a person, no right to express his feelings, no right to uniqueness and no right to become an autonomous individual”.

(J) Permissiveness- It includes “Provision of opportunities to child to express his views freely and act according to his desires with no interference from parents”.

This is a 5 point likert scale with 5 alternatives to each statement namely mostly, often, sometimes, least and never with a score of 4, 3, 2, 1 and 0 respectively.

Based on the mean scores of the subjects, scores falling in the ranges of $>P_{90}$, P_{75}-P_{90}, P_{50}-P_{75}, P_{25}-P_{50}, P_{10}-P_{25} and $<P_{10}$ are interpreted as indices of very high, high, slightly above average, low and very low levels of a particular dimension of the home environment respectively.

However in the present study children’s scores following the percentile range $<P_{25}$, P_{25}-P_{75} and P_{75}-P_{90} have been grouped into categories as low, medium and high separately for boys and girls which is given below.

HEI dimensions	Boys			Girls		
	Low ($<P_{25}$)	Medium (P_{25}-P_{75})	High (P_{75}-P_{90})	Low ($<P_{25}$)	Medium (P_{25}-P_{75})	High (P_{75}-P_{90})
Control	≤ 20	21 - 25	≥ 26	≤ 19	20 -24	≥ 25
Protectiveness	≤ 22	23 - 28	≥ 29	≤ 24	25 -29	≥ 30
Punishment	≤ 24	25 - 28	≥ 29	≤ 23	24 - 28	≥ 29
Conformity	≤ 30	31 - 34	≥ 35	≤ 29	30 - 33	≥ 34
Social isolation	≤ 14	15 - 20	≥ 21	≤ 10	11 - 18	≥ 19
Reward	≤ 26	27 - 32	≥ 33	≤ 29	30 - 33	≥ 34
Deprivation of privileges	≤ 12	13 – 17	≥ 18	≤ 9	10 - 15	≥ 16
Nurturance	≤ 22	23 - 26	≥ 27	≤ 22	23 - 27	≥ 28
Rejection	≤ 10	11 - 15	≥ 16	≤ 7	8 - 12	≥ 13
Permissiveness	≤ 17	18 - 22	≥ 23	≤ 17	18 - 21	≥ 22

3.4.4 Socio-economic status scale

Kuppuswamy’s socio-economic status scale modified by Ghosh and Ghosh (2009) was used to assess socio-economic status of parents (Appendix – IV). The parents were grouped into three categories of socio-economic status (SES) based on their education, occupation and income as follows:

Category (SES)	Score
Low	0-10
Medium	11-25
High	26-29

3.5 Classification of variables

The variables considered for the study were age, gender, ordinal position, parental education, parental occupation, caste, type of family, size of the family, family income, and locality.

1. Age : based on the chronological age of the adolescents at the time of investigation they were categorized into two groups as below:

i) Early adolescents – 13 to 16 years

ii) Late adolescents – 17 to 19 years

2. Gender : Based on gender the adolescents, they were classified into two groups as:

i) Boys

ii) Girls

3. Ordinal position : On the basis of the birth order of the adolescents in family, they were grouped into two categories as follows:

i) First borns – 1st child

ii) Later borns – 2nd child onwards

4. Educational status of parents : Educational status of father and mother was quantified separately by using the scale weightages as per the modified Kuppuswamy SES scale by Gosh &Gosh(2009) as follows:

Category	Scores
Professional/ Honours	7
Graduates/ Post-graduates	6
Intermediate/ Post high school diploma	5
High school certificate	4
Middle school certificate	3
Primary school/ Literate	2
Illiterate	1

5. Occupational status of parents : Occupational status of father and mother was quantified separately by using scale weightages as per the modified Kuppuswamy SES scale by Gosh &Gosh(2009) as follows:

Category	Scores
Profession	10
Semi-profession	6
Clerical, shop owner, farmer	5
Skilled worker	4
Semi-skilled worker	3
Unskilled worker	2
Unemployment	1

6. Caste : Classifications were made as per Karnataka Gazette (Anon., 2002) as follows:

(i) Forward caste : Lingayat, Brahmin

(ii) Other backward caste : Ambiga, Vakkaliga, Madiwal, Kammar, Weaver, Uppar, Badiger, Kuruba, Bajantri, Mali, Devadasi, Christian, Nadaf, Fisherman Bovi, Devang, Pinjar, Gouli

(iii) Scheduled caste/ tribe : Vaddar, Harijan, Lambani, Madar, Valmiki, Talwar, Koraga

7. Type of family : Type of family was classified into two types

(i) Nuclear family: The family consisting of a single married couple living with unmarried children.

(ii) Joint family: The family consisting of more than one married couple of either same generation or living together with or without children.

8. Size of the family : Size of the family refers to the total number of members residing in the family and was grouped into 3 groups as follows:-

(i) Small size family (≤ 4 members)

(ii) Medium size family (5-6 members)

(iii) Large size family (≥ 7 members)

9. Family income : Income of the family was quantified by using the scale weightages as per the modified Kuppuswamy SES scale by Gosh &Gosh(2009) as follows:

Category	Score
≥ Rs 45751	12
Rs 22851-45750	10
Rs 17151-22850	6
Rs 11451-17150	4
Rs 6851-11450	3
Rs 2301-6850	2
≤ Rs 2300	1

10. Type of locality : On the basis of the location of residence of the subject and the family, it was grouped into 2 categories as follows:

i) Urban

ii) Rural

3.6 Data collection:

Prior to data collection, the principals of the selected 4 high schools with junior colleges were contacted and asked for permission to carry out the research. After this, the respective class teachers were contacted and explained about the purpose of research of research work in detail. Based on the information provided by the class teacher, children with single parents or no parents were not considered for the study. Later with their co-operation and help, 12 students each from class 8^{th}, 9^{th} and 10^{th}; 14 students each from PUC-I and PUC-II were randomly selected. Further, rapport was established with these children and background information was collected by in depth interviewing with them. Later information about personality and home environment of the adolescents was collected by administering Big five inventory (John *et al*., 1991) and Home environment inventory (Mishra, 1983) to individual student. The schedules prepared in Kannada was distributed to students of each class, instructed to read the statements carefully and asked to provide correct information. Information regarding each school such as total number of students studying in 8^{th}, 9^{th}, 10^{th}, PUC – I and PUC – II and date of birth of the students were collected from the school records.

The filled questionnaires were then checked for complete information before leaving their classroom. In case of incomplete information or refusal by the subject to give the required information, the particular subject was deleted from the study. Further, the data from all the selected adolescents from each institution was collected in 3-4 visits.

3.7 Methods of statistical analysis

The collected data was analyzed by using the following the statistical techniques

(a) Frequency and percentages were used to describe the children's characteristics, parental and familial characteristics, factors associated with personality development.

(b) Chi-square : Non-parametric test was employed to find out the association between the personality traits and the independent variables using the formula

$$\chi 2 = \sum_{i=1}^{r}\sum_{j=1}^{c}(oij - cij)2/eij$$

Where,

$\chi 2$ Values are compared with table values for (r-1) (c-1) degrees of freedom (df)

'r' denoting the number of rows,

'c' denotes number of columns in the contingency tendency.

(c) Modified Chi-Square: A non parametric test of independence was applied to determine the association between dependent and independent variables, wherever the frequency were less than five using the formula by Lawal and Upton (1984) test of independence was applied to determine the association between dependent and independent variables using the formula.

Modified $\chi^2 = \left\{1 - \frac{1}{n}\left(1 - d^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right)\right\} \times \chi^2 d, 0.05$ at 5% level

Where,

$\chi^2 d\,0.05$ = table χ^2 value at'd' degrees of freedom for 5% level of significance.

n = sample size.

(d) One way *i.e.* 2 factor Analysis of variance (ANOVA) techniques were used to independent variables with the dependent variables.

(e) Correlation : Karl Pearson's correlation coefficient analysis was carried out to assess the degree of relationship between personality traits and home environment using the following formula :-

$$r = \frac{n\sum xy - \sum x \sum y}{\sqrt{\left\{n\sum x^2 - \left(\sum x\right)^2\right\}\left\{n\sum y^2 - \left(\sum y\right)^2\right.}}$$

Where,

r = simple correlation coefficient

x = independent variables

y = dependent variable

$\sum x$ = sum of x values

$\sum y$ = sum of y values

$\sum x^2$ = sum of squares of x values

$\sum y^2$ = sum of squares of y values

$\sum xy$ = sum of squares of xy values

n = numbers of pairs of observations.

(f) t-test : t-test was used for comparison between two groups with the help of following steps

$$t = \frac{\left|\overline{x1} - \overline{x2}\right|}{\sqrt{S^2\left(1/n1 + 1/n2\right)}}$$

$$S^2 = \frac{s_1^2(n_1 - 1) + s_2^2(n_2 - 1)}{(n_1 + n_2 - 2)}$$

Where,

$\overline{X_1}$ =mean of the first group

$\overline{X_2}$ = mean of the second group

n_1 = number of observation in the first group

n_2 = number of observation in the second group

s_1^2 = variance of the first group

s_2^2 = variance of the second group.

S^2 = Pooled variance of s_1 and s_2

3.8 Operational definition

(i) Home environment: Home environment in present study included ten dimensions namely control, protectiveness, punishment, conformity, social isolation, reward, deprivation of privileges, nurturance, rejection and permissiveness as given by Karuna Shankar Mishra(1983).

(ii) Personality: the present study measures five personality traits namely, extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experience as mentioned by John *et.al* (1991).

(iii) Adolescents: The study considered adolescent boys and girls who are in the age range of 13-19 years.

3.9 Hypothesis set for the study

1. There is no difference in personality traits among the urban and rural adolescents.
2. There is no difference in the home environment of the urban and rural adolescents.
3. Child characteristics such as age, gender and ordinal position do not influence personality traits of adolescents.
4. Parental characteristics such as educational status and occupational status do not influence the personality traits of adolescents.
5. Familial factors such as caste, family type, family size, income and socioeconomic status do not influence the personality traits of adolescents.
6. Home environment do not influence the personality traits of adolescents.

RESULTS

The results of the study entitled “Influence of home environment on personality traits of adolescents” are presented under the following subheadings:

4.1. Background characteristics of the adolescents

4.2. Personality traits of urban and rural adolescents

4.3. Home environment dimensions of urban and rural adolescents

4.4. Factors influencing personality traits of adolescents

4.5. Influence of home environment on personality traits of adolescents

4.1. Background characteristics of the adolescents

The background characteristics of the sample selected for the study is presented in Table 1. Data on age distribution revealed that more number of adolescents (62.89%) belonged to early adolescence group (with the age range of 13 – 16 years) and 37.11 per cent of them belonged to late adolescence group (with the age range of 17 – 19 years). Among the urban group, 64.84 per cent belonged to early adolescence group and 35.16 per cent belonged to the late adolescence group. With respect to the rural group, 60.94 per cent belonged to the early adolescence group while 39.06 per cent belonged to the late adolescence group. With respect to the ordinal position of the adolescents, it was observed that maximum number of them (62.90%) were later borns and only 37.10 per cent were first borns. In the urban area 64.06 per cent of them were later borns and the remaining 35.94 per cent were first borns. Similarly in rural area 61.72 per cent were later borns and 38.28 per cent of them were first borns.

With regard to educational level of parents particularly fathers’, the results revealed that most of them (32.42%) were educated up to middle school/ high school level, 21.88 per cent completed intermediate/ post high school diploma level, 20.70 per cent completed primary school/ literate, 13.28 per cent were graduates/ postgraduates/ professional/ honours and very few *i.e*., 11.72 per cent were illiterate. Among the urban area, 29.69 per cent of them were educated up to middle school or high school level followed by 23.44 per cent of them who completed intermediate or post high school diploma. 22.66 per cent of them were graduates/ postgraduates/ professional/ honours, 12.50 per cent of them completed primary school/ literate and 11.71 per cent of them were illiterate. In case of rural area, 35.16 per cent of the fathers had education up to middle school/ high school level, 28.91 per cent of them completed primary school/ literate followed by 20.31 per cent of them who completed intermediate/ post high school diploma, 11.71 per cent of them were illiterate and only 3.91 per cent were graduates/ professional/ honours.

With respect to educational of the mothers, maximum number of them (46.88%) completed middle school/ high school level, 20.70 per cent were primary school or literate, 17.58 per cent were illiterate, 10.94 per cent had education up to intermediate/ post high school diploma level and only 3.91 per cent were graduates/ postgraduates/ professional/ honours. 49.22 per cent of them in the urban area completed middle school/ high school level while 16.41 per cent of them had education up to intermediate/ post high school diploma level, 15.62 per cent were illiterate, 11.72 per cent were primary school or literate and 7.03 per cent were graduates/ postgraduates/ professional/ honours. In case of rural area, 44.53 per cent of them completed middle school/ high school, 29.69 per cent of them had primary school/ literate, 19.53 per cent of them were illiterate. Only 5.47 per cent of them completed intermediate/ post high school diploma and very few *i.e*., 0.78 per cent were graduates/ post graduates/ professional/ honours.

Data on the occupation of the father in the urban group revealed that 35.94 per cent were clerical/ shop-owner/ farmer, 23.05 per cent were unskilled worker, 22.66 per cent were skilled worker, 9.77 per cent were in semi-profession, 5.47 per cent were engaged in professional jobs and 3.13 per cent of them were unemployed. Among the urban area, 26.56 per cent of them were unskilled worker, 25.78 per cent were skilled workers, 17.97 per cent were doing clerical jobs/ shop-owners/ farmers and 14.06 per cent of them were in engaged in semi professional jobs followed by professional (10.94%) while 4.69 per cent of them were unemployed. Among the rural area, 53.91 per cent of them were engaged in clerical jobs/ shop-owners/ farmers, 19.53 per cent each were skilled and unskilled workers followed by semi-profession (5.47%) and only 1.56 per cent unemployment.

Table 1. Background characteristics of adolescents

N=256

Sl. no	Characteristics	Category	Urban	Rural	Total
I.	Personal				
	Age	Early adolescents (13-16years)	83 (64.84)	78 (60.94)	161 (62.89)
		Late adolescents (17-19years)	45 (35.16)	50 (39.06)	95 (37.11)
	Ordinal position	First borns	46 (35.94)	49 (38.28)	95 (37.10)
		Later borns	82 (64.06)	79 (61.72)	161 (62.90)
II.	Parental				
	Educational of parents a. Fathers'	Graduates/ Post-graduates/ Professional/ Honours	29 (22.66)	5 (3.91)	34 (13.28)
		Intermediate/ Post-high school diploma	30 (23.44)	26 (20.31)	56 (21.88)
		Middle school/ High school certificate	38 (29.69)	45 (35.16)	83 (32.42)
		Primary school/ Literate	16 (12.50)	37 (28.91)	53 (20.70)
		Illiterate	15 (11.71)	15 (11.71)	30 (11.72)
	b. Mothers'	Graduates/ Post-graduates/ Professional/ Honours	9 (7.03)	1 (0.78)	10 (3.91)
		Intermediate/ Post-high school diploma	21 (16.41)	7 (5.47)	28 (10.94)
		Middle school/ High school certificate	63 (49.22)	57 (44.53)	120 (46.88)
		Primary school/ Literate	15 (11.72)	38 (29.69)	53 (20.70)
		Illiterate	20 (15.62)	25 (19.53)	45 (17.58)
	Fathers' occupational status	Profession	14 (10.94)	-	14 (5.47)
		Semi-profession	18 (14.06)	7 (5.47)	25 (9.77)
		Clerical/ shop-owner/ farmer	23 (17.97)	69 (53.91)	92 (35.94)
		Skilled workers	33 (25.78)	25 (19.53)	58 (22.66)
		Unskilled workers	34 (26.56)	25 (19.53)	59 (23.05)
		Unemployment	6 (4.69)	2 (1.56)	8 (3.13)

Table 1. Contd

	Mothers' occupational status	Profession	7 (5.47)	1 (0.78)	8 (3.13)
		Semi-profession	3 (2.34)	1 (0.78)	4 (1.55)
		Clerical/ shop-owner/ farmer	6 (4.69)	3 (2.34)	9 (3.52)
		Skilled workers	7 (5.47)	49 (38.28)	56 (21.87)
		Unskilled workers	3 (2.34)	5 (3.91)	8 (3.13)
		Unemployment	102 (79.69)	69 (53.91)	171 (66.80)
III.	Familial				
	Caste	Forward caste	84 (65.62)	89 (69.53)	173 (67.60)
		Backward caste	24 (18.75)	23 (17.97)	47 (18.40)
		Scheduled caste/ tribe	20 (15.63)	16 (12.50)	36 (14.10)
	Family type	Nuclear	91 (71.09)	87 (67.97)	178 (69.50)
		Joint	37 (28.91)	41 (32.03)	78 (30.50)
	Family size	Small (≤4 members)	104 (81.25)	26 (20.31)	61 (23.80)
		Medium (5-6 members)	-	62 (48.44)	122 (47.70)
		Large (≥7 members)	24 (18.75)	40 (31.25)	73 (28.50)
	Family income	Low	31 (24.22)	94 (73.44)	125 (48.80)
		Medium	82 (64.06)	34 (26.56)	116 (45.30)
		High	15 (11.72)	-	15 (5.90)
	Socio-economic status	Low	47 (36.72)	79 (61.72)	126 (49.22)
		Medium	76 (59.38)	49 (38.28)	125 (48.83)
		High	5 (3.90)	-	5 (1.95)

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

In case of mothers' occupation, almost half of them (46.48%) were unemployed, 26.17 per cent were skilled workers, 19.14 per cent were unskilled workers, 4.30 per cent were doing clerical jobs/ shop-owners/ farmers, 2.73 per cent were engaged in profession and only 1.17 per cent was in semi-profession. Majority of them (79.69%) were unemployed in urban areas, 5.47 per cent were skilled workers and 2.34 per cent were unskilled workers. Then, 4.69 per cent of them were engaged in clerical jobs/ shop-owners/ farmers, followed by professional and semi-professional jobs (5.47 and 2.34% respectively). Again, among the rural area maximum number (53.91%) of them were unemployed, 38.28 per cent of them were skilled workers, 3.91 per cent of them were unskilled worker, followed by 2.34 per cent of them in clerical jobs/ shop-owners/ farmers and equal number were observed to be engaged in professional and semi-professional jobs (0.78% each).

It is evident that higher proportion of the adolescents (67.60%) belonged to forward caste followed by backward caste and scheduled caste/ tribe (18.40 and 14.10% respectively). Among the urban area more number of adolescents (65.62%) belonged to forward caste followed by backward caste and scheduled caste/ tribe (18.75 and 15.63% respectively). Among the rural area, similar trend was observed wherein 69.53 per cent of them belonged to forward caste followed by backward caste and scheduled caste/ tribe (17.97 and 12.50% respectively).

Further, with respect to type of family, maximum number of adolescents (69.50%) belonged to nuclear family and 30.50 per cent of them belonged to joint family. In urban area, 71.09 per cent of them belonged to nuclear family and 28.91 per cent of them were from joint family. Similarly in rural area, 67.97 per cent of them were from the nuclear family and 32.03 per cent of them were from joint family.

Majority of the adolescents (47.70%) belonged to medium size family followed by large and small size family (28.50 and 23.80% respectively). Higher proportion of them (81.25%) in urban area belonged to small size family (≤ 4 members) and the remaining 18.75 per cent belonged to large size family (≥7 members). In case of the rural area almost half of them (48.44%) belonged to medium size family followed by large and small size family (31.25 and 20.31% respectively).

Regarding income of the family, almost half (48.80%) belonged to low income family, 45.30 per cent belonged to medium and only 5.90 per cent belonged to high income family. 64.06 per cent of them in the urban area belonged to medium income group, 24.22 per cent belonged to low income group and 11.72 per cent belonged to high income group. However, in case of the rural area, 73.44 per cent belonged to low income group, only 26.56 per cent belonged to medium income group and none of them belonged to high income group.

Data on socioeconomic status (SES) revealed that almost half of the adolescents (49.22%) belonged to low, followed by medium (48.83%) socioeconomic status category and very few *i.e*., 1.95 per cent belonged to high socioeconomic status. In the urban area, more number of adolescents (59.38%) belonged to medium followed by low and high socioeconomic status (36.72 and 3.90% respectively). Further, in case of rural area maximum number (61.02%) of adolescents belonged to low followed by medium (38.28%) socioeconomic status category and none of them belonged to high socioeconomic status.

4.2. PERSONALITY TRAITS OF URBAN AND RURAL ADOLESCENTS

Data on five personality traits such as extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experience of urban and rural adolescents is presented in Table 2.

Extroversion

It is evident from the table that majority of the adolescents (64.45%) belonged to average category followed by high and low category of extroversion (33.21 and 2.34% respectively). More than half of the urban adolescents (66.41%) fell in the average and the remaining 33.59 per cent fell in the high category of extroversion. Here, it can be noted that none of them fell in the low category. Among the rural group, the same trend was seen wherein 62.50 per cent of adolescents fell in the average, followed by high and low (32.81 and 4.69% respectively) category.chi square analysis showed non-significant association between extroversion and locality. The comparison of mean scores showed that the urban group had higher mean score (30.77) as compared to the rural group (30.57). However, the difference was found to be non-significant which indicates that both urban and rural adolescents were similar with respect to extroversion trait of personality.

Table 2. Personality traits of urban and rural adolescents

N=256

Locality	Levels of extroversion						
	Low	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	χ^2	**Mean**	**t-value**
Urban	0	85 (66.41)	43 (33.59)	128 (100.00)	6.61	30.77 ±3.70	0.38
Rural	6 (4.69)	80 (62.50)	42 (32.81)	128 (100.00)		30.57 ±4.75	
	Levels of agreeableness						
Urban	1 (0.78)	35 (27.34)	92 (71.88)	128 (100.00)	2.51	36.11 ±4.47	2.85*
Rural	-	31 (24.22)	97 (75.78)	128 (100.00)		38.56 ±5.72	
	Levels of conscientiousness						
Urban	2 (1.56)	27 (21.09)	99 (77.35)	128 (100.00)	2.83	36.74 ±5.04	2.41*
Rural	6 (4.69)	26 (20.31)	96 (75.00)	128 (100.00)		35.45 ±5.93	
	Levels of emotional stability						
Urban	3 (2.34)	77 (60.16)	48 (37.50)	128 (100.00)	2.56	30.50 ±5.52	2.22*
Rural	2 (1.56)	68 (53.13)	58 (45.31)	128 (100.00)		31.98 ±5.13	
	Levels of openness to experience						
Urban	2 (1.56)	50 (39.06)	76 (59.38)	128 (100.00)	2.26	65.02 ±8.13	0.95
Rural	5 (3.91)	59 (46.09)	64 (50.00)	128 (100.00)		64.04 ±8.39	

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentage

* p≤ 0.05 level of significance

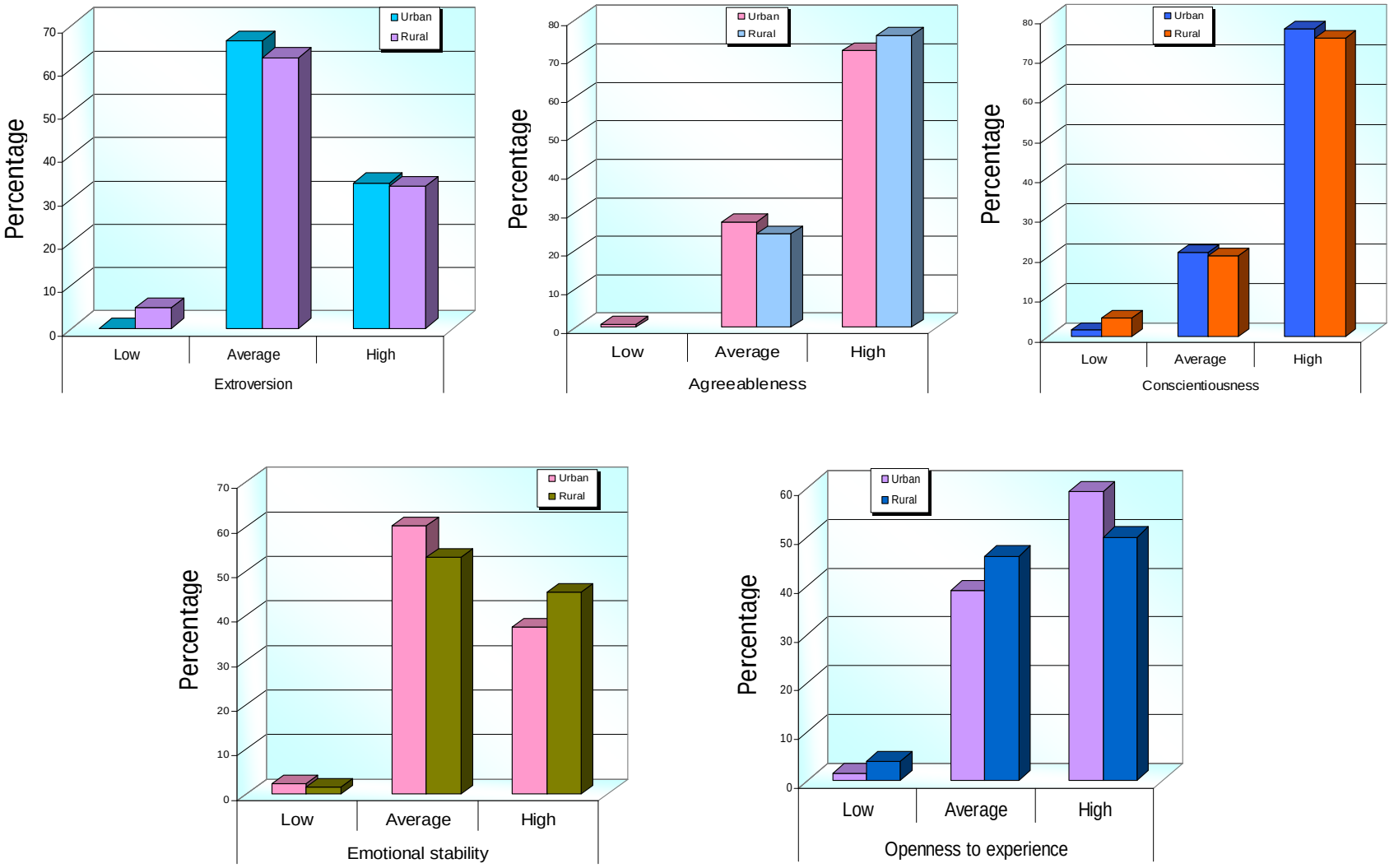

Fig. 2. Personality traits of urban and rural adolescents

Agreeableness

Overall, higher proportion (73.83%) of the adolescents belonged to high, followed by average and low category (25.78 and 0.39% respectively) of agreeableness. Majority of the urban adolescents (71.88%) belonged to high, followed by average (27.34%) and low (0.78%) categories. Also among the rural group, majority of them fell in high (75.78%), followed by average category (22.40%) and interestingly none of them fell in low category. Chi square value revealed non-significant association between agreeableness and locality. The t-test indicated statistically significant difference (t=2.85) where urban adolescents were better with respect to agreeableness compared to the rural counterparts.

Conscientiousness

It is obvious that a large number of the adolescents (76.17%) were found in high level of conscientiousness category followed by average (20.70%) and low level (3.13%) categories. Maximum number of the urban adolescents belonged to high (77.35%) followed by average and low category with 21.09 per cent and 1.56 per cent respectively. The same trend was seen among the rural adolescents with highest number of them in high (75.00%), followed by average and low category (20.31 and 4.69% respectively). The chi square analysis revealed non-significant association between conscientiousness and locality. On comparison, statistically significant difference was found at five percent level of significance (t =2.414) between urban and rural adolescents where urban adolescents had slightly higher mean score (36.74) than rural adolescents (35.45).

Emotional stability

In terms of emotional stability more number of them were seen in average category (56.64%) followed by high and low (41.41 and 1.95% respectively) categories. 60.16 per cent of the urban adolescents fell under average category of emotional stability while 37.50 per cent of them were found in high and the remaining in low (2.34%) category. In case of the rural group, almost half of them (53.13%) belonged to average followed by high and low categories (45.31 and 1.56% respectively). Chi square value showed non-significant association between emotional stability and locality. Interestingly the t-value revealed significant difference at five percent (2.22) among the two groups wherein the mean score of the rural group was significantly higher (31.98) than the urban group (30.50).

Openness to experience

Regarding openness to experience, it was found that almost half of them (54.69%) were in high category followed by medium and low (42.58% and 2.73% respectively) categories. Again it can be seen that 59.38 per cent of the urban group belonged to high level, 39.06 per cent to the average and a small number (1.56%) to the low category of openness to experience. Among rural group also, 50.00 per cent of them belonged to the high category followed by 46.09 per cent of them in average and 3.91 per cent in low category. Chi square showed non-significant association between openness to experience and locality. On comparison of the mean scores, the mean score of the urban group (65.02) were higher than the rural group (64.04) but the difference was not statistically significant.

Therefore the hypothesis set for the study that there is no difference in personality traits among the urban and rural adolescents was partially accepted.

4.3 HOME ENVIRONMENT DIMENSIONS OF URBAN AND RURAL ADOLESCENTS

The data regarding different home environment dimensions such as control, protectiveness, punishment, conformity, social isolation, reward, deprivation of privileges, nurturance, rejection and permissiveness of the urban and rural adolescents is presented in Table 3.

Control

Overall, more number of adolescents (36.33%) belonged to high followed by low and medium category of control (33.59 and 30.08%). Among the urban group, 39.06 percent of them belonged to high followed by low and medium category of control (35.16 and 25.78% respectively). In case of the rural group, 34.38 percent of them were found in medium followed by high and low categories of control (33.59 and 32.03% respectively). The chi-square analysis revealed non-significant association between control dimension of home environment and locality.

Table 3. Home environment dimensions of urban and rural adolescents

N=256

Locality	Levels of control						
	Low	**Medium**	**High**	**Total**	χ^2	**Mean ±SD**	**t-value**
Urban	45 (35.16)	33 (25.78)	50 (39.06)	128 (100.00)	0.90	22.91 ±6.10	0.21
Rural	41 (32.03)	44 (34.38)	43 (33.59)	128 (100.00)		22.52 ±6.49	
	Levels of protectiveness						
Urban	35 (27.34)	47 (36.72)	46 (35.94)	128 (100.00)	2.76	26.95 ±6.49	1.15
Rural	45 (35.16)	42 (32.81)	41 (32.03)	128 (100.00)		25.88 ±7.09	
	Levels of punishment						
Urban	69 (53.91)	35 (27.34)	24 (18.75)	128 (100.00)	0.95	23.34 ±6.26	0.32
Rural	65 (50.78)	39 (30.47)	24 (18.75)	128 (100.00)		23.20 (5.88)	
	Levels of conformity						
Urban	74 (57.81)	23 (17.97)	31 (24.22)	128 (100.00)	1.31	28.29 ±6.75	1.13
Rural	62 (48.44)	30 (23.44)	36 (28.12)	128 (100.00)		28.91 ±7.54	
	Levels of social isolation						
Urban	50 (39.06)	31 (24.22)	47 (36.72)	128 (100.00)	1.99	16.23 ±8.50	0.45
Rural	40 (31.25)	45 (35.16)	43 (33.59)	128 (100.00)		15.95 ±7.36	
	Levels of reward						
Urban	42 (32.82)	43 (33.59)	43 (33.59)	128 (100.00)	2.40	29.41 ±7.52	0.39
Rural	43 (33.59)	36 (28.12)	49 (38.29)	128 (100.00)		29.90 ±7.47	
	Levels of deprivation of privileges						
Urban	56 (43.75)	16 (12.50)	56 (43.75)	128 (100.00)	9.20*	14.88 ±8.92	2.88*
Rural	31 (24.22)	26 (20.31)	71 (55.47)	128 (100.00)		16.64 ±7.59	
	Levels of nurturance						
Urban	49 (38.28)	28 (21.88)	51 (39.84)	128 (100.00)	1.93	25.08 ±6.64	0.29
Rural	49 (38.28)	24 (18.75)	55 (42.97)	128 (100.00)		24.89 ±6.55	
	Levels of rejection						
Urban	50 (39.06)	24 (18.75)	54 (42.19)	128 (100.00)	5.74*	13.42 ±9.33	1.94*
Rural	40 (31.25)	23 (17.97)	65 (50.78)	128 (100.00)		14.39 ±7.91	
	Levels of permissiveness						
Urban	24 (18.75)	29 (22.66)	75 (58.59)	128 (100.00)	0.33	23.20 ±6.63	0.52
Rural	21 (16.41)	31 (24.22)	76 (59.37)	128 (100.00)		23.44 ±6.62	

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

* $p \leq 0.05$ level of significance

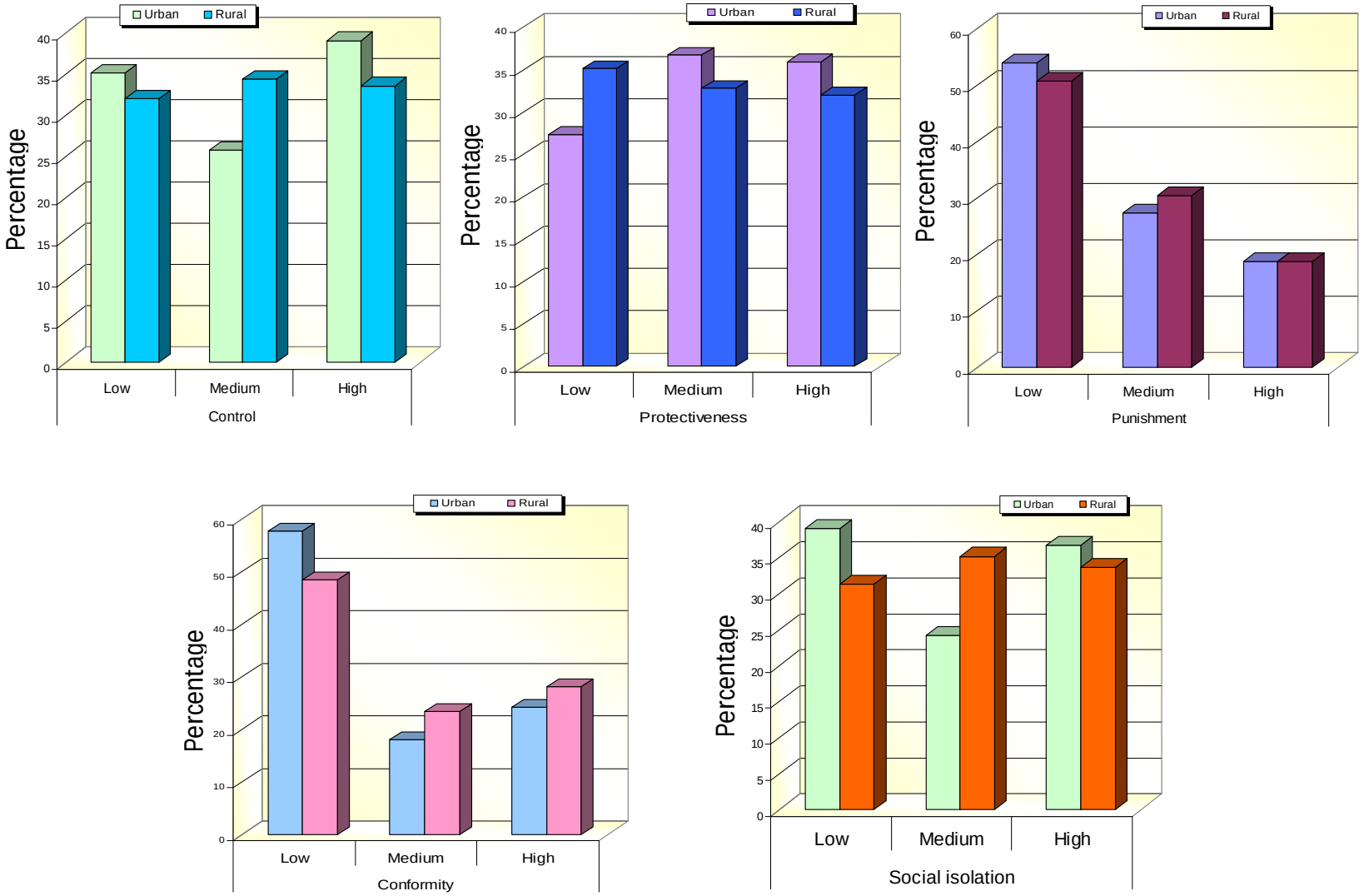

Fig. 3. Home environment dimensions of urban and rural adolescents

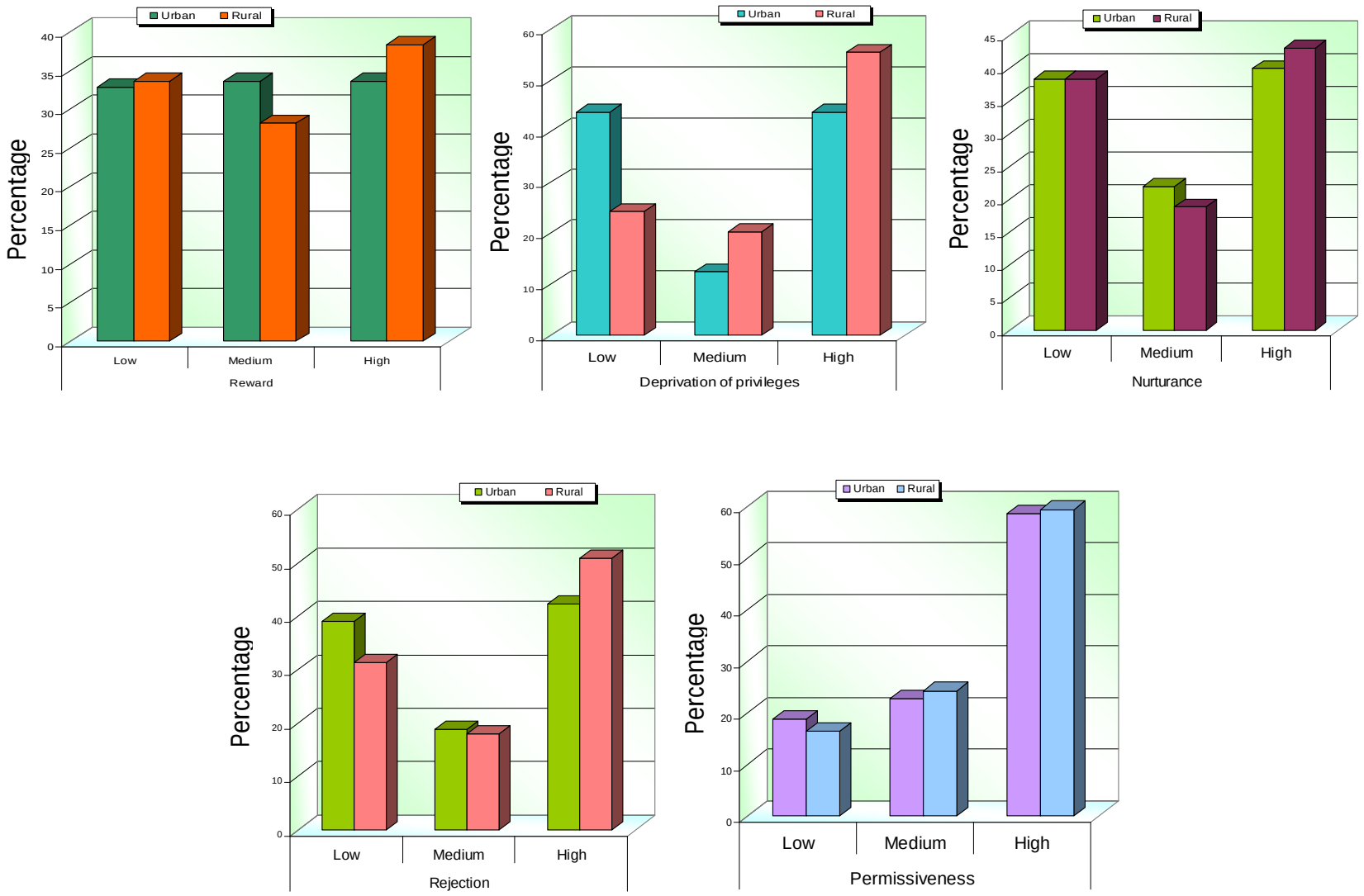

Fig. 3. (Contd…..) Home environment dimensions of urban and rural adolescents

Further the comparison of the mean scores of the urban and rural groups indicated that the mean value of the urban adolescents was slightly higher (22.91) compared to the rural group (22.52) and the difference was not statistically significant.

Protectiveness

It can be seen from the same table that more number of the adolescents (34.77%) were in medium followed by high and low (33.98% and 31.25% respectively) category of protectiveness. Also, 36.72 percent of the urban adolescents belonged to medium followed by high (35.94%) and low category (27.34%) of protectiveness. Contrary to this, more number of the rural adolescents (35.16%) belonged to low followed by high and medium category (32.81 and 32.03% respectively) of protectiveness. Chi square value showed non-significant association between protectiveness dimension and locality. Further the mean protectiveness score of the urban group (26.95) was higher as compared to the rural group (25.88) but the difference was statistically not significant.

Punishment

Overall, half of them (52.34%) belonged to low, followed by medium (28.91%) and high (18.75%) punishment category. Similar trend was noticed in urban adolescents wherein more than half of them (53.91%) fell in low, 27.34 per cent in medium and 18.75 percent in high punishment category and among the rural group 50.78, 30.47 and 18.75 per cent of the adolescents belonged to low, medium and high categories respectively. Chi-square analysis showed non-significant association between punishment dimension and locality. The t-test also revealed non-significant difference, wherein the mean punishment score of the urban group (23.34) was slightly higher than the rural group (23.20).

Conformity

Regarding conformity, majority of adolescents were found in low (53.13%) followed by high (26.17%) and medium (20.70%) categories of conformity. Among the urban adolescents, 57.81 per cent of them belonged to low followed by 24.22 per cent and 17.97 per cent in high and medium categories respectively. Among the rural group, 48.44 per cent belonged to low followed by high and medium categories respectively (28.12 and 23.44%). The chi square test revealed non-significant association between conformity dimension and locality. On comparison of mean conformity scores, the rural group were higher (1.80) than the urban group (1.67) but the difference was not statistically significant.

Social isolation

In case of social isolation, equal number of adolescents (35.15% each) fell in high and low category of social isolation and 29.70 per cent fell in medium category. Among the urban group, 39.06 per cent of them fell in low, 36.72 per cent in high and 24.22 per cent in medium category of social isolation. In contradiction, 35.16 per cent of the adolescents in rural group fell in medium, 33.59 per cent in high and 31.25 per cent in low social isolation categories. Chi square value indicates non-significant association between social isolation dimension of home environment and locality. The mean social isolation score of the urban group (16.23) was higher than that of the rural group (15.95), however no statistical significant difference was observed.

Reward

In case of reward, more number of adolescents (35.94%) belonged to high followed by low and medium reward category (33.20 and 30.86% respectively). Further equal number of the urban adolescents (35.59% each) fell in medium and high followed by low category (32.82%). Surprisingly 35.94 per cent of the rural adolescents fell in high followed by low and medium categories (33.59 and 28.12% respectively). Chi square analysis showed non-significant association between reward dimension and locality. Statistical difference was also not found between mean reward score of urban and rural adolescents. However, the mean reward score of the rural group was slightly higher (29.90) as compared to mean score of urban group (29.41).

Deprivation of privileges

Almost half of the adolescents (49.61%) fell in high followed by low and medium (33.98, 16.41% respectively) deprivation of privileges categories. Surprisingly equal numbers of urban adolescents fell in low and high categories (43.75% each) and the remaining 12.50 per cent fell in medium deprivation of privileges category. On the other side, 55.47 per cent of the rural group belonged to high, 24.22 per cent in low and 20.31 per cent in medium category.

Chi square test indicated significant association between deprivation of privileges and locality at five per cent level of significance. The t-test also revealed significant difference (2.88) at five per cent level wherein the mean deprivation of privileges score of the rural group (16.64) was higher than the urban group (14.88).

Nurturance

It is evident from the same table that maximum number of the adolescents (41.41%) fell in high, followed by low and medium nurturance categories (35.16 and 20.31% respectively). In case of urban area, 39.84 per cent of the adolescents fell in high, followed by low and medium category (38.28 and 21.88%) respectively. Among the rural group also, 42.97 per cent fell in high followed by 38.28 per cent and 18.75 per cent in low and medium categories of nurturance respectively. The chi square test showed non-significant association between nurturance dimension and locality. On comparison, the mean nurturance score of the urban group was slightly higher (25.08) than the rural group (24.89) but it was not statistically significant.

Rejection

In terms of rejection, higher proportion was found in high (46.48%) followed by low and medium categories (35.16 and 18.36% respectively). Among the urban adolescents, 42.19 per cent fell in high, 39.06 per cent in low and 18.75 per cent in medium categories of rejection. Similarly among the rural group, 50.78 per cent fell in high category followed by 31.25 per cent and 17.97 per cent in low and medium category respectively. Chi square analysis showed significant association between rejection dimension of home environment and locality at five percent level of significance. The t-test revealed significant differences (1.94) between the urban and the rural group at five percent level wherein the mean rejection score of the rural group (14.39) was slightly higher than that of the urban group (13.42).

Permissiveness

Regarding permissiveness, majority of them (60.80%) were in high followed by medium and low (23.44 and 17.58% respectively) permissiveness categories. Further 58.59 per cent of the urban group was in high followed by 22.66 per cent and 18.75 per cent in medium and low categories respectively. Same trend was noticed among the rural group wherein 59.37, 24.22 and 16.41 per cent were seen in high, medium and low categories of permissiveness respectively. Chi square analysis showed non-significant association between permissiveness dimension of home environment and locality. On comparison, the mean permissiveness score of the rural group (23.44) was slightly higher than that of the urban group (23.20) but difference was statistically non-significant.

Therefore the hypothesis set for the study that there would be no difference in the home environment of urban and rural adolescents was partially accepted.

4.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING PERSONALITY TRAITS OF ADOLESCENTS

The results pertaining to influence of personal, parental and familial factors on personality traits of adolescents are presented in Table 4.

4.4.1 PERSONAL FACTORS

4.4.1.1 Influence of age on personality traits of adolescents:

It could be seen from the results (Table 4) that higher proportion of the early adolescents (67.08%) fell in average, followed by high and low categories of extroversion (30.44 and 2.48% respectively). Same trend was seen among the late adolescents with 60.00, 37.89 and 2.11 per cent in average, high and low categories respectively. Chi square analysis showed non-significant association. The t-test also revealed non-significant differences in the mean extroversion score of early (30.55) and late adolescents (30.85).

In case of agreeableness, majority of them belonged to high, followed by average and low categories among the early adolescents (73.91, 25.47 and 0.62% respectively) as well as late adolescents (73.68, 26.32% respectively). Statistical analysis revealed non-significant association between age of adolescents and agreeableness trait. On comparison, the mean agreeableness score of early adolescents (36.21) was slightly higher than late adolescents (35.23).

With respect to conscientiousness more number of early adolescents (77.01%) fell in high category of conscientiousness, followed by average and low category (19.88 and 3.11% respectively).

Table 4. Influence of age on personality traits of adolescents

N=256

Levels of extroversion							
Age	**Low**	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	χ^2	**Mean ±SD**	**t-value**
Early adolescence	4 (2.48)	108 (67.08)	49 (30.44)	161 (100.00)	1.50	30.55 ±4.20	0.55
Late adolescence	2 (2.11)	57 (60.00)	36 (37.89)	95 (100.00)		30.85 ±4.33	
Levels agreeableness							
Early adolescence	1 (0.62)	41 (25.47)	119 (73.91)	161 (100.00)	0.61	36.21 ±5.24	1.46
Late adolescence	0	25 (26.32)	70 (73.68)	95 (100.00)		35.23 ±4.96	
Levels of conscientiousness							
Early adolescence	5 (3.11)	32 (19.88)	124 (77.01)	161 (100.00)	0.19	35.78 ±5.36	0.70
Late adolescence	3 (3.16)	21 (22.11)	71 (74.73)	95 (100.00)		35.28 ±5.74	
Levels of emotional stability							
Early adolescence	3 (1.86)	83 (51.55)	75 (46.59)	161 (100.00)	4.81*	31.83 ±5.42	2.33*
Late adolescence	2 (2.11)	62 (65.26)	31 (32.63)	95 (100.00)		30.22 ±5.19	
Levels of openness to experience							
Early adolescence	3 (1.86)	63 (39.13)	95 (59.01)	161 (100.00)	3.89	65.07 ±8.05	1.31
Late adolescence	4 (4.21)	46 (48.42)	45 (47.37)	95 (100.00)		63.66 ±8.63	

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

* $p \leq 0.05$ level of significance

Same trend was observed in case of the late adolescents wherein more (74.73%) adolescents were seen in high followed by average and low categories (22.11 and 3.16% respectively). The chi square value revealed non-significant association between age of adolescents and conscientiousness trait. The t-test also showed that there was no significant difference between the two group though the mean score of the early adolescents was slightly higher (35.78) than late adolescents (35.28).

In case of emotional stability, almost half of the early adolescents (51.55%) fell in average followed by high and low categories (46.59 and 1.86% respectively). Similar pattern was observed among the late adolescents with 65.26, 32.63 and 2.11 per cent in medium, high and low categories respectively. Chi square analysis revealed significant association (4.81) between age of adolescents and emotional stability trait among adolescents. The t-test also revealed significant difference at five per cent level wherein the mean score of the early adolescents (31.83) were significantly higher than late adolescents (30.22).

With regard to openness to experience, maximum number of the early adolescents (59.01%) fell in high, followed by average and low (39.13 and 1.86% respectively) categories. However more number of late adolescents (48.42%) were found in average, followed by high and low (47.37 and 4.21% respectively) categories. Statistical analysis showed no significant association between age of adolescents and openness to experience. Further significant difference was not observed with respect to age and openness to experience though the mean score of the early adolescents (65.07) was slightly higher than the late adolescents (63.66).

Thus the hypothesis set for the study that age does not influence personality traits of adolescents was partially rejected.

4.4.1.2 Influence of gender on personality traits of adolescents:

A close examination of Table 5 shows that more than half of the boys (60.94%) were found in average, followed by high and low categories (35.93 and 3.13% respectively) of extroversion. Same trend was observed among the girls with 67.97, 30.47 and 1.56 per cent in average, high and low categories respectively. The chi-square analysis revealed no significant association between gender and extroversion trait. The t-test also showed no significant differences in the mean extroversion score of boys and girls though mean extroversion score of boys (30.81) was slightly higher than the girls (30.55).

Majority of the boys (71.88%) were seen in high category of agreeableness, followed by average (27.34%) and low (0.78%) categories. Among the girls also maximum number of them (75.78%) was found in high category, followed by 24.22 per cent in average category. It can be noted that none of the girls were in low category of agreeableness. Statistical analysis revealed non-significant association between gender and agreeableness. The mean agreeableness score of girls (35.88) was slightly higher than the boys (35.77) but non-significant difference was observed.

In case of conscientiousness, a high proportion of the adolescent boys (76.57%) were found in high category, followed by average and low categories in (21.01 and 2.52% respectively) of conscientiousness. Same pattern was observed among girls (75.78, 20.31 and 3.91% respectively). Chi square analysis showed no significant association between gender and conscientiousness. The t-test also revealed non-significant differences, but the mean score of boys (35.92) was slightly higher than the girls (35.33).

Further data on emotional stability revealed that more number of boys (57.81%) were found in average followed by high and low categories (40.63 and 1.56%). Same order was observed among girls, with 55.47, 42.19 and 2.34 per cent in average, high and low categories respectively. No significant association was found between gender and emotional stability. The mean score of boys (31.36) was slightly higher when compared to girls (31.11) but there was no significant difference.

In regard to openness to experience, half of the boys (53.12%) were found in high followed by average and low categories (42.97 and 3.91% respectively). In the same way, 56.25, 42.19 and 1.56 per cent of the girls were in average, high and low categories of openness to experience respectively. Statistical analysis revealed non-significant association between age and openness to experience. However the comparison of mean scores showed that the mean score of girls (64.93) were slightly higher as compared to boys (64.10) but the difference was not significant.

Therefore the hypothesis set for the study that gender does not influence the personality traits of adolescents was accepted.

Table 5. Influence of gender on personality traits of adolescents

N=256

Gender	Low	Average	High	Total	χ^2	Mean	t-value
Levels of extroversion							
Boys	4 (3.13)	78 (60.94)	46 (35.93)	128 (100.00)	2.10	30.81 ±4.47	0.47
Girls	2 (1.56)	87 (67.97)	39 (30.47)	128 (100.00)		30.55 ±4.03	
Levels of agreeableness							
Boys	1 (0.78)	35 (27.34)	92 (71.88)	128 (100.00)	1.65	35.77 ±5.61	0.17
Girls	-	31 (24.22)	97 (75.78)	128 (100.00)		35.88 ±4.72	
Levels of conscientiousness							
Boys	3 (2.34)	27 (21.09)	98 (76.57)	128 (100.00)	0.27	35.92 ±5.05	0.85
Girls	5 (3.91)	26 (20.31)	97 (75.78)	128 (100.00)		35.33 ±5.84	
Levels of emotional stability							
Boys	2 (1.56)	74 (57.81)	52 (40.63)	128 (100.00)	0.85	31.36 ±5.10	0.37
Girls	3 (2.34)	71 (55.47)	54 (42.19)	128 (100.00)		31.11 ±5.62	
Levels of openness to experience							
Boys	5 (3.91)	55 (42.97)	68 (53.12)	128 (100.00)	2.43	64.10 ±8.84	0.79
Girls	2 (1.56)	54 (42.19)	72 (56.25)	128 (100.00)		64.93 ±7.74	

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

4.4.1.3 Influence of ordinal position on personality traits of adolescents:

It is obvious from Table 6 that majority of the first borns (61.05%) were found in average, followed by high (37.90%) and low (1.05%) categories of extroversion. Same trend was seen among the later borns, wherein 66.46 per cent were in average, 30.43 per cent in low and 3.11 per cent were in high categories of extroversion. Statistical analysis revealed no significant association between ordinal position and extroversion. The comparison of mean scores showed that the mean score of the first borns (31.05) was higher as compared to later borns (30.16) but t-test was not significant.

More than half of the first borns (69.47%) were seen in high category of agreeableness and the remaining (30.53%) were in average category. None of them fell in low category. Same pattern was observed among the later borns, with 76.40 per cent in high, 22.98 per cent in average and 0.62 per cent in low categories. Chi square analysis revealed no significant association between ordinal position and agreeableness trait of personality. However, comparison of mean scores showed that the later borns (35.93) were slightly higher than the first borns (35.44) on agreeableness trait, though the difference was not statistically significant.

Data on conscientiousness showed that a high proportion of the first borns (76.84%) were found in high, followed by average (18.95%) and low categories (4.21%). Also among the later borns, maximum number of them (75.78%) was high in conscientiousness trait, followed by medium and low categories (21.74 and 2.48% respectively). Statistical analysis revealed no significant association between ordinal position and conscientiousness trait. The t-test revealed non-significant difference wherein the mean conscientiousness score of both the first borns (5.63) and later borns (35.48) were almost similar.

With respect to emotional stability, it can be seen that around half of the first borns (56.84%) fell in average, followed by high and low categories (40.00 and 3.16% respectively). Similarly among the later borns also more number of them (56.52%) was in average followed by high (42.24%) and low categories (1.24%) of emotional stability. No significant association was found between ordinal position and emotional stability trait. Comparison of mean scores showed that later borns scored slightly higher (31.40) than the first borns (30.89) but it was not statistically significant.

Regarding openness to experience, more number of the first borns (54.74%) were found in high, followed by average and low categories (41.05 and 4.21%). Same trend was observed among the later borns in high, average and low categories (54.66, 43.48 and 1.86% respectively). Statistical analysis revealed no significant association between ordinal position and openness to experience. The t-test also revealed non-significant difference however, the mean score of first borns (64.24) was slightly higher than the later borns (63.95).

Thus the hypothesis set for the study that ordinal position does not influence the personality traits of adolescents was accepted.

4.4.2 PARENTAL FACTORS:

4.4.2.1 Association of fathers' education and personality traits:

A glance at Table 7 reveals the association between fathers' education and personality traits of adolescents. More than half (53.33%) of the adolescents with illiterate fathers belonged to average category of extroversion and the other half (46.67%) belonged to high category. Surprisingly none of them belonged to low category. Among adolescents whose fathers were educated up to intermediate/ post high school diploma, maximum number of them (64.58%) were in average, followed by high and low categories (32.82, 2.60% respectively) of extroversion. Same pattern was observed among the adolescents having father who were graduates and above (73.53, 23.53 and 2.94% respectively). No significant association was found between fathers' education and extroversion.

In case of agreeableness, greater proportion (83.33%) of the adolescents with illiterate fathers were seen in high, followed by average category (16.67%) and none were in low category. Same trend was seen among those whose fathers were educated up to intermediate or post high school diploma (72.92 and 27.08% respectively). Among the adolescents whose fathers were graduates and above, more number of them (70.59%) was high in agreeableness followed by average (26.47%) and low categories (2.94%). The chi square analysis revealed significant association between fathers' education and agreeableness at five percent level (8.07).

Table 6. Influence of ordinal position on personality traits of adolescents

N=256

Ordinal position	Low	Average	High	Total	χ^2	Mean (SD)	t-value
Levels of Extroversion							
First borns	1 (1.05)	58 (61.05)	36 (37.90)	95 (100.00)	2.35	31.05 ±4.19	1.38
Later borns	5 (3.11)	107 (66.46)	49 (30.43)	161 (100.00)		30.16 ±4.52	
Levels of agreeableness							
First borns	0	29 (30.53)	66 (69.47)	95 (100.00)	2.30	35.44 ±5.04	0.63
Later borns	1 (0.62)	37 (22.98)	123 (76.40)	161 (100.00)		35.93 ±5.45	
Levels of conscientiousness							
First borns	4 (4.21)	18 (18.95)	73 (76.84)	95 (100.00)	0.80	35.44 ±5.63	0.05
Later borns	4 (2.48)	35 (21.74)	122 (75.78)	161 (100.00)		35.48 ±5.90	
Levels of emotional stability							
First borns	3 (3.16)	54 (56.84)	38 (40.00)	95 (100.00)	1.20	30.89 ±5.28	0.63
Later borns	2 (1.24)	91 (56.52)	68 (42.24)	161 (100.00)		31.40 ±5.62	
Levels of openness to experience							
First borns	4 (4.21)	39 (41.05)	52 (54.74)	95 (100.00)	1.29	64.24 ±8.67	0.22
Later borns	3 (1.86)	70 (43.48)	88 (54.66)	161 (100.00)		63.95 ±8.80	

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

Table 7. Association of fathers' education and personality traits of adolescents

N=256

Levels of extroversion					
Fathers' education	**Low**	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	χ^2
Illiterate	0	16 (53.33)	14 (46.67)	30 (100.00)	4.44
Up to intermediate/ post high school diploma	5 (2.60)	124 (64.58)	63 (32.82)	192 (100.00)	
Graduate and above	1 (2.94)	25 (73.53)	8 (23.53)	34 (100.00)	
Levels of agreeableness					
Illiterate	0	5 (16.67)	25 (83.33)	30 (100.00)	8.07*
Up to intermediate/ post high school diploma	0	52 (27.08)	140 (72.92)	192 (100.00)	
Graduate and above	1 (2.94)	9 (26.47)	24 (70.59)	34 (100.00)	
Levels of conscientiousness					
Illiterate	1 (3.33)	6 (20.00)	23 (76.67)	30 (100.00)	0.80
Up to intermediate/ post high school diploma	6 (3.13)	38 (19.79)	148 (77.08)	192 (100.00)	
Graduate and above	1 (2.94)	9 (26.47)	24 (70.59)	34 (100.00)	
Levels of emotional stability					
Illiterate	1 (3.33)	13 (43.33)	16 (53.33)	30 (100.00)	3.31
Up to intermediate/ post high school diploma	4 (2.08)	111 (57.82)	77 (40.10)	192 (100.00)	
Graduate and above	0	21 (61.76)	13 (38.24)	34 (100.00)	
Levels of openness to experience					
Illiterate	3 (10.00)	16 (53.33)	11 (36.67)	30 (100.00)	10.20*
Up to intermediate/ post high school diploma	4 (2.08)	80 (41.67)	108 (56.25)	192 (100.00)	
Graduate and above	0	13 (38.26)	21 (61.74)	34 (100.00)	

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

* $p \leq 0.05$ level of significance

With respect to conscientiousness, highest proportion of adolescents whose fathers were illiterate, educated up to intermediate/ post high school diploma and graduates/ above were found in high category of conscientiousness (76.67, 77.08 and 70.59% respectively), followed by average (20.00, 19.79 and 26.47% respectively) and low (3.33, 3.13 and 2.94% respectively) categories. Chi square analysis revealed no significant association between fathers' education and conscientiousness.

In terms of emotional stability, half of the adolescents (53.33%) having illiterate fathers were seen in high category, followed by average and low categories (43.33 and 3.33% respectively). In contrast, among the adolescents whose fathers were educated up to intermediate/ post high school diploma, majority of them (57.82%) were average in emotional stability, followed by high and low (40.10, 2.08% respectively) categories. Similarly, majority of the adolescents (61.76%) whose fathers were graduates/ above were seen in average category and the remaining were (38.24%) found in high category. There was no significant association between fathers' education and emotional stability.

With respect to openness to experience, more than half of the adolescents (53.33%) with illiterate fathers fell in average, followed by high and low categories (36.67 and 10.00% respectively). Further, majority of adolescents (56.25%) whose fathers were educated up to intermediate/ post high school diploma were seen in high, followed by medium and low categories of openness to experience (41.67 and 2.08% respectively). Same trend was observed among adolescents with fathers who were graduates/ above, with maximum number of them (61.74%) in high, followed by average category (38.26%). Chi square analysis revealed significant association between fathers' education and openness to experience at five percent level of significance (10.20).

4.4.2.2 Association of mothers' education and personality traits:

The data presented in Table 8 reflects the association between mothers' education and personality traits. In extroversion, majority of the adolescents (57.78%) whose mothers were illiterate belonged to average followed by high and low categories (37.78, 4.44% respectively). Same trend was observed in adolescents whose mothers were educated up to intermediate/ post high school diploma (66.67, 31.84 and 1.49% respectively). Further with adolescents whose mothers were graduates/ above, half of them (50.00%) were average in extroversion, followed by half in medium and low categories (40.00, 10.00% respectively). No significant association was found between mothers' education and extroversion trait.

With respect to agreeableness, higher proportion (73.33%) of the adolescents with illiterate mothers were seen in high category, followed by average (26.67%) and interestingly none of them belonged to the low category. Same pattern was seen among adolescents whose mothers were graduates/ above (70.00 and 30.00% respectively). Further, with adolescents whose mothers were educated up to intermediate/ post high school diploma, maximum number of them (74.13%) belonged to high, followed by average and low categories (25.37 and 0.50% respectively). Chi square analysis revealed no significant association between mothers' education and agreeableness.

In terms of conscientiousness, maximum number of adolescents (73.34%) whose mothers were illiterate belonged to high, followed by average and low categories (24.44 and 2.22% respectively). Same pattern was observed among adolescents whose mothers were educated up to intermediate/ post high school diploma (76.12, 20.40 and 3.48% respectively). Further, with adolescents whose mothers were graduates/ above maximum number (90.00%) fell in high, followed by average category (10.00%) and none were in low category. There was no significant association between mothers' education and conscientiousness.

Among the adolescents whose mothers were illiterate, majority of them (55.56%) belonged to average, followed by high and low categories of emotional stability (42.22 and 2.22% respectively). Same trend was observed among adolescents whose mothers were educated up to intermediate/ post high school diploma (56.22, 42.22 and 2.22% respectively) as well as in adolescents whose mothers were graduates/ above (70.00, 20.00 and 10.00% respectively). No significant association was found between mothers' education and emotional stability of the adolescents.

With respect to openness to experience, more number of adolescents (46.67%) with illiterate mothers was in average, followed by high and low categories (42.22 and 11.11% respectively). In contrast, majority of adolescents (55.72%) whose mothers were educated up to intermediate/ post high school diploma, were high in openness to experience followed by average and low categories (43.28 and 1.00% respectively).

Table 8. Association of mothers' education and personality traits of adolescents

N=256

Mothers' education	Low	Average	High	Total	χ^2
Levels of extroversion					
Illiterate	2 (4.44)	26 (57.78)	17 (37.78)	45 (100.00)	5.29
Up to intermediate/ post high school diploma	3 (1.49)	134 (66.67)	64 (31.84)	201 (100.00)	
Graduate and above	1 (10.00)	5 (50.00)	4 (40.00)	10 (100.00)	
Levels of agreeableness					
Illiterate	0	12 (26.67)	33 (73.33)	45 (100.00)	0.39
Up to intermediate/ post high school diploma	1 (0.50)	51 (25.37)	149 (74.13)	201 (100.00)	
Graduate and above	0	3 (30.00)	7 (70.00)	10 (100.00)	
Levels of conscientiousness					
Illiterate	1 (2.22)	11 (24.44)	33 (73.34)	45 (100.00)	1.68
Up to intermediate/ post high school diploma	7 (3.48)	41 (20.40)	153 (76.12)	201 (100.00)	
Graduate and above	0	1 (10.00)	9 (90.00)	10 (100.00)	
Levels of emotional stability					
Illiterate	1 (2.22)	25 (55.56)	19 (42.22)	45 (100.00)	5.03
Up to intermediate/ post high school diploma	3 (1.49)	113 (56.22)	85 (42.29)	201 (100.00)	
Graduate and above	1 (10.00)	7 (70.00)	2 (20.00)	10 (100.00)	
Levels of openness to experience					
Illiterate	5 (11.11)	21 (46.67)	19 (42.22)	45 (100.00)	20.34**
Up to intermediate/ post high school diploma	2 (1.00)	87 (43.28)	112 (55.72)	201 (100.00)	
Graduate and above	0	1 (10.00)	9 (90.00)	10 (100.00)	

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

**p≤0.01 level of significance

Further with adolescents having mothers who were graduates/ above, higher proportion of them (90.00%) were in high category, followed by average (10.00%) and none of them belonged to low category. Chi square analysis revealed highly significant association between mothers' education and openness to experience.

Therefore the hypothesis set for the study that parental education does not influence the personality traits of adolescents was partially accepted.

4.4.2.3 Association of fathers' occupation and personality traits:

Data presented in Table 9 reveals the association between fathers' occupation and personality traits of adolescents. Maximum number of the adolescents (62.50%) with unemployed fathers were found in average and the remaining (37.50%) were found in high category of extroversion. Further, among adolescents whose fathers were unskilled & skilled worker/ farmer/ clerical/ shop-owner, majority (61.72%) of them fell in average, followed by high and low categories (35.89 and 2.39% respectively). Same trend was observed among adolescents whose fathers were engaged in profession/ semi-profession jobs (79.49, 17.95 and 2.56% respectively). However, no significant association was observed between fathers' occupation and extroversion traits of personality.

In agreeableness, three-fourth of the adolescents (75.00%) with unemployed fathers were found in high category and the other one-fourth (25.00%) were found in average category. Further, among those whose fathers were unskilled & skilled workers/ farmers/ clerical jobs/ shop-owners, majority of them (75.60%) fell in high, followed by average and low categories (23.92, 0.48% respectively). In case of the adolescents whose fathers were engaged in profession/ semi-profession jobs, higher proportion of them (64.10%) belonged to high category of agreeableness followed by average category (35.90%). Chi square analysis revealed non-significant association between fathers' occupation and agreeableness trait of the adolescents.

Three-fourth of the adolescents (75.00%) with unemployed fathers were found in high category of conscientiousness and the other one-fourth (25.00%) were seen in average category. Further, majority of the adolescents (76.08%) whose fathers were unskilled & skilled workers/ farmers/ clerical/ shop-owners were found in high, followed by average and low categories (20.57 and 3.35% respectively). Same trend was seen among the adolescents whose fathers were engaged in profession/ semi-profession jobs (76.17, 20.70 and 3.13% respectively). Chi square value revealed no significant association between fathers' occupation and conscientiousness.

With respect to emotional stability, equal number of adolescents whose fathers were unemployed belonged to high and average categories (50.00% each). Among those whose fathers were unskilled & skilled worker/ farmer/ clerical/ shop-owner, majority of them (57.42%) belonged to average, followed by high and low categories (40.67 and 1.91% respectively). Same trend was seen among adolescents whose fathers were engaged in profession/ semi-profession jobs (53.85, 43.59 and 2.56% respectively). No significant association was found between fathers' occupation and emotional stability of the adolescents.

In openness to experience, equal number of adolescents (50% each) with unemployed fathers were found in high and average category. For those whose fathers were working as unskilled & skilled worker/ farmer/ clerical/ shop-owner, majority of them (54.54%) were high in openness to experience followed by average and low categories (42.11 and 3.35% respectively). In case of those adolescents whose fathers were engaged in profession/ semi-profession jobs, maximum number of them (54.69%) was in high, followed by average category (43.59%). There was no statistical association between fathers' occupation and openness to experience of the adolescents.

4.4.2.4 Association of mothers' occupation and personality traits:

Table 10 highlights the association between mothers' occupational status and personality traits of adolescents. With respect to extroversion, majority of adolescents (64.33%) whose mothers were unemployed fell in average, followed by high and low categories (33.33 and 2.34% respectively). Similar trend was observed among adolescents whose mothers were unskilled & skilled worker/ farmer/ clerical/ shop-owner (64.38, 34.25 and 1.37% respectively) as well as among those whose mothers were engaged in profession/ semi-profession jobs (66.67, 25.00 and 8.33% respectively). There was no significant association between mothers' occupation and extroversion trait.

Regarding agreeableness, a high proportion of the adolescents (72.52%) whose mothers were unemployed fell in high, followed by average and low categories (26.90 and 0.58% respectively).

Table 9. Association of fathers' occupation and personality traits of adolescents

N=256

Levels of extroversion					
Fathers' occupation	**Low**	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	χ^2
Unemployed	0	5 (62.50)	3 (37.50)	8 (100.00)	5.04
Unskilled & Skilled worker/ Farmer/ Clerical/ Shop-owner	5 (2.39)	129 (61.72)	75 (35.89)	209 (100.00)	
Profession/ Semi-profession	1 (2.56)	31 (79.49)	7 (17.95)	39 (100.00)	
Levels of agreeableness					
Unemployed	0	2 (25.00)	6 (75.00)	8 (100.00)	2.64
Unskilled & Skilled worker/ Farmer/ Clerical/ Shop-owner	1 (0.48)	50 (23.92)	158 (75.60)	209 (100.00)	
Profession/ Semi-profession	0	14 (35.90)	25 (64.10)	39 (100.00)	
Levels of conscientiousness					
Unemployed	0	2 (25.00)	6 (75.00)	8 (100.00)	0.40
Unskilled & Skilled worker/ Farmer/ Clerical/ Shop-owner	7 (3.35)	43 (20.57)	159 (76.08)	209 (100.00)	
Profession/ Semi-profession	1 (2.56)	8 (20.51)	30 (76.93)	39 (100.00)	
Levels of emotional stability					
Unemployed	0	4 (50.00)	4 (50.00)	8 (100.00)	0.59
Unskilled & Skilled worker/ Farmer/ Clerical/ Shop-owner	4 (1.91)	120 (57.42)	85 (40.67)	209 (100.00)	
Profession/ Semi-profession	1 (2.56)	21 (53.85)	17 (43.59)	39 (100.00)	
Levels of openness to experience					
Unemployed	0	4 (50.00)	4 (50.00)	8 (100.00)	1.75
Unskilled & Skilled worker/ Farmer/ Clerical/ Shop-owner	7 (3.35)	88 (42.11)	114 (54.54)	209 (100.00)	
Profession/ Semi-profession	0	17 (43.59)	22 (56.41)	39 (100.00)	

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

Table 10. Association of mothers' occupation and personality traits of adolescents

N=256

Mothers' occupation	Low	Average	High	Total	χ^2
Levels of extroversion					
Unemployed	4 (2.34)	110 (64.33)	57 (33.33)	171 (100.00)	2.41
Unskilled & Skilled worker/ Farmer/ Clerical/ Shop-owner	1 (1.37)	47 (64.38)	25 (34.25)	73 (100.00)	
Profession/ Semi-profession	1 (8.33)	8 (66.67)	3 (25.00)	12 (100.00)	
Levels of agreeableness					
Unemployed	1 (0.58)	46 (26.90)	124 (72.52)	171 (100.00)	0.88
Unskilled & Skilled worker/ Farmer/ Clerical/ Shop-owner	0	17 (23.29)	56 (76.71)	73 (100.00)	
Profession/ Semi-profession	0	3 (25.00)	9 (75.00)	12 (100.00)	
Levels of conscientiousness					
Unemployed	3 (1.75)	40 (23.39)	128 (74.86)	171 (100.00)	7.16
Unskilled & Skilled worker/ Farmer/ Clerical/ Shop-owner	4 (5.48)	13 (17.81)	56 (76.71)	73 (100.00)	
Profession/ Semi-profession	1 (8.33)	0	11 (91.67)	12 (100.00)	
Levels of emotional stability					
Unemployed	3 (1.75)	102 (59.65)	66 (38.60)	171 (100.00)	4.69
Unskilled & Skilled worker/ Farmer/ Clerical/ Shop-owner	1 (1.37)	38 (52.05)	34 (46.58)	73 (100.00)	
Profession/ Semi-profession	1 (8.33)	5 (41.67)	6 (50.00)	12 (100.00)	
Levels of openness to experience					
Unemployed	5 (2.92)	75 (43.86)	91 (53.22)	171 (100.00)	7.00
Unskilled & Skilled worker/ Farmer/ Clerical/ Shop-owner	2 (2.74)	33 (45.21)	38 (52.05)	73 (100.00)	
Profession/ Semi-profession	0	1 (8.33)	11 (91.67)	12 (100.00)	

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

Further, among adolescents whose mothers were unskilled & skilled workers/ farmers/ clerical/ shop-owners, majority of them (76.71%) belonged to high, followed by average category (23.29%) and none were in low category. Same pattern was seen among adolescents whose mothers were engaged in profession/ semi-profession jobs (75.00 and 25.00% respectively). No significant association was found between mothers' occupation and agreeableness.

In conscientiousness, more number of the adolescents (74.86%) with unemployed mothers fell in high, followed by average (23.39%) and low categories (1.75%). Same trend was observed among the adolescents whose mothers were unskilled & skilled workers/ farmers/ clerical/ shop-owners (76.71, 17.81 and 5.48% respectively). Further, among those whose mothers were engaged in profession/ semi-profession jobs, majority of them (91.67%) were found in high, followed by low category (8.33%) and none fell in average category. There was no significant association between mothers' occupation and conscientiousness of the adolescents.

Among the adolescents whose mothers were unemployed/ unskilled worker, more than half of them (59.65%) belonged to average, followed by high and low categories (38.60 and 1.75% respectively). Same trend was seen among the adolescents whose mothers were skilled workers/ farmers/ clerical/ shop-owners (52.05, 46.58 and 1.37% respectively). However, among those whose mothers were engaged in profession/ semi-profession jobs, half of them (50.00%) were in high, followed by average and low categories of emotional stability (41.67 and 8.33% respectively). Chi square revealed no significant association between mothers' occupation and emotional stability.

With respect to openness to experience, majority of the adolescents with unemployed mothers (53.22%) were seen in high, followed by average and low categories (43.86 and 2.92% respectively). Same trend was observed among those whose mothers were unskilled & skilled workers/ farmers/ clerical/ shop-owners (52.05, 45.21 and 22.74%respectively). Further among those, whose mothers were engaged in profession / semi-profession jobs, higher proportion (91.67%) were found in high, followed by average category (8.33%) and none were in low category of openness to experience.

Thus the hypothesis set for the study that parental occupation does not influence the personality traits of adolescents was accepted.

4.4.3 FAMILIAL FACTORS:

4.4.3.1 Association between caste and personality traits of adolescents

A glance at Table 11 reveals the association between caste and personality traits of adolescents. In case of extroversion, maximum number of adolescents (61.11%) who belonged to forward caste were seen average, followed by high and low (33.33 and 5.56% respectively) categories. Similar trend was observed with adolescents belonging to scheduled caste/ tribe (69.94, 28.33 and 1.73% respectively). However, in case of those who belonged to backward caste, majority (51.06%) were seen in high, followed by average and low categories (46.81 and 2.13% respectively). Chi square analysis revealed significant association between caste and extroversion at five percent level of significance (10.77).

With respect to agreeableness, majority of adolescents who belonged to forward caste (72.22%) were found in high, followed by average and low categories (25.00 and 2.78% respectively). Further, for those who belonged to backward caste, majority (65.96%) of them were seen high, followed by average (34.04%) category and none fell in low category. Same trend was observed among those who belonged to scheduled caste/ tribe (76.30 and 23.70% respectively). Statistical analysis revealed significant association between caste and agreeableness (8.21).

In conscientiousness, higher proportion of adolescents (77.78%) who belonged to forward caste were found high, followed by average and low categories (13.89 and 8.33% respectively). Same trend was observed among adolescents of backward caste (68.08, 27.66 and 4.26% respectively) as well as scheduled caste/ tribe (78.04, 20.23 and 1.73% respectively). Chi square analysis revealed no significant association between caste and conscientiousness.

Further with regard to emotional stability, maximum number of adolescents (68.89%) who belonged to forward caste were found in average, followed by high category (36.11%) and interestingly none were seen in low category. Similar pattern was seen with adolescents of backward caste (55.32 and 44.68% respectively). Further, among those adolescents belonging to scheduled caste/ tribe, majority (55.49%) belonged to average, followed by high and low categories (41.62 and 2.89% respectively). No significant association was found between caste and emotional stability.

Table 11. Association between caste and personality traits of adolescents

N=256

Levels of extroversion					
Caste	**Low**	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	χ^2
Forward caste	3 (1.73)	121 (69.94)	49 (28.33)	173 (100.00)	10.77*
Backward caste	1 (2.13)	22 (46.81)	24 (51.06)	47 (100.00)	
SC/ ST	2 (5.56)	22 (61.11)	12 (33.33)	36 (100.00)	
Total	6 (2.34)	165 (64.45)	85 (33.21)	256 (100.00)	
Levels of agreeableness					
Forward caste	0	41 (23.70)	132 (76.30)	173 (100.00)	8.21*
Backward caste	0	16 (34.04)	31 (65.96)	47 (100.00)	
SC/ ST	1 (2.78)	9 (25.00)	26 (72.22)	36 (100.00)	
Levels of conscientiousness					
Forward caste	3 (1.73)	35 (20.23)	135 (78.04)	173 (100.00)	6.81
Backward caste	2 (4.26)	13 (27.66)	32 (68.08)	47 (100.00)	
SC/ ST	3 (8.33)	5 (13.89)	28 (77.78)	36 (100.00)	
Levels of emotional stability					
Forward caste	5 (2.89)	96 (55.49)	72 (41.62)	173 (100.00)	3.16
Backward caste	0	26 (55.32)	21 (44.68)	47 (100.00)	
SC/ ST	0	23 (63.89)	13 (36.11)	36 (100.00)	
Levels of openness to experience					
Forward caste	4 (2.31)	78 (45.09)	91 (52.60)	173 (100.00)	7.23
Backward caste	0	17 (36.17)	30 (63.83)	47 (100.00)	
SC/ ST	3 (8.33)	14 (38.89)	19 (52.78)	36 (100.00)	

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

*p≤0.05 level of significance

Regarding openness to experience, majority of adolescents (52.78%) from scheduled caste/ tribe belonged to high, followed by average and low categories (38.89 and 8.33% respectively). Same trend was observed among the adolescents who belonged to forward caste (52.60, 45.09 and 2.31% respectively). Further, among those who belonged to backward caste, maximum (63.83%) were seen in high, followed by average category (36.17%). Statistical analysis revealed non-significant association between caste and openness to experience.

Therefore the hypothesis set for the study that caste does not influence the personality traits of adolescents was partially accepted.

4.4.3.2 Association between family type and personality traits of adolescents

Table 12 reflects the association between family type and personality traits of adolescents. Majority of adolescents (61.24%) from nuclear family were found in average, followed by high and low categories of extroversion (36.51 and 2.25% respectively). Same pattern was observed among adolescents from joint family (71.79, 25.65 and 2.56% respectively). No significant association was found between family type and extroversion.

In terms of agreeableness, maximum adolescents (75.84%) from nuclear family were seen in high, followed by average and low categories (23.60 and 0.56% respectively). Further among adolecents from joint family, majority (69.23%) of them belonged to high, followed by average category (30.77%) and none were seen in low category. There was no significant association between family type and agreeableness.

Regarding conscientiousness, higher proportion of adolescents (75.85%) belonging to nuclear family were in high, followed by average and low categories (19.66 and 4.49% respectively). Further, among those belonging to joint family, majority (76.92%) were in high, followed by average category (23.08%) and none were in low category. Statistical analysis revealed no significant association between family type and conscientiousness.

Higher proportion of adolescents (56.74%) from nuclear family was average in emotional stability, followed by high and low (40.45 and 2.81% respectively). Further with adolescents from joint family, higher number (56.41%) fell in average, followed by high category (43.59%). No significant association was found between family type and emotional stability.

With openness to experience, it was found that more than half (53.93%) of the adolescents from nuclear family were found in high, followed by average and low categories (42.70 and 3.37% respectively). Same pattern was seen among adolescents who belonged to joint family (56.41, 42.31 and 1.28% respectively). Chi square analysis showed non-significant association between family type and openness to experience.

Therefore the hypothesis set for the study that family type does not influence the personality traits of adolescents was accepted.

4.4.3.3 Association between family size and personality traits of adolescents

Data presented in Table 13 shows the association between family size and personality traits of adolescents. Regarding extroversion, more number of adolescents (55.74%) from small size family were found in average, followed by high and low categories (40.98 and 3.28% respectively). Same trend was observed among adolescents from medium (63.93, 34.43 and 1.64% respectively) and large size family (72.60, 24.66 and 2.74% respectively). Chi square analysis showed non-significant association between family size and extroversion.

Higher percentage of adolescents (81.97%) from small size family were found in high category of agreeableness, followed by average and low categories (14.75 and 3.28% respectively). Similar trend was observed with adolescents coming from medium size family (70.49, 24.59 and 4.92% respectively). Further with adolescents coming from large size family, maximum (80.82%) number of them was in high, followed by average category (19.18%) and none were in low category.

In terms of conscientiousness, majority of the adolescents (81.97%) coming from small size family were in high, followed by average and low categories (14.75 and 3.28% respectively). Same pattern was observed with adolescents belonging to medium size family (70.49, 24.59 and 4.92% respectively). Further, with adolescents belonging to large size family, majority (80.82%) were high in conscientiousness, followed by average category (19.18%) and interestingly none were in low category. There was no significant association between family size and conscientiousness of adolescents.

Table 12. Association between family type and personality traits of adolescents

N=256

Levels of extroversion					
Family type	**Low**	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	χ^2
Nuclear	4 (2.25)	109 (61.24)	65 (36.51)	178 (100.00)	2.89
Joint	2 (2.56)	56 (71.79)	20 (25.65)	78 (100.00)	
Levels of agreeableness					
Nuclear	1 (0.56)	42 (23.60)	135 (75.84)	178 (100.00)	1.84
Joint	0	24 (30.77)	54 (69.23)	78 (100.00)	
Levels of conscientiousness					
Nuclear	8 (4.49)	35 (19.66)	135 (75.85)	178 (100.00)	3.82
Joint	0	18 (23.08)	60 (76.92)	78 (100.00)	
Levels of emotional stability					
Nuclear	5 (2.81)	101 (56.74)	72 (40.45)	178 (100.00)	2.32
Joint	0	44 (56.41)	34 (43.59)	78 (100.00)	
Levels of openness to experience					
Nuclear	6 (3.37)	76 (42.70)	96 (53.93)	178 (100.00)	0.93
Joint	1 (1.28)	33 (42.31)	44 (56.41)	78 (100.00)	

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

Table 13. Association between family size and personality traits of adolescents

N=256

Levels of extroversion					
Family size	**Low**	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	χ^2
Small	2 (3.28)	34 (55.74)	25 (40.98)	61 (100.00)	4.78
Medium	2 (1.64)	78 (63.93)	42 (34.43)	122 (100.00)	
Large	2 (2.74)	53 (72.60)	18 (24.66)	73 (100.00)	
Levels of agreeableness					
Small	2 (3.28)	9 (14.75)	50 (81.97)	61 (100.00)	1.51
Medium	6 (4.92)	30 (24.59)	86 (70.49)	122 (100.00)	
Large	0	14 (19.18)	59 (80.82)	73 (100.00)	
Levels of conscientiousness					
Small	2 (3.28)	9 (14.75)	50 (81.97)	61 (100.00)	6.55
Medium	6 (4.92)	30 (24.59)	86 (70.49)	122 (100.00)	
Large	0	14 (19.18)	59 (80.82)	73 (100.00)	
Levels of emotional stability					
Small	2 (3.28)	35 (57.38)	24 (39.34)	61 (100.00)	1.95
Medium	1 (0.82)	71 (58.20)	50 (40.98)	122 (100.00)	
Large	2 (2.74)	39 (53.42)	32 (43.84)	73 (100.00)	
Levels of openness to experience					
Small	4 (6.56)	20 (32.79)	37 (60.65)	61 (100.00)	6.79
Medium	2 (1.64)	57 (46.72)	63 (51.64)	122 (100.00)	
Large	1 (1.37)	32 (43.84)	40 (54.79)	73 (100.00)	

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

With emotional stability, more number of adolescents (57.38%) belonging to small size family were in average, followed by high and low categories (39.34 and 3.28% respectively). Same trend was seen with adolescents coming from medium size (58.20, 40.98 and 0.82% respectively) and large size family (53.42, 43.84 and 2.74% respectively). No significant association was found between family size and emotional stability.

In case of openness to experience, maximum number of adolescents (60.65%) coming from small size family were in high, followed by average and low categories (32.79 and 6.56% respectively). Same pattern was observed with adolescents coming from medium size (51.64, 46.72 and 1.64% respectively) and large size family (54.79, 43.84 and 1.37% respectively). Chi square showed non-significant association between family size and openness to experience.

Therefore the hypothesis set for the study that family size does not influence the personality traits of adolescents was accepted.

4.4.3.4 Association between income and personality traits of adolescents

A perusal of Table 14 indicates the association between income and personality traits. With respect to extroversion, maximum number of adolescents (64.80%) coming from low income family were in average, followed by high and low categories (32.00 and 3.20% respectively). Same trend was observed among adolescents coming from medium income family (63.79, 34.49 and 1.72% respectively). Further among adolescents from high income family, majority (66.67%) were average in extroversion, followed by high (33.33%) and none were in low categories. There was no significant association between income and extroversion.

Most of the adolescents (79.20%) coming from low income family were high in agreeableness, followed by average (20.80%) and none fell in low categories. Similar trend was observed among those coming from high income family (60.00 and 40.00% respectively). Further among those who came from medium income family, majority (69.83%) were high in agreeableness followed by medium and low categories (29.31 and 0.86% respectively). No significant association was found between income and agreeableness.

With respect to conscientiousness, more number of adolescents (75.20%) from low income family were found in high, followed by average and low categories (20.00 and 4.80% respectively). Similarly among those coming from medium income family, majority (78.45%) were in high, followed by average and low categories (19.83 and 1.72% respectively). Further among adolescents from high income group, more number (66.67%) fell in high, followed by average category (33.33%) and interestingly none fell in low category. Chi square revealed non-significant association between family income and conscientiousness.

In terms of emotional stability, higher proportion of the adolescents (57.60%) from low income group were seen in average, followed by high and low categories (41.60 and 0.80% respectively). Similar pattern was observed among those who belonged to medium income family (53.45, 43.97 and 2.58% respectively) as well as high income family (73.33, 20.00 and 6.67% respectively). No significant association was found between family income and emotional stability.

Regarding openness to experience, almost half of the adolescents (51.20%) from low income family were found in high, followed by average and low categories (46.40 and 2.40% respectively). Same trend was seen among adolescents belonging to medium income family (55.17, 41.38 and 3.45% respectively). Further with adolescents from high income family, maximum (80.00%) fell in high, followed by average category (20.00%) and none were in low category. The chi square analysis showed non-significant association between income and openness to experience.

Therefore the hypothesis set for the study that income does not influence the personality traits of adolescents was accepted.

4.4.3.5 Association between socioeconomic status and personality traits of adolescents

An appraisal of Table 16 shows the association between socioeconomic status and personality traits of adolescents. Maximum number of adolescents (61.11%) from low socioeconomic status was average in extroversion, followed by high and low categories (36.51 and 2.38%). Same trend was seen among adolescents belonging to medium socioeconomic status (68.00, 29.60 and 2.40% respectively). Further with adolescents belonging to high socioeconomic status family, majority (60.00%) fell in average, followed by high category (40.00%) and none were in low category. The chi square analysis revealed non-significant association between socioeconomic status and extroversion.

Table 14. Association between income and personality traits of adolescents

N=256

Levels of extroversion					
Income	**Low**	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	χ^2
Low	4 (3.20)	81 (64.80)	40 (32.00)	125 (100.00)	1.07
Medium	2 (1.72)	74 (63.79)	40 (34.49)	116 (100.00)	
High	0	10 (66.67)	5 (33.33)	15 (100.00)	
Levels of agreeableness					
Low	0	26 (20.80)	99 (79.20)	125 (100.00)	5.28
Medium	1 (0.86)	34 (29.31)	81 (69.83)	116 (100.00)	
High	0	6 (40.00)	9 (60.00)	15 (100.00)	
Levels of conscientiousness					
Low	6 (4.80)	25 (20.00)	94 (75.20)	125 (100.00)	3.82
Medium	2 (1.72)	23 (19.83)	91 (78.45)	116 (100.00)	
High	0	5 (33.33)	10 (66.67)	15 (100.00)	
Levels of emotional stability					
Low	1 (0.80)	72 (57.60)	52 (41.60)	125 (100.00)	5.61
Medium	3 (2.58)	62 (53.45)	51 (43.97)	116 (100.00)	
High	1 (6.67)	11 (73.33)	3 (20.00)	15 (100.00)	
Levels of openness to experience					
Low	3 (2.40)	58 (46.40)	64 (51.20)	125 (100.00)	4.98
Medium	4 (3.45)	48 (41.38)	64 (55.17)	116 (100.00)	
High	0	3 (20.00)	12 (80.00)	15 (100.00)	

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

Table 15. Association between socioeconomic status and personality traits of adolescents

N=256

Levels of extroversion					
Socioeconomic status	**Low**	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	χ^2
Low	3 (2.38)	77 (61.11)	46 (36.51)	126 (100.00)	1.57
Medium	3 (2.40)	85 (68.00)	37 (29.60)	125 (100.00)	
High	0	3 (60.00)	2 (40.00)	5 (100.00)	
Levels of agreeableness					
Low	0	29 (23.02)	97 (76.98)	126 (100.00)	2.32
Medium	1 (0.80)	36 (28.80)	88 (70.40)	125 (100.00)	
High	0	1 (20.00)	4 (80.00)	5 (100.00)	
Levels of conscientiousness					
Low	4 (3.17)	30 (23.81)	9 2(73.02)	126 (100.00)	1.65
Medium	4 (3.20)	22 (17.60)	99 (79.20)	125 (100.00)	
High	0	1 (20.00)	4 (80.00)	5 (100.00)	
Levels of emotional stability					
Low	2 (1.59)	78 (61.90)	46 (36.51)	126 (100.00)	14.57**
Medium	2 (1.60)	63 (50.40)	60 (48.00)	125 (100.00)	
High	1 (20.00)	4 (80.00)	0	5 (100.00)	
Levels of openness to experience					
Low	7 (5.56)	57 (45.24)	62 (49.20)	126 (100.00)	9.87*
Medium	0	51 (40.80)	74 (59.20)	125 (100.00)	
High	0	1 (20.00)	4 (80.00)	5 (100.00)	

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

*p≤0.05 level of significance, **p≤0.01 level of significance

In agreeableness, maximum adolescents (76.98%) coming from low socioeconomic status were in high, followed by average category (23.02%) and none belonged to low category. Same pattern was observed among those coming from high socioeconomic status (80.00 and 20.00% respectively). Further with adolescents coming from medium socioeconomic status, majority (70.40%) were in high, followed by average and low categories (28.80 and 0.80% respectively). No significant association was found between socioeconomic status and agreeableness.

With respect to conscientiousness, higher proportion of adolescents coming from low socioeconomic status was in high, followed by average and low categories (73.02, 23.81 and 3.17% respectively). Same pattern was observed among those coming from medium socioeconomic status (79.20, 17.60 and 3.20% respectively). Further with adolescents coming from high socioeconomic status, maximum (80.00%) fell in high followed by average (20.00%) and none fell in low category. There was no significant association between socioeconomic status and conscientiousness.

A high number of adolescents coming from low socioeconomic status were average in emotional stability followed by high and low categories (61.90, 36.51 and 1.59% respectively). Similar observation was found with those belonging to middle socioeconomic status (50.40, 48.00 and 1.60% respectively). However among adolescents belonging to high socioeconomic status, majority (80.00%) were average in emotional stability followed by low category (20.00%) and surprisingly none were high in emotional stability. Statistical analysis showed significant association between socioeconomic status and emotional stability at one percent level of significance (14.57).

In terms of openness to experience, almost half of the adolescents (49.20%) from low socioeconomic status were in high, followed by average and low categories (45.24 and 5.56% respectively). Further with adolescents belonging to medium socioeconomic status, maximum (59.20%) were in high, followed by average category (40.80%) and interestingly none fell in low category. Same pattern can be seen with adolescents belonging to high socioeconomic status (80.00 and 20.00% respectively). The chi square analysis showed significant association between socioeconomic status and openness to experience at five percent level of significance (9.87).

Therefore the hypothesis set for the study that socioeconomic status does not influence the personality traits of adolescents was partially accepted.

4.5 INFLUENCE OF HOME ENVIRONMENT ON PERSONALITY TRAITS OF ADOLESCENTS

Among the environmental influences, the environment of the home has a major role to play in the development of personality which has prominent and lasting influence on the behaviour pattern of the individual as well. The influences of the home environment dimensions such as control, protectiveness, punishment, conformity, social isolation, reward, deprivation of privileges, nurturance, rejection and permissiveness on personality traits of adolescents are discussed in the following section.

4.5.1 Influence of control on personality traits:

Table 16 depicts the influence of control dimension of home environment on personality traits of adolescents. It is evident that majority of the adolescents who belonged to home environment with low control (63.95%) were found in average category of extroversion, followed by high and low categories (34.89 and 1.16% respectively). Similar trend was seen in case of adolescents who belonged to home environment with medium (63.64 and 33.76% respectively) and high level of control (65.59 and 31.18% respectively). Chi square analysis showed no significant association between control and extroversion trait. The r-value revealed negative correlation between control dimension and extroversion trait of adolescents but the relationship was not statistically significant. Further the F-test revealed no significant differences. However, comparison of mean score showed that adolescents whose home environment was with medium control (31.00) were slightly better as compared to low (30.98) and high (30.12).

In agreeableness, maximum number of adolescents who experienced home environment with low level of control (73.26%) were found in high, followed by average category of agreeableness (26.74%) and none were found in low category. Same pattern was observed in those who had experienced home environment with medium control (72.73%). Further in case of those with high control, majority were found in high category of agreeableness followed by average and low categories (75.26, 23.66 and 1.08% respectively). Chi square analysis showed non-significant association between control and agreeableness traits of adolescents.

Table 16. Association between control dimension of home environment and personality traits

N=256

Levels of control	Levels of extroversion						
	Low	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	**Mean ±SD**	**F-value**	**χ^2 ('r' value)**
Low	1 (1.16)	55 (63.95)	30 (34.89)	86 (100.00)	30.98 ±3.93	1.25	1.07 (-0.10)
Medium	2 (2.60)	49 (63.64)	26 (33.76)	77 (100.00)	31.00 ±4.52		
High	3 (3.23)	61 (65.59)	29 (31.18)	93 (100.00)	30.12 ±4.26		
Total	6 (2.34)	165 (64.45)	85 (33.21)	256 (100.00)	S.Em=0.26		
	Levels of agreeableness						
Low	0	23 (26.74)	63 (73.26)	86 (100.00)	35.65 ±4.46	0.20	2.06 (0.02)
Medium	0	21 (27.27)	56 (72.73)	77 (100.00)	35.71 ±5.03		
High	1 (1.08)	22 (23.66)	70 (75.26)	93 (100.00)	36.09 ±5.82		
Total	1 (0.39)	66 (25.78)	189 (73.83)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.32		
	Levels of conscientiousness						
Low	1 (1.16)	18 (20.93)	67 (77.91)	86 (100.00)	35.44 ±4.85	0.06	4.94 (0.01)
Medium	2 (2.60)	20 (25.97)	55 (71.43)	77 (100.00)	35.72 ±5.18		
High	5 (5.38)	15 (16.13)	73 (78.49)	93 (100.00)	35.64 ±6.27		
Total	8 (3.13)	53 (20.70)	195 (76.17)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.34		
	Levels of emotional stability						
Low	1 (1.16)	57 (66.28)	28 (32.56)	86 (100.00)	30.36 ±4.56	1.77	7.14 (0.10)
Medium	1 (1.30)	44 (57.14)	32 (41.56)	77 (100.00)	31.48 ±5.24		
High	3 (3.23)	44 (47.31)	46 (49.46)	93 (100.00)	31.82 ±6.09		
Total	5 (1.95)	145 (56.64)	106 (41.41)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.33		
	Levels of openness to experience						
Low	4 (4.65)	38 (44.19)	44 (51.16)	86(100.00)	64.19 ±9.23	0.30	2.76 (-0.02)
Medium	1 (1.30)	30 (38.96)	46 (59.74)	77 (100.00)	65.14 ±6.75		
High	2 (2.15)	41 (44.09)	50 (53.76)	93 (100.00)	64.37 ±8.52		
Total	7 (2.73)	109 (42.58)	140 (54.69)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.52		

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

However, correlation results revealed positive relationship between control and agreeableness. Further the F-test revealed non-significant difference but comparison of mean scores showed that those who experienced home environment with high control scored higher as compared to medium and low control (36.09, 35.71 and 35.65 respectively).

With respect to conscientiousness, most of the adolescents who experienced low control (77.91%) were found in high category of conscientiousness, followed by average and low categories (20.93, 1.16% respectively). Same trend was observed among adolescents with medium control (71.43, 25.97 and 2.60% respectively) as well as high control (78.49, 16.12 and 5.38% respectively).. Chi square analysis revealed non-significant association between control and conscientiousness. There was no significant difference. On comparing the mean scores, it was found that adolescents whose home environment was with medium control scored higher (35.72) than high and low control (35.64 and 35.44 respectively).

In terms of emotional stability, maximum number of the adolescents from home environment with low control (66.28%) was found in average, followed by high and low categories (32.56, 1.16% respectively). Similar trend was found among those with medium control (57.14, 41.56 and 1.30% respectively). Further adolescents from home environment with high control, majority were found in high category of emotional stability followed by average and low categories (49.46, 47.31 and 3.23% respectively). Chi square analysis showed non-significant association between control and emotional stability of adolescents. The F-test also revealed non-significant difference. However, comparison of mean scores revealed that the mean score of adolescents whose home environment was with high control were slightly higher than those with medium and low control (31.82, 31.48 and 30.36 respectively).

With respect to openness to experience, it was found that half of the adolescents (51.16%) from home environment with low control were seen in high category of openness to experience followed by average and low categories (44.19 and 4.65% respectively). Same pattern was observed among adolescents from home environment with medium (59.74, 38.96 and 1.30% respectively) and high control (53.76, 44.09, 2.15% respectively). Chi square analysis revealed non-significant association. Further, correlation coefficient revealed negative relationship between control and openness to experience. The F-test showed non-significant difference but the comparison of mean scores showed that the mean score of adolescent from home environment with medium control were higher than the adolescents with high and low control (65.14, 64.37 and 64.19 respectively).

4.5.2 Influence of protectiveness on personality traits:

The data pertaining to the influence of protectiveness dimension of home environment on personality traits of adolescents is shown in Table 17. A higher proportion of adolescents (72.50%) with low protectiveness were found to be average in extroversion, followed by high and low categories (23.75 and 3.75% respectively). Same trend was observed among adolescents with medium and high protectiveness wherein higher number of adolescents (61.80 and 59.77%) belonged to average, followed by high (37.08 and 37.93%) and low category of extroversion (1.12 and 2.30% respectively). No significant association was found between protectiveness and extroversion. However r-value revealed negative correlation. Further the F-test revealed no significant differences but the mean score of adolescents with medium protectiveness (31.12) was slightly higher than those with high and low protectiveness (30.83 and 30.00 respectively).

In agreeableness, maximum number of adolescents whose home environment was low in protectiveness (70.00%) were found in high, followed by average category of agreeableness (30.00%) and none fell in low category. Same trend was seen among those with medium protectiveness (73.03 and 26.97% respectively). Further in case of adolescents whose home environment was with high protectiveness, majority (78.16%) belonged to high, followed by average and low categories (20.69 and 1.15% respectively). Chi square also revealed non-significant association. However, correlation analysis revealed significant positive relationship between protectiveness and agreeableness of adolescents (0.18) at five per cent level of significance. No significant difference was found as revealed by F-test. Comparison of mean score showed that the mean score of adolescent whose home environment was with high protectiveness (36.68) was higher than those with medium (35.43) and low (35.34) protectiveness.

Adolescents whose home environment was with low protectiveness were high in conscientiousness (71.25%) followed by average and low categories (26.25 and 2.50% respectively). Similar trend was observed with those of medium protectiveness (76.40, 21.35 and 2.25% respectively) and high protectiveness (80.46, 14.94 and 4.60% respectively).

Table 17. Association between protectiveness dimension of home environment and personality traits

N=256

Levels of protectiveness	Levels of extroversion						
	Low	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	**Mean ±SD**	**F-value**	**χ^2 ('r' value)**
Low	3 (3.75)	58 (72.50)	19 (23.75)	80 (100.00)	30.00 ±4.11	1.58	5.58 (-0.04)
Medium	1 (1.12)	55 (61.80)	33 (37.08)	89 (100.00)	31.12 ±3.95		
High	2 (2.30)	52 (59.77)	33 (37.93)	87 (100.00)	30.83 ±4.59		
Total	6 (2.34)	165 (64.45)	85 (33.21)	256 (100.00)	S.Em=0.26		
	Levels of agreeableness						
Low	0	24 (30.00)	56 (70.00)	80 (100.00)	35.34 ±4.81	1.85	3.81 (0.13*)
Medium	0	24 (26.97)	65 (73.03)	89 (100.00)	35.43 ±5.04		
High	1 (1.15)	18 (20.69)	68 (78.16)	87 (100.00)	36.68 ±5.48		
Total	1 (0.39)	66 (25.78)	189 (73.82)	256 (100.00)	S.Em=0.32		
	Levels of conscientiousness						
Low	2 (2.50)	21 (26.25)	57 (71.25)	80 (100.00)	34.73 ±5.16	1.91	3.99 (0.10)
Medium	2 (2.25)	19 (21.35)	68 (76.40)	89 (100.00)	35.60 ±5.44		
High	4 (4.60)	13 (14.94)	70 (80.46)	87 (100.00)	36.39 ±5.67		
Total	8 (3.13)	53 (20.70)	195 (76.17)	256 (100.00)	S.Em=0.34		
	Levels of emotional stability						
Low	1 (1.25)	50 (62.50)	29 (36.25)	80 (100.00)	30.45 ±4.88	2.74*	5.11 (0.16*)
Medium	2 (2.25)	54 (60.67)	33 (37.08)	89 (100.00)	30.89 ±5.26		
High	2 (2.30)	41 (47.13)	44 (50.57)	87 (100.00)	32.29 ±5.80		
Total	5 (1.95)	145 (56.64)	106 (41.41)	256 (100.00)	S.Em=0.33 CD=0.91		
	Levels of openness to experience						
Low	3 (3.75)	39 (48.75)	38 (47.50)	80 (100.00)	63.49 ±8.64	1.19	2.61 (0.13*)
Medium	2 (2.25)	36 (40.45)	51 (57.30)	89 (100.00)	64.60 ±8.15		
High	2 (2.30)	34 (39.08)	51 (58.62)	87 (100.00)	65.46 ±8.00		
Total	7 (2.73)	109 (42.58)	140 (54.69)	256 (100.00)	S.Em=0.52		

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages
*p≤0.05 level of significance

Chi square revealed non-significant association between protectiveness and conscientiousness. The F-test showed non-significant difference but the comparison of mean scores showed that the mean score of adolescents whose home environment was with high protectiveness (36.39) was slightly higher than those with average (35.60) and low (34.73) protectiveness.

With respect to emotional stability, maximum adolescents whose home environment was with low protectiveness (62.50%) were found in average, followed by high and low categories (36.25 and 1.25% respectively). Same pattern was observed among adolescents whose home environment was with medium protectiveness (60.67, 37.08 and 2.25% respectively). Further among those with high protectiveness, majority (50.57%) were high in emotional stability, followed by average (47.13%) and low categories (2.30%). Chi square analysis revealed non-significant association between protectiveness and emotional stability of the adolescents. However, correlation coefficient revealed significant positive relationship between protectiveness and emotional stability at five per cent level of significance. The F-value showed significant difference at five percent level and comparison revealed that the mean score of adolescents with high protectiveness (32.29) was higher than those with average and low protectiveness (30.89 and 30.45 respectively).

Regarding openness to experience, almost equal number of adolescents whose home environment was with low protectiveness fell in average (48.75%) and high categories (47.50%). Further with adolescents belonging to home environment with medium protectiveness, majority (57.30%) were found in high, followed by average and low categories (40.45 and 2.25% respectively). Same trend was seen with adolescents experiencing high protectiveness (58.62, 39.08 and 2.30% respectively). Chi square analysis revealed non-significant association. However correlation coefficient showed positive significant relationship between protectiveness and openness to experience at five per cent level. There was no significant difference as shown by the F-test. A glance at the mean scores showed that the mean score of adolescents with high protectiveness (65.46) was higher than medium (64.60) and low (63.49).

4.5.3 Influence of punishment on personality traits:

Table 18 reflects the influence of punishment on personality traits of adolescents. Adolescents who experienced low punishment were found in average category of extroversion (65.57%), followed by high and low categories (32.09 and 2.24% respectively). Same trend was observed among those with medium punishment (63.51, 33.79 and 2.70% respectively) and high punishment (62.50, 35.42 and 2.08% respectively). No significant association was found. The correlation coefficient revealed negative relationship between punishment and extroversion. There was no significant difference and the mean scores of those with low, high and medium punishment were almost similar (30.73, 30.65 and 30.58 respectively).

Majority of the adolescents from home environment with low punishment (73.88%) were seen in high category of agreeableness followed by average category (26.12%) and none fell in low category. Similar trend was seen among those who experienced high punishment (75.00 and 25.00% respectively). Further among the adolescents whose home environment was with medium punishment, more number of them (72.97%) was in high, followed by average and low categories (25.68 and 1.35% respectively). There was no significant association or relationship between punishment and agreeableness as revealed by chi square analysis and correlation results respectively. One way ANOVA revealed no significant difference. However, comparison of mean score showed that adolescents whose home environment was with medium punishment scored higher (36.43) than those with high and low punishment (36.27, 35.24 respectively).

Adolescents whose home environment was with low punishment were high in conscientiousness (73.89%) followed by average and low categories (23.13 and 2.98% respectively). Same pattern was seen among adolescents with medium punishment (78.37, 16.22 and 5.41% respectively). Further among those whose home environment was with high punishment, more number of them (79.17%) was in high, followed by average (20.83%) and none fell in low category. There was no significant association or relationship between punishment and conscientiousness of adolescents as revealed by chi square analysis and correlation results. No significant difference was found through the ANOVA test but the comparison of mean scores showed that adolescents whose home environment was with high punishment scored slightly higher than those with medium and low punishment (36.17, 35.89 and 35.23 respectively).

With respect to emotional stability, majority of the adolescents who experienced home environment with low punishment were seen in average (52.24%), followed by high and low categories (45.52 and 2.24% respectively).

Table 18. Association between punishment dimension of home environment and personality traits

N=256

Levels of punishment	Levels of extroversion						
	Low	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	**Mean ±SD**	**F-value**	**χ^2 ('r' value)**
Low	3 (2.24)	88 (65.67)	43 (32.09)	134 (100.00)	30.73 ±4.07	0.03	0.26 (-0.03)
Medium	2 (2.70)	47 (63.51)	25 (33.79)	74 (100.00)	30.58 ±4.92		
High	1 (2.08)	30 (62.50)	17 (35.42)	48 (100.00)	30.65 ±3.61		
Total	6 (2.34)	165 (64.45)	85 (33.21)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.26		
	Levels of agreeableness						
Low	0	35 (26.12)	99 (73.88)	134 (100.00)	35.34 ±5.01	1.29	2.49 (0.08)
Medium	1 (1.35)	19 (25.68)	54 (72.97)	74 (100.00)	36.43 ±5.61		
High	0	12 (25.00)	36 (75.00)	48 (100.00)	36.27 ±4.60		
Total	1 (0.39)	66 (25.78)	189 (73.83)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.32		
	Levels of conscientiousness						
Low	4 (2.98)	31 (23.13)	99 (73.89)	134 (100.00)	35.23 ±5.53	0.65	4.04 (0.05)
Medium	4 (5.41)	12 (16.22)	58 (78.37)	74 (100.00)	35.89 ±6.15		
High	0	10 (20.83)	38 (79.17)	48 (100.00)	36.17 ±4.12		
Total	8 (3.13)	53 (20.70)	195 (76.17)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.34		
	Levels of emotional stability						
Low	3 (2.24)	70 (52.24)	61 (45.52)	134 (100.00)	31.16 ±5.22	1.77	5.07 (-0.05)
Medium	0	45 (60.81)	29 (39.19)	74 (100.00)	32.02 ±5.10		
High	2 (4.17)	30 (62.50)	16 (33.33)	48 (100.00)	30.17 ±6.09		
Total	5 (1.95)	145 (56.64)	106 (41.41)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.33		
	Levels of openness to experience						
Low	4 (2.99)	64 (47.76)	66 (49.25)	134 (100.00)	63.71 ±8.83	1.75	7.33 (-0.02)
Medium	1 (1.35)	23 (31.08)	50 (67.57)	74 (100.00)	65.93 ±6.85		
High	2 (4.17)	22 (45.83)	24 (50.00)	48 (100.00)	64.73 ±8.47		
Total	7 (2.73)	109 (42.58)	140 (54.69)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.52		

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

Similar observation was found among those with high punishment (62.50, 33.33 and 4.17% respectively). Further among those whose home environment was with medium punishment, majority (60.81%) were in average, followed by high (39.19%) and none fell in low category. There was no significant association or relationship between punishment and emotional stability as revealed by chi square analysis and correlation results respectively. The ANOVA test revealed no significant difference. The mean score of adolescents with medium punishment was slightly higher than those with low and high punishment (32.02, 31.16 and 30.17 respectively).

Half of the adolescent who experienced low punishment in their home environment (49.25%) were seen in high category of openness to experience, followed by average and low categories (47.76 and 2.99%). Similar pattern was seen among those who experienced medium (67.57, 31.08 and 1.35% respectively) as well as high punishment (50.00, 45.83 and 4.17% respectively). There was no signification association or relationship between punishment and openness to experience as revealed by chi square test and correlation respectively. The F-test showed no significant difference. However the comparison of mean scores showed that adolescents whose home environment was with average punishment scored higher (65.93) compared to those with high and low punishment (64.73 and 63.71 respectively).

4.5.4 Influence of conformity on personality traits:

Table 19 highlights the influence of conformity on personality traits of adolescents. It was found that majority of the adolescents (66.18%) whose home environment was with low conformity were found to be average in extroversion, followed by high and low categories (30.14 and 3.68% respectively). Similar pattern was observed among those with high conformity (58.21, 40.30 and 1.49% respectively). Further in case of adolescents whose home environment was with medium conformity, majority (67.92%) were in average, followed by high category (32.08%) and none fell in low category. There was no significant association or relationship between conformity and extroversion as revealed by chi square test and correlation. Significant difference was found at five percent level. Comparison of mean scores showed that the mean scores of adolescents with high conformity (31.64) were slightly higher than those with medium and low conformity (30.37 and 30.30 respectively).

Higher proportion of the adolescents whose home environment was with low conformity (67.65%) was found in high category of agreeableness, followed by average (32.35%) and no one was in low category. Same trend was seen among the adolescents whose home environment was with medium conformity (75.47 and 24.53% respectively). Further among those with high conformity, maximum (85.08%) were in high followed by average and low categories (13.43 and 0.39% respectively). Chi square analysis revealed significant association between conformity and agreeableness at five per cent but correlation coefficient revealed non-significant relationship. Further the F-value showed significant difference at five per cent and the mean score of adolescents with high conformity was higher (37.32) on agreeableness as compared to those of medium and low conformity (35.62, 35.17 respectively).

Majority of the adolescents whose home environment was with low, medium and high conformity (69.85, 75.47 and 89.55% respectively) were high in conscientiousness, followed by average (26.47, 22.64 and 7.46% respectively) and low categories (3.68, 1.89 and 2.99% respectively). Chi square revealed significant association between conformity and conscientiousness at five percent level. Correlation coefficient also showed significantly high relationship at one percent. Further, significant difference was observed at five per cent through the ANOVA test. On comparison it was found that adolescents whose home environment was with high conformity scored higher (36.82) as compared with those of medium and low conformity (36.38 and 34.70 respectively).

With respect to emotional stability, maximum adolescent (63.24%) whose home environment was with low conformity were in average, followed by high and low categories (35.29 and 1.47% respectively). Among the adolescents whose home environment was with medium conformity, almost equal number was found in average (52.83%) and high category (47.17%) and none was in low category. On the other hand, almost half of the adolescents (49.25) whose home environment was with high conformity were found to be high in emotional stability, followed by average and low category (46.27 and 4.48% respectively). Chi square revealed non-significant association and correlation coefficient showed positive relationship between conformity and emotional stability, though not significant. Further, no significant difference was found as shown by F-test. The mean score of adolescents whose home environment was with medium conformity was found to be higher (31.85) than those with high and low conformity (31.82 and 30.69 respectively).

Table 19. Association between conformity dimension of home environment and personality traits

N=256

Levels of conformity	Levels of extroversion						
	Low	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	**Mean ±SD**	**F-value**	**χ^2 ('r' value)**
Low	5 (3.68)	90 (66.18)	41 (30.14)	136 (100.00)	30.30 ±4.42	2.41*	4.47 (0.08)
Medium	-	36 (67.92)	17 (32.08)	53 (100.00)	30.37 ±3.67		
High	1 (1.49)	39 (58.21)	27 (40.30)	67 (100.00)	31.64 ±4.19		
Total	6 (2.34)	165 (64.45)	85 (33.21)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.26 CD=0.72		
	Levels of agreeableness						
Low	0	44 (32.35)	92 (67.65)	136 (100.00)	35.17 ±5.21	4.08*	10.97* (0.10)
Medium	0	13 (24.53)	40 (75.47)	53 (100.00)	35.62 ±4.96		
High	1 (1.49)	9 (13.43)	57 (85.08)	67 (100.00)	37.32 ±4.91		
Total	1 (0.39)	66 (25.78)	189 (73.83)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.32 CD=0.89		
	Levels of conscientiousness						
Low	5 (3.68)	36 (26.47)	95 (69.85)	136 (100.00)	34.70 ±5.79	4.13*	10.64* (0.18**)
Medium	1 (1.89)	12 (22.64)	40 (75.47)	53 (100.00)	36.38 ±5.06		
High	2 (2.99)	5 (7.46)	60 (89.55)	67 (100.00)	36.82 ±4.89		
Total	8 (3.13)	53 (20.70)	195 (76.17)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.34 CD=0.94		
	Levels of emotional stability						
Low	2 (1.47)	86 (63.24)	48 (35.29)	136 (100.00)	30.69 ±5.20	1.44	8.49 (0.19)
Medium	0	2 8(52.83)	25 (47.17)	53 (100.00)	31.85 ±5.04		
High	3 (4.48)	31 (46.27)	33 (49.25)	67 (100.00)	31.82 ±5.92		
Total	5 (1.95)	145 (56.64)	106 (41.41)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.33		
	Levels of openness to experience						
Low	2 (1.47)	67 (49.26)	67 (49.27)	136 (100.00)	64.33 ±7.79	0.80	9.36* (0.04)
Medium	1 (1.89)	22 (41.51)	30 (56.60)	53 (100.00)	63.77 ±8.93		
High	4 (5.97)	20 (29.85)	43 (64.18)	67 (100.00)	65.58 ±8.68		
Total	7 (2.73)	109 (42.58)	140 (54.69)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.52		

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

*p≤0.05 level of significance

**p≤0.01 level of significance

Almost equal number of adolescents whose home environment was with low conformity was in high (49.27%) and average category (49.26%) of openness to experience and a small number of them (1.47%) were in low category. Further among those whose home environment was with medium conformity, majority (56.60%) were in high, followed by average and low categories (41.51 and 1.89%). Same trend was seen among adolescents whose home environment was with high conformity (64.18, 29.85 and 5.97% respectively). Chi square analysis revealed significant association between conformity and openness to experience at five percent level. Also positive correlation was found though not significant. No significant difference was found. Comparison of mean scores revealed that adolescents whose home environment was with high conformity (65.58) scored higher than those with low conformity (64.33) and medium conformity (63.77).

4.5.5 Influence of social isolation on personality traits:

A close examination of Table 20 shows the influence of social isolation on personality traits. Majority of adolescents (68.89%) whose home environment was with low social isolation was found in average, followed by high and low categories of extroversion (26.67 and 4.44% respectively). Same trend was seen among adolescents whose home environment was with medium extroversion (52.63, 44.74 and 2.63% respectively). Further in case of those with high social isolation, majority (70.00%) fell in average, followed by high category (30.00%) and none fell in low category. No significant association was found through chi square analysis however, negative correlation was found between social isolation and extroversion. The result of ANOVA revealed that adolescents experiencing different level of social isolation differed significantly in their level of extroversion. The mean score of adolescents whose home environment was with medium social isolation was slightly higher on extroversion than those with low and high social isolation (31.58, 30.33 and 30.24 respectively).

Looking into agreeableness, it was found that adolescents whose home environment was with low social isolation were in high (78.89%) followed by average (21.11%) and none fell in low category. Similar trend was observed among adolescents whose home environment was with medium social isolation (75.00, 25.00% respectively). Among those with high social isolation, majority (67.78%) were in high, followed by average (31.11%) and low categories (1.11%). Chi square analysis revealed non-significant association between social isolation and agreeableness. Further correlation coefficient showed negative relationship at one per cent level. The ANOVA result showed significant difference among adolescents with different level of social isolation at five per cent. The mean score of those with low social isolation was slightly higher on agreeableness (36.62) than those with average (36.10) and high social isolation (34.81).

With respect to conscientiousness, a high number of adolescents whose home environment was with low social isolation (76.67%) were in high category followed by average and low categories (21.11 and 2.22%respectively). Similar pattern was observed among those with medium (77.63, 19.74 and 2.63% respectively) and high social isolation as well (74.45, 21.11 and 4.44% respectively). Chi square revealed non-significant association. However, significant negative correlation was found between social isolation and conscientiousness at five percent level. Further, no significant difference was found. The mean score of adolescents whose home environment was with low social isolation (36.28) was slightly higher than those with medium and high level (35.95 and 34.63 respectively).

In terms of emotional stability, majority of the adolescents whose home environment was with low social isolation (63.33%) were in average, followed by high and low categories (35.56 and 1.11% respectively). Same trend was seen among adolescents whose home environment was with medium (51.32, 47.36 and 1.32% respectively) and high social isolation (54.44, 42.23 and 3.33% respectively). Chi square analysis revealed non-significant association. However negative correlation was found though not significant. No significant difference was found. And comparison of mean scores showed that adolescents whose home environment was with medium social isolation scored slightly higher (32.01) as compared to those with low and high social isolation (30.96 and 30.83 respectively).

Regarding openness to experience, more number of adolescents whose home environment was with low social isolation was in high (62.22%), followed by average and low categories (35.56 and 2.22% respectively). Similar pattern was observed among adolescents whose home environment was with medium social isolation (57.89, 38.16 and 3.95% respectively). Further in case of adolescents with high social isolation maximum (53.33%) fell in average category followed by high and low categories (44.45 and 2.22% respectively). Chi square analysis revealed non-significant association and there exist negative correlation between social isolation and openness to experience.

Table 20. Association between social isolation dimension of home environment and personality traits

N=256

Levels of social isolation	Levels of extroversion						
	Low	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	**Mean ±SD**	**F-value**	**χ^2 ('r' value)**
Low	4 (4.44)	62 (68.89)	24 (26.67)	90 (100.00)	30.33 ±4.31	2.52*	10.64 (-0.05)
Medium	2 (2.63)	40 (52.63)	34 (44.74)	76 (100.00)	31.58 ±3.97		
High	0	63 (70.00)	27 (30.00)	90 (100.00)	30.24 ±4.31		
Total	6 (2.34)	165 (64.45)	85 (33.21)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.26 CD=0.72		
	Levels of agreeableness						
Low	0	19 (21.11)	71 (78.89)	90 (100.00)	36.62 ±4.91	2.99*	4.39 (-0.18**)
Medium	0	19 (25.00)	57 (75.00)	76 (100.00)	36.10 ±4.87		
High	1 (1.11)	28 (31.11)	61 (67.78)	90 (100.00)	34.81 ±5.46		
Total	1 (0.39)	66 (25.78)	189 (73.83)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.32 CD=0.89		
	Levels of conscientiousness						
Low	2 (2.22)	19 (21.11)	69 (76.67)	90 (100.00)	36.28 ±5.78	2.26	0.90 (-0.13*)
Medium	2 (2.63)	15 (19.74)	59 (77.63)	76 (100.00)	35.95 ±5.25		
High	4 (4.44)	19 (21.11)	67 (74.45)	90 (100.00)	34.63 ±5.89		
Total	8 (3.13)	53 (20.70)	195 (76.17)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.34		
	Levels of emotional stability						
Low	1 (1.11)	57 (63.33)	32 (35.56)	90 (100.00)	30.96 ±5.10	1.17	3.94 (-0.06)
Medium	1 (1.32)	39 (51.32)	36 (47.36)	76 (100.00)	32.01 ±5.71		
High	3 (3.33)	49 (54.44)	38 (42.23)	90 (100.00)	30.83 ±5.34		
Total	5 (1.95)	145 (56.64)	106 (41.41)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.34		
	Levels of openness to experience						
Low	2 (2.22)	32 (35.56)	56 (62.22)	90 (100.00)	65.78 ±7.49	1.84	7.22 (-0.14)
Medium	3 (3.95)	29 (38.16)	44 (57.89)	76 (100.00)	64.39 ±8.45		
High	2 (2.22)	48 (53.33)	40 (44.45)	90 (100.00)	63.43 ±8.75		
Total	7 (2.73)	109 (42.58)	140 (54.69)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.52		

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

*p≤0.05 level of significance,

**p≤0.01 level of significance

No significant difference was found and the comparison of mean score showed that adolescents in low level scored higher (65.78) than those with average and high social isolation (64.39 and 63.43 respectively).

4.5.6 Influence of reward on personality traits:

An appraisal of Table 21 shows the influence of reward on personality traits. Major proportion of the adolescents (63.53%) whose home environment was low in reward were found in average category of extroversion, followed by high and low categories (31.76, 4.71% respectively). Same trend was seen among adolescents whose home environment was high in reward (59.78, 38.05 and 2.17% respectively). Among adolescents with medium in reward, majority (70.89%) were found in average, followed by high category (29.11%). Chi square analysis revealed non-significant association between reward and extroversion of the adolescents. No significant difference was observed. Comparison of mean scores showed that adolescents whose home environment was with high reward scored higher (31.01) than those with medium and low reward (30.76 and 30.22 respectively).

Maximum number of adolescents (65.88%) whose home environment was low in reward was found to be high in agreeableness followed by average (34.12%) and none fell in low category. Same trend was seen among adolescents whose home environment was with medium reward (73.42, 26.58% respectively). Further among adolescents with high reward, majority (81.52%) were in high, followed by average and low categories (17.39 and 1.09% respectively). Chi square analysis showed non-significant association. The result of ANOVA showed significant difference between adolescents with different levels of reward and agreeableness at five per cent. The mean score of those with high reward was slightly higher than that of medium and low reward (36.77, 35.53 and 35.09 respectively).

In terms of conscientiousness, higher proportion of the adolescents (64.70%) whose home environment was low in reward were found in high category of conscientiousness, followed by average and low categories (34.12 and 1.18% respectively). Similar trend was seen among adolescents with medium (73.42, 22.78 and 3.80% respectively) and high reward categories (89.13, 6.52 and 4.35% respectively). Chi square analysis revealed highly significant association between reward and conscientiousness and correlation coefficient revealed positive significant relationship between reward and conscientiousness at one per cent. Further significant difference was found between the adolescents with different levels of reward and conscientiousness at one percent. The comparison of mean scores shows that adolescents with high reward scored higher (36.93) than those with medium and low reward (35.28 and 34.46 respectively).

Considering emotional stability, it was observed that more number of adolescents (62.35%) whose home environment was low in reward were found in average, followed by high and low categories (36.47 and 1.18% respectively). Same pattern was observed among adolescents with medium reward (62.03, 36.71and 1.26% respectively). Further among adolescents whose home environment was with high reward, half of the adolescents (50.00%) fell in high, followed by average and low categories (46.74 and 3.26% respectively). Chi square showed non-significant association between reward and emotional stability and there was no significant relationship as well. There was no significant difference. The mean score of adolescents with high reward was slightly higher (31.88) than those with average and low reward (31.07 and 30.65 respectively).

In openness to experience, adolescents whose home environment was with low reward (54.12%) was in average, followed by high and low categories (43.53 and 2.35% respectively). Further among adolescents with medium reward, higher number of them (58.23%) was in high category of openness to experience followed by average and low categories (39.24 and 2.53% respectively). In similar way, majority of them who had experienced high reward (61.96%) were in high, followed by average and low categories (34.78 and 3.26% respectively). There was no significant association or relationship between reward and openness to experience as revealed by chi square analysis and correlation respectively. The ANOVA test revealed non-significant difference. The comparison of mean scores showed that adolescents whose home environment was with high reward scored higher than those with medium and low reward (65.74, 64.44 and 63.34% respectively).

4.5.7 Influence of deprivation of privileges on personality traits:

A glance at Table 22 reveals the influence of deprivation of privileges on personality traits. It can be seen that more than half of the adolescents from families with low in deprivation of privileges (55.17%) were found in average category of extroversion.

Table 21. Association between reward dimension of home environment and personality traits

N=256

Levels of reward	Levels of extroversion						
	Low	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	**Mean ±SD**	**F-value**	**χ^2 ('r' value)**
Low	4 (4.71)	54 (63.53)	27 (31.76)	85 (100.00)	30.22 ±4.92	0.79	5.82 (0.03)
Medium	0	56 (70.89)	23 (29.11)	79 (100.00)	30.76 ±3.18		
High	2 (2.17)	55 (59.78)	35 (38.05)	92 (100.00)	31.01 ±4.35		
Total	6 (2.34)	165 (64.45)	85 (33.21)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.26		
	Levels of agreeableness						
Low	0	29 (34.12)	56 (65.88)	85 (100.00)	35.09 ±5.05	2.58*	8.07 (0.11)
Medium	0	21 (26.58)	58 (73.42)	79 (100.00)	35.53 ±5.01		
High	1 (1.09)	16 (17.39)	75 (81.52)	92 (100.00)	36.77 ±5.26		
Total	1 (0.39)	66 (25.78)	189 (73.83)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.32 CD=0.89		
	Levels of conscientiousness						
Low	1 (1.18)	29 (34.12)	55 (64.70)	85 (100.00)	34.46 ±5.20	4.84**	21.65** (0.16**)
Medium	3 (3.80)	18 (22.78)	58 (73.42)	79 (100.00)	35.28 ±5.21		
High	4 (4.35)	6 (6.52)	82 (89.13)	92 (100.00)	36.93 ±5.75		
Total	8 (3.13)	53 (20.70)	195 (76.17)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.34 CD=0.94		
	Levels of emotional stability						
Low	1 (1.18)	53 (62.35)	31 (36.47)	85 (100.00)	30.65 ±5.12	1.18	6.31 (0.09)
Medium	1 (1.26)	49 (62.03)	29 (36.71)	79 (100.00)	31.07 ±5.34		
High	3 (3.26)	43 (46.74)	46 (50.00)	92 (100.00)	31.88 ±5.62		
Total	5 (1.95)	145 (56.64)	106 (41.41)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.34		
	Levels of openness to experience						
Low	2 (2.35)	46 (54.12)	37 (43.53)	85 (100.00)	63.34 ±8.44	1.88	7.33 (0.11)
Medium	2 (2.53)	31 (39.24)	46 (58.23)	79 (100.00)	64.44 ±8.31		
High	3 (3.26)	32 (34.78)	57 (61.96)	92 (100.00)	65.74 ±7.98		
Total	7 (2.73)	109 (42.58)	140 (54.69)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.52		

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

*p≤0.05 level of significance

**p≤0.01 level of significance

Table 22. Association between deprivation of privileges dimension of home environment and personality traits

N=256

Levels of deprivation of privileges	Levels of extroversion						
	Low	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	**Mean ±SD**	**F-value**	**χ^2 ('r' value)**
Low	2 (2.30)	48 (55.17)	37 (42.53)	87 (100.00)	31.66 ±4.25	4.21*	5.33 (-0.20*)
Medium	1 (2.38)	30 (71.43)	11 (26.19)	42 (100.00)	30.76 ±3.75		
High	3 (2.36)	87 (68.50)	37 (29.14)	127 (100.00)	29.96 ±4.27		
Total	6 (2.34)	165 (64.45)	85 (33.21)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.26 CD=0.72		
	Levels of agreeableness						
Low	0	15 (17.24)	72 (82.76)	87 (100.00)	37.47 ±4.75	10.57**	9.89* (-0.28)
Medium	0	8 (19.05)	34 (80.95)	42 (100.00)	36.71 ±4.84		
High	1 (0.79)	43 (33.86)	83 (65.35)	127 (100.00)	34.41 ±5.13		
Total	1 (0.39)	66 (25.78)	189 (73.83)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.32 CD=0.89		
	Levels of conscientiousness						
Low	1 (1.15)	10 (11.49)	76 (87.36)	87 (100.00)	37.55 ±4.49	10.88**	14.35** (-0.26)
Medium	1 (2.38)	6 (14.29)	35 (83.33)	42 (100.00)	35.98 ±4.75		
High	6 (4.72)	37 (29.13)	84 (66.15)	127 (100.00)	34.14 ±5.91		
Total	8 (3.13)	53 (20.70)	195 (76.17)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.34 CD=0.94		
	Levels of emotional stability						
Low	2 (2.30)	45 (51.72)	40 (45.98)	87 (100.00)	31.54 ±5.41	1.67	2.92 (-0.05)
Medium	0	23 (54.76)	19 (45.24)	42 (100.00)	32.28 ±5.49		
High	3 (2.36)	77 (60.63)	47 (37.01)	127 (100.00)	30.66 ±5.28		
Total	5 (1.95)	145 (56.64)	106 (41.41)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.34		
	Levels of openness to experience						
Low	2 (2.30)	24 (27.59)	61 (70.11)	87 (100.00)	66.67 ±7.45	7.25**	17.99** (-0.21**)
Medium	1 (2.38)	15 (35.71)	26 (61.90)	42 (100.00)	65.95 ±5.68		
High	4 (3.15)	70 (55.12)	53 (41.73)	127 (100.00)	62.62 ±9.07		
Total	7 (2.73)	109 (42.58)	14 (54.69)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.52 CD=1.94		

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

*p≤0.05 level of significance

**p≤0.01 level of significance

Followed by high and low categories (42.53 and 2.30%). Same trend was observed among adolescents whose home environment was with medium deprivation of privileges (71.43, 26.19 and 2.38% respectively) and high category (68.50, 29.14 and 2.36% respectively). Chi square showed non-significant association. However correlation coefficient showed significant negative relationship between deprivation of privileges and extroversion. The F-value showed that there was significant difference in extroversion among adolescents with different levels of deprivation of privileges at five per cent. On comparison of the mean scores it was evident that those with low deprivation of privileges scored higher (31.66) on extroversion than those with medium and high level (30.76 and 29.96 respectively).

Majority of adolescent whose home environment was low in deprivation of privileges (82.76%) were seen in high category of agreeableness, followed by average (17.24%) and none were low in agreeableness. Same trend was seen among adolescents with medium in deprivation of privileges (80.95 and 19.05% respectively). Further among adolescents with high deprivation of privileges, maximum (65.35%) were found in high, followed by average and low categories (33.86, 0.79% respectively). Chi square analysis showed significant association between deprivation of privileges and agreeableness. Also correlation coefficient revealed negative correlation though not significant. Further the result of ANOVA showed that adolescents with different level of deprivation of privileges differed significantly at one per cent. The mean score of those with low deprivation of privileges were higher (37.47) as compared to those with average and low deprivation of privileges (36.71and 34.41 respectively).

Looking into conscientiousness, it was seen that majority of adolescents whose home environment was with low deprivation of privileges (87.36%) fell in high, followed by average and low categories (11.49 and 1.15% respectively). Same pattern was observed among adolescents with medium (83.33, 14.29 and 2.38% respectively) and high deprivation of privileges (66.15, 29.13 and 4.72% respectively). Chi square analysis showed that deprivation of privileges and conscientiousness was significantly associated at one per cent. Though non-significant, correlation coefficient revealed negative relationship. The ANOVA result showed significant difference at one per cent among those with different levels of deprivation of privileges. The mean score of those with low deprivation of privileges was higher (37.55) than those with medium and high deprivation of privileges (35.98 and 34.14 respectively).

With regard to openness to experience, half of the adolescents whose home environment was with low deprivation of privileges (51.72%) were in average, followed by high and low categories (45.98 and 2.30% respectively). Same trend was seen among adolescents with high deprivation of privileges (60.63, 37.01 and 2.36% respectively). Further among adolescents with medium deprivation of privileges, majority (54.76%) were average in openness to experience, followed by high (45.24%) and none fell in low category. Chi square revealed non-significant association. No significant difference was found as revealed by F-test. Comparison of mean scores showed that adolescents with medium deprivation of privileges scored higher (32.28) than those with low (31.54) and high deprivation of privileges (30.66).

4.5.8 Influence of nurturance on personality traits:

Table 23 depicts the influence of nurturance on personality traits of adolescents. Considering extroversion, most of the adolescents (62.24%) whose home environment was with low nurturance were in average category followed by high and low categories (33.68 and 4.08% respectively). Similar trend was seen in adolescents with medium (65.38 and 34.62% respectively) and high nurturance (66.04, 32.07 and 1.89% respectively). Chi square analysis revealed non-significant association between nurturance and extroversion of the adolescents. There was no significant difference however, the mean scores of the adolescents in low, medium and high nurturance were almost similar (30.42, 30.69 and 30.89 respectively).

In terms of agreeableness, maximum number of the adolescents (72.45%) whose home environment with low in nurturance were seen in high category and remaining (27.55%) were in average category. None was in low category. Same pattern was observed among adolescents with medium nurturance (75.00 and 25.00% respectively). Further in case of those with high nurturance, maximum (74.53%) belonged to high category followed by average (24.53%) and very few i.e., 0.94% belonged to low category. There was non-significant association between nurturance and agreeableness. No significant difference was found and the mean score of adolescents whose home environment was with medium nurturance (36.03) was slightly higher than those with high and low nurturance (36.00, 35.54 respectively).

Table 23. Association between nurturance dimension of home environment and personality traits

N=256

Levels of nurturance	Levels of extroversion						
	Low	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	**Mean ±SD**	**F-value**	**χ^2 ('r' value)**
Low	4 (4.08)	61 (62.24)	33 (33.68)	98 (100.00)	30.42 ±4.67	0.32	2.78 (0.04)
Medium	0	34 (65.38)	18 (34.62)	52 (100.00)	30.69 ±3.38		
High	2 (1.89)	70 (66.04)	34 (32.07)	106 (100.00)	30.89 ±4.22		
Total	6 (2.34)	165 (64.45)	85 (33.21)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.26		
	Levels of agreeableness						
Low	0	27 (27.55)	71 (72.45)	98 (100.00)	35.54 ±4.49	0.25	1.65 (0.03)
Medium	0	13 (25.00)	39 (75.00)	52 (100.00)	36.03 ±5.48		
High	1 (0.94)	26 (24.53)	79 (74.53)	106 (100.00)	36.00 ±5.56		
Total	1 (0.39)	66 (25.78)	189 (73.83)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.32		
	Levels of conscientiousness						
Low	1 (1.02)	28 (28.57)	69 (70.41)	98 (100.00)	35.12 ±4.88	0.61	13.63** (0.06)
Medium	0	11 (21.15)	41 (78.85)	52 (100.00)	35.98 ±4.26		
High	7 (6.60)	14 (13.21)	85 (80.89)	106 (100.00)	35.85 ±6.47		
Total	8 (3.13)	53 (20.70)	195 (76.17)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.34		
	Levels of emotional stability						
Low	2 (2.04)	65 (66.33)	31 (31.63)	98 (100.00)	30.12 ±5.22	3.44*	6.31 (0.16**)
Medium	1 (1.92)	26 (50.00)	25 (48.08)	52 (100.00)	32.05 ±5.32		
High	2 (1.89)	54 (50.94)	50 (47.17)	106 (100.00)	31.84 ±5.43		
Total	5 (1.95)	145 (56.64)	106 (41.41)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.33 CD=0.91		
	Levels of openness to experience						
Low	3 (3.06)	50 (51.02)	45 (45.92)	98 (100.00)	63.14 ±8.77	2.39*	5.31 (0.12*)
Medium	1 (1.92)	21 (40.38)	30 (57.70)	52 (100.00)	65.02 ±7.57		
High	3 (2.83)	38 (35.85)	65 (61.32)	106 (100.00)	65.60 ±7.99		
Total	7 (2.73)	109 (42.58)	140 (54.69)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.52 CD=1.44		

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

*p≤0.05 level of significance

**p≤0.01 level of significance

Table 24. Association between rejection dimension of home environment and personality traits

N=256

Levels of rejection	Levels of extroversion						
	Low	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	**Mean ±SD**	**F-value**	**χ^2 ('r' value)**
Low	2 (2.22)	48 (53.33)	40 (44.45)	90 (100.00)	31.88 ±4.20	5.89*	9.02 (-0.21*)
Medium	1 (2.13)	36 (76.60)	10 (21.27)	47 (100.00)	29.85 ±3.56		
High	3 (2.52)	81 (68.07)	35 (29.41)	119 (100.00)	30.08 ±4.34		
Total	6 (2.34)	165 (64.45)	85 (33.21)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.26 CD=0.72		
	Levels of agreeableness						
Low	0	8 (8.89)	82 (91.11)	90 (100.00)	38.17 ±4.00	17.91**	24.03** (-0.34*)
Medium	0	13 (27.66)	34 (72.34)	47 (100.00)	35.61 ±5.41		
High	1 (0.84)	45 (37.82)	73 (61.34)	119 (100.00)	34.14 ±5.16		
Total	1 (0.39)	66 (25.78)	189 (73.83)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.32 CD=0.88		
	Levels of conscientiousness						
Low	1 (1.11)	6 (6.67)	83 (92.22)	90 (100.00)	37.97 ±4.06	17.28**	23.66** (-0.29**)
Medium	0	13 (27.66)	34 (72.34)	47 (100.00)	35.81 ±4.36		
High	7 (5.88)	34 (28.57)	78 (65.55)	119 (100.00)	33.73 ±6.11		
Total	8 (3.13)	53 (20.70)	195 (76.17)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.34 CD=0.94		
	Levels of emotional stability						
Low	2 (2.22)	38 (42.22)	50 (55.56)	90 (100.00)	32.66 ±5.61	5.85	13.38** (-0.19)
Medium	0	29 (61.70)	18 (38.30)	47 (100.00)	31.25 ±5.29		
High	3 (2.52)	78 (65.55)	38 (31.93)	119 (100.00)	30.13 ±5.00		
Total	5 (1.95)	145 (56.64)	106 (41.41)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.33		
	Levels of openness to experience						
Low	2 (2.22)	22 (24.44)	66 (73.34)	90 (100.00)	67.47 ±6.67	9.90**	19.88** (-0.23**)
Medium	1 (2.13)	25 (53.19)	21 (44.68)	47 (100.00)	64.04 ±6.99		
High	4 (3.36)	62 (52.10)	53 (44.54)	119 (100.00)	62.53 ±9.13		
Total	7 (2.73)	109 (42.58)	140 (54.69)	256 (100.00)	S.Em =0.52 CD=1.44		

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

*p≤0.05 level of significance

**p≤0.01 level of significance

Higher proportion of adolescents (70.41%) whose home environment was low in nurturance were found in high, followed by average and low (28.57 and 1.02% respectively) categories. Similar trend was observed among those whose home environment was medium (78.85 and 21.15% respectively) and high in nurturance (80.89, 1.21 and 6.60% respectively). Chi square analysis showed highly significant association between nurturance and conscientiousness at one per cent level. However, there was no significant difference. The mean scores of adolescents with low, medium and high nurturance (35.12, 35.98 and 35.85 respectively) were almost similar.

With respect to emotional stability, majority (66.33%) were in average level, 31.63 percent in high and 2.04 percent in low category among adolescents whose home environment was low in nurturance. Same pattern was seen among adolescents who belonged to families with medium (50.00, 48.08 and 1.92% respectively) and high in nurturance (50.94, 47.17 and 1.89% respectively). Correlation coefficient revealed significantly high relationship between nurturance and emotional stability at one per cent level of significance. The ANOVA result showed that adolescents with different levels of nurturance differed significantly in emotional stability at five per cent. On comparison, the mean score of those with medium nurturance was slightly higher than those with high and low nurturance (32.05, 31.84 and 30.12 respectively).

Almost half of the adolescents (51.02%) whose home environment was low in nurturance were found average in openness to experience, 45.92 per cent in high and remaining 3.06 per cent in low category. In case of adolescents whose home environment was with medium nurturance maximum (57.70%) were in high, followed by average and low category (40.38 and 1.92% respectively). Similar pattern was observed among the adolescents who belonged to families with high nurturance (61.32, 35.85 and 2.83% respectively). Correlation coefficient showed significant relationship between nurturance and openness to experience indicating that higher the nurturance higher is openness to experience. Significant difference was observed at five per cent level. The mean score of those with high nurturance (65.60) was slightly higher than medium and low nurturance (65.02 and 63.14).

4.5.9 Influence of rejection on personality traits:

The influence of rejection on personality traits is clearly observable in Table 24. Higher number of adolescents (53.33%) from home environment with low in rejection were found in average, followed by high and low categories of extroversion (44.45 and 2.22%). Similar trend was seen among adolescents with medium rejection (76.60, 21.27 and 2.13% respectively) and high rejection families (68.07, 29.41 and 2.52% respectively). Correlation coefficient showed significant negative relationship between rejection and extroversion at five per cent which indicates that lower the level of rejection higher is the extroversion and vice-versa. The adolescents with different level of rejection differed significantly in extroversion at five per cent. Comparison of mean scores showed that those with low rejection scored higher (31.88) than those with high and medium rejection (30.08 and 29.85).

With respect to agreeableness, a high number of adolescents (91.11%) from home environment with low in rejection were found in high, remaining (27.55%) were in average and none fell in low category. Same trend was observed among adolescents from home environment with medium in rejection (72.34, 27.66%respectively). In case of the adolescents whose home environment was with high in rejection, maximum (61.34%) were high in agreeableness followed by average and low (37.82, 0.84% respectively). The chi square analysis showed significant association between rejection and agreeableness. Further correlation coefficient exhibit highly significant negative relationship between rejection and agreeableness which indicates that higher the level of rejection, lower is the agreeableness of the adolescents and vice versa. The result of ANOVA showed that there exists significant difference between adolescents with different levels of rejection and agreeableness at one per cent level. Comparison of mean scores indicated that the mean score of adolescent with low rejection scored higher (38.17) than those of medium and high rejection (35.61 and 34.14).

Data on the table indicated that maximum of the adolescents (92.22%) whose home environment was with low rejection were high on conscientiousness, followed by average and low categories (6.67 and 1.11%). Similar pattern was seen among adolescents with high rejection (65.55, 28.57 and 5.88% respectively). In case of those with medium rejection majority (72.34%) were in high category of agreeableness, followed by average (27.66%) and none fell in low category. It was evident from the correlation value that there exists highly significant negative relationship between rejection and conscientiousness (one percent level) indicating that higher the rejection lower is the conscientiousness and vice-versa.

Further chi square analysis showed highly significant association between rejection and conscientiousness (one per cent level). ANOVA-test indicated that adolescents belonging to different levels of rejection differed significantly on conscientiousness at one per cent. The mean score of the adolescents with low rejection (37.97) was higher than those with medium and high rejection (35.81 and 33.73).

Looking into emotional stability, it was seen that more than half of the adolescents whose home environment was low in rejection (55.56%) were found in high, followed by average and low categories (42.22 and 2.22%). But in case of those with high in rejection, maximum (65.55%) were average in emotional stability followed by high and low categories (31.93 and 2.52%). Similarly among adolescents with medium rejection maximum were average in emotional stability, followed by high category (38.30%) and none of them fell in low category. Chi square analysis revealed highly significant association between rejection and emotional stability. Also correlation coefficient showed negative correlation though non-significant. No significant difference was found. However, adolescents with low rejection scored higher (32.66) than those with medium and high rejection (31.25 and 30.13).

In openness to experience, majority of the adolescents whose home environment was low in rejection (73.34%) were seen in high, followed by average and low categories (24.44 and 2.22%). Among adolescents with medium rejection, majority (53.19%) were average in openness to experience, followed by high and low categories (44.68 and 2.13%). Same trend was seen among adolescents with high rejection (52.10, 44.54 and 3.36% respectively). Chi-square analysis showed highly significant association between rejection and openness to experience. There exist significantly high negative relationship between rejection and openness to experience at one percent. Further the ANOVA test revealed significant difference at one per cent level. Comparison of mean scores showed that the mean score of adolescent with low rejection was higher as compared to those with medium and high rejection (67.47, 64.04 and 62.53 respectively).

4.5.10 Influence of permissiveness on personality traits:

Data on Table 25 reveals the influence of permissiveness on personality traits. It is evident that maximum adolescents (64.44%) whose home environment with low in permissiveness were found in average category of extroversion and the remaining (35.56%) were seen in high category and none fell in low category. Among adolescents with medium permissiveness, maximum (50.00%) were in average, followed by high and low categories (43.33 and 6.67%). Same pattern was observed among adolescents from home environment with high in permissiveness (70.20, 28.48 and 1.32% respectively). Chi square analysis showed significant association between permissiveness and extroversion at five per cent level of significance. No significant difference was found. The mean scores of adolescents with low, medium and high permissiveness were almost equal (30.96, 30.97 and 30.47 respectively).

With regard to agreeableness, higher proportion of adolescents whose home environment was with low permissiveness was high in agreeableness, followed by average (75.56 and 24.44%) and none were found in low category. Same pattern was found among those with medium permissiveness (76.67 and 23.33% respectively). Further among those with high permissiveness, maximum (72.19%) were high in agreeableness, followed by average and low categories (27.15 and 0.66%). Non-significant association was found between permissiveness and agreeableness. The correlation coefficient revealed negative non-significant relationship. Statistical analysis revealed non-significant difference. The comparison of mean scores showed that adolescents with medium permissiveness scored slightly higher than those with low and high permissiveness (36.23, 36.13 and 35.58 respectively).

More than three-fourth (75.56%) of the adolescents whose home environment was with low permissiveness was high in conscientiousness and the remaining (24.44%) were in average and none fell in low category. In case of adolescents with medium permissiveness, majority (73.34%) were in high, followed by average and low categories (23.33 and 3.33%). Same pattern was seen among adolescents with high permissiveness (77.49, 18.54 and 3.97% respectively). Chi square showed non-significant association however correlation coefficient showed negative non-significant relationship between permissiveness and conscientiousness. There was no significant difference as revealed by the F-test. Further, comparison of mean scores revealed that adolescents with low, medium and high permissiveness scored almost similar (35.89, 35.35 and 35.62 respectively).

Table 25. Association between permissiveness dimension of home environment and personality traits

N=256

Levels of permissiveness	Levels of extroversion						
	Low	**Average**	**High**	**Total**	**Mean ±SD**	**F-value**	**χ^2 ('r' value)**
Low	0	29 (64.44)	16 (35.56)	45 (100.00)	30.96 ±3.73	0.42	12.18* (0.03)
Medium	4 (6.67)	30 (50.00)	26 (43.33)	60 (100.00)	30.97 ±4.99		
High	2 (1.32)	106 (70.20)	43 (28.48)	151 (100.00)	30.47 ±4.06		
Total	6 (2.34)	165 (64.45)	85 (33.21)	256 (100.00)	S.Em=0.26		
	Levels of agreeableness						
Low	0	11 (24.44)	34 (75.56)	45 (100.00)	36.13 ±4.82	0.44	1.12 (-0.08)
Medium	0	14 (23.33)	46 (76.67)	60 (100.00)	36.23 ±5.41		
High	1 (0.66)	41 (27.15)	109 (72.19)	151 (100.00)	35.58 ±5.15		
Total	1 (0.39)	66 (25.78)	189 (73.83)	256 (100.00)	S.Em=0.32		
	Levels of conscientiousness						
Low	0	11 (24.44)	34 (75.56)	45 (100.00)	35.89 ±4.75	0.13	2.71 (-0.10)
Medium	2 (3.33)	14 (23.33)	44 (73.34)	60 (100.00)	35.35 ±5.32		
High	6 (3.97)	28 (18.54)	117 (77.49)	151 (100.00)	35.62 ±5.78		
Total	8 (3.13)	53 (20.70)	195 (76.17)	256 (100.00)	S.Em=0.34		
	Levels of emotional stability						
Low	0	30 (66.67)	15 (33.33)	45 (100.00)	31.02 ±4.77	0.12	7.96 (0.06)
Medium	1 (1.67)	40 (66.67)	19 (31.66)	60 (100.00)	30.40 ±5.32		
High	4 (2.65)	75 (49.67)	72 (47.68)	151 (100.00)	31.62 ±5.78		
Total	5 (1.95)	145 (56.64)	106 (41.41)	256 (100.00)	S.Em=0.33		
	Levels of openness to experience						
Low	1 (2.22)	19 (42.22)	25 (55.56)	45 (100.00)	65.07 ±8.63	1.14	1.53 (0.02)
Medium	3 (5.00)	25 (41.67)	32 (53.33)	60 (100.00)	64.58 ±8.18		
High	3 (1.99)	65 (43.05)	83 (54.96)	151 (100.00)	64.37 ±8.24		
Total	7 (2.73)	109 (42.58)	140 (54.69)	256 (100.00)	S.Em=0.52		

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentages

*p≤0.05 level of significance

Maximum number of adolescents (66.67%) whose home environment was with low permissiveness was average in emotional stability, followed by high (33.33%) and none fell in low category. Among adolescents with medium permissiveness, higher number (66.67%) of adolescents was average in emotional stability, followed by high and low categories (31.66 and 1.67% respectively). Same trend was observed among adolescents with high permissiveness. Chi square analysis revealed non-significant association. Further no significant difference was found. Comparison of mean scores showed that mean score of the adolescents with high permissiveness were slightly higher than those with low and medium permissiveness (31.62, 31.02 and 30.40 respectively).

Majority of adolescents whose home environment was with low permissiveness (55.56%) were high in openness to experience, followed by average and low categories (42.22 and 2.22% respectively). Same trend was observed among adolescents with medium (53.33, 41.67 and 5.00% respectively) and high permissiveness (54.96, 43.05 and 1.99% respectively). Chi square revealed non-significant association between permissiveness and openness to experience. No significant difference was found as shown by the ANOVA test and the mean scores of adolescents in low, medium and high permissiveness were almost similar (65.07, 64.58 and 64.37 respectively).

Therefore the hypothesis set for the study that home environment do not influence the personality traits of adolescents was partially accepted.

DISCUSSION

Personality traits are usually conceptualized as complex biologically based bipolar dimensions of emotional, cognitive and behavioral dispositions, which are largely heritable and relatively consistent across situations and time (McCrae and Costa, 2008). To social scientists, personality is the sum total of behaviors, attitudes, beliefs, and values that are characteristic of an individual. No two individuals have the same personalities. Each individual has his or her own way of interacting with other people and with his or her social environment. Our personality traits determine how we adjust to our environment and how we react in specific situations.

5.1 Personality traits of urban and rural adolescents

Personality is comprised of the big five major traits namely extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experience. Culture has a strong influence on personality. Each culture gives rise to series of personality traits that are typical of members of that society.

The result of the present study (Table-2) revealed that the urban and rural adolescents differed significantly with respect to some of the personality traits like agreeableness, conscientiousness and emotional stability wherein urban children were better with respect to conscientiousness while rural adolescents were better with respect to agreeableness and emotional stability. With respect to conscientiousness urban adolescents have more tendency to show discipline, act dutifully and aim for achievement, preference for planning rather than spontaneous behaviour which influences the way in which they control, regulate and direct their impulses. With regard to agreeableness trait rural adolescents showed differences in general concern for social harmony, value getting along with others, tendency to be compassionate and co-operative rather than suspicious and antagonistic towards others, they are generally considerate, friendly, generous, helpful and willing to compromise their interest with others and have an optimistic view of human nature as compared to rural counterparts. While with respect to emotional stability, rural adolescents tend to remain more stable and calm, free from persistent negative feelings, less easily upset and are less emotionally reactive.

However, both the groups were found similar with respect to the other two personality traits namely, extroversion and openness to experience. The possible reason may be attributed to the cultural differences in which they were raised or the child rearing practices followed in the two areas. It may also be due to the differential exposure or opportunity available for the adolescents in the two areas. There is also impressive evidence, ranging from studies of temperament in infants to investigations of personality dimensions in adults, that these five personality characteristics have a high genetic component (Eaves, Eysenck, and Martin, 1989; Rowe, 1997; 1998). Roy (2002) showed that the personality patterns of the four metropolitan cities of India (Kolkata, Mumbai, Delhi and Chennai) were significantly different in four personality factors such as dull-bright, submissive-assertive, tough minded-tender minded and group dependent-self sufficient. Jyothi and Devi (2011) found that majority of the rural child labourers, both boys and girls were found low in most of the positive traits of personality like adaptability, academic performance, competition, creativity, enthusiasm, individualism, independence, leadership, social warmth and boldness. However they were found average in dimensions like curiosity, excitability, general ability, maturity, mental health and morality. Mayuri and Devi (2001) showed that rural adolescents in general scored poorly on most of the personality measures. Girls were placed high on competition, maturity, self-control whereas boys scored more on guilt proneness. Singh (2012) reported that urban girls were found more reserved, imaginative, shrewder and conservative than rural girls. And they were similar with respect to Factor B, C, E, F, G, H, I, L, O, Q2, Q3 AND Q4 of 16PF. Savita and Duhan (2012) revealed that rural adolescents were significantly higher in their boldness, leadership, sensitivity and social warmth. Significant results were also found in the level of general ability, guilt proneness, mental health, self - sufficiency and tension. In addition, some research suggested that the Big Five should not be conceived of as dichotomies (such as extroversion vs. introversion) but as continua. Each individual has the capacity to move along each dimension as circumstances (social or temporal) change. He is or she is therefore not simply on one end of each trait dichotomy but is a blend of both, exhibiting some characteristic more often than others.

5.2 Home environment of urban and rural adolescents

According to an ancient Latin proverb ‘The hand that rocks the cradle rules the world’. Although each child’s development is shaped by many people – teacher, playmates and other peers.

The family is the first significant group to share the children's behaviour. Recently there has been increasing interest among researchers on the quality of home environment on child development. Home environment refers to aspects of people's domestic lives that contribute to their living conditions. These factors may be physical (poverty), psychological conditions due to parenting, social circumstances (emptiness & living alone) or wider cultural patterns of life related to the location (urban/ sub-urban environments).

Every family lives in a particular neighbourhood with physical and social characteristic creating an important setting for the development of children. The key indicator for the overall quality of home environment includes being sensitive to development needs of children, responsive interactions, involvement in children's activities and provision of appropriate play materials for playing and learning. So each home is different in terms of characteristics.

The results on home environment of urban and rural adolescents in the present study (Table-3) showed significant difference in two dimensions namely deprivation of privileges and rejection wherein the adolescents from the rural area had higher score as compared to urban counterparts. This indicates that the rural parents were more controlling their children's behaviour by depriving them or their rights to seek love, respect and child care from parents. Further, they were given conditional love recognizing that they have no rights as a person, no right to express feelings, no right to uniqueness and no right to become an autonomous individual. While both the urban and rural adolescents were found similar in the remaining domains namely control, protectiveness, punishment, conformity, social isolation, reward, nurturance and permissiveness. The difference in location itself may be a contributing factor because the opportunities and the exposure that one gets in urban areas are definitely different from the rural areas. The awareness level for the importance of providing healthy home environment for the development of their children may also be different in the two areas which may be due to the differences in the parental educational level, occupational status or socioeconomic condition in the two areas. Most importantly cultural difference and societal norms may also play a major role. Chandrasekaran (2008) reported that urban environments provide better personality development. Kaur (2010) proved that male adolescents perceived their home environment to be significantly more controlled, socially isolated, deprived of certain privileges, rejected and permissive whereas female adolescents perceived their home environment to be more protective and rewarding than their male counterparts.

5.3 Factors influencing personality traits of adolescents

It was formerly believed that personality pattern was the product of heredity and that the child was a 'chip off the old block'. Today there is ample evidence that personality pattern is the product of heredity and environment. On the genetic side, genes appear to account for about 50 per cent of any given personality trait (Plomin and Caspi, 1998). The other 50 per cent accounts to environmental influences, measurement error and non-systematic changes in the trait over time. Studies on the development of personality pattern have revealed that three factors are responsible for personality development i.e., heredity endowment, early experiences within the family and events in later life. The influence of various factors like child, parental and familial factors is discussed in the following section.

Age

People's personalities continue to develop throughout their lifetime. Maturation provides raw material for learning and determines to a large extent the general patterns and sequences of a child's behaviour. Specific traits change at different rates and to different degrees. Some personality traits seem to remain constant throughout a person's life, while others undergo dramatic changes. This suggest that the Big Five should not be conceived as dichotomies such as extroversion vs. introversion, each individual has the capacity to move along each dimension as circumstances change thereby exhibiting some characteristics more often than some others. Due to individual difference, different people demonstrate unique pattern of change at different stages of life. The findings of the study (Table-4) showed that early and late adolescents differed significantly in terms of emotional stability indicating that the early adolescents were relatively calm and balanced as compared to the late adolescents whereas the two groups were found to be similar in extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience. This may be because personality traits remain relatively stable through adolescence and resemble the mean levels of adults. McCrae *et al*., 2002 found that in three samples of adolescents from two countries, the United States and Belgium, girls between age 12 and 18 increased in neuroticism, both boys and girls increased in openness, and there were no consistent changes in other personality traits.

This evidence suggest that age trends in personality traits during adolescence are generally rather small. Few studies, however, have examined age differences in the Big Five across childhood and adolescence, and fewer still have examined how differences across these years fit with adult trends. Moreover, findings from the available studies often conflict with one another. Allik *et al.,* (2004) reported that the level of openness increased and the levels of agreeableness and conscientiousness decreased between 12 and 18 years of age. McCrae *et al*. (2002) also found that personality factors were reasonably invariant across ages. Neuroticism appeared to increase in girls, and openness to experience increased in both boys and girls while the mean levels of extroversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness were stable.

Gender

Gender as a biological and sociological factor contributes to the variations in the personality traits of adolescents. Two theories i.e., biological and social psychological, have tried to explain these gender differences in personality traits. The biological theories consider sex-related differences as arising from innate temperamental differences between the sexes, evolved by natural selection. Social psychological theorists, on the other hand argue for more proximal and direct causes of gender differences. The social role model explains that most gender differences result from adoption of gender roles, which define appropriate conduct for men and women. Gender roles are shared expectations of men's and women's attributes and social behaviour, and are internalized early in development. However the results (Table-5) of the present study revealed no significant influence of gender on the personality traits of adolescents. Further, comparison of mean scores showed that boys were better in extroversion, conscientiousness and emotional stability traits whereas girls were found to be better in agreeableness and openness to experience traits. This indicates that boys were characterized by positive emotions, surgency, tendency to seek company of others, self-disciplined, act dutifully, calm, balanced, etc. whereas girls were compassionate, cooperative, imaginative and curious. The possible reason may be the social desirability bias that leads men and women to endorse gender related traits, and some traits such as fearfulness may be less undesirable for women than for men. This may also be attributed to differences in parenting styles wherein boys and girls are socialised differently to some extent in all societies. Boys are more often allowed freedom to experiment and participate in physically risky activities. Girls are encouraged to learn to do domestic tasks and to participate in child rearing activities. Gender differences in personality traits have been documented in many empirical studies. Zupancic *et al*. (2008) also reported that gender differences were small and similar across countries than they were for the two sources of information within the country. However at the higher-order trait level, girls were perceived to be more conscientious and agreeable relative to boys, especially from middle childhood onwards. Chandrasekaran (2008) also reported that gender shows no difference in personality development. Feingold (1994) concluded that women scored lower than men on assertiveness and higher on gregariousness (extroversion), anxiety, trust and tender mindedness (nurturance).

Ordinal position

Birth order of the child in the family affect the way parents relate to him/ her, the experiences they share and ultimately the way the personality develops. Scientific studies of ordinal position have revealed that environment influences play a more important role than heredity in determining the differences that have been found in children of different ordinal positions in a family. Parents' behaviour changes with subsequent children as their experience and the stress in their lives change and it is different in response to different stimuli that each child faces. Determining the impact of birth order on personality has been controversial with a majority of studies which concluded that birth order does not affect personality. Consistent with these findings, the results of the present study (Table-6) revealed non-significant influence of ordinal position on personality traits. However, the comparison of mean scores indicated that the first borns were better in extroversion and openness to experience whereas the later borns were better in agreeableness, conscientiousness and emotional stability. The possible attributed reason may be that a child with younger siblings will experience his family differently than the younger child. The first child usually receives more parental attention and become more confident and determined than the later born. Later born children work hard to become the centre of attention as they have to compete older siblings. On the contrary, Dixon *et al.* (2008) reported that the youngest and three youngest siblings significantly differed from the oldest and oldest three siblings for Extraversion within and across families. Beer and Horn (2000) through their between- and within- family analysis indicated that birth order's influence on personality was very weak. The only clear difference was for conscientiousness, on which first siblings scored higher.

Socioeconomic status

Socioeconomic status is calculated taking into consideration income, educational and occupational status of the parents. Family's socioeconomic status is one of the most widely studied construct in the social sciences. A variety of mechanisms linking socioeconomic status to child well being had been proposed, with most involving differences in access to material and social resources. Its effects are moderated by children, family characteristics and external support system. Research in the past decades shows that socioeconomic status is related to quality of parent – child relationship as well. Children from affluent homes benefit from less stressed parenting, access to education and other services. Low income children experience negative effects of poverty throughout childhood and into their adult years.

The present study (Table-15) found significant association between socioeconomic status and emotional stability and openness to experience indicating that socioeconomic status affects the adolescents' emotional stability and openness to experience while there was no significant association between socioeconomic status and extroversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness. It is obvious that the conducive and stimulating environment that a family with high socioeconomic status provide differs from that provided by low socioeconomic status family which in turn affects their personality development. Zhang and Postiglione (2001) found that when age was controlled, those who reported higher self-esteem tend to be students from higher SES families.

Parental education:

The results of the present study (Table-7) indicated that fathers' education was significantly associated with agreeableness and openness to experience and non-significantly associated with extroversion, conscientiousness and emotional stability. The study also found that there was significant association between mothers' education and openness to experience which indicates that the educational level of the mother affects the adolescents' openness to experience trait. Further there was no significant association with extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and emotional stability (Table-8). Bilquis and Mayuri (1999) revealed significant relationship between parental education and personality dimensions of children. Gupta (2007) through his study reported that girls who came from moderately stereotyped family climate and had mothers with high educational level were found to have high levels in selected personality aspects. Savita *et al*. (2012) found that respondents with graduated parents were significantly higher in maturity, self- control, self-sufficiency and tension. Whereas for boldness, adolescents of graduated parents were significantly lower than adolescents of up to primary level and up to 8^{th} level educated parents. Adolescents of illiterate or primary level educated parents were significantly lower on creativity, maturity level and higher on leadership against to rest of the categories. Further, adolescents of 6^{th} to 8^{th} class educated parents were significantly lower on maturity level than adolescents of graduated parents. Data further revealed that adolescents of up to primary level educated parents were significantly lower than adolescents of intermediated and graduated parents on the mean scores of mental health. Fatima *et al*. (2009) also reported that as educational level of the parent increases there might be more favourable attitude towards modern pattern of personality development which shows that there is a significant association between educational level of the parents and personality development of their children.

Parental occupation

The analysis regarding the association between fathers' occupation and personality traits revealed non-significant (Table 9). Further the study revealed non-significant association between mothers' occupation and personality traits of adolescents (Table-10). The findings are in conformity with the earlier studies made by Roy (1969) who reported that employment of the mother has little effect on the child's development, their personality characteristics and their social relation. In contrast, Sandhu (1998) found significant difference in five personality factors. Similarly, Bilquis and Mayuri (1999) found significant relationship between occupational status and personality dimensions of children such as boldness, enthusiasm, creativity, excitability, independence, maturity, mental health, shrewdness, sensitivity, social warmth and tension. While Bala and Nanda (2007) reported that adolescents of working mothers were more enthusiastic, more excited, better in general ability and more prone to guilt whereas adolescents of non-working mothers and working mothers scored almost equal in individualism. The reason for the present finding may be because generally parents with better occupational status expect their children to develop the personality on modern lines and suggest them to develop the favourable traits.

Income

The results of the study (Table-14) indicated no significant association between income and personality traits of adolescents. The reason may be attributed to the individual differences or the differences in heredity factor which may have affected the child's personality. Contrary to the present findings, Savita *et al*. (2012) reported that adolescents belonging to low income family were significantly better in adaptability and maturity level from high income respondents. However they were significantly lower in their general ability from the adolescents of lower income group, and individualism from the adolescents of high income group.

Caste

In the society each individual has some peculiar status and roles corresponding to them. For example, in Hindu community, members of different castes have different social status in society. The roles and functions of an individual are determined by his status. This mechanism controls the behaviour of the individuals and determines the style of life of the individuals which ultimately influences their personality.

The present results (Table-11) showed that there was significant association between caste and extroversion and agreeableness indicating that caste affects the extroversion and agreeableness traits of adolescents. Further no significant association was found between caste and conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experience. Mehta *et al*., (2008) also reported that differences in personality patterns are present among scheduled caste, scheduled tribe and non-backward boys which were more prominent in rural areas than in urban areas. Savita *et al.* (2012) found that adolescents with low caste respondents were significantly lower in tension, self- control and self- sufficiency than middle and high caste respondents. High caste respondents were significantly higher on mental health than low and middle caste respondents.

Family type

Family type is an important factor because it may influence the way in which individual think of them and the way family members relate to one another and the outside world.

However the present study revealed non-significant association between family type and personality traits of adolescents (Table-12) in all the personality traits. The findings of the present study is in conformity with the study conducted by Bilquis and Mayuri (1999) who found that family type had no significant relation with the selected personality dimensions among the rural children in three regions of Andhra Pradesh.

Family size

There has been a multidisciplinary interest in the effects of family size on children's development and on their overall life outcomes. In general, children from small families tend to accrue advantages in many developmental areas while children from larger families are, at a group, relatively disadvantaged.

However, the results (Table-13) of the study indicated no significant association between family size and personality traits of adolescents. Consistent with the finding, Bilquis and Mayuri (1999) also reported that family size was found to have non-significant relation with personality dimensions. In contrast with the present study, Dayal and Mishra (2012) reported that family size affect some of the personality traits. The children of small size family were more reserved, detached, critical, excitable, impatient, demanding and overactive than the children of large size family. Hurlock (2002) also pointed out from the basis of his study that 'even though children from small and medium sized homes experienced parental overprotection and parental favouritism quite often exhibited sibling rivalry and jealousy, they generally made better adjustments to life and were happier than children from large sized families'. Similarly Sailor pointed out that child from large families have more relationship to experience – which is often both enriching and frustrating. Leman in his study on the effects of family size on a child's personality reported that "only" children - who spend a lot of time with adults – are typically confident, well-spoken and have a tendency towards perfectionism.

Home environment

The home is the single most significant environmental factor in enabling children to develop the trust, attitude and skills that will help them to learn and engage positively with the world– a process that starts at birth, if not before. The environment of the home has a wide influence on the development of personality and this has been accepted by everyone.

A good home learning environment provides the love, security, stimulation, encouragement and opportunities that help children to flourish. Parents' behaviour and attitudes, their expectations from the child, their education and attention to the child, influences the child's personality. Similarly, the findings of the present study (Table 16 to 25) revealed that almost all the components of home environment except control and punishment, has significant influence on some of the personality traits of adolescents i.e., protectiveness, conformity, social isolation, reward, deprivation of privileges, nurturance, rejection and permissiveness influences the personality traits of adolescents. Nakao *et al*. (2000) reported the influence of family environment (maternal and paternal participation in child-rearing before and after 4years of age, child-rearing style, parental relationship, number of siblings, birth order and socioeconomic status) on some of the personality traits. Extroversion was found to be negatively associated with overprotection/ interference and with maternal participation in child rearing. Maturity correlated with high socioeconomic status, appropriate child rearing style and paternal participation in child rearing. Intellect was related to high socioeconomic status and maternal participation in child rearing. Rai and Singh (1996) reported that boys who perceived emotional warmth and overprotection manifested extraverted and introverted personality patterns respectively while girls perceiving rejection and overprotection manifested introverted and extroverted personality pattern respectively. While Singh *et al*. (2007) found significant relationship between perceived parental behaviour and personality pattern in boys and girls. Irrespective of gender, significant difference was also found in some personality traits. Prinzie *et al*. (2003) found that dysfunctional parenting and the children's personality characteristics–benevolence, conscientiousness, and extraversion were directly related to outcomes consistent with an additive model of their effect. Significant interactions indicated that children with low scores on benevolence who were exposed to over reactive discipline practices exhibited higher levels of externalizing behaviour. Children characterized by low scores on conscientiousness who were exposed to coercive parenting behaviour showed elevated levels of externalizing behaviour. Khalane and Borse (2010) reported that subjects of single child families and sibling family were significantly different in parent – child relationship and in turn differ on some of the personality traits. Further author noticed that male and female in single and sibling child families differed significantly on some of the personality traits. Singh and Singh (2011) also found negative and significant correlation between parent – child relations and adolescents' problem behaviour.

Lastly Adler's saying can be noted which says that the individual develops his style of life from the pattern of his early life in the family, but there are no grounds to assume that this style of life remains unchanged in future.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A study on “Influence of home environment on personality traits of adolescents” was carried out in the year 2012-2013 in Dharwad district of Karnataka with the objectives to understand the personality traits of adolescents, to compare the personality traits of urban and rural adolescents and to study the influence of child, parental and familial factors on personality development of adolescents.

The population for the study comprised of adolescents from urban and rural areas of Dharwad district who were studying in higher secondary classes i.e., 8, 9, 10 and junior colleges *i.e*., PUC-I and PUC-II (13 – 19 years). Among 36 schools in urban area, two schools were randomly selected. In case of the rural area, out of 24 schools, two schools were selected randomly. Only those adolescents who were living with both parents were selected for the study. Totally there were 256 adolescents. Out of these 256 adolescents, 128 were selected from the urban area and the other 128 from the rural area.

A developed schedule to elicit general information of personal, parental and familial characteristics was used. The personality traits of the adolescents were assessed by using “The Big Five Inventory” developed by John *et al*. (1991). The home environment of the adolescents was assessed by using “Home Environment Inventory (HEI)” developed by Mishra (1983). Kuppuswamy’s socioeconomic status scale modified by Ghosh and Ghosh (2009) was used to assess the socioeconomic status of the family. Pre-test was done to test the reliability of the research tools. The split half reliability of ‘Big Five Inventory’ was 0.78 and that of home environment inventory was 0.69. The data was collected from the adolescents with the help of questionnaires with the assistance of the class teachers.

Frequency and percentages were computed in order to know demographic characteristics of children, parental and familial characteristics. Chi-square test of association, Karl Pearson correlation coefficient, t-test and one way ANOVA was used to know the influence of child’s, parental and familial characteristics on personality traits of adolescents.

Salient findings of the study:

a. Majority of the adolescents of both urban (66.41%) and rural area (62.50%) fell in average category of extroversion. In terms of agreeableness, maximum number of the adolescents of both urban and rural area fell in high category (71.88 and 75.78% respectively). In conscientiousness, more number of the adolescents both in the urban (77.35%) and rural areas (75.00%) fell in high category. With respect to emotional stability, higher proportion of the adolescents belonged to the average category (60.16% urban and 53.13% rural adolescents). In case of openness to experience, more number of the urban (59.38%) and rural group (50.00%) fell in high category

b. There was significant difference between the urban and rural adolescents in some of the personality traits, such as agreeableness, conscientiousness and emotional stability wherein the urban adolescents were better than the rural counterparts in conscientiousness and the rural adolescents were better in agreeableness and emotional stability.

c. Significant difference was noticed in two home environment dimensions *i.e*., deprivation of privileges and rejection among urban and rural adolescents wherein it was found that the rural group were more deprived of privileges and more rejected as compared to the urban group.

Factors influencing personality

a. Age had significant influence on emotional stability of adolescents.

b. Significant difference was not observed in personality traits of boys and girls and by ordinal position.

c. Fathers’ education was significantly associated with two personality traits of adolescents namely, agreeableness and openness to experience. And mothers’ education was significantly associated with one personality trait of adolescents i.e., openness to experience.

d. Both fathers’ and mothers’ occupation, family type, family size and income was not significantly associated with any of personality traits of adolescents.

e. Caste was found to be significantly associated with two factors of personality traits i.e., extroversion and agreeableness and socioeconomic status had significant influence on the personality traits such as, emotional stability and openness to experience.

Influence of home environment on personality traits:

a. The control and punishment dimensions of home environment had no significant influence on the personality traits of adolescents.

b. Protectiveness dimension of home environment had significant influence on the personality traits such as agreeableness, emotional stability and openness to experience.

c. Conformity dimension was significantly associated with agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience traits of personality.

d. Social isolation dimension was significantly associated with agreeableness and conscientiousness traits of personality wherein those who were higher in social isolation were lower in agreeableness and conscientiousness.

e. Significant association was noticed between reward dimension and conscientiousness trait of personality.

f. Deprivation of privileges dimension was significantly associated with personality traits of adolescents such as extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience.

g. Nurturance dimension was found to be significantly associated with personality traits such as conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experience.

h. Rejection dimension was found to be significantly associated with all the factors of personality traits namely extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experience.

i. Permissiveness dimension was significantly associated with extroversion personality trait of adolescents.

Implications and recommendations:

Adolescence, the period of transition from childhood to adulthood, is a critical time for the development of lifelong perceptions, beliefs, and practices. An adolescent struggles with the developmental tasks of establishing an identity, accepting changes in physical characteristics, learning skills for a healthy lifestyle and separating from the family.

Personality formation of the budding generation is one of the most remarkable challenge confronting the family and educational institutes of today. The family as an institute is the first fundamental group where the basic personality characteristics of the individual are formed in first few years of an individual's lives and continues to affect the individual throughout life. Hence an effort has been made to understand the different personality traits of urban and rural adolescents and the influence that home environment has on these personality traits. It was found that majority of the adolescents were average in some of the personality traits such as extroversion and emotional stability, hence there is scope for improvement in these traits. Therefore programmes on personality development, youth camps, youth clubs, etc can be organised in the interest of the adolescents and the youths.

There are many potential environmental influences that help to shape personality, among which the environment of the home has greater influence. The child rearing practise and the quality of the parent – child relationship is fundamental to children's longer – term development. Therefore there is need to promote interventions on parenting and child-rearing practices. Also, there is a need to create awareness to the parents, especially those belonging to lower economic status about the role and the impact of their parenting style on personality development of children.

Further reading materials, educational packages, leaflets, etc on the importance of childrearing practices, parent – child relationship and conducive home environment can be made at regional language to create awareness to the mass.

The outcome of this study calls for developing strategies to facilitate awareness to the rural area or group on the importance of providing conducive home environment for their children because it was observed in the present study that the rural adolescents were deprived of privileges and more rejected as compared to the urban counterparts. Warmth, encouragement and absence of hostility are key elements in a positive home environment. So interventions can be designed to sensitize the parents on the importance of positive home environment and the role it plays in healthy development of personality for their children.

Services of professional counsellors can be facilitated to the adolescents, parents as well as the family members who have a major role to play in developing and improving the personality of adolescents.

FUTURE RESEARCH

- The present study was limited to age group of 13 – 19 years. So, personality development of younger age groups could be attempted.
- Comparative study of personality development between children living with both the parents and with single parent could be attempted.
- Impact of intervention programme to improve personality development by organizing awareness programmes for the parents could be attempted.

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APPENDIX I

1. Name of the student/«zÁ¸yð/«zÁ¸yð¤AiÄ ºÉ¸gÄ:
2. Age /ªAiÄ¸Ä:
3. Date of birth /d£ï ¢£ÁAP:
4. Gender/°AU: Male (UAqÄ)/ Female (º tÄ)
5. Ordinal position /ºÄnz ¸ASï: : a) 1st born /ªÆz®£Ã ªÄUÄ

   b) 2nd born /Jgq£Ã ªÄUÄ

   c) 3rd born /ªÄÆg£Ã ªÄUÄ

   d) 4th born /£Á®£Ã ªÄUÄ

   e) 5th born /Lz£Ã ªÄUÄ

Background information of family/PÀlÄA§zÀ»£ÀÆïÀªÀ»w:

1. Caste of the family (eÁw):
2. Type of family (PÄlÄA§z £ªÄÆ£): joint (C«¨P) / nuclear («¨P)
3. Total No. of family members (PÄlÄA§z MlÄ ¸z¸ïg ¸ASï):
4. Monthly income from all sources (J¯Á ªÄÆ®U½Az wAU½U §gÄª DzÁAiÄ):
   a. Salary (¸A§¼):
   b. Rented house (¨ÁrU):
   c. Business (ªÁ¸¥Ág):
   d. Agricultural land (¨Æ«Ä):
   e. Other sources (Evg):
5. Yearly income from all sources (ªÁ¶ðP DzÁAiÄ/ J¯Á ªÄÆ®U½Az §gÄª ªÁ¶ðP DzÁAiÄ):
   a. Business/ªÁ¸¥Ág:
   b. Agriculture land ¨Ã¸ÁAiÄ:
6. Educational level of the parents (vAz ªÄvÄ vÁ¬ÄAiÄ ²Ptz ªÄl):
   a. Father's (vAzAiÄ ²Pt):
   b. Mother's (vÁ¬ÄAiÄ ²Pt):
7. Occupation of the parents (vAz ªÄvÄ vÁ¬ÄAiÄ GzÆïÃU):
   a. Father's (vAzAiÄ GzÆïÃU):
   b.Mother's (vÁ¬ÄAiÄ GzÆïÃU):
8. Family size (PÄlÄA§z ¸z¸ïgÄ):
   a) No. of children in the family including yourself (PÄlÄA§z°AiÄ ¸z¸ïgÄ (¤ªÄ£Æï ¸Ãj¹):
   b) No. of brothers (CtA¢gÄ/vªÄA¢gÄ):

c) No. of sisters (CPA¢gÄ/vAVAiÄgÄ):

d) Other family members (Evg PÄlÄA§z ¸z¸gÄ):

9. Type of locality the family is residing (PÄlÄA§ ªÁ¹¸ÄwgÄª eÁU)

a. Urban (¥lt)

b. Rural (º½)

c. Resettlement colony (PÁ¯ÆÃ¤)

d. Slums/ Jhuggis (PÆ¼UÃj/UÄr¸®Ä)

APPENDIX II

BIG FIVE INVENTORY

John *et al.* (1992)

Instructions: Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by placing a check mark (✓) under any one of the five columns representing the 5 alternative answers given for each statement. All the responses will be kept confidential.
¸ÆZ£U¼Ä: P¼U P®ª¼ UÄtU¼£Ä¸Æa¸¯ÁVz. P¼U ¸Æa¹z UÄtU¼Ä ¤ªÄU C£¬Ä¸§ºÄzÄ/ C£¬Ä¸zÃ Eg§ºÄzÄ zAiÄ«lÄ ¤Ãª¼ Jµg ªÄnU M¦PÆ¼ÄwÃj/ M¦PÆ¼Äª¼¢® JA§Äz£Ä (v)£Ä ªiÁqÄª¼zg ªÄÆ®P UÄgÄw¹.

Sl. No Pæ ¸A.	I see myself as someone who: £Á£Ä ££¼£Ä F vg£ÁV £ÆÀqÄvÃ£	Strongly disagree ºZÁV M¥Äª¼¢®	Disagree a little ¸® ª¼lU M¥Äª¼¢®	Neither agree nor disagree M¥ÄvÃ£ Cxª¼Á M¥Äª¼¢®	Agree a little ¸®ªÄnU M¥ÄvÃ£	Strongly agree ºZÁV M¥ÄvÃ£
1.	Is talkative ºZÄ ªiÁv£ÁqÄª ¥ÆwAiÄ¼ª					
2.	Tends to find fault with others ¨ÄgAiÄªg v¥£Ä PAqÄ»rAiÄÄªª.					
3.	Does a thorough job P®¸ª£Ä ¸A¥Ætðª ÁV ªiÁqÄvÃ£.					
4.	Has a wide range of interest §º¼µÄ «µAiÄU¼° D¸QAiÄÄ¼ª£Ä					
5.	Is depressed, blue ¤gÄvÁº/aAv/T£vAiÄ ¸¨Áªzª£Ä					
6.	Is original, come up with new ideas ºÆ¸ «ZÁgU¼£Ä ¸AwP¬ÄAz ª¼P¥r¸ÄvÃ£.					
7.	Is reserved ºZÁV ªiÁv£ÁqÄª¼¢®					
8.	Is helpful and unselfish with others ¸Áxð ªÄ£ÆÃ¨Áª£ ªÄvÄ Evgj U ¸ºÁAiÄ ªiÁqÄª ¥Æwª¼ª£Ä					
9.	Prefers convention and tradition ¸A¥ÆÁAiÄP ¥z¼wU¼£Ä ºZÄ Eµ¥qÄvÃ£.					
10.	Can be somewhat careless ¸® ªÄnU CeÁUgÆP£ÁVgÄª					
11.	Is relaxed, handles stress well Mvqª¼ ¸¤ªÄ±ª£Ä ±ÁAvv¬ÄAz ¤¨Á¬Ä¸ÄvÃ£.					
12.	Is curious about many different things º®ªÁgÄ ««z «µÁiÄU¼ §U¼ PÄvÆº®£ÁVgÄvÃ£.					
13.	Is full of energy §º¼µÄ ±QAiÄÄ¼ª£ÁVgÄª					
14.	Prefers work that is routine and simple ¸Ä®¨ªÁz ºÁUÆ ¢£¤v¼z P®¸U½U ¥ÁÆÄRv PÆqÄvÃ£					
15.	Starts quarrels with others Evgg Æq£ £Á£Ä dU¼ªÁq®Ä ¥Á©¸ÄvÃ£					

16.	Is a reliable worker £A©Uª¼ P®¸UÁg					
17.	Can be tense ªiÁ£¹P GzÃUU½U M¼UÁUÄvÃ£					
18.	Is clever, sharp-witted wÃP÷ §Ä¢ºÁUÆ «ªÃZ£AiÄÄ¼Äª					
19.	Tends to be quiet £ªÄ¢AiÄ zÆÃgu¬ÄAz EgÄvÃ£					
20.	Values artistic, aesthetic experiences ¸ÄAzg ºÁUÆ P¯ÁvP C£Ä¨ªU½U ªÄºv ¤ÃqÄvÃ£					
21.	Tends to be disorganized Cª¡ª¹v£ÁVgÄvÃ£					
22.	Is emotionally stable, not easily upset ¨ÃU£ ¨Ã¸gUÆ¼z ªiÁ£¹P ¹gvAiÄÄ¼ª£ÁVgÄvÃ£					
23.	Has an active imagination ¥juÁªÄPÁjAiiÁz P®£U¼£Ä gÆ¦¸ÄvÃ£					
24.	Perseveres until the task is finished P¦UÆAq PÁAiÅð ªÄÄVAiÄÄªªgUÆ ¸ÄgQv£ÁVgÄª					
25.	Is someone rude to others ¨ÃgAiÄªgÆq£ MgmÁV ªwð¸ÄvÃ£.					
26.	Has unwavering self confidence ZAZ®v E®zÃ ¸Av Dv«±Á¸z° ¹gvAiÄÄ¼ª£Ä					
27.	Is inventive ºÆ¸z£Ä ¸¦¶¸ÄvÃ£					
28.	Is generally trusting ¸ÁªiÁ£¡ªÂV £A©U¸¡AiÄÄ¼ ª¡Q					
29.	Tends to be lazy ¸ÆÃªiÁjv£ ¸Áz¡v EgÄªª£Ä					
30.	Has clear thinking, intelligent ¸µªÁz «ZÁg ªÄvÅ §Ä¢¡ªAwPAiÄÄ¼ª					
31.	Worries a lot §º¼µÄ aAv ªiÁqÄªª					
32.	Wants things to be clear and simple ¸g¼ ºÁUÆ ¸µªÁVgÄª «µAiÄU¼£Ä §AiÄ¸ÄvÃ£					
33.	Is someone shy, inhibited £ÁaP ªÄvÄ ¸ÁPÆÅav ¸¨Áªzª					
34.	Has a forgiving nature P«Ä¸Äª ¸¨Áªzª£Ä					
35.	Is idealistic Dz±ð UÄtª¼U¼£Ä ºÆÃA¢gÄªª					
36.	Does things efficiently zPv¬ÄAz P®¸U¼£Ä ªiÁqÄª					
37.	Can be moody aAvÁPÄ®ª¼ª					
38.	Is ingenious, a deep thinker eÁt ºÁUÆ D¼ªÂV AiÆÃa¸Äªª					
39.	Generates a lot of enthusiasm vÄA¨Á GvÄPvAiÄ£Ä GAlÄªiÁqÄªª.					

40.	Can be cold and aloof ¤zðAiÄ ªÄvÄ KPÁAVAiiÁVgÄªª					
41.	Enjoys thinking about complicated problems dn®ªÁz ¸ªÄ¸¦AiÄ §U¦ AiÆÃa¸Äª¦z£Ä¦ ¸AvÆÃµ¥qÄªª					
42.	Makes plans and follows through them AiÆÃd£U¼£Ä¦ gaª¹ Cª¦U¼£ÄÚÄt ªÁV P®¸ ªiÁqÄªª					
43.	Remains calm in tense situations GzÅUz ¸Az¨ðU¼° ±ÁAv£ÁVgÄª					
44.	Likes to reflect, play with ideas ££¦ «ZÁgU¼£Ä¦ ª¦P¥r¸®Ä Eµ¥ÄvÃ£ ªÄvÄ Cª¦U¼£Ä¦ ¸A¢¸ÅvÃ£					
45.	Is considerate and kind to almost everyone DzµÄ ¥æÄiÆ§g §U¦ ¥gÁ¸Q ºÁUÆ PgÄuAiÄÄ¼ª£Ä					
46.	Seeks adventure and excitement ¸Áº¸ ªÅvÄ GvÁº ¨jv£ÁVgÄª					
47.	Gets nervous easily ¸Ä®¨ªÁV z¦AiÄð»Ã££ÁUÄª					
48.	Is sophisticated in art, music, literature P¯, ¸AVÃv ºÁUÆ ¸Á»vïz° ¸ÄgQv£ÁVgÄª					
49.	Has an assertive personality z¦q ª¦Qvª¦¼ª					
50.	Is insightful, sees different possibilities ¸ÆPö ¥jeÁ£ ªÄvÄ ««z ¸ÁzïvU¼£Ä¦ £ÆÃqÄª ¥æwAiÄÄ¼Äª					
51.	Likes to cooperate with others EvggÆq£ ¸ºPj¸®Ä Ea¦¸Äªgä					
52.	Is easily distracted ¨ÃU£ av ª¦¥®¦£ÁUÄª					
53.	Is outgoing, sociable ºÆÅgU ºÆÅUÄª ªÅvÄ ¸ÃºÃº¥gª¦¼ª£Ä					
54.	Has few artistic interest C® P¯ÁvïP C©gÅa ºÆA¢gÄªª					

APPENDIX III

HOME ENVIERONMENT INVENTORY

Karuna Shankar Mishra (1983)

Instructions:

Read every statement carefully and think how many times your parents have used these statements. Give your answer by putting a cross mark in the space given under 'Mostly', 'Usually', 'Seldom', 'Very less' or 'Never' against each statement.

For example –

	mostly	usually	seldom	very less	never
My parents scold me when I tell a lie.	x				

No answer is right or wrong for any behaviour. It is just to know the attributes which exist in the atmosphere of your house but not in other children's house. It can be noted that all the responses will be kept confidential. And lastly if there is any doubt or confusion you may approach the researcher.

Sr. no	Area	STATEMENTS	Mostly	Usually	Seldom	Very less	Never
1.	A	My parents allow me to play for a definite time ¤¢ðµªÁz ¸ªÄAiÄz° ££ ¥Á®PgÄ £££Ä Dl Dq®Ä ©qÄvÁg					
2.	B	My parents become too much anxious when I weep £Á£Ä CvgÃ ££ ¥Á®PgÄ aAw¸ÄvÁg.					
3.	C	My parents get angry against me when I do any work carelessly. £Á£Ä AiiÁªÀzÃ P®¸ª£Ä dªÁ¨Áj¬ÄAz ªiÁq¢zÀg ¥Á®PgÄ ££ ªÄÃ¯ PÆÃ¥UÆ¼ÄvÁg.					
4.	D	My parents say me to obey some particular persons. ££ ¥Á®PgÄ P®ªjU «zÃAiÄP£ÁVg®Ä ºÃ¼ÄvÁg.					
5.	E	My parents do not allow me to go for a walk with my colleagues when I submit my idea different to their ideas ££ «ZÁgU¼Ä ¨Ág-EvgjVAv EzÁU Cªg eÆv £££Ä wgÄUÁq®Ä ©qÄªÀ¢®.					
6.	F	My parents feel very happy when I solve my problem successfully. ££ ¸ªÄ¸À¼£Ä £Á£Ä AiÄ±¹AiiÁV §Uºj¹PÆAqÁU ££ ¥Á®PgÄ vÄA¨Á ¸AvÆÃµ¥qÄvÁg.					
7.	G	My parents do not talk with me when I ask them many questions regarding anything £Á£Ä C£ÄP «µAiÄU¼ §UÌ ¥æ¹zg ££ ¥Á®PgÄ ££ eÆv ªiÁvÁqÄªÀ¢®.					
8.	H	My parents teach me only that behaviour which I like to learn. ££U Eµ«gÄª £qÄª½PU¼£Ä ¥Á®PgÄ ££U P°¸ÄvÁg.					
9.	I	My parents criticize my ideas too much. ££ ¥Á®PgÄ ££ «ZÁgU¼£Ä vÄA¨Á »AiiÁ½¸ÄvÁg.					
10.	J	My parents give me an opportunity do the work by self.					

Sr. no	Area	STATEMENTS	Mostly	Usually	Seldom	Very less	Never
		££ ¥Á®Pg ££µP £Á£ P®¸ ªiÁq®C ªPÁ± ªiÁrPÆqvÁg.					
11	A	My parents decide my reading time. £Á£ Nzª ¸ªAiªÁ£ £¥ ¥Á®Pg ¤zðj¸vÁg.					
12.	B	Whenever I am too much sad, my parents make me understand with great affection. £Á£ vA¨Á zBTv£zÁU £¥£ vA¨Á ¦æ¬Az Cz£ Cxðª iÁr¹PÆ¼vÁg.					
13.	C	When I make too much of noise in my house, my parents give me corporal punishment (slapping, beating with stick, etc.) £Á£ ª£AiÅ° vA¨Á U¯Ám ª iÁrzÁU ¥Á®Pg £¥£ ²Q¸vÁg.					
14.	D	My parents have this desire that I may do every work better comparatively to other children. £¥ ¥æAiÆAz P®¸ª£ £Á£ ¨g ªP½VAv Z£V ªiÁq¨PAz ¥Á®Pg C¥Q¸vÁg.					
15.	E	My parents remove me away from them when I express my opinion different to them. £Á£ vAz vA¬U½U «gz¦ªVgª ¸®°Ai£ PÆmÁU £¥£ v«Az zÆg«qvÁg.					
16.	F	My parents get very happy when I express my ideas to the incoming guests. ª£U §gª CwyU¼ §U¦ £¥ «ZÁgª£ ª¦P¥r¹zÁU £¥ ¥Á®Pg vA¨Á ¸AvÆÃ¥qvÁg.					
17.	G	My parents do not take me with them when I insist to go with them to the market. £Á£ ¥Á®Pg eÆvU ¥ÁmU °ÆÃU®C §Ai¹zÁU Cªg £¥£ PgzAPÆAqC °ÆÃUª¦¢®.					
18.	H	My parents go with me for walking. ¥Á®Pg £¥£ ¨¼V£ ¸ªAi vª eÆv wgUÁq®C (ªÁAiA «°ÁgP) PgzAPÆAqC °ÆÃUvÁg.					
19.	I	My parents make fun of me when I weep on being scolded. ¥Á®Pg £¥£ ¨¦zÁU £Á£ C¼Aª¦z£ PAqC £¥ §U¦ °Á¸¦ ª¦P¥r¸vÁg.					
20.	J	I can purchase any magazine without obtaining prior permission. £Á£ AiiÁª¦zÃ ¥wæAi£ ¥Á®Pg C£Aªw E®zÃ RjÃ¢¸§°AzÁ.					
21.	A	My parents keep strict discipline in home. ª£AiA£ ¥Á®Pg ª£Ai°C CwAiiÁz ²¹¤Az EnzÁg					
22.	B	My parents accompany me to ascertain all the facilities whenever I go to any place for the first time. £Á£ ªÆz® ¨ÁjU AiiÁª¦zÃ °Æ¸ ¸¦¼P¦ °ÆÃUAª ÁU ¥Á®Pg £U J® ¸ËPAiÅðU¼£ MzV¸vÁg.					
23.	C	My parents pull my ears when I do not keep anything at the proper place. £Á£ AiiÁª¦zÃ ª¸Áª£ ¸jAiiÁz eÁUz° EgzÃ EzÁU £¥ ¥Á®Pg Q«Ai£ dV¦ PÃ¼vÁg.					

Sr. no	Area	STATEMENTS	Mostly	Usually	Seldom	Very less	Never
24.	D	My parents desire that I should make special efforts to present every work. ¥Á®Pg Á£Á£Ä ¥æÀiÆAzÄ P®¸ª£Ä« «±Ãµ ¥æÀv¢Az ªiÁqÄª¦z£Ä C¥ÃQ¸ÄvÁg.					
25.	E	When I become angry with my parents then they become separate from me. £Á£Ä ¥Á®Pg ªÄÄ¯ PÆÄ¥UÆAqÁU CªgÄ £¤¢Az zÆgªÁUÄvÁg.					
26.	F	My parents feel happy when I ask different questions regarding anything after seeing it £Á£Ä K£ÁzgÆAz£Ä£ÆÄrz ªÄÄ¯ Czg §U¦ ¥æÀU¼£Ä PÃ½zg ¥Á®PgÄ ¸AvÆÃµ¥qÄvÁg.					
27.	G	When I am on studies and my parents call me and I do not go to them, they remove my books kept in front of me. £Á£Ä NzÀª ¸ªÄAiÄz° ¥Á®PgÄ PgzÁU ºÆÃU¢z¦g Cªgä ££¤ ªÄÄA¢gÄª ¥Ä¸Pª£Ä vUzÄ EqÄvÁg.					
28.	H	When my parents go to meet any of their friend, they take me with them. ¥Á®PgÄ vªÄ U¼AiÄg£Ä¤ ¨ÃnAiiÁU®Ä ºÆÃUÄªÁU ££¤£Ä PgzÄPÆAqÄ ºÆÃUÄvÁg.					
29.	I	My parents prefer to stay away with me. ¥Á®PgÄ £¤¢Az zÆg«g®Ä §AiÄ¸ÄvÁg.					
30.	J	I can hear the radio for the time I like £Á£Ä ££U Eµª Áz ¸ªÄAiÄz° gÃrAiÆÃ PÃ¼ÄvÃ£.					
31.	A	I do not go to see movie without the permission of my parents. ¥Á®Pg C£Äªäw E®zÃ £Á£Ä ¹£Ãª iÁ £ÆÃq®Ä ºÆÃUÄª¦¢®					
32.	B	My parents worry for me too much when I suffer from severe fever. £Á£Ä §º¼ dg¢Az §¼®ÄwgÄªÁU ¥Á®PgÄ vÄA¨Á aAw¸ÄvÁg.					
33.	C	On telling a lie my parents scold me. £Á£Ä ¸Ä¼Ä ºÃ½zÁU ¥Á®PgÄ ££¤£Ä ¨ÉAiÄÄvÁg.					
34.	D	My parents desire that I should do all the work like them. £Á£Ä Eµ¥qÄª J® P®¸U¼£Ä ¥Á®PgÄ ªiÁqÄªAv C¥ÃQÃ¸ÄvÁg.					
35.	E	My parents do not let me play with my friends when I tell a lie. £Á£Ä ¸Ä¼Ä ºÃ½zÁU ¥Á®PgÄ ££¤ U¼AiÄg eÆv Dq®Ä ©qÄª¢®.					
36.	F	After solving any problem in different ways, when I tell my parents, then they praise my ability. £Á£Ä AiiÁª¦zÃ ¸ªÄ¸¦ª£Ä¤ ¨Ãg jÃwAiÄ° §U ºj¹ Cz£Ä¤ ¥Á®PjU ºÃ½zÁU CªgÄ ££¤ ¸Áª Äx¦ðAiÄz §U¦ ºÆÃU¼ÄvÁg.					
37.	G	I do not get breakfast on the day I wake up late. £Á£Ä vqªÁV Jz¦ ¢£ ££U ªÄÄAeÁ£AiÄ G¥ºÁg ¹UÄª¦¢®					
38.	H	My parents go to school to leave me there. ££¤£Ä¤ ±Ä¯U ©q®Ä ¥Á®PgÄ §gÄvÁg.					

Sr. no	Area	STATEMENTS	Mostly	Usually	Seldom	Very less	Never
39.	I	My parents do not worry for my future. ££ ¨«µz §U ¥Á®PgÄ aAw¸Ä«¢®					
40.	J	I read only when I wish. £Á£Ä Eµ §AzÁU NzÄvÄ£.					
41.	A	I do not go to the house of any of my relatives without the permission of my parents. £Á£Ä ¥Á®Pg C£Äªw E®zÄ £Á£Ä AiiÁªzÄ ¸A§A¢Pg ªÄ£U ºÆÃUÄ«¢®					
42.	B	When I do not reach home from school in time my parents go to school to take me. £Á£Ä ±Á¯ ©l£Avg ¸jAiiÁz ¸ªÄAiÄP ªÄ£U ºÆÃU¢zg ¥Á®PgÄ £££Ä PgzÆAiÄ®Ä ±Á¯U §gÄvÁg.					
43.	C	My parents become sad when I misbehave. £Á£Ä ¸jAiiÁV ªwð¹zg ¥Á®PgÄ zÄBTvgÁUÄvÁg.					
44.	D	My parents desire that every teachers may praise me. ±Á¯AiÄ J® UÄgÄU¼Ä £££Ä ºÆÃU¼¨ÃPAzÄ ££ ¥Á®PgÄ C¥ÃQ¸ÄvÁg.					
45.	E	When my parents become angry with me as a result of any of my behaviour, they do not allow me to go to play. ££ AiiÁªzÄ ªvð£¬ÄAz ¥Á®PgÄ ££ ªÄÃ¯ PÆÃ¥UÆAqÁU £££Ä Dl Dq®Ä ©qÄ«¢®					
46.	F	My parents reward me when I make anything new from the waste things available in the house ªÄ£AiÄ° ¨ÃqªÁz ª¸ÄU½Az K£ÁzgÆ ºÆ¸z£Ä ªiÁrzg ¥Á®PgÄ £££Ä ºÆÃU¼ÄvÁg.					
47.	G	My parents ask me to do more work in the form of punishment. ¥Á®PgÄ ²PAiÄ gÆ¥z° £Á£Ä P®¸ª£Ä ªiÁq®Ä ºÃ¼ÄvÁg.					
48.	H	My parents help me in doing homework of school. ±Á¯AiÄ° PÆngÄª ªÄ£P®¸ª£Ä ªiÁqÄªÁU ££ ¥Á®PgÄ ££U ¸ºÁAiÄ ªiÁqÄvÁg.					
49.	I	My parents leave me alone when I am sad. £Á£Ä zÄATBv£ÁzÁU ¥Á¼PgÄ £££Ä MAnAiiÁVg®Ä ©qÄvÁg					
50.	J	I can talk of every kind with my parents. £Á£Ä ¥æÄiÆÄAzÄ «µAiÁª£Ä ¥Á®PgÆq£ Zað¸ÄvÃ£					
51.	A	My parents do not allow me to wake at night after a certain time. gÁwæªÄ®Vz ¸® ¸ªÄAiÄz £Avg ¥Á®PgÄ £££Ä K¼®Ä ©qÄª¢®					
52.	B	My parents do not let me go at a distance from them in crowd. Uz® ¥æÄ±z ¸¼z° ¥Á®PgÄ £££Ä v«ÄAz zÆg ºÆÃU®Ä ©qÁª¢®					
53.	C	My parents feel frustration due to my undesirable work. £Á£Ä ¨ÃqªÁz P®¸ ªiÁqÄªzjAz ¥Á®PgÄ ¤gÁ±UÆ¼ÄvÁg.					
54.	D	My parents desire that I should help them in the					

Sr. no	Area	STATEMENTS	Mostly	Usually	Seldom	Very less	Never
		household work. £Á£Ä ªÄ£U¸z° ¸ºÁAiÄ ªiÁrzg ¥Á®PgÄ §AiÄ¸ÄvÁg.					
55.	E	My parents lock me in a room when I do not accede to their good suggestion knowingly. ¥Á®PgÄ ºÃ½z ªiÁv£Ä¯ M¥¢z¦° ££¯£Ä¯ PÆÃuAiÄ° PÆr ºÁPÄvÁg					
56.	F	My parents love me too much when I do any work honestly. £Á£Ä AiiÁª¦zÄ P®¸ª£Ä¯ ±æ¬ÄAz ªiÁrzg ¥Á®PgÄ ££¯£Ä¯ §º¼µÄ ¦æ¸ÄvÁg.					
57.	G	When I do anything wrong, my parents do not let me do those works in which I get enjoyment. £Á£Ä K£ÁzgÆ v¥Ä ªiÁrzÁU ¥Á®PgÄ ££U ¸AvÆÃµªÁUÄª P®¸ª£Ä¯ ªiÁq®Ä ©qÄ¢®					
58.	H	My parents ask for bringing monthly magazine of my choice for me for reading. ££U Nz®Ä Eµ«gÅª ¥wæÄiÄ£Ä¯ ¥æewAU¼Ä vg®Ä ºÃ¼ÄvÁg					
59.	I	When my parents do not like to fulfil my desire, then they do not pay any attention to my talks. ¥Á®PgÄ ££¯ ¨ÃrPU¼£Ä¯ ¥Ægɸ¢zÁU CªgÄ ££¯ ªiÁvÄU½U UªÄ£ PÆqÄª¦¢®					
60.	J	My parents let me sleep till I want to sleep. £Á£Ä ªÄ®U®Ä J°AiÄªgU §AiÄ¸ÄvÃ£ C°AiÄªgU ¥Á®PgÄ ££¯£Ä¯ ªÄ®U®Ä ©qÄvÁg					
61.	A	My parents have fixed the time of taking my food. £Á£Ä DºÁgª£Ä¯ ¸Ã«¸Äª ¸ªÄAiÄª£Ä¯ ££¯ ¥Á®PgÃ ¤¢ðµ¥r¸ÄvÁg.					
62.	B	My parents do not let me go alone for travelling out of fear of accident. ££U C¥WÁvªÁUÄvz JA§ ¨AiÄ¢Az ¥Á®PgÄ £Á£Ä MAnAiiÁV ¥æiÁt ªiÁq®Ä ©qÄª¦¢®					
63.	C	I am punished corporally when I insult my elders. zÆqªg£Ä¯ nÃQ¹zÁU ¥Á®PgÄ ££U ²PAiÄ£Ä¯ PÆqÄvÁg					
64.	D	My parents like that I should do all the works according to my family traditions. £ªÄ¡ PÀlÄA§z ¸A¸ÀwU C£ÀUÄtªÁV J® P®¸ª£Ä¯ ªiÁq¨ÃPAzÄ ¥Á®PgÄ Eµ¥qÄvÁg					
65.	E	Whenever I do any work wrong, then all the family persons stop talking with me. £Á£Ä v¥Ä P®¸ ªiÄrzÁU ªÄ£AiÄªg®gÆ ££¯ eÆv ªiÁv£ÁqÄª¦¢®					
66.	F	My parents while talking with other persons refer to my qualities ¨ÃgAiÄªg eÆv ªiÁv£ÁqÄªÁU ¥Á®PgÄ ££¯ UÄtU¼ §Uì ºÃ½Ã CªgUªÄ£ ¸¼AiÄÄvÁg.					
67.	G	The day I play much and read less, that day my parents give me food late. ¥Á®PgÄ £Á£Ä ºZÄ ¸ªÄAiÄ Dl Drz ªÄvÄ PrªÄ ¸ªÄAiÄ N¢z ¢£zAzÄ ££U Hlª£Ä¯ vqªÁV PÆqÄvÁg.					

Sr. no	Area	STATEMENTS	Mostly	Usually	Seldom	Very less	Never
68.	H	My parents feel pleasure in talking with me. ££ eÆv ªiÁv£ÁqÄªÁU ¥Á®PgÄ vÀA¨Á ¸AvÆÃµª£Ä ª¦P ¥r¸ÄvÁg					
69.	I	When I am unable to solve my problem then my parents ridicule of my ability. ¥Á®PgÄ ££ ¸ªÄ¸¦U¼£Ä §Uº j¹PÆ¼zÃ EzÁU ££ Cºð vAiÄ §U »ÃAiÁ½¸ÄvÁg					
70.	J	I can call my friends at the house. £Á£Ä ªÄ£¬ÃAz ££ U¼AiÄjU zÆgªÁt Pg ªiÁq§ºÄzÄ.					
71.	A	My parents do not let me talk with any girl/boy. AiiÁª¦zÃ ºÄqÄV/ºÄqÄU£ eÆv ªiÁv£ÁqÄ ££ ¥Á®PgÄ ©qÄª¦¢®					
72.	B	My parents do not let me go to places full of danger. C¥ÁÀiÄPÁj ¸¼U½U ºÆÃU®Ä ¥Á®PgÄ £££Ä ©qÄª¢®					
73.	C	My parents become angry with me on playing for a long time. £Á£Ä §º¼ ¸ªÄAiÄ Dl-DrzÁU ¥Á®PgÄ ££ ªÄÄ¯ PÆÃ¥UÆ¼ÅvÁg.					
74.	D	My parents desire to see me in the list of best students of the class. £Á£Ä Gvª« zÁ¤yðU¼ ¥nAiÄ° EgÄª¦z£Ä ¥Á®PgÄ §AiÄ¸ÄvÁg					
75.	E	After hearing radio for a long time my parents say me not to hear radio and I do not obey them then they do not let me meet with the guests. £Á£Ä gÄrAiÆÃª£Ä ºZÄ ¸ªÄAiÄ PÃ½zÁU ¥Á®PgÄ gÃrAiÆÃª£Ä ºZÄ ¸ªÄAiÄ PÃ¼¨Ãq JAzÄ ºÃ¼ÄvÁg ºÁUÆ Cªg ºÃ½z£Ä ¥Á°¸¢z¦g CwyU¼£Ä ¨nAiiÁU®Ä ©qÄª¦¢®.					
76.	F	When inquisitiveness develop in me after seeing anything, then my parents tell me about it. £Á£Ä E£ÆÄ§g£Ä £ÆÅr P°AiÄ®Ä EZ ¥mÁU ¥Á®PgÄ Cªg §U ºÃ¼ÄvÁg					
77.	G	When I do not go to bid goodbye any guest then my parents stop talking with me. ª®ÜÄª ªÄÄAZ ª£AiÄ°gÄª CwyU ±¨ gÁwæ JAzÄ ºÃ¼¢z¦g ¥Á®PgÄ ££ eÆv ªiÁv£ÁqÄª¦¢®					
78.	H	My parents help me in doing works of my hobbies. ££ ºª¤Á¸z P®¸ª£Ä ªiÁqÄªÁU ¥Á®PgÄ £EU ¸ºÁAiÄ ªiÁqÄvÁg.					
79.	I	My parents do not have any worry when I obtain less marks in any subject. £Á£Ä AiiÁª¦zÁzgÆ «µAiÄz° PrªÄ CAPª£Ä¥qzg ¥Á®PgÄ Czg §U aAv ªiÁqÄª¦¢®					
80.	J	When my parents ask me to do any work in the presence of guests, then I do it only if I desire. ª£U §Az CwyU¼ JzÄgÄ ¥Á®PgÄ P®¸					

Sr. no	Area	STATEMENTS	Mostly	Usually	Seldom	Very less	Never
		ªiÁq®Ä ºÃ½zÁU ££U Eµ Ezïg ªiÁvæ ªiÁqÄvÃ£.					
81.	A	My parents do not let me make noise in the house. £Á£Ä ªÄ£AiÄ° Uzï® ªiÁq®Ä ¥Á®PgÄ ©qÄªÀ¢®					
82.	B	My parents arrange for my lodging and boarding in advance when I go out of the house. £Á£Ä ªÄ£¬ÄAz ºÆgU ºÆÃzÁU ¥Á®PgÄ H l ªÄvÄ ª¸wU¼ ªÀª¸ïªiÁrgÄvÁg.					
83.	C	My parents get very sad when I do not obey them in the presence of some guests. ªÄ£U CwyÙ¼Ä §Az ¸ªÄAiÄz° ¥Á®PgÄ ºÃ½z ªiÁv£Ä£Ä PÃ¼¢zïg CªjU vÄA¨Á ¨Ã¸gªÁUÄvz.					
84.	D	My parents give example of any particular person to make me learn some behaviour. £Á£Ä º®ªÀ£qÄª½PU¼£Ä£Ä P°AiÄ¨ÄPAzÄ ££ïzÄgÄ ¥Á®PgÄ ¨Äg ªÀQU¼ GzÁºgu PÆqÄvÁg.					
85.	E	When I do some improper work then my parents expel me from the house. £Á£Ä Pl P®¸ ªiÁrzÁU ¥Á®PgÄ ªÄ£¬ÄAz ºÆgU ºÁPÄvÁg.					
86.	F	My parents become happy when I express any new idea. £Á£Ä ºÆ¸ «ZÁgU¼£Ä£Ä ¥Á®Pg JzÄgÄ ºÃ½zg CªjU ¸AvÆÃµªÁUÄvz.					
87.	G	When I quarrel with my brother and sister, good eatable brought are not given to me for eating. £Á£Ä ££ï ¸ºÆÃzg Cxª Á ¸ºÆÃzgAiÄg eÆv dU¼ ªiÁrzÁU AiiÁªÀzÃ wAr w¤¸ÄU¼£Ä£Ä ££U PÆqÄªÀ¢®.					
88.	H	When my parents take food with any guest I sit along with him. £Á£Ä ªÄ£U §Az CywU¼Æq£ ªÄvÄ ¥Á®PgÄ H l ªiÁqÄªÁU £Á£Ä CªgÆq£ PÄ½vÄPÆ½vÃ£					
89.	I	My parents do not have any worry about my health. ¥Á®PgÄ ££ï DgÆÃUïz §Uï aAw¸Äªï¢®					
90.	J	My parents allow me to play with every kind of children. ¥Á®PgÄ £Á£Ä J® ªÄP¼ÆA¢U Dl Dq®Ä ©qÄvÁg.					
91.	A	I am compelled to obey my parents when I disobey them before guest. £Á£Ä CwyU¼ ªÄÄAz ¸jAiiÁV ªwð¸¢zïg ¥Á®PgÄ ¸jAiiÁV ªwð¸ÄªAv MvÁAiÄ ªiÁqÄvÁg.					
92.	B	My parents do not let me touch electrical implements. ££ï ¥Á®PgÄ ££U «zÄïvï G¥Pgt U¼£Ä£Ä »rAiÄ®Ä ©qÄªï¢®.					
93.	C	When I break the family traditions then I am rebuked. PÄlÄA§z ¸A¸ïw ¤AiÄªÄª£Ä£Ä ¥Á°¸¢zÁU ¥Á®PgÄ£Ä£ïÄ£Ä CwAiiÁV ²Q¸¯ÁUÄvz.					
94.	D	My parents think that I should not oppose their					

Sr. no	Area	STATEMENTS	Mostly	Usually	Seldom	Very less	Never
		conversation. £Á£Ä ¥Á®Pg ¸A¨Áµ uAiÄ£Ä¼ ¥æë n¸¨ÁgzAzÄ C¥ÃQ¸ÄvÁg.					
95.	E	When I insult any guest then my parents do not let me go outside of the house. £Á£Ä CwyU¼£Ä¼ Cªªi Á£ ªiÁrzg ¥Á®PgÄ ££¼£Ä¼ ºÆgU ºÆÃU®Ä ©qÄª¦¢®.					
96.	F	When I obtain more marks in examination then my parents congratulate me after calling me near them. £Á£Ä ¥jÃPAiÄ° ºZÄ CAPU½¹zÁU ¥Á®PgÄ ££¼£Ä¼ Cªg ºwg PgzÄ ºÁg¸ÄvÁg.					
97.	G	My parents put my things distant from me as a consequence of punishment. ¥Á®PgÄ ££U Eµ«gÄª ª¸ÄU¼£Ä¼ £¤¼Az zÆg«qÄª¦zg ªÄÆ®P ££¼£Ä¼ ²Q¸ÄvÁg.					
98.	H	Whenever I feel troubled my parents try to remove my trouble. £Á£Ä vÆAzgAiÄ°zÁU ¥Á®PgÄ Cz£Ä¼ ¤ªÁj¸®Ä ¥æëÄw¼¸ÄvÁg.					
99.	I	My parents cut jokes of my ideas. ££¼ «ZÁgU¼ §UÏ ¥Á®PgÄ ¨ºÁ¸¦ ªiÁqÄvÁg.					
100.	J	When my parents ask me to do any work in front of relatives then I do not do that work not being desirous. ¸A§Ã¢Pg ªÄÄAz ¥Á®PgÄ ££U P®¸ ªiÁq®Ä ºÃ½zg ££U Eµ«®¢zïg Cz£Ä¼ £Á£Ä ªiÁqÄª¦¢®.					

APPENDIX IV

SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS

KUPPUSWAMY, 1981

(MODIFIED BY GHOSH AND GHOSH, 2009)

SCORE CARD

A) EDUCATION		**SCORE**
1.	Professional or Honours	7
2.	Graduate or Post-Graduate	6
3.	Inter mediate or Post High School Diploma	5
4.	High School Certificate	4
5.	Middle School Certificate	3
6.	Primary School or literate	2
7.	Illiterate	1

B) OCCUPATION		**SCORE**
1	Profession	10
2	Semi Profession	6
3	Clerical, Shop-owner, Farmer	5
4	Skilled Worker	4
5	Semi-Skilled worker	3
6	Unskilled	2
7	Unemployment	1

C) FAMILY INCOME PER MONTH (in Rs.)		**SCORE**
1	≥45751	12
2	22851-45750	10
3	17151-22850	6
4	11451-17150	4
5	6851-11450	3
6	2301-6850	2
7	≤2300	1

INFLUENCE OF HOME ENVIRONMENT ON PERSONALITY TRAITS OF ADOLESCENTS

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ABSTRACT

The present study on influence of home environment on personality traits of adolescents was conducted in the year 2012-13 in Dharwad taluk of Karnataka. The sample for the study comprised 256 adolescents (128 boys and 128 girls) who were selected from 8^{th}, 9^{th}, 10^{th} standard, PUC-I and PUC-II classes from urban and rural areas. Self-structured questionnaire was used to collect background information of the subjects. The Big Five Inventory developed by John *et al*. (1991) was used to assess the personality traits and Home Environment Inventory developed by Mishra (1983) was used to assess the home environment of the subjects. The results revealed significant difference between the urban and rural adolescents in some of the personality traits such as agreeableness, conscientiousness and emotional stability wherein the urban adolescents were better in conscientiousness whereas the rural counterparts were better in agreeableness and emotional stability. Further results on the influence of home environment on the personality traits of adolescents indicated that almost all the components of home environment had significant influence on the personality traits of adolescents except control and punishment. The Protectiveness dimension had significant influence on agreeableness, emotional stability and openness to experience while Conformity on extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience, Social isolation on extroversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness and Reward on agreeableness and conscientiousness and deprivation of privileges on extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience and Nurturance on conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experience and Rejection on all the personality traits and Permissiveness on extroversion dimensions of personality. However, control and punishment dimensions had no significant influence on any of the personality traits.