

**ABSTRACT**

**IMPACT OF INTACT AND BROKEN FAMILY FUNCTIONING ON  
PSYCHOLOGICAL ADJUSTMENTS AND ACADEMIC  
PERFORMANCE OF ADOLESCENTS**

**AN ABSTRACT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE  
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

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**DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY  
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# **ABSTRACT**

## **IMPACT OF INTACT AND BROKEN FAMILY FUNCTIONING ON PSYCHOLOGICAL ADJUSTMENTS AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE OF ADOLESCENTS**

By

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Submitted

In partial fulfilment of the requirement of the Degree of Doctor of  
Philosophy in Psychology of Mizoram University, Aizawl, Mizoram.

Humans are inherently social creatures and live in communities. They live in families, tribes, and nations, interconnected as a global community, relying on cooperation to learn,

survive and thrive. This process of socialization begins in families. Families have long been acknowledged by researchers, policy-makers, and experts as the fundamental unit of society (Bogenschneider & Corbett, 2004). The 'most significant and persistent of all human social groups' is the family (Smit et al., 2009). The concept of family is central to the social life of individuals as it represents their earliest and most enduring relationships that have a whole lot of influence on their life.

Traditionally, the family had a narrow definition that included only relationships of blood, marriage, and adoption. More recently, the definition of family has expanded to include more variations based on strong commitment and emotional ties among the individuals living together. Close emotional ties, commitment, and care are the essential characteristics of a family. According to Worsley, 'Families can be considered as having a universal characteristic and serving as the fundamental building block of human society, that is, as a group of people united by shared objectives, reciprocal rights, and obligations' (Worsley, 1980).

Globally, the family is seen as the most permanent and essential social unit for the healthy functioning of individuals and society (Hochfeld, 2007). They provide the primary setting in which children learn the behaviour, attitudes, values, and beliefs deemed acceptable by society (Ogwo, 2013). Recent evidences confirm the important role families play in fostering academic success, productivity in the economy, social competence, and other outcomes (Bogenschneider & Corbett, 2010b). Families thus play a significant role in people's lives. As Ozbay observes, 'Unquestionably and significantly, families have a substantial and influential influence in a person's development' (Özbay, 2004).

Families are said to be 'Intact' if both biological parents live together with their children. The parents are obligated by law to provide for the children and directly share their earnings with them. An Intact family is a nuclear family whose composition has remained stable, without divorce or other sources of division, according to the Oxford English Dictionary. On the other hand, non-Intact families are made up of people who have lost a spouse, remarried, or have families where one or both parents have been divorced or have always been single.

With the family playing a crucial role in the development of children and adolescents. Recent studies on the family characteristics influencing personality formation and ensuring bonding among members (Berry et al., 2006; Relvas & Vaz, 2007). According to a study

based on mothers' reports, Intact families had the highest parental participation, the most pleasurable parent-child interactions, and the fewest conflicts between children and parents (Acock & Demo, 1994).

However, 'Intactness' of a family does not necessarily mean that it is healthy or that the child is well cared for. In an editorial published in 'Grand Magazine,' on June 19, 2012, Christine Crosby, asserts that a marriage's 'Intactness' is in no way a predictor of its health or of whether it will be harmful to a child. The 'Intact' doctrine allows parents who are destructive and abusive to conceal their misdeeds from the law, grandparents, and other members of the extended family. Majority of parents however are kind, caring, and loving. Most children in Intact families, who are raised by both biological parents, have rarely witnessed a marital breakdown. The benefits of this family arrangement for kids have been postulated to be numerous. First, both biological parents are easily accessible to youngsters. However, Intact families may still have parental conflict (Simons et al., 1996), and parents' physical presence does not guarantee their emotional presence (La Rossa, 1988). In other words, spending more time together does not always translate into higher quality time (Acock & Demo, 1994).

A broken family is defined as one that is structurally not intact (Adu-Okoree et al., 2020; Ichado, 1998; Omoruyi, 2014). A variety of reasons could lead to family breakup. Anderson, (2021), a psychiatrist and psychotherapist, who specializes in the treatment of trauma notes that "A broken family is one that includes unhealthy or severed relationships within the family unit. They are often associated with divorce but certainly can occur in an Intact family where various members are in conflict with or estranged from each other." In such cases the children are raised by single parents, stepparents or others related to the biological parents. The break-up of a family can have many negative impacts on the children as they are more likely to develop emotional issues, such as anger, resentment, loneliness and depression. Children from broken families are more likely to engage in early sexual activities and have difficulties in school. Children raised in broken family environments may have their social and educational processes are negatively affected. (Mooney et al., 2009). They may experience more conflicts, and display addictive, timid, and accusatory characteristics. They are generally known to be unstable and may face many traumatic experiences as they are likely to miss the emotional and psychological security, in particular the warmth, love, and companionship that cohabiting couples create between themselves and, in turn, between them and their children, is what defines a family. (Barnard, Alan John, 2021).

Numerous studies have demonstrated that children from non-Intact families— those without two married biological parents—are more likely to display adverse psychological and educational outcomes, such as poorer academic performance, riskier behaviour, and decreased subjective well-being, compared to children from Intact families— those with both the married biological parents (Shek et al., 2015). According to researchers, a person's current or previous family structure may explain why they have lower psychological health (Ganong & Coleman, 2016), physical (Sauvola et al., 2000), as well as emotional and educational well-being (Schrodt & Ledbetter, 2007), among other issues.

A broken family environment, besides affecting them emotionally and psychologically, also affect children's academic performance (Achilike, 2017; Adu-Okoree, et al., 2020; Awoniyi, 2019; Kasoma, 2013; Minolin & Priya, 2018; Ugwuta, 2016; Smardon, 2008). It is because the children from such backgrounds generally find it difficult to cope with situations at home as well as in school settings. The success of pupils in the classroom has a direct impact on the quality of graduates a country produces, graduates who will be able to play key roles in the country's political and economic spheres (Ali et al., 2009). Past researchers have found that a wide variety of factors—mental, financial, social, emotional, and environmental—that might influence a student's academic performance and success.

Academic performance can be characterized as all-around excellence in all academic fields, both in the classroom and outside of it. It involves distinction in areas like sportsmanship, self-assurance, communication abilities, punctuality, the arts, and culture, which can only be attained when a person is well adjusted. Academic achievement is the ability to acquire knowledge or certain level of competence in school tasks often measured by standardized tests and expressed in a grade or units based on students' performance (Trow, 1956). Academic achievement, according to Good (1959), is "the knowledge received or abilities developed in the school disciplines generally designed by test scores or marks issued by the teacher." It is the academic performance of the students encompasses both their curriculum and extracurricular activities (Mehta,1969).

A case study of the Mizoram exploring the impact of intact and non-intact family functioning on psychological adjustments and academic performance of adolescents brought us to interesting findings. Mizoram is one of the states in India which has been successful in bringing almost all children to at least the primary school. However, it is found that psychological and mental disorders ranging from anxiety, depression, inattentiveness,

insomnia, among others were prevalent among school children because of the excess usage of drugs and other substance abuse among the students. This is an alarming news for all the stakeholders of education and the administration.

This study tried to determine how the phenomenon of broken families affect the psychological adjustment of the children, which results in their poor academic performance, within the context of Mizoram and Aizawl city in particular. Additionally, this study may assist parents and other stakeholders in understanding the enormous risk they expose their children to and in prioritizing their future and their proper care and upbringing so that they can successfully reintegrate into the family and society at large.

200 male and 200 female adolescents, each from intact and broken homes in equal proportion, were randomly selected from classes IX to XII from a representative random sample of secondary and higher secondary schools in the city of Aizawl, Mizoram. A demographic information schedule was used to determine their family structure, i.e., whether they were from intact or broken families. The demographic information of the participants like age, sex, religion, family type (joint/nuclear), school and class in which they were studying were recorded to equate/match the participants to maintain homogeneity and representativeness of the sample for the study.

Samples were randomly selected from different schools within and around the city of Aizawl, *viz.* St. Paul's Higher Secondary School, Synod Higher Secondary School, Home Mission School, Mount Carmel School, Govt. Mizo Higher Secondary School, Govt. Central Higher Secondary School, and Govt. Dintar High School, and St. Xavier's Higher Secondary School.

The main objective of this study was to investigate the impact of intact and broken family functioning on psychological adjustments and academic performance of adolescents. To address this objective, the items across the behavioral measures of family functioning (the General Scale of the Family Assessment Measure; Skinner, Stainhauer & Santa-Barabara, 1995), psychological adjustment (the Personality Assessment Questionnaire; Rohner & Khaleque, 2005), mental well-being as indexed through the students' levels of depression and anxiety (Beck Depression Inventory – II; Beck, Steer & Brown, 1996; and Beck Anxiety Inventory; Beck & Steer, 1993), identity (the Identity Subscale of Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory; Rosenthal, Gurney & Moore, 1981), and the cumulative grade point average of the

students were first prepared in Microsoft Excel (Office 2007) and then, transferred to SPSS – 22 (Statistical Product and Service Solutions, Version 22).

The average profiles of the samples across the categories (based on family structure and gender), all fit into the ‘moderate’ area of family functioning, which is to say that Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female all see their respective families as functioning normally on an average. None of the profiles warranted reasons for clinical concern, although Skinner et al. (1983) recommended that the profiles must be validated with other sources of information, such as face-to-face interviews, other psychometric tests.

The Item Mean scores of both Intact Male and Intact Female were 2.39 and 2.49 respectively and both scores may be interpreted as ‘Low’. This indicates that both male and female children from intact families have low overall psychological adjustment. On the other hand, the Item Mean scores of Broken Male and Broken Female, i.e., 2.56 and 2.77 respectively, both of which may be interpreted as “High”, indicating that both male and female children from broken homes or non-intact families show high overall psychological adjustment.

Out of the total samples, male and female adolescents from intact families, and male adolescents from broken families tend to experience mild levels of depression, while female adolescents from broken families tend to experience moderate levels of depression.

On looking at the Item Mean responses of the samples, those of Intact Male samples (0.49), Intact Female samples (0.67) and Broken Male samples (0.48) indicate that these particular samples tend to experience mild levels of anxiety, while those of Broken Female samples (0.77) indicate that they tend to experience moderate levels of anxiety.

It is further revealing that male children from intact families tend to be the least identity-confused and highest in their identity-achievement among the samples. At the same time, Intact Female (2.38), Broken Male (2.18) and Broken Female (2.15) samples can be interpreted as moderate. That is, the identity achievement of these samples can be said of as moderate. None of the samples exhibit ‘low’ identity-achievement on an average.

The average CGPA of the Intact Male, Intact Female and Broken Female Samples (6.55, 6.54 and 6.48 respectively) can be graded ‘C1’ with their percentages lying between 51-60. On the other hand, the average CGPA of Broken Male samples of 5.88 can be graded as ‘C2’ with a percentage range of 41-50.

Although children from broken families may be expected to show higher levels of anxiety due to the unstable environment caused by divorce, findings from the study prove otherwise. Conflict, rather than structure, may be the most important predictor of children's psychological well-being. According to Bishop and Ingersoll (1989), marital conflict has a stronger influence on teenagers' self-concept than family structure. Mechanic and Hansell (1989) discovered that family conflict had a greater direct impact on long-term changes in well-being (i.e., depression, anxiety, physical & social well-being, self-esteem) than the structure of the family structure.

The analysis showed that family structure did have a statistically significant main effect on the cumulative grade point average (CGPA) of the students. The findings suggest that students from broken families show poorer academic performance than students from intact families as shown through their CGPA.

From these findings, it is indeed clear that divorce and dissolution may have an association with reduced school success and accomplishment. The negative relationship between family functioning and academic performance was more pronounced for children from non-intact families, whether male or female, than from intact families. Previous researches have shown that this disparity starts from primary education with divorce-exposed adolescents being less likely to continue education in adulthood (Biblarz & Gottainer, 2000; Astone & McLanahan, 2001). During the phase of marital disturbance, children have poorer academic expectations and test scores. Moreover, the financial instabilities created by divorce is problematic as it results in the decline of the standard of living (Ducan & Holfman, 1985; Whitman, 1985) thereby affecting the standard of education.

The findings suggest that identity and adjustment may not necessarily predict academic performance while, on the other hand, family functioning seems to significantly predict academic performance, especially for Broken females. Although boys from broken homes do tend to suffer more academic problems, Allison and Furstenberg (1989) found that female adolescents also suffer academically, especially concerning with teacher-rated assessments, although the mechanisms underlying gender-related processes within the family context in relation to academic performance is still unclear. The effect of non-intactness on academic performance in relation to the family process (and its facets) and other variables is a problem requiring further consideration.



To examine the predictability of Academic Performance of the participants as indicated by their CGPA from Family Functioning, Adjustment and Identity, hierarchical regression analyses were executed for all units of the analysis. From these analyses, we are able to see that family functioning, identity and adjustment significantly predicted academic performance only for intact males and broken females. On further examining the main effects for intact males, we find that there were no significant main effects of family functioning, identity and adjustment on academic performance. However, for broken females, the effect of family functioning was significant at each level of the analysis, although the effects of identity and adjustment were not significant.

To test for the moderating role of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA), moderation analysis was executed for intact male, intact female, broken male and broken female separately. Moderation was found only for intact male samples. Simple slope analysis and conditional effects of Family Functioning on CGPA at different values of Identity revealed that only when the level of identity was high, the relationship between family functioning and academic performance was significantly moderated.

To test for the moderating role of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA), moderation analysis was executed for intact male, intact female, broken male and broken female separately. Moderation was found only for intact male samples. Simple slope analysis and conditional effects of Family Functioning on CGPA at different values of Identity revealed that only when the level of identity was low, the relationship between family functioning and academic performance was significantly negative.

Male children from intact families, irrespective of their family structure may still perform poorly in their academic activities. One particular study (Lin et al., 2019) found that family functioning, rather than family structure, plays a more important role in predicting the reasoning abilities and math achievement among American minorities. Families with varied home structures perform differently, notably in terms of cohesion, flexibility, and communication, i.e. “adolescents demonstrate better cognitive functioning in environments with high levels of organization, limit setting and parental support (Schroeder and Kelley 2010). This is evident in Taylor et al. (2010) who found that African-American

children from single-parent households do not perform worse in terms of their academic activities than those of children from two-biological parent homes; some, in fact, thrive.

This study thus finds that children from broken families show poorer family functioning than children from Intact families and that the family structure does have an effect on all of these variables except anxiety. Children from broken families were poorer in family functioning, were more maladjusted, and performed poorly in their academics than children from Intact families. Identity and psychological maladjustment moderated the relationship between family functioning and academic performance among male children of Intact families only. Gender differences were found for the behavioural measures except identity, with the males poorer in their presentation of their family functioning than females. Though the females tend to be poorer in psychological adjustment than males, and experience higher levels of depression and more symptoms of anxiety than males. Also, females tend to perform academically better than males.

Conventionally, and from past literature, adjustment (or maladjustment) should further propel the negative effects of family functioning. As with the moderating effect of identity, the moderation of adjustment was significant for only intact males at the low level. Again, explanations for this particular characteristic are yet pervasive and future studies must –again – detail the experiences of the four levels of analysis to provide a satisfactory answer. It may only be gleaned here at this stage that family functioning and dysfunctioning in Intact families influence the performance of their boys especially those with strong identity, indicating that all may not be well in intact families as well. It is the functioning also and not only the family structure that is important for healthy development of children.

The findings from the moderation analyses only partially support the fourth hypothesis. Identity and psychological maladjustment play a moderating role in the relationship between family functioning and academic performance, but only for intact males. This could possibly be due to differences in experiences of the particular sample, i.e. Intact Male. A qualitative approach detailing the experience of each particular sample (Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female) may shed some light on the findings.

The study does suffer from certain **limitations**. First, the study does not contextualize the effects of demographic factors on family functioning other than that of family structure. Previous studies have shown that the effects of socioeconomic factors such as poverty, the

gender of the parent in a single-parent household, the educational attainment of parents and regional differences (e.g., urban vs rural residence) do have an effect on a child's well-being, as well as on his or her cognitive and academic experiences (Wenk & Hardesty, 1993; Garrett, An'andu, & Ferron, 1994; Huston, 1991; Boyer, 1993; Furstenberg & Kiernan, 2001). For such reasons, and to better understand the circumstances of the family environment, it is suggested that future studies must consider integrating other socioeconomic and demographic factors to determine their effects on family functioning.

The study also does not address the effect of the time of divorce on children among broken families. It has been well-documented that parental divorce can have negative consequences for children, because it causes great distress during a developmentally critical point of life. These consequences can be seen in the emotional, psychological, educational, social, and interpersonal reactions of the children (Rappaport et al., 2013). Previous studies have mentioned that children who experienced parental divorce in their youth, under the age of 21 are more likely to enter into sexual relationships at an earlier age than children who experienced parental divorce in young adulthood (Furstenberg & Kiernan, 2001), end their relationships faster (Furstenberg & Kiernan, 2001; Kiernan & Cherlin, 1999), while those who were adults are less likely to have children earlier and out-of-wedlock (Furstenberg & Kiernan, 2001). Future studies must also consider the effects of the timing of parental divorce since early life stages could be the most vulnerable since children lack understanding and the ability to mourn their loss, and since it provides ample time for the negative consequences of divorce to accumulate (Kalter & Rembar, 1981).

Another limitation with the study is that, the quality and type of parental control was not addressed and therefore, it is suggested that future researches should look at the form and extent of parental control in order to have a better understanding of how broken families and families – in general – function. Also, while the current study does not address specifically to the educational context of the respondents, the results does suggest that males, especially those from non-Intact families may be suffering academically. To further look into this problem, subsequent studies are recommended especially those that consider the sociocultural elements and backgrounds of the Mizo population. Moreover, with the questionnaires used in the study relying on a self-report of the respondents across the items, the possibility of response bias cannot be ruled out. Therefore, it is suggested that the results and findings must be interpreted with caution.

Despite its limitations, the study does provide further **insight** to the effect of family structure on family functioning, the results of the current study have significant implications for future research and professional practice because there is so little existing literature on children's behavioural outcomes and family functioning within the Mizo context. The current research has shown that children from broken families are more likely to experience psychological, behavioural and academic problems. Specifically, children from Broken families tend to be poorer in their self-presentation of family functioning, poorer in psychological adjustment, higher in depression, more confused in their sense of identity and poorer in their academic performance. Given that this study's findings support a link between children's behaviour and family functioning, it is crucial for teachers and mental-health professionals working with this population to comprehend this link and be aware of any potential implications for the development of the child and the family as a whole. Given the major findings, it is crucial that family functioning be improved to the highest possible level while identifying risk factors for child and adolescent adjustment problems, including academic difficulties, behavioural problems and substance use problems, and mood problems while identifying for child and adolescent adjustment problems, including academic difficulties, behavioural problems and substance use problems, and depressed mood (Lee & McLanahan, 2015).

The current work suggests that there are notable differences in the family functioning of Intact and Broken families with the negative consequences being more pronounced among children from broken families. Extant literature is hardly robust especially for the Mizo population. It is strongly encouraged that researchers continue to document the nuanced differences between Intact and broken families, especially in the ways family structure affects the developmental contexts of children. To best serve the psychological and academic needs of children, we must establish their unique needs that are specific and characteristic of them. Once these needs are accurately established, we will be able to provide efficacious support for all children.

The findings from the current study can be used to substantiate the need and implementations of psychoeducational programs and workshops that addresses the problems faced by children coming from Broken families. Moreover, psychologists, policy makers and educators may take the information provided by the study into consideration when creating research-based interventions to target specific social issues and as a way of improving academic outcomes. That is, interventions and rehabilitation plans may be tailored for

students suffering from the negative consequences of divorce in ways that are slightly different for students from other contexts. Additionally, it is suggested that future studies look into the protective factors specific to the Mizo culture which will be important in understanding of interventions aimed at improving the cognitive and academic progresses that will result in viable and transferable gains.

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**DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY**

**MIZORAM UNIVERSITY**

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**Dated: 29<sup>th</sup> December 2022**

**SUPERVISOR'S CERTIFICATE**

This is to certify that the present research work titled, “**Impact of Intact and Broken Family Functioning on Psychological Adjustments and Academic Performance of Adolescents**” is an original research work carried out by James P. K. under my supervision. The work done is being submitted for the award of the Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology of Mizoram University.

This is to further certify that the research conducted by James P.K. has not been submitted in support of an application to this or any other University or an Institute of Learning.

**(PROF. H.K. LADINPUII FENTE)**

Supervisor



## **DECLARATION**

Mizoram University

December, 2022

I, James P.K., hereby declare that the subject matter of this thesis is the record of work done by me, that the contents of this thesis did not form basis of the award of any previous degree to me or to the best of my knowledge to anybody else, and that the thesis has not been submitted by me for any research degree in any other University / Institute.

This is being submitted to the Mizoram University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology.

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I dedicate this body of work to Montfort Brothers of St. Gabriel, Province of North East India, the Congregation that I belong to and who continue to support me. To all my former superiors and to all the Brothers of the Province.

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Chapter - I

**INTRODUCTION**



**IMPACT OF INTACT AND BROKEN FAMILY FUNCTIONING ON  
PSYCHOLOGICAL ADJUSTMENTS AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE  
OF ADOLESCENTS**

*"Other things may change us, but we start and end with family"*

*- Anthony Brandt*

Anthony Brandt's observation that 'family plays a key part in defining one's life' may very well apply to many people. This may be especially clear for young people, who frequently look to their families for direction, support, and nurturing throughout their childhood. In fact, one of the most significant factors affecting young people's physical, mental, as well as psychological health is their family. (Saelens and Kerr, 2008). Numerous worldwide studies have long emphasised the importance of family relationships, particularly those between parents and young people, for young people's well-being (Andersen et al., 2006; Gustafson & Rhodes, 2006; Loucaides & Chedzoy, 2005; Ommundsen et al., 2006; Raudsepp & Vira, 2000; Timperio et al., 2006; Trost et al., 2003; Yang et al., 1996). It is from the family that a child normally acquires their individual identity, learns language, and develops cognitive and social skills.

Family plays a key role in shaping academic performance, occupational aspirations, and societal well-being and success. (Achilike, 2017; Adu-Okoree et.al., 2020; Awoniyi, 2019; Kasoma, 2013; Minolin & Priya, 2018; Ugwuta, 2016; Smardon, 2008). However, the families could be Intact or Broken due to separation of parents, the death of one parent, and illegitimacy. (Adu-Okoree et al., 2020; Ichado, 1998; Omoruyi, 2014). Usually, children from Broken families suffer from neglect or lack of care and develop psychological imbalances in their lives, impacting their attitudes, feelings, thoughts, and behaviours (Thiessen, 1997). The insecurities, and self-doubt eventually make them uninterested in school and stunt their academic progress, eventually leading to anger, depression, revenge, alcohol, crimes, and drugs (Frazer, 2001).

In Mizoram, though the children from Broken families are mostly well-taken care of by other family members or social and Church organizations, they too, face psychological challenges that may have detrimental effects on their school performances. With the cases of Broken families on the increase (Fambawl, J. R., 2004), the Mizo society needs to pay greater attention to its consequences on children. This present study is to shed light on the plight of the children who are affected by the Brokenness caused by separation and divorce in comparison to their counterparts hailing from Intact families, besides helping the authorities in the education and social sector to understand the plight of such children and devise appropriate plans to help them with needed accompaniment through counselling and guidance.

Traditionally, the family is defined as the natural and fundamental group unit of society in international documents (OHCHR, n.d.), but there are a number of phenomena that have a detrimental effect on how the family functions (Howitt, 1992). The concept of family has persisted throughout human history despite the fact that the family structures have evolved and changed through time and across cultures. Family as a socio-cultural institution have been living in people's minds for as long as there have been human beings, but only recently have scientists begun to examine these concerns scientifically in the area of mental health and family functioning in the face of stress. This also causes behavioural as well as biomedical scientists to focus more on this variable. There is a widespread belief that families have always been and will continue to be society's primary institution for addressing fundamental human needs including survival, affection, social standing, and self-realization. The family not only supports the child's physiological needs but also guides its growth into an adult who can function successfully in society and carry on cultural traditions. While the topic of mental well-being has received a lot of attention, mental health experts still put much of their attention on the origins of family dysfunction (David, 1978).

Globally, the family is seen as the most permanent and essential social unit for the healthy functioning of individuals and society (Hochfeld, 2007). Families are the primary setting in which children learn the behaviour, attitudes, values, and beliefs deemed acceptable by society (Ogwo, 2013). Families have long been acknowledged

by researchers, policy-makers, and experts as the fundamental unit of society (Bogenschneider & Corbett, 2004). Recent evidence of the important role families plays in fostering academic success, productivity in the economy, social competence, and other outcomes have reinforced these long-held beliefs, according to researchers (Bogenschneider & Corbett, 2010). The "most significant and persistent of all human social groups" is the family (Smit et al., 2009).

A family typically consists of parents and their children, grandparents and occasionally other close or distant relatives who share warmth, affection, and camaraderie can also be a part of this social circle. Families can be considered as having a universal characteristic and serving as the fundamental building block of human society, that is, as a group of people united by shared objectives, reciprocal rights, and obligations (Worsley, 1980). A family must be distinguished from a 'household,' which may include boarders and other people who share a common residence.

There are three different viewpoints that have been used to define families throughout history (Wamboldt & Reiss, 1991). Structural definitions distinguish between the families of origin, families of procreation, and extended families depending on the presence or absence of certain family members, such as parents and children. Psychosocial task definitions depend on whether groups of people work together to complete particular tasks, such as managing a household, raising and educating children, and offering one another financial and emotional support. Last but not least, transactional definitions are based on whether or not intimate groupings produce a feeling of family identity with emotional attachments and an experience of history and the future through their behaviour. (Fitzpatrick & Ritchie, 1993).

Families play a significant role in people's lives. Typically, they provide a secure place for members to seek comfort and find solutions (Grevenstein et al. 2019). Despite environmental stressors, family members who receive the necessary care and support may have mental health exceptionally and thrive in their daily duties and responsibilities (Dunn et al., 2013). Unquestionably and significantly, families have a substantial and influential influence in a person's development (Özbay, 2004).



Children of divorced and separated parents have been observed to struggle significantly with psychological adjustments. (Leung & Robson, 1990). Pope Francis, the supreme head of the Catholic Church, asserts this reality by saying that "The family is the foundation of co-existence and a preventative measure for societal fragmentation. Children have a right to be raised in a family with a mother and a father who can foster an environment conducive to their growth and emotional maturity." (Cerith Gardiner in Aleteia, 2019).

According to some researchers, a person's current or previous family structure may help explain why they have lower psychological health (Ganong & Coleman, 2016), physical (Sauvola et al., 2000), as well as emotional well-being (Schrodt & Ledbetter, 2007), among other issues. A family composition may include a caregiver as well as other residents of the household who may or may not be related to the caregiver, such as siblings, half-siblings, or step-siblings (2016 Canadian census). Studies on family structure typically concentrate on biological families, which are made up of two biological parents and a biological child. Stepfamilies, which are households where a child or children live with one biological parent and a non-biological parent, or even single-parent families, which consist of just one parent and a child or children, have rarely been studied. This might be as a result of the relatively recent growth of breakdown both inside and throughout society. Prior to the 1980s, remarriage and single-parent family statistics were unheard of due to the rarity of this family composition. Stepfamilies were also typically formed as a result of the death of one of the biological parents rather than divorce (Hill, Yeung, & Duncan, 2001). In such a society, two parents were necessary in order to maintain the family Intactness (Ganong & Coleman, 2017). Since the 1980s, biological families have declined, while step and single-parent families have increased by leaps and bounds (Love & Murdock, 2001). Such a phenomenon might result from new and improved conceptions as well as more open-minded viewpoints on continuing in a marriage or partnership (Hetherington, Bridges, & Insabelle, 1998). In particular, earlier socio-cognition may have been associated with sustaining a relationship despite complicated issues,

whereas today's couples may choose to quit a relationship due to a number of complex issues (Ganong & Coleman, 2017).

The family plays a crucial role in the development of children and adolescents since recent studies on the family, characterise it as a favourable environment for personality formation and binding (Berry et al., 2006; Relvas & Vaz, 2007). The experiences within the family are unique, making the child's relationship with parents and other family members perilous for the child's social development (Thompson, 1998, as cited in Laible et al., 2004). When a child is born, a process of individual development within the family starts, during which the child learns values, habits, and linguistic codes that make them unique from other children. Consequently, how children and adolescents develop their personalities is greatly influenced by the family environment (Ribeiro, 2007; Relvas & Vaz, 2007). It is through learning within the family as well as parenting, that the child develops psychologically and socially (Relvas & Vaz, 2007). Children can better prepare for life outside of the family by experiencing the realities of family interactions (Jackson & Leonetti, 2001).

A nuclear family is typically thought to be the most common family type in most societies. It is a two-generational family made up of a father, who is often married to a mother, and their offspring or offsprings. Emotional and psychological security, in particular the warmth, love, and companionship that cohabiting couples create between themselves and, in turn, between them and their children, is what defines a family (Barnard, 2021). As a result, given the strong emotional bonds among its members and the obvious simplicity with which it functions, nuclear families are typically thought of as the most desirable sort of family structure.

Families are essential to a person's development on the social, emotional, and mental levels. They are primarily responsible for educating and socialising their children, as well as for cultivating values of citizenship and preparing them for responsible adults in the society. Parental involvement and support, in particular, have a beneficial and enduring effect on their children's emotional, social, and mental growth as well as their academic development. Additionally, preparing a child for school and providing them with positive encouragement and positive reinforcement

from their parents and other family members assist them in developing the language, social, emotional, and problem-solving skills necessary for good academic performance and, ultimately, a healthier and more fruitful and meaningful adult life. According to a lengthy study that was published in September 2016 in 'Psychological Science,' men and women who grew up in family environment that were warmer and more nurturing have stronger relations as older adults (Caruso, 2017).

Thus, it is considered that the extent to which families involved in their children's education and the encouragement of learning at home are the strongest predictors of student achievement (National PTA, 2000). Parents are a child's first educator. A child's family and home environment have strong impact on his/her language and literacy development and educational achievement. This impact is stronger during the child's early years but continues throughout their school years. Most parents want their children to perform well in school, but they frequently do not realize how family life itself can significantly affect their children's academic capacity. The results are more significant and persist longer when parents actively participate in their children's development of emotional and social skills as well as literacy practices early on (Bonci, 2008).

Only from a structural perspective, which emphasises family membership and where Intactness depends on whether a family has all the members allotted to it, such as parents and children in a family of procreation, does it make sense to define a family as Intact. The definition of families as Intact makes little sense from the other two perspectives since they concentrate on what families do and how they do it. According to these viewpoints, a family can be any collection of individuals that satisfies the many obligations of a family, regardless of the group's structure. In addition, function is a continuum, whereas Intactness is a categorical attribute. In other words, while functioning can take on an unlimited number of values ranging from severely dysfunctional to perfectly functioning, Intactness is binominal (i.e., Intact vs. Broken).

Because the theoretical construct of the family is defined simultaneously based on conflicting and independent approaches that emphasize either structure or functionality, many researchers and readers interpret 'Intact' as being similar to 'well-

functioning.’ Furthermore, it has been found empirically that Intactness and functioning correlate through a number of mediating variables. Although the empirical relationship between Intactness and functioning appears to highlight the dangers of equating the two, it is critical to acknowledge their definitional independence and concentrate on the mediating factors that causally link structure and functioning. The stability of the parental relationship - typically the marriage - distinguishes Intact families from Broken families in addition to the fact that they are more functional. Because children cannot and do not leave their parents under normal circumstances, and because the stability of the parent-child connection determines whether a family remains Intact. This apparent innocent factual truth, especially in light of the relative strengths of parents and children in families, has profound implications for family communication (Fitzpatrick & Koerner, 2004).

### **Intact Family**

According to the Oxford Pocket Dictionary of Current English an ‘Intact Family’ is a nuclear family in which membership has remained constant, in the absence of divorce or other divisive factors. Families are said to be Intact if both biological parents live together. The parents are obligated by law to provide for the children and directly share their earnings with them. A nuclear family may be conceived as a unit consisting of a couple, children, and grandparents, and pets. In India however, there exists a special kind of family structure that really is quite vivid in the way it manages to handle and keep Intact the human relations. This special kind of family structure is joint family system. A joint family is a collection of more than one, nuclear families that are interconnected by blood relations or marital relations. All the members, regardless of which particular nuclear family (within that joint family) they belong to, live together and share happiness, grief, and virtually every kind of problem and joy together. The joint family in itself simulates a typical view of the human multi-cultural, multi-lingual, yet tightly intertwined Indian society (Himani Bhasin, (2016). On the other hand, Broken families are made up of people who have lost a spouse, remarried, or have families where one or both parents have been divorced or have always been single.

In an editorial published on June 19, 2012, the editor of 'Grand Magazine,' Christine Crosby, asserts that a marriage's 'Intactness' is in no way a predictor of its health or of whether it will be harmful to a child. The 'Intact' doctrine allows parents who are destructive and abusive to conceal their misdeeds from the law, grandparents, and other members of the extended family. The majority of parents are kind, caring, and loving. However, the 'Intactness' of a family does not necessarily mean that it is healthy or that the child is well-cared-for.

Families who are 'Intact' go through all kinds of chaos, from regular arguments and issues to potentially fatal situations. The fundamental dualism of this separatist mentality breaks family harmony. Even little issues between parents and grandparents have the potential to become serious and endure a lifetime. Legal doctrine that is cut and dried has a tendency to turn transient conflicts into ongoing issues.

The idea of an 'Intact' family does not correspond to how families and interpersonal connections actually function. Parents must be shielded from their rash decisions and acts. Grandparent visitation regulations, which recognise that grandparents play a significant role in families, have so far kept many families from destruction. There is a need for grandparents to be reachable by children. In the long run, this has been advantageous for parents who are obliged to appropriately deal with grandparents rather than avoiding the issues and causing themselves to suffer continuously.

Most children in Intact families, who are raised by both biological parents, have rarely witnessed a marital breakdown. The benefits of this family arrangement for kids have been postulated to be numerous. First, both biological parents are easily accessible to youngsters. According to a study based on mothers' reports, Intact families had the highest parental participation, the most pleasurable parent-child interactions, and the fewest conflicts between children and parents (Acock & Demo, 1994). However, Intact families may still have parental conflict (Simons et al., 1996), and parents' physical presence does not guarantee their emotional presence (La Rossa, 1988). In other words, spending more time together does not always translate into higher quality time (Acock & Demo, 1994).

Numerous studies have demonstrated that children from Broken families - those without two married biological parents, are more likely to display psychological maladjustment and poor educational outcomes, such as poorer academic performance, riskier behaviour, and decreased subjective well-being, compared to children from Intact Families - those with two married biological parents (Shek et al., 2015).

### **Broken Family**

Broken families are families that are Broken due to death or separation (Anonymous, 2011). It is stated that children who are raised in Broken family environments display various compliance problems (Anonymous, 2011), their social and educational processes are negatively affected, academic success rates drop (Mooney et al., 2009), they experience more conflicts, and display addictive, timid, and accusatory characteristics. Anderson, (2021), a psychiatrist and psychotherapist, who specializes in the treatment of trauma notes that "A Broken family is one that includes unhealthy or severed relationships within the family unit. They are often associated with divorce but certainly can occur in an Intact family where various members are in conflict with or estranged from each other."

One parent and their children form a single-parent family; the parent may be single, widowed, or divorced (and has not married again). One parent may be granted sole legal responsibility for the children, and the children may have access to one of the parents, or separated parents may have a shared parenting arrangement where the children spend time (maybe equally) with one single-parent family, a blended family, or two separate single-parent families. Children's physical, emotional, and social welfare may be improved by shared parenting arrangements and increased time spent with both parents over sole custody. Before the age of 18, around half of all children in the United States will reside in a single-parent family, and this number has been growing. The mother is typically the head of single-parent families, but the proportion of single-parent families headed by the father is rising.

A parent's divorce affects one in four children in Europe today, and one in ten of those children live with just one parent, usually the mother. The dissolution of a

family may bring about various changes that could be stressful for each individual. When one parent is in charge of the child and family tasks that were previously managed by two parents, family roles and functioning might become disorganised. In the months leading up to divorce, many families frequently encounter financial challenges, which may cause adjustments to the home, school, and job. (Ribeiro, 2007).

According to Souza (2000) and Ribeiro (2007), divorce is a complicated process that involves many adjustments rather than a phenomenon that happens daily. It has a long history prior to happening, which is likely what causes the child's misery and suffering. Divorce is one of the most traumatic experiences a child may go through since it might feel unstable and dangerous, and it is expected that the youngster would react with strong, perhaps lasting emotions (Ribeiro, 2007). Children may act violently or aggressively, be demanding, or be uncooperative in these situations to express their rage, perplexity, and resentment (Hetherington & Stanley-Hagan, 1995).

One of the most unexpected demographic shifts of recent decades is the sharp increase in single-parent families (Garfinkel & McLanahan, 1986; Norton & Glick, 1986). These families are mostly headed by women, and single moms with dependent children are the poorest demographic category overall. Along with the difficulty of raising their children alone, single mothers must also deal with having little income to maintain their family (Belle, 1982; Mulroy, 1988). Frequently having children reduces employment options, which increases poverty (Downey & Moen, 1987). There is role tension and a feeling of being overwhelmed, inadequate, and worn out as a result of the multiple expectations of parenting and the inability to achieve them all (Koeske & Koeske, 1990). Financial challenges are not the only effects of being a single mother; social and psychological problems are also associated with it. Because of patriarchy and social degradation, single mothers are found to experience a variety of issues all around the world.

A Broken family is defined as one that is not structurally Intact. (Adu-Okoree et al., 2020; Ichado, 1998; Omoruyi, 2014). They are generally known to be unstable and leave children with many traumatic experiences. It is found that that Broken

families affect children's academic performance (Achilike, 2017; Adu-Okoree, et al., 2020; Awoniyi, 2019; Kasoma, 2013; Minolin & Priya, 2018; Ugwuta, 2016; Smardon, 2008). Generally, they find it difficult to cope with situations at home as well as in school settings. Thiessen pointed out that single parenting is one of the factors that can lead low academic outcomes of adolescents (Thiessen, 1997). This is supported also by Frazer that abnormal conditions in home such as illegitimacy of children, the label of adopted child, Broken homes, divorce and parental deprivation are likely to have a detrimental effect on school performance of the child (Frazer, 2001).

Separation and divorce have exclusion and negative effects on the behaviour of children as well as the burden of education for those in charge of it, which involves risks to the psyche and the degree of coping with children (Mohammed Baqer Hassan, Khetam Mutashar Hatab, 2021). The impact of the Broken family on children by shaping children's attitudes, feelings, thoughts, and behaviours, which are manifested by the increase in painful feelings of sadness, anxiety, confusion, fear, guilt, and the reinforcement of misconceptions and behaviours with the domination of some negative ideas that increase the suffering of children when there is an incoherent and disassembled family that has an impact On the quality of life of the adolescents in all areas, (Pedro-Carroll J. L. et al., 2015).

According to Pett et al., (1999), mentioned in Woosley et al., (2009), found that children of divorced parents experience greater academic difficulties than children of parents who are still married. However, a study by Souza (2000) discovered that the initial negative reactions to divorce might not necessarily show a long-term commitment, arguing that these are just typical reactions to the circumstance.

Moving homes, financial hardships, inability to contact with old friends (changing his or her social network), having less contact with the father who left the house and/or other family members, as well as changes in the relationship with the parent who is still alive are other divorce-related factors that could have an effect on the child (Woosley, Dennis, Robertson, & Goldstein, 2009). When parents divorce,



there are various aspects that can affect how the children develop and behave, including the strength of the family unit and how the parents communicate and handle their feelings toward one another (Ribeiro, 2007). Numerous studies show that it may be predicted that a child's behaviour and welfare are based on the quality of their relationship with their parents (Amato, 2000; Love, as cited in Woosley et al., 2009). Another important element is a child's personality. The effects of divorce vary for each child because each of them has their own unique personalities and characteristics (Ribeiro, 2007). It is crucial to have relationships with various sources of security and affection (e.g., grandparents, siblings, friends, teachers, caregivers and psychologists). These are in reality protective factors that can aid in the child's better adjustment to his or her new environment (Sandler, Tein, & West, 1994, as cited in Amato, 2000).

Stressful circumstances can be brought on by divorce, which may have a negative impact on a child or adult's behaviour, emotions, and physical and mental health. The length and intensity of these effects vary from person to person depending on the presence of moderators or other protective factors (viz., a good social relationship, personality traits, the cultural importance of divorce in the context in which it occurs, having grandparents and siblings nearby, among other).

Since a father and a mother help children acquire a sense of belonging stability, and security, they are the cornerstones of a healthy child's growth. When there is a divorce, there is a higher chance of social issues, substance abuse, and scholastic deterioration (Blankenhorn, 1995; Glenn, 1996; Popenoe, 1996, as cited in Amato, 2000). A variety of family structures, according to some scholars, can support a child's healthy development. This perspective holds that divorce gives children a way out of a dysfunctional family and gives adults a second chance at happiness (Coontz, 1992; Demo, 1992; Skolnick, 1991; Stacey, 1996, as cited in Amato, 2000).

According to a number of theories, including family ecology theories (Wagner BM, Reiss D, 1995) and social control theories (Hirschi, 1969), parental marital disruption has a negative impact on a child's development due to the weakened family environment and parenting techniques. Three key elements of these ideas, which explain how marital disruption affects child development and parenting practises, were

outlined by Shek & Leung (2013). First, a disruption in marriage may negatively impact the parents' wellbeing and their ability to parent, including how they discipline and watch over their kids. Second, disruption in the family could lead to financial issues as well. If the single parent in this situation must work to support themselves, parental supervision of the child may be further diminished. An economic disadvantage, however, may have a detrimental effect on the parenting process if the parent is receiving welfare. Third, divorce puts parents under additional stress, making it difficult for them to adjust and affect how they parent.

According to several studies (Clark, et al., 2000; Yeung & Chan, 2010), family functioning was better in Intact two-parent families than in single-parent or Broken families. However, other studies (Agate et al. (2007); Hornberger, et al. 2010) did not demonstrate this tendency (2010). In addition to single-parent households, Freistadt & Strohschein (2013) and Brown & Manning (2009) also examined how families function in cohabiting stepfamilies. They showed that family functioning was lower in single-parent and cohabiting parent families compared to families with two married biological parents.

Children of unmarried parents / separated households frequently fail and are emotionally vulnerable, according to Agulana (2005). This might only be true in some instances of a Broken home, though. Hargreaves (1991) asserts that students' resilience in a one-parent home is a key predictor of success in other spheres of their lives, including academics. Divorce is an unanticipated occurrence in the life of a family. It is something that has an impact on every family member differently and at different periods. In western countries especially in the US, one million children must cope with the divorce process every year because approximately half of all marriages end in divorce (Nelson, 2009).

According to Laura, et al. (2009), divorce rates have increased in the US since the Civil War. The average household income of single-parent families is lower than that of two-parent families, placing them in a more precarious position to provide for their children's educational needs. Additionally, single parents must balance the dual responsibilities of working and raising children. They could find it harder to create and

keep up a nurturing learning environment for their kids (OECD/UNESCO, 2003). According to studies, high levels of marital conflict, poor and inconsistent parenting, diminished parental wellbeing, and decreased parent-child attachment cause children and adolescents to suffer prior to parental divorce (Rodgers & Pryor, 1998; Demo & Cox, 2000). According to studies examining the effects of parental involvement, adolescents with strong ties with their parents are more likely to succeed in school, develop emotionally, and exhibit less behavioural problems (Senechal & LeFevre, 2002; Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009; Kalil & Mayer, 2016).

Early adolescents spend more and more time with their classmates; however, they still require their parents' love, care and support (Leung et al., 2004; Schwarz et al., 2012). Participation in issues about one's actual or potential offspring is what we call 'parental involvement' (Goodall & Montgomery, 2014; Salgado, 2015). Parental involvement is typically measured in terms of time commitment, but it is necessary to separate the types of activities in which parents engage (Kalil et al., 2012). Mothers conduct much more basic childcare (i.e., ensuring children are dressed, cleaned, and nourished), childcare management, and scheduled activities outside the home than fathers do on average (Cano et al., 2019). Fathers who are not living in the same household as their children also tend to spend less time with them, placing additional burdens on single mothers (McLanahan & Percheski, 2008). Fathers' participation in childcare, on the other hand, strengthens families, which has favourable benefits for children (Lamb, 2010). Having more fathers participate in their children's upbringing can relieve some of the stress placed on mothers and allow them more time for paid or unpaid jobs or recreation (Kalil & Rege, 2015). Finally, increased parental involvement in their children's lives leads to increased support for those children.

In numerous ways, parental involvement is crucial for children and adolescents. Broader father participation may result in a greater variety of stimuli to which children are exposed (Hrdy, 2009; Lamb, 2010), which may improve academic performance, reduce rule-breaking behaviour, and promote interpersonal and institutional trust (McLanahan et al., 2013; Cano et al., 2019; Chetty et al., 2020). A substantial amount of research supports that father engagement is essential for

children's well-being and that children suffer in several ways when their fathers are away or uninvolved (Blankenhorn, 1995; Popenoe, 1996). The number and quality of father involvement is significantly influenced by institutional procedures, career prospects, cultural expectations, and social support, even more so than mother involvement (Doherty et al., 1998; Gerson, 1997). The majority of men want to be great fathers, but they encounter considerable obstacles resulting from increased economic, cultural, and familial obligations, complexities, and changes. Consequently, it is essential to incorporate family and community supports and pressures when researching or promoting responsible, involved fathering (Doherty et al., 1998).

There are many powerful, complex, and changing factors that keep fathers from spending time with their children. These factors include changing and increasing work demands that make spending time with children harder, more divorce and unwed births that keep fathers from having day-to-day contact with their children, a growing culture of expressive individualism that puts more emphasis on adult pleasure and self-development and less emphasis on children, and a growing youth entertainment industry (Dollahite, 1998).

If marriage is viewed as sacred rather than merely social, it will likely be greatly appreciated, promoted, and supported. If a father feels that family relationships are part of a divine plan, instead of merely the outcome of societal convenience or biological determinism, he will be more inclined to commit to and strive toward the continuation of such relationships despite the cost or difficulty to himself. Call & Heaton (1997) stated that strong religious couples are significantly lower in divorce rates than that of the general population. Doherty et al. (1998) also stated that a loving, committed marriage is the mother-father connection that promotes responsible fathering the greatest. These clearly ensure that religious faith strengthens marriage, which in turn strengthens fathering.

Flanagan, (2009) an American author and social commentator, cites sociologist Andrew J. Cherlin's quotes, she mentioned that "What distinguishes contemporary American families from those in other countries is their combination of 'frequent marriage and frequent divorce,' and a great amount of 'short-term cohabitation

relationships.’ Together, these dynamics ‘produce a significant turmoil in American family life, a family flux, and an unprecedented level of partner mobility.’ In American personal lives, there are more romantic partners than in every other Western nation. There is no other single cause of as much quantifiable sorrow and human suffering in this society as the dissolution of marriage. It harms children, diminishes the financial security of mothers, and has had a particularly devastating effect on the nation's underclass.

School also plays a significant role because it is a place where the child spends most of his or her time. During the divorce, the teacher might significantly impact these children (Ribeiro, 2007). Teachers are more aware of behavioural changes in the abilities ‘used’ in the classroom, such as attention and focus, and they tend to recognize more externalizing problems, such as aggressive behaviour. Additionally, because they share intimate moments, parents are more sensitive to issues of an internalizing nature, such as anxiety and depression (Araújo, 2010).

In Indian society, the family is regarded as a key institution that best represents the nation's ancient collectivist roots. Up until a fusion of urbanisation and western influence started to affect in the home and hearth, the joint family system, or an extended family, has been an important aspect of Indian society. This is particularly true in the towns and cities, where nuclear families are becoming the norm. There is no doubt that socio-economic factors have contributed to the deterioration of the joint family system (May 14, 2018; Venkaiah Naidu, Vice-President of India).

Looking at the Mizo society, this society, strongly values families ties and marital bonds and most Mizos follow Christian traditions, particularly in marriage with an emphasis on marriage vows. However due to several circumstances and due to the influences of both westernization and urbanization, marital breakdown has become a fairly common occurrence. Marital breakdown has many fall-outs in the form of unstable families and, its consequences impose several challenges for the spouses, their children and other members in the family. The divorced spouses as well as their children face challenges at work/school, community and neighbourhood levels. Mental health problems such as depression, anxiety and resort to use/abuse of substances by

divorced or divorcing couples and children is commonly noted by research studies on marital conflict and discord (Fambawl, 2010).

Divorce is one factor that leads to numerous psychological problems. It refers to the dissolution of marriage or the process of termination of a marital union. Various researches and studies have revealed that India has the lowest divorce rate in the world. Luxembourg and United States have the highest divorce rate at 87% and 50% respectively. Meanwhile, only 1.3% of total Indian marriages end up in divorce, that is, in every 1,000 marriages, only 13 ends up in divorce. Indians have a devoted connection to their cultures and social ethics and it is often believed that Indian culture and traditions are the main reasons behind the low divorce rates.

According to a BBC report of 29<sup>th</sup> September, 2016, 1.36 million people in India are divorced. That is equivalent to 0.24% of the married population, and 0.11% of the total population. More strikingly, the number of people separated is almost thrice the number of people divorced - 0.61% of the married population and 0.29% of the total population. More women are divorced and separated than men. Divorce rates in North East states are relatively higher than elsewhere in India: Mizoram has the highest divorce rate (4.08%), more than four times that of Nagaland, the state with the second highest rate (0.88%), (Soutik Biswas, (2016). Based on the nature of singlehood and the kind of support they receive; the problems of single mothers vary.

As time goes on, it is noticed that more and more situations where one parent is missing due to a divorce, death, separation, or abandonment (Gander & Gardiner, 1998). As a result, modern Intact families do not follow the conventional pattern of mother, father, and child togetherness (Arcus, 1992; 1999; 2000; 2001; & 2002). Depending on children's developmental stages, they can respond differently to parent separation, divorce, and family disintegration (Leung & Robson, 1990; Palmer, 2002; Smart, 1980). Adolescents require their parents' help, support, care and a trusting environment to grow into self-actualised persons in the society. With the breakdown of family unity, they may face a decline in parental support and care. Due to the decline in the dependable aspect of the family atmosphere, they may feel emotions like desperation and mistrust. As a result, individuals may encounter situations like stress

and depression which many times lead to suicidal tendencies in many cases (Amato, 1993; Kifli, 1990; Rosen, 1999; Weyburne, 2000).

Another key contributor to behavioural, psychological, and developmental issues in children, adolescents, and adults is parental rejection. Research has demonstrated a link between perceived parental rejection and the emergence of many psychopathologies, such as personality adjustment problems and depression in adolescents (Rohner, 1986). Researchers have firmly established a connection between parental rejection and depression symptoms in children and adolescents (Lefkowitz & Tesiny, 1984; Puig-Antich et al., 1985).

### **Family Functioning**

Family functioning refers to how well a family's structure provides for everyone's material and psychological requirements. The degree to which a family is functional is contingent upon its make-up (Dai & Wang, 2015). The physical, social, and emotional development of children can be predicted in large part by the quality of their interactions with their parents and the way their families work (Zubrick, 2000)

According to Belsey (2005), a person's emotional, influential, and material well-being may be found inside their family because of the way in which families operate as a means of integrating them into society. Family functioning is defined similarly by Walker and Shepherd (2008), who focuses on how well family members talk to each other, get along, and work together to make decisions and solve problems. Thus, the 'family functioning' is seen as an umbrella term for the ways in which members of a unit contribute to the accomplishment of a shared objective (Botha & Booysen, 2013).

Family functioning affects individual wellbeing to the extent that satisfactory levels of social support within families are important to the happiness of an individual (Botha & Booysen, 2013). This may be attributed to how well the family members engage with and support each other, especially when assisting members to manage difficult or traumatic life experiences (Vliem, 2009; Walker & Shepherd, 2008). When the family is functioning well, a positive sense of wellbeing is established, which

negates chances of psychological issues developing and enhances the family's problem-solving abilities by creating a sense of togetherness (Caprara et al., 2005; Vliem, 2009). Positive family functioning creates an environment where the family members support and accept each other and together engage in activities further facilitating child development. These positive family traits, however, do not occur in families experiencing maladaptive functioning (Becvar & Becvar, 2009; Nichols, 2010).

Family functioning is the social and structural aspects of the overall family environment. It covers family relations and interactions, specifically the degree of conflict and cohesion, flexibility, organization, and communication qualities. In a family setting characterized by open communication, clearly defined roles, coherence, and sound affect management, healthy family functioning can take place. On the other hand, families with many conflicts, chaos, and poor affective and behavioural regulation show poor family functioning. In terms of supporting family aspirations, welfare, and overall societal functionality, family functioning can be either beneficial or detrimental. When family makeup is taken into account, family functioning can vary. For instance, Schrod (2008) reported that, among adolescents, communication problems were more common in stepfather families than in stepmother families.

As a result, a family's functioning is essential to a person's health and well-being. Western scholars have focused on the relationship between various factors and family functioning, which can affect an individual's ability to operate either negatively or positively. Familial behaviours can support the development and preservation of essential resources and the psychological and mental health of unit members. They can also support individual growth and flourishing. With good family functioning, a person's capacity to contribute to society and maintain positive emotions may improve, but dysfunctional family functioning may cause them to lose their capacity to achieve both (Johnson et al., 2010).

Family systems theory, which is governed by the principle of holism, believes that the collective experiences of the family as a whole help to fully understand the pathways connecting parenting dynamics with child functioning (Hayden et al., 1998;



Mikulincer et al., 2002). Researches have repeatedly shown that marital functioning is crucial for children's socialisation in families, which is consistent with this theory (Cowan & Cowan, 2002; Cummings & Davies, 2002; Emery, 1982; Grych & Fincham, 1990). Children who witness marital conflict are more likely to experience a variety of emotional, behavioural, and coping issues (Cummings, 1994).

The dynamics of a child's household may impact his or her capacity to adapt to and prosper in a new school environment. It is commonly agreed that a child's family, and their parents in particular, are the single most significant source of support and stability in their lives. When it comes to shaping a child's character or behaviour, nothing can be more influential than the bond that the child forms with his or her parents. Those who have had academic difficulty are more likely to avoid school and eventually drop out than their more successful peers. School should be a place where each student feels like they can learn and grow, which will in turn increase their drive and self-confidence. However, for the pupils who are already having difficulty, school can simply help to further lower his already low self-esteem. He or she does not consider himself or herself to be a 'good student,' and he or she doubts that he or she can ever become one, especially if he or she has tried to improve his or her academic performance through various interventions in the past only to be met with frustration and failure. The student remains home to escape his or her own feelings of inadequacy (Lytton & Romney, 1992).

The emotional makeup of the family system and the emotional relationships that unite family members are reflected in how well the family as a whole function. Attachment, commitment, love, support, encouragement, and companionship are all aspects of family functioning. Family support is also frequently used to measure family cohesion or overall family functioning (Foxcroft & Lowe, 1992; Miller, 1997). Families expressing high levels of support might exhibit both positive emotional attachment and healthy family functioning overall. Several aspects of adolescent competence, including self-esteem and academic performance, have been connected to positive functioning. Additionally, studies have shown a link between family support and deviant behaviour, depression symptoms, and substance abuse (Wills,

Vaccaro & McNamara, 1992). In conclusion, family functioning has been negatively correlated with unfavourable outcomes for adolescents and has been associated with a number of beneficial outcomes.

According to studies, the duration of time that family members spend together affects how well the family functions (Pryor, 2014 & Stewart, 2007). In contrast to an Intact family or a biological family, a step family may initially face stressors and difficulties adjusting to family transition change (Stewart, 2007; Coleman et al., 2013). At times the family functioning often gets more stable over time in step families as well (Pryor, 2014).

In this competitive age, achievement in the academics is one of the most crucial objectives of education. Age, sex or gender, IQ, personality, motivation, socioeconomic level, attitude, mental health level, study habits and other criteria are referred to as correlates of accomplishment and are used to classify students as high achievers, average achievers, or low achievers. Out of them, mental health problems might be regarded as a significant component because good mental health is a prerequisite for good intelligence. Academic performance of a student refers to the abilities acquired in academic disciplines that are assessed by educational authorities through achievement tests that may be either teacher-created or standardised. In other words, competence that actually manifests in academic topics in which they have been instructed may be referred to as academic performance. It is seen that a student is unable to achieve the highest degree of educational aims, i.e., the all-around development of one's personality, despite our best efforts in schools to improve students' aptitudes, capacities, and personality traits without the support and care extended by the parents or some significant others. The excellent mental health, which is essential for success in all aspects of life, is one of the important variables determining educational products such as high academic performance (Wig & Nagpal, 1971).

From infancy until maturity, children go through developmental stages that are distinguished by various difficulties, but there are also accomplishments of particular developmental milestones. Adolescence is a stage of development that has focused in

particular on issues related to rapid physical development, identity development, and putting a young person into the adult world. This stage is characterised by a change in one's physical identity, manner of thinking, acceptance of responsibilities, and effort at independence. Therefore, for the most majority of young people, this is a time that is characterised by turmoil and a variety of failure-related fears. This psychological state can sometimes become an anxiety problem in a young individual, obstructing developmentally normal psychological processes. Adolescents frequently conflict with their parents as they want to become independent, but they still need their love and a sense of security in the family.

In today's society, we are witnessing a rise in the number of divorces as well as a rise in the number of families where one parent looks after the child while the other only sometimes contributes to raising the child. Divorce often results in frequent arguments and a tense, uneasy atmosphere inside the family. When a child experiences such stress in their personal life, it affects how they perceive their family's security and may cause anxiety symptoms. Keeping in mind the typical developmental processes occurring during adolescence, (Tahirović & Demir, 2018) investigated whether growing up in a family where parents' divorce enhances the likelihood of anxiety development in adolescents. Since they are aware that family is a crucial factor in a child's development, they assume that young people raised in divorced families have a higher anxiety level than those growing up in complete families (Tahirović & Demir, 2018).

Even while for some couples, divorce is a way out of an unhappy marriage, in reality it represents the breakdown of the family unit and the marriage that was started with high aspirations and expectations. However, the emotional and financial parts of the family are typically left incomplete by divorce. Due to these reasons, divorce is typically not viewed as a full rescue or the beginning of a new stage of bachelorhood. In reality, divorce marks a challenging time rather than the end of unhappy times. Couples experience a sense of emptiness. They need to break old habits and develop new relationships and lifestyles (Yorukoglu, 2012). Divorce is detrimental to families, and even though it is detrimental for families, particularly children, it has grown

prevalent in modern marriages. When divorce is the greatest option for the family, carrying it out in a civilized manner lessens the psychological and personal impact on the husband, wife and their children (Arabaci-Pisken, 2008).

For a child's psychological growth and social adjustment, the notion of a mother and father in a marriage is crucial. In other words, the fundamental elements required for a child's emotional growth and social and psychological maturity are living together with a mother and father, growing up with a father and mother, and having an intact family. The family concept does not offer a secure environment for the child if the concept of mother/father in marriage connotes a family atmosphere with strained interactions between mother and father and a strong presence of restlessness and conflicts. According to research, the manner in which divorce is realised affects how much of an effect it has on children (Sen, 2012). Furthermore, it is stated that rather than divorce itself influences of parental divorce on adolescents' anxiety level, the stressful divorce process, poor communication, and concerns with lack of affection and security have a profound impact on the child (Kircaoglu, 2012). Without strong parental support or a support from a significant person, it is exceedingly difficult for a child to recover after a divorce. A child worries about being left behind. A child whose parents have divorced needs more obvious indications of affection, care, support and value. The mother and father's separation has an impact on each child. Age, personality development, and attitudes of parents are some of the variables that determine the extent of effect (Kircaoglu, 2012; Oz, 2005).

Adolescents' emotional response to divorce is characterised by anguish, shock, anger, and a sense of loss. Some adolescents exhibit problem behaviour, such as skipping classes and running away from school, abusing drugs or alcohol, dropping out of school, and other behaviours that can be viewed as a reaction to a parent's divorce or separation. Adolescents frequently feel guilty about their parents' divorce because they think that either their actions or meeting their parents' expectations led to the divorce. These emotions, in addition to the judgment of security loss in the familial setting, reveal the origin of depression or the emergence of anxiety symptoms. Male and female adolescents react differently to their parents' divorce. Due to their low self-

esteem, young girls seem to engage in early sexual relationships more frequently than boys, who frequently respond in aggressive and criminal behaviour. Both sexes appear to be at risk for abusing drugs and alcohol (Oz, 2011).

It can be proven that divorce rarely has a positive effect on the child. Furthermore, it is underlined that many children would experience psychological issues as a result of parental absence, tight financial and emotional circumstances, and occasionally ongoing disputes between separated parents. However, it is also noted that despite their difficulties adjusting to their new environment, children's sensitivity to divorce mostly depends on their age, developmental stage, length of time after the divorce, and social support network. The responses can vary depending on the child's maturity level and the environment at home. This explains why it is difficult to determine the typical responses to such a situation (Çetinkaya & Erçin, 2015).

Children typically perceive divorce as the end of the family unit, a sign of impending uncertainty, and a sign that at least one parent no longer loves them. Anxiety can be brought on by a sense of unpredictability and difficulty in taking charge of the situation. Additionally, there is a high risk that psychological issues like anxiety will emerge if parents ignore their children's psychological reactions to divorce due to personal stress. Separation anxiety, a specific phobia, and selective mutism may be more prevalent in preschool children. Panic disorder, agoraphobia, and generalised anxiety disorder may be more prevalent during the adolescent years (Wege, 2001).

According to Duncan et al., (2004), greater research is needed to fully understand how family ties and young people's physical activity interact. However, the breakdown of more typical two-parent families and an increase in single-parent households brought on by deaths, divorce, separation, and pregnancies outside of marriage may have changed, or in some cases damaged, family ties, the quality of relations, and lifestyles (Haskey, 1998).

According to Santrock (2007), Adolescence is the time of transition between childhood and adulthood that is marked by cognitive, biological, and socio-emotional changes. Depending on the cultural setting, the age range may vary. The adolescent

phase, however, begins in the United States at around the age of 10 to 13 and lasts until about 18 to 22. According to UNICEF, the adolescent phase in India is considered to be between 10 to 19 years. India has the largest adolescent population in the world, 253 million, and every fifth person is between this age. India stands to benefit socially, politically and economically if this large number of adolescents are safe, healthy, educated and equipped with information and life skills to support the country's continued development. The transitional experiences that people are currently going through include being evaluated, making commitments, making decisions, and figuring out one's place in the world. It is believed that adolescents prepare for adulthood during this time, and how well they get through this brief transitory stage can predict how they will behave for the rest of their life. According to Larson et al. (2002), the success of this preparation will determine if any culture survives.

Adolescence is a period when individuals undergo cognitive, psychological, and emotional changes as a result of their search for their identity, need for a close relationship, rapid sexual and brain development, and battle to become psychologically independent of their families. The beginning, length, and completion of this phase are all influenced by societal and cultural influences as well as an individual's level of maturity (Polvan, 2000).

In this period, a variety of physical, psychological, and social changes and developments take place, according to a contemporary perspective on child psychology and education. The results of these changes during adolescence may have an effect on the adolescent's future. Many authors refer to this time as 'storm and stress,' and they attach a crisis to these developmental difficulties. Adolescents must adapt to their developing sex drives, which are brought about by biological changes in the body. The periodical maturation drive occurs together with cognitive developments (Haran, 2003).

Self-exploration is a significant obstacle for adolescents to overcome. The adolescent starts to contemplate topics like 'Who am I?' 'What type of person will I be?' and 'Who am I in the eyes of others?' As a result of engaging in Identity Confusion versus Identity Development during adolescence, this stage's psychosocial

conflict develops. Identity issues mostly become prominent at this stage. Significant developmental milestones for adolescents include gaining autonomy and embracing new values. Conflicts with parents, academic failure, and issues in relationships with peers who are the opposite sex and those of the same gender stand out at this phase. According to Erikson's concept, achieving one's identity during adolescence is a crucial developmental task. The identity notion has numerous facets. Sexual, physical, social, psychological, ideological, moral, and occupational dimensions are some possible categories for these attributes. These factors together make up the complete identity. First, aspects of identity formation related to sexuality and physicality. Early in adolescence, they are primarily concerned with their bodies and sexual identities, but as they age, the choice of a career, ideologies, and moral principles are seen as being increasingly significant (Inanc, Bilgin & Atici, 2005).

Physical changes occur rapidly during this phase, which causes psychological alterations to manifest. Even though the adolescent was previously content, easy going, and balanced, they become anxious, uneasy, imbalanced, and feel incompatible. Adolescents' emotions and interests shift, become erratic and uncertain, while their enthusiasm is extreme, unrestrained, or out of proportion (Koknel, 1999).

Adolescents become depressed as a result of stress that arises from changes in adolescence, and this makes them feel lonely and many times depressed. The adolescent needs parents who will be trustworthy and supportive while they struggle with unpleasant and unpleasurable emotions like pessimism and uneasiness. Adolescents have a higher chance of developing their identity and sense of self if their parents are able to listen to them without criticising, rejecting, or judging. Lack of parental support, however, might cause an adolescent to feel lonely, anxious, and fearful. Time spent with friends will increase, and the adolescent is more influenced by friends than he or she was when they were children. However, peer-influenced subjects are restricted, and parents continue to be a young person's primary source of information on significant issues. The adolescent perceives parents' opinions as being the most crucial in the areas of future plans, school selection, and career decision. Conflicts that are encountered typically involve moral behaviour, relationships with

family members, academic accomplishment, shouldering responsibility, and social interactions including attire and hairstyle (Kulaksizoglu, 2002).

As is clear, many adolescents go through internal psychological conflicts as well as simultaneous external conflicts with their family members and peers. They experience swings between mature and childlike behaviour, which makes them uneasy. Between the desire to be independent of their family and the need for their affection and support, they experience contradictory emotions. The fastest possible transformation into an adult persona is what adolescents dream about when they are young. They are uncertain of the new social duties and the best ways to make decisions for themselves at the same time. Even though adolescents strive to ignore the significant role of parents and other important figures, they nonetheless feel safer in the presence of their parents. Their tendency to find temporary solutions to their internal difficulties gives them the notion that they are independent and do not require their parents' assistance in their daily lives. However, this idea is barely grounded in reality and is more often an impression or a sensation. In truth, the adolescent's mental security depends on his or her parents' support. In the adolescent stage, parents should assist their children in finding solutions to conflicts and challenges stemming from identity confusion. Oftentimes, parents going through personal crises as a result of their marital issues and potential divorce are unable to provide their children with the necessary support. Adolescents growing up in these families therefore experience normal developmental difficulties, familial issues, and inadequate parental assistance. Due to all of this, they are more likely to experience psychological issues like anxiety (Feldman, 2009).

Parental rejection is thought to play a significant role in the psychological, behavioural, and developmental issues that affect children, adolescents, and adults. Research has demonstrated a link between perceived parental rejection and the emergence of a number of psychopathologies, such as personality disorders and depression in adolescents (Rohner, 1986). Parental rejection and depression symptoms in children and adolescents have been linked by studies (Lefkowitz & Tesiny, 1984; Puig-Antich et al., 1985).



Numerous studies have noted a link between depressive symptoms and traumatic life events like living with a single parent, experiencing parental divorce, or losing a family member (Brubeck & Beer, 1992; Sadock et al., 2003; Kayaalp, Demet & Büyükkal, 1999; Rosen, 1999; Rubenstein et al., 1998; Shapira, 1997). Additionally, adolescents' depression and stress levels rise when their parents separate, divorce, or remarry (Rubenstein et al., 1998; Gilman et al., 2003). A study done by Barrera and Garrison (1992) on the social environment's influence on adolescent depression, they found that depression rises as family and friend support declines. They based upon the idea that supportive parent-child connections and a positive social environment are crucial for adolescent's health and that adolescents who perceive their parents and peers distantly exhibit significantly greater psychopathology (Bult, 1996). Social support has significant influence on the onset, development, and longevity of physical and psychological disorders, according to several research in social psychology and health (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Unger et al., 1998; Hugh, 2004).

### **Academic Performance**

The success of pupils in the classroom has a direct impact on the quality of graduates a country produces, graduates who will be able to play key roles in the country's political and economic spheres (Ali et al., 2009). Past research has placed a lot of emphasis to pupils' academic success. There are a wide variety of factors, mental, financial, social, emotional, and environmental, that might influence a student's performance. Although these characteristics have a significant impact on students' performance, they vary greatly from one country and one person to the next. Studies that have been conducted in the past on the topic of students' academic performance have typically focused on factors like teacher training, classroom dynamics, gender differences, pedagogical approaches, students' home environments, students' socioeconomic status, and so on. Most academics around the globe have used Grade Point Average (GPA) as a measure of student success (Stephan & Schaban, 2002). GPA was used to assess each student's semester performance.

Academic performance can be characterized as all-around excellence in all academic fields, both in the classroom and outside of it. It involves distinction in areas

like sportsmanship, self-assurance, communication abilities, punctuality, the arts, and culture, which can only be attained when a person is well adjusted. Academic achievement is the ability to acquire knowledge or the level of competence in school tasks often measured by standardized tests and expressed in a grade or units based on students' performance (Trow, 1956). Academic achievement, according to Good (1959), is 'the knowledge received or abilities developed in the school disciplines generally designed by test scores or marks issued by the teacher.' Academic success is the academic performance of the students encompasses both their curriculum, cocurricular and extracurricular activities. It displays the students' learning results. In classrooms, students exercise their capacity efficiently, as a consequence of it, learning takes place. Through many subjects, the learning outcome modifies the student's behavioural pattern (Mehta,1969).

Academic achievement, also known as Academic Performance, is the result of education that measures how well a student, teacher, or institution has met its educational objectives. Examinations or continuous assessments are frequently used to assess academic performance, but there is no consensus on the optimal testing methods or the components that should be examined first - procedural knowledge, such as skills, or declarative information, such as facts. Academic achievement is influenced by individual differences. Difference in intelligence and personality traits have been related to individual variations in academic success.

Academic Performance, according to Omoruyi (2014), is viewed as the knowledge obtained or abilities demonstrated in the subject being studied. The teachers issue test scores or marks to reflect such achievement. Based on the grades given, the school evaluates the students in classroom effort. According to Akinboye (2006), there are two categories of academic performance: good and negative (bad) performance. Academic success in school is influenced by habits, family history, perseverance, attitudes, and interest. He came to the conclusion that if these factors were altered and attitudes were positively transformed, then people's academic performance would rise. Academic performance is a crucial factor to take into account when evaluating a

student's success. According to various studies and surveys it found that high academic accomplishment has become a huge job opportunity for pupils in the recent years.

Low academic success and a number of personal issues have been linked to the impact of a parent's absence from the child's home. The latter comprises impulsive and aggressive behaviour, criminality, poor sex-role development, interpersonal relationship issues, intellectual deficiencies, anxiety, and overall personality dysfunction. Parents' absence from the house is known to contribute to students' poor academic performance and to a host of other personal issues. (Deutsch & Brown, 1964; Santrock & Wohlford, 1970).

Numerous studies found that due to the emotional difficulties brought on by divorce or separation, children's academic performance and behaviour (in and out of the classroom) have declined, which is the outcome of divorce in society. There has been an inference that children from Intact families have emotional and psychological advantages over those from divorced or separated families (Jeynes, 2000). These children struggle more in school, have more behavioural issues, poorer self-concept, issues with their friends, and have a harder time getting along with their parents at times even with the peers and neighbours. The students' capability to achieve their full academic potential may be seriously hampered by their psychological and social disadvantages. A child's life is significantly influenced by their academic performance. Numerous research findings support the idea that children of divorced parents perform worse academically than children whose parents are not separated or divorced (Cherian, 1989). According to researchers and educators, school becomes very important for children whose families are transitioning because it provides structure, security, and continuity when their home life is being ruined. More studies and researches have to be conducted to give educators and school systems a clearer knowledge of the consequences of divorce on children. Such studies should also explore workable learning strategies for children from divorced or Broken families to help them succeed academically and perform well in aspects of life despite experiencing a family disturbance.

The possibility that the death of a parent may have some beneficial effects on academic achievement is supported by some preliminary studies. According to Gregory (1965), there may be circumstances in which the loss of a parent due to death or divorce benefits a child's growth. A five-year study of Carleton College, Minnesota, USA, students found that the loss of a parent had no impact on academic achievement. Data suggests that some brighter children may have become more driven to succeed academically after losing a parent to death or divorce. More research is needed especially in Mizoram to ascertain the effect of separation or divorce in family set ups.

It is suggested that various factors in one's home environment have an effect on student's performance in school. In many cases, parents and other family members are considered to be the primary resource for a child. The bond between a child and his or her parents is the most influential force in shaping his or her personality and behaviour.

However, studies conducted by Yunus et al. (2014) suggest that the family environment has no such impact on students' academic performance. On the other hand, one's family life can impact one school adjustment. This research emphasises the significance of parents paying close attention to their relationship with their children, as this may have a direct and detrimental impact on their academic performance. The results of the study showed that the individuals' varying familial backgrounds had no effect on their poor academic performance. In particular, the results showed that the family environment did not have a statistically significant effect on the student's poor academic performance. This means that a student's family environment has no impact on his or her academic success. This finding is in line with a study by Christenson et al., as well (1992). They found that the quality of the parent-child relationship did not have significant effect on their child's academic achievement in school.

In psychology, adjustment is the behavioural process that allows people and other animals to balance their varied demands or between those needs and the constraints posed by their environments. When a need is recognized, a series of adjustments begin, and when the need is met, they are complete. Physiological

adjustments are similar to social and cultural changes. People try to fit in and have their psychological needs (such as love or affirmation) addressed through their social networks. The development of a person is critically dependent on adjustment. It is an adjustment that organizes behaviour in response to conditions in all areas of life (Ganai et al., 2013). Excellence in all academic fields, classrooms, and extracurricular activities can be considered an academic achievement. It encompasses the perfection that can only be attained when a person is well adjusted, such as excellence in sportsmanship, self-assurance, communication abilities, punctuality, arts, and culture. An emotionally unbalanced child exhibits poor behaviour and struggles to build strong connections with others. Mehta described academic achievement in 1969 as 'Academic performance of the students comprises both their curriculum and extracurricular activities. It displays the students' learning results. Learning occurs as a result of the efficient performance of students in classrooms.' Through many disciplines, the learning outcome modifies the student's behavioural patterns (Reppold, Hutz, & Hutz, 2010).

Several authors have claimed throughout the past few decades that adopting has increased one's chance of psychological maladjustment. Although some studies find similarities between adopted children and children raised by their biological parents (Wright & Flynn, 2005), other research asserts that adopted children are more likely to exhibit pro-social behaviours like empathy and altruism (Sharma, McGue & Benson, 1998). However, most studies, particularly those looking at adolescent populations, show that adopted people are overrepresented in clinical populations. In general, higher drug use and more common learning difficulties are correlated with higher incidences of behavioural or attention disorders (Brodzinsky, Smith & Brodzinsky, 1998; Keyes, Sharma et al., 2008; Miller et al., 2000; Moore & Fombonne, 1999; Sharma et al., 1998).

According to the Parental Acceptance and Rejection (PAR) Theory, parental rejection significantly impacts how a child develops their personality. Parents who disapprove of their children are more likely to emotionally reject them and punish them severely, which are important risk factors for adolescents developing psychopathology

(Barnow, Lucht & Freyberger, 2001). Children's interpersonal interactions, which have a stifling and moulding effect on one another, need to be shaped and maintained by parents. Researchers have long documented the link between parental behaviour and adolescent deviance (Simons, Robertson, and Downs, 1989). Parental hostility, aggressiveness, neglect, and rejection were found to be the primary influences on adolescent behavioural problems (Scott, W. A., et al., 1991). Baron & MacGillivray (1989), who examined the connection between adolescent depression symptoms and perceived parental rejection, provided support for Rohner's idea (Kausar, 2013).

The widely held view that all children need acceptance (love) from parents and other attachment figures is supported by a number of research conducted in the United States. Evidence suggests that children everywhere, regardless of differences in culture, gender, age, or ethnicity, tend to self-report a particular type of psychological maladjustment when this need is not met. Furthermore, it appears that people who feel rejected are more likely than accepted people to experience behavioural problems, sadness or depressed mood, substance abuse, and other mental health-related disorders. Finally, it appears that both children and adults structure their ideas of acceptance and rejection around the same four categories of behaviour. These include antagonism/aggression, apathy/neglect, warmth/affection or coldness/lack of affection, and indiscriminate rejection (Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer, 2008).

The influential book 'Childhood and Society' by Erikson has sparked numerous debates and studies on the subject of identity. As defined by Erikson (1950), personal identity is the degree of self-knowledge, synthesis, and stability that a person possesses over time and in many contexts. For instance, in Western cultural contexts, it is crucial to 'be the same person' while you are among friends, at work, or school (Cross, Gore, & Morris, 2003; Suh, 2002). It is believed that identity synthesis (Erikson, 1968), or the degree to which one's multiple aspects of identity fit together, is a powerful predictor of psychosocial functioning in areas like self-worth, depression, and relations. Identity confusion, on the other hand, is characterised by a sensation of being 'mixed up,' or by being unable to implement and uphold enduring commitments to life alternatives and without a distinct sense of purpose and direction. From the

premise that identity synthesis and identity confusion reflect the opposite extremities of a single continuum, Erikson (1950 & 1968) has moved forward. To put it another way, it is believed that increases in identity synthesis are accompanied by corresponding and opposing decreases in identity confusion, and vice versa. (Schwartz et al., 2009).

Even in late adolescence, parents are a component of the backdrop that affects how an individual forms their identity. The idea that parents affect the process of identity formation is present in a number of theories on parent-adolescent relationships. In defining the nature of ego identity and its developmental process over the years of adolescence, Erikson has outlined numerous significant notions. The idea of Ego Identity, the adolescent task of Identity vs. Role Confusion, the Identity-formation process, identity crisis, and the occurrence of a psychosocial moratorium are some of the major contributions made by Eriksson.

According to Erikson (1968), the term 'Ego Identity' refers to both a conscious feeling of one's individuality and an unconscious need for experiencing continuity; an ideal identity is felt as a psychological sense of well-being. A sense of being at home in one's body, a sense of getting where one is headed, and an inner assurance of anticipated recognition from people who matter are [ego identity's] most obvious concomitants (Erikson, 1968). Erikson's eight (8) lifespan sequence of developmental activities, which are brought to the forefront during adolescence, includes Identity vs. Role Confusion as stage five. Adolescents will try to find a balance between these two extremes throughout this period. Adolescents should go through the process of forming their identities. The ability of the ego to combine and integrate significant former identifications into a new, wholly individual form is crucial to this process. Erikson also emphasises the crucial role that the community plays in helping the adolescent to mature and in receiving recognition from the community. Erikson thought that a psychosocial moratorium was a crucial developmental stage during which young adults experiment freely with potential adult roles in search of one that appeared to offer a particularly good fit (Erikson, 1968). The identity crisis is arguably one of Erikson's most well-known and connected ideas. By crisis, he does not mean an

impending disaster, but rather a pivotal time in a person's life story where growth can only proceed by following a new directional track.

The Erikson developmental theory is the closest to proposing a comprehensive account of human development (Erikson, 1968). The theory is divided into eight comparatively distinct 'epigenetic' stages (Erikson, 1959, 1963, 1968), each of which has a specific objective that must be met in order to develop a 'healthy' personality. For an ego characteristic like trust, initiative, or identity to form, each stage marks a crucial time of conflict and potential crisis. With growing maturity, a new level of social engagement is made feasible, giving rise to each stage. The first four main conflicts - trust versus mistrust, autonomy versus shame and doubt, initiative versus guilt, and industry versus inferiority - occur during infancy and adolescence. The primary conflicts in adulthood are intimacy versus isolation, generativity versus self-absorption, and integrity versus despair. The conflict in adolescence is between Identity and Identity Confusion. Erikson (1968) considered adolescence to be the foundation of his theory since at this age, identity formation begins and identification is no longer an effective strategy of adjustment. True intimacy becomes nearly impossible, and solid, long-term relationships are uncommon if the adolescent is unable to develop a strong identity anchored in family, race, or ideology.

A significant amount of research has focused on the fifth stage, or adolescence, and the Identity vs Identity Confusion issue, most notably through the work of Marcia (1966). Marcia used an interview to determine a person's identity status by measuring their level of commitment and crisis in relation to their job and beliefs. Rosenthal, et al., (1981) measured the respondents' resolution of the conflicts related to the first six psychosocial stages outlined by Erikson using the Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory (EPSI). All six subscales were used even though the individuals had only reached stage 4. When comparing 9 and 11- year-old subjects, Rosenthal et al. (1981) found that the older children considerably outperformed the younger pupils in the positive direction on each of the subscales. The removal of one question from each of the impacted subscales significantly boosted the alpha coefficients for each subscale. They proposed that additional revisions to the questioned items' wording would



eliminate ambiguities. For use in this study, items 20, 44, 46, 52, and 62 were reworded. The distinctions between older and younger respondents, as well as between sexes, were investigated. Older students performed better on the subscales in the positive direction, as was predicted. On any subscale, there were no statistically significant interactions between grade level and sex. There were sexual variations in conventional qualities (instrumental and expressive) in another study (Rosenthal et al., 1982), with males scoring higher on autonomy and initiative and females rating higher on intimacy. Once more, there were no significant interactions between sex and grade level. These findings are in line with other studies (Caillet & Michael, 1983) that supported Erikson's (1963, 1968) theory of personality development, which contends that there are no differences in the nature and extent of psychosocial development between males and females outside of the identity and intimacy stages.

Marcia (1966 & 1967) defined the four identity statuses that might exist during Erikson's fifth stage of development (Identity versus Identity Confusion). Marcia determined whether or not there was a crisis and the level of commitment among the participants using an interview and a concept attainment task assessment. She also identified four statuses for males: (a) Identity Achievement; (b) Moratorium; (c) Foreclosure; and (d) Identity Diffusion. The polar opposites in Erikson's concept are Identity Achievement and Identity Diffusion. Moratorium (a situation of crisis with ambiguous commitments) and Foreclosure (absence of experiencing a crisis but experiencing commitment) are in the middle of the distribution. The Identity Status Interview, developed by Marcia in 1966, was updated by Hodgson (Hodgson & Fischer, 1979) to assess identity development in both males and females. To improve rating reliability, a section on sex-role ideology was added, and a more concise rating manual was created.

Marcia (1966) employed an interview technique to explore the fifth stage of development, categorizing respondents into 1 of 4 identity statuses based on the degree of crisis and commitment to the subjects' occupation and ideology. Performance on a demanding concept-attainment task, goal-setting tendencies, authoritarianism, and susceptibility to changing self-esteem were also taken into account.

## Chapter - II

### **STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**



In the past, a family was considered to be 'Intact' by the law system if both parents were married and residing together. The notion that an 'Intact' family may only consist of the parents and children goes against biological, psychological, sociological, and spiritual principles (Elmachi E., (2006). A marriage's 'Intactness' does not necessarily reflect its health or whether it is detrimental to child. Most parents are nurturing and loving, but those who are harmful and abusive might use the 'Intact' theory to conceal their misconduct from the law, grandparents, and other extended families. The 'Intactness' of a family does not always suggest that it operates well or that the child is well cared for.

Even a healthy family is working imperfectly. Healthy families do not always get along; there may be yelling, squabbling, miscommunication, stress, hurt, and rage on occasion. Emotional expressiveness is usually encouraged and welcomed in healthy households. Members are free to both receive and give attention. In general, rules are clear and consistent, but they also tend to have some wiggle room for personal preferences and unique circumstances. Each member of a healthy family is encouraged to follow his or her interests, and lines between people are respected.

On average, children brought up in Intact homes perform better in school. They have also been found to be emotionally healthier, and exhibit fewer behavioural issues. Children who lived in homes where neither biological parent was present performed worse than peers from Intact families, stepfamilies, or single-parent families where both biological mother or father was present on 24 out of 30 emotional well-being and behaviour indices (Sun, 2003).

According to research (South, Haynie & Bose, 2005), adolescents from Intact households are less likely to engage in promiscuous sexual behaviour. Children who grow up in Intact households with happy marriages have a tendency to be more religious. Children who were nurtured in families with two biological parents who were happily married showed an even stronger 'religiosity inheritance' (Scott & Myers, 1996). Children have a higher chance to have a safe home in Intact families. Other family structures exposed their children to domestic violence at a disproportionately high incidence (Yexley, 2002). Children develop the ability to

perceive and experience themselves as distinct individuals having the capability of autonomous action to the extent that a family is operating successfully. They are capable of depending on one another. Since they are independent thinkers, they are not dependent on others to define them or to validate their virtues or skills. They can choose from a variety of social positions and interactional norms. They do not need the actions of others in order to perceive and experience themselves in a certain way. They are not required to play out certain roles.

It is widely recognised that children who grow up in Broken families frequently perform poorly in school. In addition to having poor academic performance, they also develop challenging personalities. They are frequently reported to be depressed and are shown to be more prone to mild to severe anxiety issues. They have a hard time developing true identities. External factors like drugs, alcohol, and other substances are frequently ineffective in overcoming this identity crisis and the overwhelming uncertainty, leading them to develop a pseudo-identity. As child grows older, this will later lead to a variety of other issues (Amato, 2000, 2010; Guetto et al., 2022).

Children who are not from Intact families experience a variety of behavioural and/or developmental difficulties compared to children whose families are Intact. The many of them perform poorly academically and develop character flaws that interfere with their relationships with others. Some of them quit school and even end up being rejected by their own families. They struggle with relationship management, become violent, and eventually turn to drugs and alcohol for solace.

Mizoram is the 23<sup>rd</sup> State of the Indian Union, perched in the North Eastern region of India, on the border with Myanmar and Bangladesh. Aizawl is its capital where almost half of the population of the State resides. Despite having a late school system (1906), Mizoram has the second-highest literacy rate (91.33%) among the Indian states as per the most recent census in 2011.

The average literacy rate in Mizoram for urban regions was 97.63% in which males were 97.98% literate while female literacy stood 97.02%. In rural areas of Mizoram, the average literacy rate was 84.1 percent. Out of which literacy rate of males

and females stood at 88.16% and 79.81% respectively. The male literacy rate is 93.35% and the female literacy rate is 89.27% in Mizoram. It has been observed that the students perform well in the public examinations. Even if the state as a whole has a positive learning environment, nevertheless it is seen that pupils who perform poorly in the classrooms typically come from Broken families.

The causes of marital breakdown are known to be many. The causes of marital breakdown and its consequences for family life have drawn much attention in the different disciplines of psychology, social work, sociology, anthropology and psychiatry. Sociological causes of marital breakdown received much attention from several and a combination of theoretical perspectives - role conflict, symbolic interactionism, structural - functionalism, social exchange and systems theory. Secularism, modernization, industrialization and urbanization are often considered to have negatively impacted on marital stability and resulted in many Broken families. No single cause is known to predispose a married couple to a point of breakdown. However, a combination and interaction of a number of causal factors has the likely potential to affect marital stability (Fambawl, J. R., 2004).

The Mizo community adheres to a patriarchal and patrilineal form of society, in which the father's side of the family tree is used to determine the line of the family tree. The youngest son is typically the successor to his father's property in Mizo society, and the female unmarried members of the family are expected to stay in the ancestral home, while the other son/s are expected to make a home of his own after marriage. Therefore, the ancestral home typically consists of a father, a mother, and their children, the grandparents, and other unmarried siblings.

Sen. S, (1992) states that "Divorce is allowed in the Mizo society. The bond of matrimony among them is very loose. Divorce is very simple and it does not require going to the Court etc.". If divorce is wanted by a wife, she is to refund the bride-price to her husband. If it is sought by a husband for the reason other than barrenness, adultery, sickness of incurable diseases, he is to pay some fine to the village elders and to his wife. This fine is settled after discussion by the parties concerned. A divorced wife is allowed to go by leaving all her children with her husband except the suckling

one, and she is entitled to get some amount from her divorced husband to maintain that infant suckling issue. If a couple do not get-on they can separate by mutual consent or if the husband does not like his wife, he can send her back to her parent's house for good (Sen, S., 1992).

Due to the several aforementioned circumstances and due to the influences of both westernization and urbanization, the marital breakdown has become a fairly common occurrence in Mizoram as well. Being born outside of wedlock is not as stigmatised as it is in other states. Due to psychological maladjustment, these children of Broken families find themselves so vulnerable that it affects not only how well they perform in school but also how they live their daily lives. Mizoram State Commission for Protection of Child Rights (MSCPCR) chairperson Sangzuali Vanchhawnga (2021) stated that Mizoram has a total of 52 Child Care Institutions (CCI), which is disproportionate to the state's total population of just over 12.3 lakhs. It speaks about the increasingly alarming rate of Broken homes. To date, very little scientific literature or scientific research has been provided on the cause of Broken homes, and on the effect of these non-Intact homes on the academic performance as well as the well-being of the children who are either in the orphanages, or Child Care Intuitions (CCI) or in the Broken homes.

Zoliana. R (2010) presents six causes of divorce includes, viz., finance and economic reasons, childless condition, addictive nature, bondless relationship. According to him, married couples who never discuss and chat in a healthy manner for long are likely to lose the bond and intimacy. It is important to know that listening and understanding is important for Couples sexual life. If the couple cannot manage a healthy sexual life between them, it will later become a tool for breaking the bond between them. According to him family interferences can also become a big problem. In every society this is one of the factors. "When family and relatives interfere in a couple's household and marriage life, it would certainly create problems for them. If the parents are involved too much in their own children's marriage this will surely lead to misunderstanding between the couple", according to the author who concludes that lack of quality time is also one of the main reasons.

With such a history, and the customary laws still prevailing in Mizoram, the ill effects of a Broken family are perhaps not seen as damaging as in other places in India as the children born out of wedlock and the children of the divorcees are well taken care of by their grandparents or uncles and aunties. Such support, both from the immediate family, the society and the Church lessen their ordeal to some extent. They, in fact, camouflage various issues related to their identity formation, psychological adjustments and even their academic performance. However, the upbringing of the children by their parents can never be substituted. Outwardly, though they appear to be happy and do not miss anything, in reality, they do undergo tremendous agony and trauma. While the effects of a Broken family on a child's development depend on many factors, including their age at the time of their parent's separation, and on the strength and quality of their family relationships, they do experience several problems in their social, emotional and educational functioning (Fambawl, J. R., 2010).

Formal education in Mizoram started with the arrival of Christian Missionaries. They started opening schools in villages way back in 1901. In 1909, the first ever Middle Schools were opened in Aizawl. In 1944, the first High School was started in Aizawl by public donations. The opening of High School marked a new epoch of event in the educational progress in the hilly area, now called Mizoram. As reported in the website of Directorate of School Education, Government of Mizoram, there are 1950 Primary Schools, 1511 Middle Schools, 614 High Schools and 138 Higher Secondary Schools. Having the educational facilities at the doorstep, the parents find it easy and convenient to give formal education to their children.

Mizoram is one of the states in India which has been successful in bringing almost all children to at least the primary school and ensuring reasonably adequate infrastructure and other facilities for school education at a reasonable distance for most inhabitations. This has been possible through the governmental efforts to provide schooling and the social changes which created the demand for schooling. However, the state seems to be facing second-generation problem regarding 'schooling for all'. These include the (lower) quality of education; the growing demand for private schools in localities where there already are government schools, and; the difficulty in retaining



children in higher (secondary and higher secondary) grades (Santhakumar V. et al., 2016).

According to the Unified District Information System for Education (UDISE) 2020-21 report released on Mar 10, 2022, the dropout at the school level in Mizoram is around 8.1%. The maximum dropouts is at the primary level. Even higher education in Mizoram is inexpensive and accessible because the majority of colleges are state-run. Children of divorced parents in other Indian states may experience significant difficulties, yet similar children in the state of Mizoram often have almost as many advantages as their counterparts since this weaker segment of society is given relatively adequate care by different members of the society.

According to the 'Survey Report on Children and Drugs in Mizoram 2022' released by the Social Welfare Minister of Mizoram - Dr. K. Beichhua at SAD Conference Hall, MINECO, New Capital complex on Thursday, 8<sup>th</sup> December 2022, children, including school dropouts, have become widely familiar with different types of drugs. This survey stresses on the usage of drugs, alcohol and tobacco among 122 school children and school dropouts below the age of 18 years in Mizoram.

The findings highlighted that psychological and mental disorders ranging from anxiety, depression, inattentiveness, insomnia, among others were prevalent among school children because of the excess usage of drugs and other substance abuse disorder. This is an alarming news for all the stakeholders of education and the administration.

This study will try to determine how the phenomenon of Broken families affect the psychological adjustment of the children, which results in their poor academic performance, within the context of Mizoram and Aizawl city in particular. Additionally, this study will assist parents and other stakeholders in understanding the enormous risk they expose their children to and in prioritizing their future and their proper care and upbringing so that they can successfully reintegrate into the family and society at large.

### **Operational Definitions:**

- i) **Intact Family** for the purpose of this study may be defined as families where the children stay with their father, mother, other siblings and other family members either in nuclear families or joint families (Himani Bhasin, 2016).
- ii) **Broken Family** for the purpose of this study may be defined as families where the children stay with single parent due to divorce or separation, and may include other siblings and other family members like grandparents, uncles, aunties etc. The children from the families where the parents are dead are not considered for this study (Garfinkel & McLanahan, 1986; Norton & Glick, 1986).
- iii) **Family Functioning** Family functioning refers to how well a family's structure provides for everyone's material and psychological requirements. (Dai & Wang, 2015). For this study **Family Assessment Measure - III (FAM III)** a self-report instrument of the general scale that provides quantitative indices of family strengths and weakness was used.
- iv) **Psychological Adjustment** is defined as an individual's affective, cognitive, perceptual, and motivational dispositions to respond and actual observable behaviours of responding in various life conditions, parental acceptance or rejection, as perceived by the child, has been shown to have consistent effects on the child (Rohner, 1991).
- v) **Academic Performance** for this study is defined as the extent to which a student has attained his or her short or long-term educational goals and is measured either by continuous assessment or cumulative grade point average (CGPA) as per the guidelines given by the central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE).

- vi) **Adolescents** for the purpose of this study, students studying in secondary and higher secondary sections (Classes 9 to 12) within the city of Aizawl were selected.

### **OBJECTIVES**

Given the theoretical and empirical background pertaining to the focus of the study, the following objectives and hypotheses are put forth

1. To describe the family functioning of Intact and Broken families.
2. To elucidate the effect of family structure (Intact versus Broken) on family functioning, identity, psychological maladjustments and academic performance of adolescents.
3. To elucidate the gender differences in the measures of dependent variables.
4. To study the roles of identity and psychological maladjustment in the relationship between family functioning and academic performance in children of Intact and non-Intact families.

### **HYPOTHESIS:**

1. It is expected that family functioning of Broken families will be poorer than Intact families
2. Adolescents of Broken families will show more identity confusion, more psychological maladjustments and poorer academic performance than adolescents of Intact families.
3. Gender differences are expected in measures of the dependent variables.
4. It is expected that identity and psychological maladjustments will play a moderating role in the relationship between family functioning and academic performance.

Chapter - III

**METHODS AND PROCEDURE**



### **Sample:**

200 male and 200 female adolescents, each from intact and broken homes in equal proportion, were randomly selected from classes IX to XII from a representative random sample of secondary and higher secondary schools in the city of Aizawl, Mizoram. A demographic information schedule was used to determine their family structure, i.e. whether they were from intact or broken families. The demographic information of the participants like age, sex, religion, family type (joint/nuclear), school and class in which they were studying were recorded to equate/match the participants to maintain homogeneity and representativeness of the sample for the study.

Samples were randomly selected from different schools within and around the city of Aizawl, *viz.* St. Paul's Higher Secondary School, Synod Higher Secondary School, Home Mission School, Mount Carmel School, Govt. Mizo Higher Secondary School, Govt. Central Higher Secondary School, and Govt. Dinthar High School, and St. Xavier's Higher Secondary School. The characteristics of the samples across both classifications of Family Structure and Gender are stated as below:

- a) **Intact Male (N=100):** The mean age of the Intact Male samples was 16.23 (SD = 1.05) and their ages ranged from 14 to 19. The majority of them (96%) came from Christian households while a minority of them came from Hindu households (4%). 70% of the participants from this category came from nuclear families while 30 % of them came from joint families, and all of them had sufficient knowledge in Mizo and English.
- b) **Intact Female (N=100):** The mean age of the Intact Female samples was 16.91 (SD = 1.27) and their ages ranged from 14 to 21. All of them (100%) came from Christian households. 78% of the participants from this category came from nuclear families while 22 % of them came from joint families, and all of them had sufficient knowledge in Mizo and English.
- c) **Broken Male (N=100):** The mean age of the Broken Male samples was 16.49 (SD = 1.50) and their ages ranged from 14 to 21. All of them (100%)

came from Christian households. 100% of the participants from this category came from nuclear families and all of them had sufficient knowledge in Mizo and English.

- d) **Broken Female (N=100):** The mean age of the Broken Female samples was 16.12 (SD = 1.57) and their ages ranged from 14 to 20. All of them (100%) came from Christian households. 100% of the participants from this category came from nuclear families and all of them had sufficient knowledge in Mizo and English.

### Design of the Study

To achieve the objectives, a two-way classification of the variables, viz. 'Gender' (Male and Female) and 'Family Structure' (Intact and Non-Intact) on the dependent variables was incorporated in this study. The main design along with gender and family structure of intactness may be depicted as below:

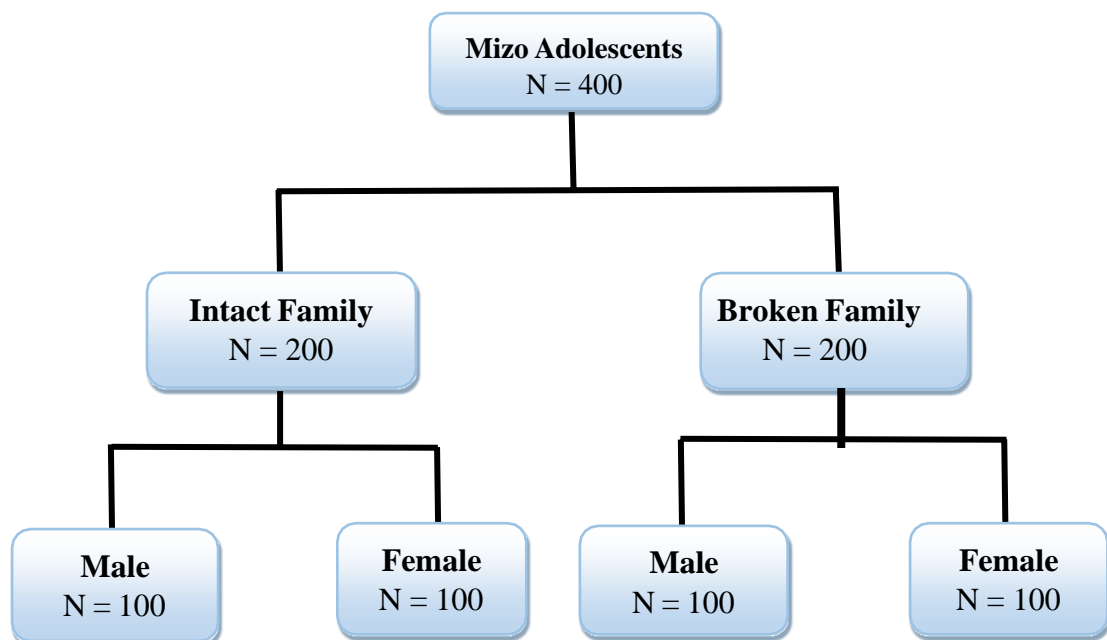


Figure 1: Sample Characteristics of a 2 x 2 (2 Family Structure x 2 Gender) factorial Design.

Moreover, a correlational research design was employed to elucidate the relationships between the behavioural measures, i.e., family functioning, adjustment, depression, anxiety, identity and academic performance on the levels of analyses. Linear regression models were used to examine the predictability of academic performance from family functioning, adjustment and identity across the levels of analyses. Further, moderation analysis was used to examine the moderating role of identity in the relationship between family functioning and academic performance (Figure 2); and the moderating role of adjustment in the relationship between family functioning and academic performance over the levels of analyses (Figure 3).

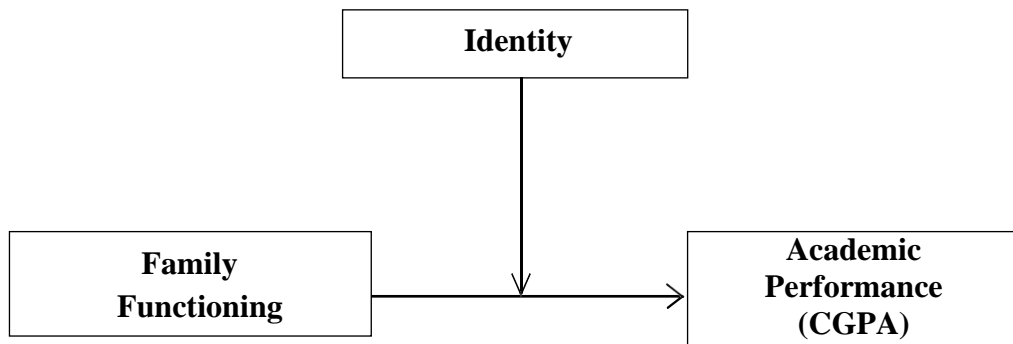


Figure 2: Moderation model for testing the moderating role of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance.

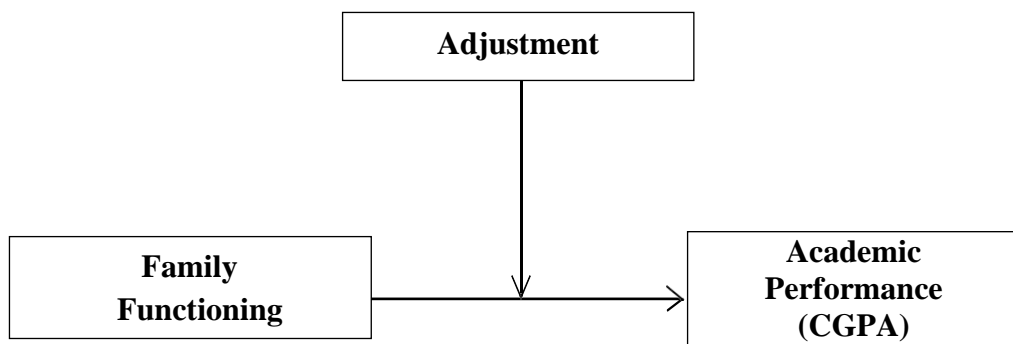


Figure 3: Moderation model for testing the moderating role of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance.



**Tools:** The following psychological tools were used for measurement purposes of the main variables of interest in this study.

**The General Scale of the Family Assessment Measure – III (FAMg; Skinner, Steinhauer & Santa-Barbara, 1995)**

The FAMg is a self-report tool offering quantifiable measures of the strengths and shortcomings of a family. This scale measures the self-presentation of the family functioning of an individual through the aspects of task accomplishment, role performance, communication, affective expression, involvement, control, and values and norms. There are a total of 50-items with each item measuring how an individual functions on different contexts. Responses are based on a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from 3 = "strongly agree", 2 = "agree", 1 = "disagree," and 0 = "strongly disagree." For interpretations, the raw scores are converted to standardized T-scores, which may range between a given intervals 20 – 40 (Good Family Functioning), 40 – 60 (Moderate Family Functioning) and 60 – 80 (Problems in Family Functioning). A specimen copies of the General Scale of the FAM II used in this study has been provided in Appendix I.

**Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ; Rohner & Khaleque, 2005).**

The Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ or CPAQ) is a self-report questionnaire (4-point Likert scale) which was initially created to assess how children perceive themselves in relation to seven personality dispositions of hostility and aggression, dependency, self-esteem, self-adequacy, emotional responsiveness, emotional stability, and world view. The whole PAQ measures the overall psychological adjustment of an individual. There are a total of 42 items with responses measured on a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from 4 (almost always true of me) to 1 (almost never true of me). Directionally, scores on the Child PAQ may range from 42 to 168. A critical cut off score is given with scores higher than 105 indicating maladjustment. The whole Child PAQ scale was used in the study and a specimen copy has been provided in Appendix II.

**Beck's Depression Inventory (BDI, BDI-1A, BDI II; Beck, Steer & Brown, 1996)**

The BDI is a self-report questionnaire with the items assessing an individual's depression level based on physical symptoms and cognitive symptoms. There are 21 questions asking about the severity of the symptoms, and responses range from 0 (Minimal Symptom) to 3 (Severe Symptom) on each of the item. The total score is obtained by summing up the raw scores of each individual item. A total score of 0–13 is considered to be in the 'minimal' range, while 14–19 is 'mild', 20–28 is 'moderate', and '29–63' is considered severe. A specimen copy of the General scale of the BAI is provided in Appendix III.

**Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI; Beck, Epstein, Brown & Steer, 1988)**

The Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI) is a self-report inventory used to assess the severity of anxiety symptoms on a total of 21 statements. Each item describes a symptom of anxiety that an individual may rate on a scale of 0 to 3. The total score of a person taking the test may range from a 63 (maximum) to a 0 (minimum). The maximum BAI score is 63 (0-7: minimal anxiety level; 8-15: mild anxiety, 16-25: moderate anxiety, 26-63: severe anxiety). A specimen copy of the General scale of the BAI is provided in Appendix IV.

**The Identity subscale of the Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory (EPSI-I; Rosenthal, Gurney and Moore, 1981)**

The Identity Subscale of the Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory (EPSI-I) is a scale that assesses how well participants understand who they are and what they believe in. There are a total of twelve items which make up the scale. The EPSI's responses were scored with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The EPSI identity scale has a possible range of 12 to 60 with lower scores (1-30) indicating identity confusion and higher scores (31-60) showing higher clarity in one's own identity. A specimen copy of the General scale of the BAI is provided in Appendix V.

The academic performance indicators were assessed using the cumulative grade-point average of the student from the most recent exam on a grade point scale

of 0 to 10. The standard procedure used in the study was based on the recommendation of the Central Board of Secondary Education for high schools and higher secondary schools (CBSE, 2019).

<b>Marks Range</b>	<b>Grade</b>	<b>Grade Point</b>
91-100	A1	10.0
81-90	A2	9.0
71-80	B1	8.0
61-70	B2	7.0
51-60	C1	6.0
41-50	C2	5.0
33-40	D	4.0
21-32	E1	C
00-20	E2	C

**Procedure:**

Beforehand, a booklet containing all the scales and questionnaires was prepared for the participants. These were administered with the permission of the heads of the schools, and following all other APA ethical standards prescribed for research (Section 8). After receiving the necessary consent from the participants, the booklets were handed out individually to the participants at their respective institutions. Rapport formation, instructions, and thorough explanations of the tasks were first conducted. This was followed by each participant filling out the demographic form. To limit the influence of social desirability, confidentiality and anonymity were ensured. The subjects were then instructed to continue with the booklet. Each testing session lasted between 30 - 45 minutes.

Chapter - IV

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**



The main objective of this study was to investigate the impact of Intact and Broken family functioning on psychological adjustments and academic performance of adolescents. To address this objective, the items across the behavioural measures of family functioning (the General Scale of the Family Assessment Measure; Skinner, Stainhauer & Santa-Barabara, 1995), psychological adjustment (the Child Personality Assessment Questionnaire; Rohner & Khaleque, 2005), mental well-being as indexed through the students' levels of depression and anxiety (Beck Depression Inventory – II; Beck, Steer & Brown, 1996; and Beck Anxiety Inventory; Beck & Steer, 1993), identity (the Identity Subscale of Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory; Rosenthal, Gurney & Moore, 1981), and the cumulative grade point average of the students were first prepared in Microsoft Excel (Office 2007) and then, transferred to SPSS – 22 (Statistical Product and Service Solutions, Version 22).

Since parametric statistics were selected as the default statistics for data analysis, extreme outliers were deleted, mild outliers were winsorized to maintain equal sample sizes in each cell of the design (2 family structure x 2 gender). The preceding tests for assumptions that underlie the application of parametric tests were first checked and found to be generally acceptable: linearity, normality (skewness/kurtosis), homogeneity of variance (Levene's statistic) and independence of errors as applicable for the four groups, viz. Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken male, Broken Female. Finally, in the current study, the exercises in data screening yielded a total sample size of 400 with 100 participants in each cell of the design (2 family structure x 2 gender).

### **Psychometric Properties of the Behavioural Measures**

The psychometric adequacy of each of the behavioural measures were first ascertained which included (i) item-total coefficients of correlation (ii) inter-scale relationships (where applicable), and (i) reliability coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha) over all the levels of analyses. Descriptive statistics comprising of Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis and Standard Errors were also included for comparison of the test scores between the groups, and to check the data distributions for further statistical

analyses (Miles & Shevlin, 2004). This was followed by statistical analyses of the data using SPSS 22 to address the objectives and hypotheses. The results are given below-

**The General Scale of the Family Assessment Measure – III (FAMg; Skinner, Steinhauer & Santa-Barbara, 1995):**

The **Family Assessment Measure (FAM)** is a self-report instrument that provides quantitative indices of family strengths and weaknesses. The FAM consists of three components viz., a General Scale, which focuses on the family as a system (50 items), a Dyadic Relationships Scale, which examines relationships between specific pairs (42 items), and a Self-Rating Scale, which taps the individual's perception of his or her functioning in the family (42 items). Each scale provides a different perspective on family functioning. To assess overall family functioning, the General Scale of the Family Assessment Measure (FAMg), a 50-item inventory that addresses various aspects of the family environment, was used. Respondents were asked to assess their family functioning across various family situations with their responses measured on 4-point Likert scale from 3 ('strongly agree') to 0 ('completely disagree'). Higher total scores usually indicate dysfunction in the family. A specimen copy of the General scale of the FAM III (FAMg) is provided in Appendix - II.

The whole FAM III General Scale has been shown to be having a good internal consistency (Skinner, Steinhauer & Santa-Barabara, 1983; Van Riper, 2000) even among Thai samples (Sawasdinart et al., 2021). Moreover, the scale has been reported to be clinically valid as well (Jacob, 1991; Alderfer et al., 2008). The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients of the FAMg in the current study yielded values ranging from 0.71 to 0.90 showing excellent reliability of the scale in terms of internal consistency. Descriptive statistics Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis and Standard Errors of Family Functioning scores over all levels of analyses are given in Table 1.1.

For interpretation purpose, the total of the whole scale excluding the items for the two validity subscales (viz. Social Desirability and Defensiveness) be taken and converted to their T-score equivalents. After such conversion, the Mean T-score for Intact Male was found to be 49.59 and for Intact Female, the Mean T-score was found

to be 48.51, while the Mean T-scores for Broken Male and Broken Female were found to be 50.51 and 51.8 respectively. Skinner et al. (1983) recommended that a T-score exceeding 60 should be profiled as having problems in family functioning; however, this was not the case in any of the four categories of the samples. Instead, the average profiles of the samples, Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male & Broken Female, all fit into the ‘moderate’ area of family functioning, which is to say that **Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female all see their respective families as functioning normally on an average.** None of the profiles warranted reasons for clinical concern, although Skinner et al. (1983) recommended that the profiles must be validated with other sources of information, such as face-to-face interviews, other psychometric tests,

Table 1.1: Cronbach's Alpha, Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis, Standard Errors of the General Scale of Family Assessment Measure III (FAMg) for Intact Male (N = 100) and Intact Female (N = 100), Broken Male (N = 100) & Broken Female (N = 100).

FAMg	Intact		Broken	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Cronbach's Alpha	0.90	0.71	0.87	0.79
Mean	1.20	1.13	1.45	1.43
S.D.	0.29	0.26	0.16	0.16
Skewness	-0.52	-1.04	0.12	0.27
S.E.	0.24	0.24	0.23	0.45
Kurtosis	-0.37	4.31	-0.44	-0.30
S.E.	0.48	0.48	0.23	0.45



**Child Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ or CPAQ; Rohner & Khaleque, 2005).**

The **Child Personality Assessment Questionnaire** is a 42-item self-report questionnaire (4-point Likert-type scale) designed to assess children's perceptions of themselves with respect to seven personality dispositions: (1) hostility and aggression, including physical aggression, verbal aggression, passive aggression, and problems with the management of hostility and aggression, (2) dependency, (3) self-esteem, (4) self-adequacy, (5) emotional responsiveness, (6) emotional stability and (7) worldview based on the parental acceptance–rejection theory's (PAR Theory) personality sub theory. The Child Version of the PAQ is recommended for use among adolescents (Rohner, 1986, 2004)

Response on the Child PAQ items is measured on a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from 4 (almost always true of me) to 1 (almost never true of me). Collectively, the seven PAQ sub-scales represent a measure of respondents' overall psychological adjustment after reverse scoring some items. Directionally, scores on the Child PAQ may range from 42 (Item Mean score = 1), with low scores keyed toward healthy psychological adjustment, to 168 (Item Mean score = 4), indicating severe maladjustment. A score higher than 105 (Item Mean score = 2.5) represents poor psychological adjustment. A specimen copy of the General scale of the Child PAQ is provided in Appendix - III.

The Mean Weighted Alpha Coefficient of the Child PAQ in nine studies internationally was .83 (Khaleque & Rohner, 2002b). Alpha coefficients of the Child PAQ used in this study ranged from 0.84 to 0.85 across the comparison units indicating that the scale is fit for use among Mizo adolescents. Further evidence for the reliability and validity of the Child PAQ can be found in Rohner and Khaleque (2005). The Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis and Standard Errors of the Adjustment scores over all levels of analyses are given in Table 1.2.

The Item Mean scores of both Intact Male and Intact Female were 2.39 and 2.49 respectively and both scores may be interpreted as “Low”. This indicates that both

male and female children from Intact families have low overall psychological maladjustment. On the other hand, the Item Mean scores of Broken Male and Broken Female, i.e., 2.56 and 2.77 respectively, both of which may be interpreted as “High”, indicating that **both male and female children from Broken homes or non-Intact families show high overall psychological maladjustment.**

Table 1.2: Cronbach's Alpha, Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis, Standard Errors of Child Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ) scores for Intact Male (N = 100) and Intact Female (N = 100), and Broken Male (N = 100) and Broken Female (N = 100).

Child PAQ	Intact		Broken	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Cronbach's Alpha	0.81	0.74	0.85	0.84
Mean	2.39	2.49	2.56	2.77
S.D.	0.31	0.28	0.35	0.32
Skewness	-0.28	-0.84	-0.55	-0.42
S.E.	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.24
Kurtosis	0.51	2.71	1.06	0.10
S.E.	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48

### **Beck Depression Inventory (BDI II; Beck, Steer & Brown, 1996)**

The current version of the **Beck Depression Inventory** used in the current study is a 21-question multiple-choice self-report Inventory and is designed for use in individuals aged 13 and over. The items in the questionnaire relate to symptoms of depression such as hopelessness and irritability, cognitions such as guilt or feelings of being punished, as well as physical symptoms such as fatigue, weight loss, and lack of interest in sex. A specimen copy of the General scale of the BDI-II is provided in Appendix - IV.

The BDI-II has been translated into more than 20 languages and is used as a screening tool among populations in Europe, the Middle East, Asia, and Latin America (Wang & Gorenstein, 2013). The scale has been shown to possess a high internal consistency (Beck, Steer, Ball & Ranieri, 1996; Beck, Steer & Brown, 1996; Dozois, Dobson & Ahnberg, 1998; Steer & Clark, 1997), and has been adapted among the Mizo population with a high internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha = 0.89) by Lalchhuanawma & Sanghi (2019). Reliability assessment of the scale in the current study has also yielded high Cronbach's Alpha values ranging from 0.84 – 0.91 indicating that the scale is fit for use among the samples. The Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis and Standard Errors of the Depression scores over all levels of analyses are given in Table 1.3.

A total score of 0–13 (Item Mean score = 0 - 0.62) is considered to be in the 'minimal' range, while 14–19 (Item Mean score = 0.67 – 0.90) is 'mild', 20–28 (Item Mean score = 0.95 – 1.33) is 'moderate', and '29–63' (Item Mean score = 1.38 – 3) is considered severe. From the cut-off score guidelines for the BDI-II given with the recommended thresholds, the Item Mean score of 0.58 of the Intact Male samples may be considered to be mild, and the Item Mean score of 0.84 of the Intact Female samples may be also considered as mild. In addition, the Item Mean score of 0.71 of Broken Male samples can be considered mild while that of Broken Female samples, i.e., 1, may be considered moderate. This means that, out of the total samples, **male and female adolescents from Intact families, and male adolescents from Broken families tend to experience mild levels of depression, while female adolescents from Broken families tend to experience moderate levels of depression.** Although nuances can be seen in their particular experiences, none of the samples seem to experience chronic levels of depression on an average based on the findings.

Table 1.3: Cronbach's Alpha, Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis, Standard Errors of Beck Depression Inventory (BDI-II) scores for Intact Male (N = 100) and Intact Female (N = 100), and Broken Male (N = 100) and Broken Female (N = 100).

<b>BDI-II</b>	<b>Intact</b>		<b>Broken</b>	
	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>
Cronbach's Alpha	0.85	0.84	0.93	0.91
Mean	0.58	0.84	0.71	1.00
S.D.	0.42	0.42	0.50	0.51
Skewness	0.83	0.38	0.32	-0.11
S.E.	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.24
Kurtosis	0.18	-0.49	-0.89	-0.72
S.E.	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48

### **Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI; Beck & Steer, 1993):**

The **Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI)**, created by Dr. Aron T. Beck and other colleagues, is a 21-question multiple-choice self-report inventory that is used for measuring the severity of an individual's anxiety. The BAI evaluates both physiological and cognitive aspects of anxiety and is designed for an age range of 17–80 years old. Each item describes a symptom of anxiety that an individual may rate on a scale of 0 to 3. The total score of a person taking the test may range from a 63 (maximum) to a 0 (minimum). A specimen copy of the General scale of the BAI is provided in Appendix - V.

Test–retest reliability and internal consistency of the Beck Anxiety Inventory have been shown to be quite excellent (Beck et al., 1988; Fydrich, Dowdall, & Chambless, 1992; Beck, Steer & Beck, 1993; Beck & Steer, 1993; Bardhoshi, Duncan & Erford, 2016). Moreover, the inventory has also been validated with other clinical scales and inventories as well (Toledano-Toledano & Rubia et al., 2020). Internal

consistency of the scale in the current study ranges between 0.84 – 0.89 across the levels of analyses indicating good reliability, and the Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis and Standard Errors of the Anxiety scores over all levels of analyses are given in Table 1.4.

For interpretation, a score ranging from 0 to 7 (Item Mean score = 0 – 0.33) indicates minimal level of anxiety while a score from 8 to 15 (Item Mean score = 0.38 – 0.71) indicates mild level of anxiety; scores from 16 – 25 (Item Mean score = 0.76 – 1.19) may also indicate moderate anxiety while scores higher than 26 (Item Mean score = 1.24) reflect a very high level of anxiety. **On looking at the Item Mean responses of the samples, those of Intact Male samples (0.49), Intact Female samples (0.67) and Broken Male samples (0.48) indicate that these particular samples tend to experience mild levels of anxiety, while those of Broken Female samples (0.77) indicate that they tend to experience moderate levels of anxiety.** Although there is a certain trend in the Item Mean score of the Broken Female samples, as with the BDI-II score, the findings indicate that none of the samples experience anxiety at a level which would cause clinical concern on an average.

Table 1.4: Cronbach's Alpha, Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis, Standard Errors of Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI) for Intact Male (N = 100) and Intact Female (N = 100), and Broken Male (N = 100) and Broken Female (N = 100).

<b>BAI</b>	<b>Intact</b>		<b>Broken</b>	
	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>
Cronbach's Alpha	0.87	0.84	0.89	0.85
Mean	0.49	0.67	0.48	0.77
S.D.	0.35	0.36	0.37	0.37
Skewness	1.04	0.75	1.16	0.29
S.E.	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.24
Kurtosis	0.88	0.82	1.78	-0.13
S.E.	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48

**Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory - Identity Subscale (EPSI-I; Rosenthal, Gurney and Moore, 1981).**

**The Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory (EPSI)** has six subscales based on the first six of Erikson's stages with each subscale having 12 items. Half of these reflects successful resolutions of Erikson's 'crisis' of his psychosocial stages, and half of these reflects unsuccessful resolutions. The Identity Subscale (EPSI-I), used in this study, is a 12-item identity subscale from the EPSI (Rosenthal et al., 1981), which measures the extent to which participants have a clear sense of their identity and beliefs. Six items are worded positively (towards identity synthesis), and 6 items are worded negatively (towards identity confusion). After accounting for the negative items, possible scores on the EPSI identity scale may range from 12 to 60. The EPSI, consists of both an overall Identity factor and separate factors for Identity Synthesis and Identity Confusion. Sample items from this measure include 'I know what kind of person I am' (identity synthesis) and 'I feel mixed up' (identity confusion). Responses may range from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). Higher score on the EPSI-

I usually indicate that an individual is more likely to have achieved his/her ego-identity status. A specimen copy of the General scale of the EPSI-I is provided in Appendix - VI.

The EPSI-I has been shown to be possessing good internal consistency among different cultures (Schwartz et al., 2009; Barahona, 2018, p.7). Cronbach's Alpha values found for the current study range between 0.65 – 0.76 for the participants. The Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis and Standard Errors of the Identity scores over all levels of analyses are given in Table 1.5.

The Item Mean score of the Intact Male samples (2.55) may be interpreted to be 'high' revealing that **male children from Intact families tend to be the least identity-confused and highest in their identity-achievement among the samples. At the same time, Intact Female (2.38), Broken Male (2.18) and Broken Female (2.15) samples can be interpreted as moderate. That is, the identity achievement of these samples can be said of as moderate. None of the samples exhibit 'low' identity-achievement on an average.**

Table 1.5: Cronbach's Alpha, Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis, Standard Errors of Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory - Identity Scale (EPSI-I) scores for Intact Male (N = 100) and Intact Female (N = 100), and Broken Male (N = 100) and Broken Female (N = 100).

EPSI-I	Intact		Broken	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Cronbach's Alpha	0.65	0.66	0.76	0.76
Mean	2.55	2.38	2.15	2.12
S.D.	0.52	0.50	0.60	0.60
Skewness	-0.32	-0.23	0.10	0.21
S.E.	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.24
Kurtosis	0.66	-0.51	-0.30	-0.68

### **Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA):**

The Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA) of the last examination of the students was taken as an index of academic performance, and measured on a nine-point grading scale as recommended by the Central Board of School Education (CBSE) of India. The conversion system under the CBSE's grading scale can be listed as:

<b>Grade</b>	<b>CGPA</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
A1	10.0	91-100
A2	9.0	81-90
B1	8.0	71-80
B2	7.0	61-70
C1	6.0	51-60
C2	5.0	41-50
D	4.0	33-40
E1	C	21-32
E2	C	00-20.

The Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis and Standard Errors of the CGPA over all levels of analyses are given in Table 1.7. **The average CGPA of the Intact Male, Intact Female and Broken Female samples (6.55, 6.54 and 6.48 respectively) can be graded 'C1' with their percentages lying between 51-60. On the other hand, the average CGPA of Broken Male samples of 5.88 can be graded as 'C2' with a percentage range of 41-50.**



Table 1.7: Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis, Standard Errors of Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA) scores for Intact Male (N = 100) and Intact Female (N = 100), and Broken Male (N = 100) and Broken Female (N = 100).

CGPA	Intact		Broken	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Mean	6.55	6.54	5.88	6.48
S.D.	1.28	1.57	1.54	1.52
Skewness	-0.27	-0.39	-0.21	0.08
S.E.	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.24
Kurtosis	-0.52	-0.10	-0.31	-0.58
S.E.	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48

**Effects of 'Family Structure' and 'Gender' on Family Functioning, Maladjustment, Depression, Anxiety, Identity and Academic Performance:**

Family Structure and Gender are the two characteristic variables on which variations in the various psychological phenomena are to be explained in this study. The **second** and **third** objectives of the study attempts to elucidate the effect of family structure (Intact versus Broken) on family functioning, identity, psychological maladjustments and academic performance of adolescents (O2), and to elucidate the gender differences in the measures of dependent variables (O3). Consequently, the following hypotheses were framed: -

- H1. It is expected that family functioning of Broken families will be poorer than Intact families

- H2. Adolescents of Broken families will show more identity confusion, more psychological maladjustments and poorer academic performance than adolescents of Intact families.
- H3. Gender differences are expected in the measures of the dependent variables.

The effects of 'family structure' and 'gender', and their interaction effects on family functioning (FAMg), maladjustment (CPAQ), depression (BDI, anxiety (BAI), identity (EPSI-I) and academic performance (CGPA) were separately addressed using Two - Way ANOVA (2 Family structure x 2 Gender). The model of these objectives yielded four units of analyses, viz. Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female with equal sample sizes (100) in each cell of the design.

Results of the Two- Way ANOVA (2 Family Structure x 2 Gender) test on these measures are compiled in Table 2.1. The corresponding descriptive statistics comprising of Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis and their Standard Errors for each cell of the design are given in Table 2.3; and the corresponding Levene's statistics are given in Table 2.2. In order to meet the requirements for parametric testing, Skewness, Kurtosis and Homogeneity of Variances (Levene's statistics) were checked. The results of Skewness and Kurtosis hardly violated the demands for normal distribution. The assumption of homogeneity of variance (in Table 2.2) indicated some instances of violation of the assumption of homogeneity of variance; although, non-significance level of diagnostic test of parametric assumptions were set leniently at a .01 level considering the robustness of parametric methods and equal sample sizes randomly generated using SPSS 22 for all units of analyses following Field (2016).

#### **Effects of Family Structure (Intact Vs. Broken):**

The **first** objective of the study (O1) was to describe the family functioning of Intact and Broken families. The item mean scores of the samples on Family Functioning when converted to their equivalent T-scores were found to be all 'Moderate', revealing that the samples, Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female all perceive their respective families as functioning normally at an

average. This means that the current Mizo children (or adolescent) samples displayed relatively similar characteristics when addressing the various aspects of their respective family environment.

The results of the investigation of the **second** objective (O2) i.e., to elucidate the effect of family structure (Intact versus Broken) on family functioning, identity, psychological maladjustments and academic performance of adolescents may be seen in Table 2.1. The analysis showed that family structure did have a statistically significant main effect on **family functioning** ( $p < .01$ ) as shown in Table 2.1. Children from Broken families ( $M = 1.25$ ,  $SD = 0.27$ ) scored significantly higher on family functioning (high score indicating poor functioning) than those from Intact families ( $M = 1.17$ ,  $SD = 0.28$ ), indicating that they were poorer in their self-presentation of their family functioning than children from Intact families, which supports the **first** hypothesis.

Findings from previous researches on the effect of family structure **on family functioning** are quite inconsistent. For example, the family functioning of Intact two-parent families was found to be better in some researches (e.g. Clark et al., 2000; Yeung & Chan, 2010; Shek et al., 2015) while this was not the case in other researches (Agate et al., 2007; Hornberger et al., 2010). Moreover, (Brown & Manning, 2009; Freistadt & Strohschein, 2013) discovered that families with a single parent or cohabiting parents did worse than families with two married biological parents. Such a discrepancy may be explained by the cultural contexts, which may have an impact on the associations between family structure and family functioning (Shek et al., 2015). While most research in the Western environment revealed that children from various types of households did not report varying levels of parental control (Florsheim et al., 2008; Pettit et al., 2001). Children in non-Intact families (Chinese sample) reported lower parental behavioural control and higher mother psychological control (Shek, 2006, 2008). Shek et al., (2015) attributed this disparity to differences in cultural perceptions on marital instability, the categorization of two-parent step-families as non-Intact, and the lack of investigations into the quality and type of parental control (i.e., paternal control vs. maternal control).

The current study circumvents through the first two problems in the following ways: First, the samples from Broken (or non-Intact) families study were from a collectivist society with characteristics not unlike those of Chinese samples (e.g. Shek et al., 2015 & Leung & Chan, 2010) where divorce is perceived more negatively and family Intactness is regarded as an important determinant of a healthy family functioning. Second, the concept of 'Broken' or 'non-Intact' was based on the type of family and marital status of the parents (i.e., divorced single-parent nuclear families). However, the quality and type of parental control was not addressed in the current study and therefore, it is suggested that future researches should look at the form and extent of parental control in order to have a better understanding of how Broken families and families function.

The analysis also showed that family structure did have a statistically significant main effect on **psychological adjustment** ( $p < .01$ ) as shown in Table 2.1. The findings suggest that children from Broken families ( $M = 2.55$ ,  $SD = 0.34$ ) showed higher levels of psychological maladjustment than children from Intact families ( $M = 2.44$ ,  $SD = 0.30$ ) supporting part of the **second** hypothesis that adolescents of Broken families will show more psychological maladjustments. The findings are also consistent with researches reporting that children from Broken homes tend to show problems with adjustment than children from Intact families (e.g., Amato, 1994, 2000, 2001; Slater et al., 1983; Hetherington, 1989, 1999; Kelly & Emery, 2003; Lansford, 2009). Such problems with adjustment may manifest in social relationships, antisocial behaviour, various forms of psychological disturbances and other behavioural aspects related to social and emotional functioning (Kratz, 1988). This poses a problem for the child at school and at home as he/she begins to show externalizing and internalizing problems (Simmons et al., 1999; Wood et al., 2004) which may be attributed to not only the quantity, but the quality of parenting and parental involvement (Simmons et al., 1999). Other determinants of maladjustment that are linked to the family structure include personal factors such as age at the time of divorce (for example, those who were very young did not seem to be particularly negatively affected by the break-up of the family structure; Amato, 1987), and other family characteristics, such as socio-

economic problems associated with single parenthood (Bean, Berg & VanHook, 1995) and cultural factors with evidences of non-white communities like Hispanic, Asians and African Americans being more affected than their white counterparts (Amato, 1991; Bean, 1995; Mechanic & Hansell, 1989; Wong, 1995).

Family structure was also found to have a statistically significant main effect on **depression** ( $p < .01$ ) as shown in Table 2.1, suggesting that children from Broken families ( $M = 0.85$ ,  $SD = 0.53$ ) reported experiencing higher levels of depression than children from Intact families ( $M = 0.71$ ,  $SD = 0.44$ ). Amato (1991) reported similar findings among white and African American populations, although Hispanics who experienced parental divorce were not different in their experiences of depression than those raised in Intact families. This may be attributed to the fact that Hispanic children of Broken families receive support from other relatives such as their grandparents, uncles and aunts etc. (Amato, 1991). Moreover, Mechanic and Hansell (1989) found that rather than disruption of the structure, family conflicts play a more important role in determining the depressive symptoms experienced.

Family structure did not have a statistically significant main effect on **anxiety** ( $p = 0.23$ ), meaning that children from Broken families ( $M = 0.63$ ,  $SD = 0.39$ ) did not display significantly higher levels of anxiety than children from Intact families ( $M = 0.58$ ,  $SD = 0.37$ ). Although children from Broken families may be expected to show higher levels of anxiety due to the unstable environment caused by divorce, findings from the study prove otherwise. Conflict, rather than structure, may be the most important predictor of children's psychological well-being. According to Bishop and Ingersoll (1989), marital conflict has a stronger influence on teenagers' self-concept than family structure. Mechanic and Hansell (1989) discovered that family conflict had a greater direct impact on long-term changes in well-being (i.e., depression, anxiety, physical & social well-being, self-esteem) than the structure of the family structure.

Interparental conflicts can cause parents to become impatient, enraged, and frustrated (Bolger et al., 1989; Sears et al., 2016). Their negative mood may lead to more unpleasant and harsh parenting techniques, as well as more parent-child conflicts. Parents who are verbally and physically antagonistic to one another are more prone to

use similar approaches with their children (Almeida et al., 1999). Interparental conflict may lead to frustration or lack of control, which parents may try to relieve by becoming overbearing or invasive toward their child, a process similar to scapegoating (Vogel & Bell, 1960).

There was also a statistically significant main effect on **identity** ( $p < .01$ ) as shown in Table 2.1. The findings indicate that that children from Broken families ( $M = 2.14$ ,  $SD = 0.60$ ) show more identity confusion than children from Intact families ( $M = 2.46$ ,  $SD = 0.52$ ). This finding supports the part of the **second** hypothesis that states that adolescents of Broken families will show more identity confusion.

This finding is – more or less – consistent with that of Vaičiulienė (1999) who found that single-parent adolescents experience identity crisis earlier and longer than those in Intact families. Slutsky et al. (2016) found that the quality of parent-child relationship has a significant impact on identity development in adolescents who experience the absence of their father. Parent-adolescent relationship is associated with identity formation process in a way that a relationship can be assumed between parental coalition and the two statuses of moratorium and identity diffusion (Faber, Edwards, Bauer, & Wetcher, 2006). Moreover, drawing upon Amato's (1993) conception of the family as a resource, we can expect that Intact family structures offer better economic resources to provide key mediating pathways through which family structure influences identity formation (Benson & Johnson, 2009).

The analysis also showed that family structure did have a statistically significant main effect on the **Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA)** reflecting academic performance of the students ( $p = 0.02$ ) as shown in Table 2.1. The findings suggest that students from Broken families ( $M=6.18$ ,  $SD = 1.56$ ) show poorer academic performance than students from Intact families ( $M = 6.54$ ,  $SD = 1.43$ ) as shown through their CGPA, which supports the part of the **second** hypothesis of this study. Findings from this study are also consistent with that of McLanahan and Schneider (2013) who argued that Parental divorce has a negative impact on a range of outcomes for children, including educational attainment and happiness.

To summarize the effect of 'family structure', the current findings support the second hypothesis of the study and confirm that adolescents of Broken families show more identity confusion, more psychological maladjustments and poorer academic performance than adolescents of Intact families. Also, children from Broken families experience higher levels of depression than do children from non-Intact families. However, anxiety was not necessarily higher in the 'Broken' groups, implying that less conflict as an aftermath of divorce could have reduced the anxiety levels of children regardless of the family structure.

### **Effects of Gender:**

The results of the investigation of the **third** objective (O3) i.e., to elucidate the gender differences in the measures of dependent variables can be seen from Table 2.1 as well.

The analysis showed that gender did have a statistically significant main effect on **family functioning** ( $p = .03$ ) as shown in Table 2.1. The findings suggest that male adolescents ( $M = 1.33$ ,  $SD = 0.30$ ) were poorer in their self-presentation of family functioning than female adolescents ( $M = 1.18$ ,  $SD = 0.25$ ). Hetherington et al. (1979) found that, immediately following the divorce, boys and girls experienced some disruption in family functioning and adjustments, however, the effects appeared to be more sustained in boys. Wallerstein (1985a), in a ten-year follow-up of children who were pre-schoolers at the time of divorce found that although there were no initial sex differences in the effects of divorce. Eighteen months following the divorce, many of the girls appeared recovered, but boys were significantly more troubled at home, and at school and in the playground.

The analysis also showed that gender did have a statistically significant main effect on **psychological adjustment** ( $p < .01$ ) as shown in Table 2.1. The findings suggest that male adolescents ( $M = 2.48$ ,  $SD = 0.32$ ) show better adjustment than female adolescents ( $M = 2.63$ ,  $SD = 0.33$ ). Slater et al. (1983) found that adolescent girls from disrupted homes had lower self-esteem and more behaviour problems than adolescent boys in similar homelife situations. Furthermore, while female adolescents

from disrupted homes reported higher levels of family conflict than females from Intact families, the opposite was true for males (Slater et al., 1983).

The analysis also showed that gender did have a statistically significant main effect on **depression** ( $p < .01$ ) as shown in Table 2.1. The findings suggest that male adolescents ( $M = 0.64$ ,  $SD = 0.47$ ) experienced lower levels of depression than female adolescents ( $M = 0.92$ ,  $SD = 0.47$ ). Also, gender did have a statistically significant main effect on anxiety ( $p < .01$ ) as shown in Table 2.1. The findings suggest that male adolescents ( $M = .49$ ,  $SD = 0.36$ ) experienced lower levels of anxiety than female adolescents ( $M = 0.72$ ,  $SD = 0.36$ ). Other studies have found more detrimental effects for girls than boys. According to a 2021 Meta analysis by Racine et al., globally, depression and anxiety was prevalent among girls than boys. Moreover, Wallerstein and Kelly (1975) found that, a year following divorce, 63 percent of the girls were in worse psychological condition compared to 27 percent of the boys.

The analysis showed that gender did not have a statistically significant main effect on **identity** ( $p = .08$ ) as shown in Table 2.1. The findings suggest that male adolescents ( $M = 2.35$ ,  $SD = 0.59$ ) did not differ significantly in terms of identity from female adolescents ( $M = 2.25$ ,  $SD = 0.57$ ). Archer (1989) pointed out some differences in the process of identity formation between males and females: Males are “significantly more likely to be foreclosed and females, diffuse, in the area of political ideology. Females were significantly more likely to be in moratorium or identity achieved with regard to family roles. In two of the three studies, no timing differences were found. The findings from a third study may reflect a greater complexity of the identity task for some female high school seniors as they confront intrapersonal and interpersonal goals simultaneously.”

Also, the analysis showed that gender did have a statistically significant main effect on CGPA ( $p = .04$ ) as shown in Table 2.1. The findings suggest that male adolescents ( $M = 6.22$ ,  $SD = 1.45$ ) show poorer **academic performance** than female adolescents ( $M = 6.51$ ,  $SD = 1.54$ ). On examining the effect of gender on education, females perform academically better than males; further, when factoring in the effect of family structure (i.e. the interaction effect of family structure and gender), of both



groups of males, those from non-Intact Broken families perform more poorly than both their female counterparts. In general, females tend to outperform males academically, are less likely to drop out, and more likely to go to university.

According to a decades-long (1914-2011) study among 30 countries by the American Psychological Association, girls tend to outperform boys in terms of grades for nearly a century (Voyer & Voyer, 2014). Also, while in India, males are more likely to receive at least 10 years of education (Kanwal, 2022), they are also more likely to lag behind and adolescent boys continue to fall behind girls at the secondary level (Sharma, 2022). While the current study does not address specifically to the educational context of the respondents, the results does suggest that males, especially those from non-Intact families may be suffering academically. To further look into this problem, subsequent studies are recommended especially those that consider the sociocultural elements and backgrounds of the Mizo population.

Summarizing the effect of 'gender', the findings partially support the **third** hypothesis and confirm that there were gender differences in the measures of the dependent variables: male adolescents were poorer in their self-presentation of family functioning than female adolescents, but show better adjustment than female adolescents. Also, they experience lower levels of anxiety than female but show poorer academic performance. However, there was no significant difference in their scores on identity, which may be possibly due to gender differences in identity formation.

### **Interaction effects of 'Family Structure' and 'Gender'**

Additionally, on investigating the interaction effects of 'Family Structure' and "Gender" on family functioning, adjustment, depression, anxiety, identity, and CGPA, there was a statistically significant interaction between the effects of family structure and gender on the CGPA of the students,  $F(3, 399) = 7.315, p = .04$ . Family structure and gender together seem to influence the academic performance of the samples.

Post hoc analysis of the CGPA using Scheffe's test (Table 2.4) revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of Intact Male ( $M = 6.55, SD = 1.28$ ) and Broken Male ( $M = 5.88, SD = 1.54$ ), and between Intact

Female ( $M = 6.54$ ,  $SD = 1.57$ ), and Broken Male ( $M = 5.88$ ,  $SD = 1.54$ ), as well as between Broken Female ( $M = 6.51$ ,  $SD = 1.52$ ) and Broken Male ( $M = 5.88$ ,  $SD = 1.54$ ) on the students' CGPA.

Family structure and gender do affect the academic performance of the samples separately in such a way that children from Broken families perform poorly than children from Intact families, and females tend to outperform males academically. From the interaction effect of both variables, it can be seen that Broken Male samples tend to underperform compared to their peers. Related to the findings, Guidubaldi and Perry (2005) observed that boys from non-Intact homes tend to show minimal work effort than their female counterparts. Moreover, Frimmel et al. (2016) noted that while girls and boys tend to be low in educational attainment, the latter are more likely to work in worse conditions. From the current findings, and from previous literature, it seems likely that the interaction of family structure and gender may have an amplifying effect on the academic performance of the samples, i.e. as shown through the CGPA of the students.

Table 2.1: Results of Two-Way ANOVA (2 family structure X 2 gender) on the General Scale of Family Assessment Measure III (FAMg), Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ), Beck Depression Inventory (BDI), Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI), the Identity Scale of Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory (EPSI-I), and the Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA).

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects							
Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	$\eta^2$
Family Structure	FAMg	0.64	1	0.64	8.57	0.00	0.021
	Child PAQ	4.92	1	4.92	49.10	0.00	0.111
	BDI-II	2.01	1	2.01	9.24	0.00	0.023
	BAI	0.19	1	0.19	1.48	0.23	0.004
	EPSI-I	10.28	1	10.28	33.22	0.00	0.078
	CGPA	12.24	1	12.24	5.59	0.02	0.014
Gender	FAMg	0.36	1	0.36	4.84	0.03	0.012
	Child PAQ	2.34	1	2.34	23.38	0.00	0.056

	BDI-II	7.58	1	7.58	34.95	0.00	0.081
	BAI	5.37	1	5.37	41.28	0.00	0.095
	EPSI-I	0.95	1	0.95	3.08	0.08	0.008
	CGPA	9.16	1	9.16	4.18	0.04	0.010
Family Structure * Gender	FAMg	0.02	1	0.02	0.21	0.65	0.001
	Child PAQ	0.35	1	0.35	3.51	0.06	0.009
	BDI-II	0.01	1	0.01	0.07	0.80	0.000
	BAI	0.29	1	0.29	2.25	0.13	0.006
	EPSI-I	0.46	1	0.46	1.48	0.22	0.004
	CGPA	8.51	1	8.51	3.88	0.049	0.010

Table 2.2: Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a</sup>

Scale	F	df1	df2	Sig.
FAMg	2.04	3	395	0.117
Child PAQ	1.76	3	395	0.15
BDI-II	3.20	3	395	0.02
BAI	0.07	3	395	0.98
EPSI-I	1.56	3	395	0.20
CGPA (10)	1.80	3	395	0.15

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept +Family Structure + Gender + Family Structure \* Gender

Table 2.3: Descriptive statistics Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis, Standard Errors for Intact Male, Intact Female, non-Intact Male and Broken Female samples across the dependent variables.

Scale	Family Structure	Gender	N	Mean	SD	Skewness	SE	Kurtosis	SE
FAMg	Intact	Male	100	1.20	0.29	-0.52	0.24	-0.37	0.48
		Female	100	1.13	0.26	-1.04	0.24	4.31	0.48
		Total	200	1.17	0.28	-0.08	0.17	1.75	0.34
	Broken	Male	100	1.45	0.16	0.12	0.23	-0.44	0.23
		Female	100	1.43	0.16	0.27	0.45	-0.3	0.45
		Total	200	1.25	0.27	0.47	0.17	0.08	0.34
	Total	Male	200	1.33	0.30	0.57	0.17	-0.21	0.34
		Female	200	1.18	0.25	-0.60	0.17	2.58	0.34
		Total	400	1.21	0.28	0.16	0.12	1.06	0.24
Child PAQ	Intact	Male	100	2.39	0.31	-0.28	0.24	0.51	0.48
		Female	100	2.49	0.28	-0.84	0.24	2.71	0.48
		Total	200	2.44	0.30	-0.54	0.17	1.18	0.34
	Broken	Male	100	2.56	0.35	-0.55	0.24	1.06	0.48
		Female	100	2.77	0.32	-0.42	0.24	0.1	0.48
		Total	200	2.55	0.34	-0.30	0.12	0.60	0.24
	Total	Male	200	2.48	0.34	-0.32	0.17	0.56	0.34
		Female	200	2.63	0.33	-0.29	0.17	0.77	0.34
		Total	400	2.67	0.35	-0.50	0.17	0.66	0.34
BDI-II	Intact	Male	100	0.58	0.42	0.83	0.24	0.18	0.48

		Female	100	0.84	0.42	0.38	0.24	-0.49	0.48	
		Total	200	0.71	0.44	0.52	0.17	-0.39	0.34	
	Broken	Male	100	0.71	0.5	0.32	0.24	-0.89	0.48	
		Female	100	1	0.51	-0.11	0.24	-0.72	0.48	
		Total	200	0.85	0.53	0.10	0.17	-0.91	0.34	
	Total	Male	200	0.64	0.47	0.57	0.17	-0.51	0.34	
		Female	200	0.92	0.47	0.16	0.17	-0.68	0.34	
		Total	400	0.78	0.49	0.33	0.12	-0.72	0.24	
	BAI	Intact	Male	100	0.49	0.35	1.04	0.24	0.88	0.48
Female			100	0.67	0.36	0.75	0.24	0.82	0.48	
Total			200	0.58	0.37	0.81	0.17	0.58	0.34	
Broken		Male	100	0.48	0.37	1.16	0.24	1.78	0.48	
		Female	100	0.77	0.37	0.29	0.24	-0.13	0.48	
		Total	200	0.63	0.39	0.58	0.17	0.04	0.34	
Total		Male	200	0.49	0.36	1.10	0.17	1.30	0.34	
		Female	200	0.72	0.36	0.50	0.17	0.17	0.34	
		Total	400	0.60	0.38	0.69	0.12	0.26	0.24	
EPSI		Intact	Male	100	2.55	0.52	-0.32	0.24	0.66	0.48
			Female	100	2.38	0.5	-0.23	0.24	-0.51	0.48
			Total	200	2.46	0.52	-0.25	0.17	0.03	0.34
	Broken	Male	100	2.15	0.6	0.1	0.24	-0.3	0.48	
		Female	100	2.12	0.6	0.21	0.24	-0.68	0.48	
		Total	200	2.14	0.60	0.15	0.17	-0.52	0.34	
	Total	Male	200	2.35	0.59	-0.19	0.17	-0.17	0.34	

		Female	200	2.25	0.57	-0.07	0.17	-0.70	0.34
		Total	400	2.30	0.58	-0.12	0.12	-0.44	0.24
CGPA	Intact	Male	100	6.55	1.28	-0.27	0.24	-0.52	0.48
		Female	100	6.54	1.57	-0.39	0.24	-0.1	0.48
		Total	200	6.54	1.43	-0.35	0.17	-0.13	0.34
	Broken	Male	100	5.88	1.54	-0.21	0.24	-0.31	0.48
		Female	100	6.48	1.52	0.08	0.24	-0.58	0.48
		Total	200	6.18	1.56	-0.07	0.17	-0.32	0.34
	Total	Male	200	6.22	1.45	-0.34	0.17	-0.25	0.34
		Female	200	6.51	1.54	-0.16	0.17	-0.36	0.34
		Total	400	6.36	1.50	-0.22	0.12	-0.28	0.24

Table 2.4: Scheffe's Test for mean differences in significant 'family structure x gender' interaction on CGPA.

Dependent Variable: CGPA						
Scheffe's Test						
(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% CI	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Intact Males	Intact Female	0.01	0.21	1.00	-0.58	0.60
	Broken Male	.66*	0.21	0.02	0.08	1.25
	Broken Female	0.07	0.21	0.99	-0.52	0.66
Intact Females	Intact Male	-0.01	0.21	1.00	-0.60	0.58
	Broken Male	.65*	0.21	0.02	0.06	1.24
	Broken Female	0.06	0.21	0.99	-0.53	0.65
	Intact Male	-.66*	0.21	0.02	-1.25	-0.08

Broken Males	Intact Females	-.65*	0.21	0.02	-1.24	-0.06
	Broken Female	-.60*	0.21	0.05	-1.18	-0.01
Broken Female	Intact Male	-0.07	0.21	0.99	-0.66	0.52
	Intact Female	-0.06	0.21	0.99	-0.65	0.53
	Broken Male	.60*	0.21	0.05	0.01	1.18

\* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

**Relationships between Family Functioning (FAMg), Adjustment (CPAQ), Depression (BDI-II), Anxiety (BAI), Identity (EPSI-I) and the Students' CGPA (CGPA).**

In order to highlight the relationships between Family Functioning, Adjustment, Depression, Anxiety, Identity and the Students' CGPA, Pearson's correlation coefficients were obtained for these measures through bivariate correlations between the scores on all of the measures across the four groups, viz. IntactMale, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female. Table 3.1, Table 3.2, Table 3.3 and Table 3.4 depict the correlations between the variables over all units of analyses.

Table 3.1: Correlation coefficients (Pearson's r) between Family Functioning (FAMg), Adjustment (Child PAQ), Depression (BDI-II), Anxiety (BAI), Identity (EPSI-I) and CGPA for Intact Male samples.

	FAMg	CPAQ	BDI-II	BAI	EPSI-I	CGPA
FAMg	1					
CPAQ	.35**	1				
BDI-II	-0.04	.30**	1			
BAI	0.02	.36**	.61**	1		
EPSI-I	-0.18	.58**	-.38**	-.50**	1	
CGPA	-0.19	-0.18	-0.01	-0.04	.24*	1

\*\* Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

\* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

As seen from Table 3.1, for Intact Male samples, Family Functioning was significantly positively correlated with Adjustment ( $r = .35, p < .01$ ). Adjustment was also significantly positively correlated with Depression ( $r = .30, p < .01$ ), depression ( $r = .36, p < .01$ ), and significantly negatively correlated with Identity ( $r = -.58, p < .01$ ). Depression was also significantly positively correlated with Anxiety ( $r = .61, p < .01$ ) and significantly negatively correlated with Identity ( $r = -.38, p < .01$ ). Anxiety was also significantly negatively correlated with Identity ( $r = -.50, p < .01$ ). Moreover, Identity was significantly positively correlated with the students' CGPA ( $r = .24, p < .05$ ).

Table 3.2: Correlation coefficients (Pearson's  $r$ ) between Family Functioning (FAMg), Adjustment (Child PAQ), Depression (BDI-II), Anxiety (BAI), Identity (EPSI-I), Academic Performance Ratings (APRS) and CGPA for Intact Female samples.

	FAMg	CPAQ	BDI-II	BAI	EPSI-I	CGPA
FAMg	1					
CPAQ	.26**	1				
BDI-II	0.11	.45**	1			
BAI	0.09	.27**	.46**	1		
EPSI-I	-0.11	-.48**	-.46**	-.38**	1	
CGPA	0.02	-0.19	0.00	-0.01	-0.02	1

\*\* Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

As seen from Table 3.2, for Intact Female samples, Family Functioning was significantly positively correlated with Adjustment ( $r = .26, p < .01$ ). Adjustment was also positively significantly correlated with Depression ( $r = .45, p < .01$ ), Anxiety ( $r = .27, p < .01$ ), and significantly negatively correlated with Identity ( $r = -.48, p < .01$ ). Depression was also significantly positively correlated with Anxiety ( $r = .46, p < .01$ ) and significantly negatively correlated with Identity ( $r = -.46, p < .01$ ), while Anxiety was also significantly negatively correlated with Identity ( $r = -.38, p < .01$ ).



Table 3.3: Correlation coefficients (Pearson's  $r$ ) between Family Functioning (FAMg), Adjustment (Child PAQ), Depression (BDI-II), Anxiety (BAI), Identity (EPSI-I) and CGPA for Broken Male samples.

	FAMg	CPAQ	BDI-II	BAI	EPSI-I	CGPA
FAMg	1					
CPAQ	.47**	1				
BDI-II	0.04	.47**	1			
BAI	-0.14	.27**	.52**	1		
EPSI-I	-.57**	-.50**	-.26**	-0.01	1	
CGPA	-.20*	-0.06	0.18	0.06	0.10	1

\*\* Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

As seen from Table 3.3, for Broken Male samples, Family Functioning was significantly positively correlated with Adjustment ( $r = .47, p < .01$ ), and significantly negatively correlated with Identity ( $r = -.57, p < .01$ ) and the students' CGPA ( $r = -.20, p < .05$ ). Adjustment was also significantly positively correlated with Depression ( $r = .47, p < .01$ ), Anxiety ( $r = .27, p < .01$ ), and significantly negatively correlated with Identity ( $r = -.50, p < .01$ ). Depression was also significantly positively correlated with Anxiety ( $r = .52, p < .01$ ) and significantly negatively correlated with Identity ( $r = -.26, p < .01$ ).

Table 3.4: Correlation coefficients (Pearson's  $r$ ) between Family Functioning (FAMg), adjustment (Child PAQ), Depression (BDI-II), Anxiety (BAI), Identity (EPSI-I) and CGPA for Broken Female samples.

	FAMg	Child PAQ	BDI-II	BAI	EPSI-I	CGPA
FAMg	1					
Child PAQ	.42**	1				
BDI-II	.31**	.57**	1			
BAI	.28**	.47**	.61**	1		
EPSI-I	-.41**	-.58**	-.47**	-.47**	1	
CGPA	-.31**	-.20*	-0.10	-0.17	0.11	1

\*\* Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

As seen from Table 3.4, for Broken Female samples, Family Functioning was significantly positively correlated with Adjustment ( $r = .42, p < .01$ ), Depression ( $r = .31, p < .01$ ) and Anxiety ( $r = .28, p < .01$ ), and significantly negatively correlated with Identity ( $r = -.41, p < .01$ ) and the students' CGPA ( $r = -.31, p < .01$ ). Adjustment was also significantly positively correlated with Depression ( $r = .57, p < .01$ ), Anxiety ( $r = .47, p < .01$ ), and significantly negatively correlated with Identity ( $r = -.47, p < .01$ ) and the students' CGPA ( $r = -.20, p < .05$ ). Depression was also significantly positively correlated with Anxiety ( $r = .61, p < .01$ ) and significantly negatively correlated with Identity ( $r = -.47, p < .01$ ), while Anxiety was also significantly negatively correlated with Identity ( $r = -.47, p < .01$ ).

From these findings, it is indeed clear that divorce and dissolution may have an association with reduced school success and accomplishments. The negative relationship between family functioning and academic performance was more pronounced for children from non-Intact families, whether male or female, than from Intact families. Previous researches have shown that this disparity starts from primary education with divorce-exposed adolescents being less likely to continue education in adulthood (Biblarz & Gottainer, 2000; Astone & McLanahan, 2001). During the phase of marital disturbance, children have poorer academic expectations and test scores.

Moreover, the financial instabilities created by divorce is problematic as it results in the decline of the standard of living (Ducan & Holfman, 1985; Whitman, 1985) thereby affecting the standard of education.

### **Prediction of Academic Performance from Family Functioning, Adjustment and Identity.**

To examine the predictability of the participants as indicated by their CGPA from Family Functioning, Adjustment and Identity, hierarchical regression analyses were executed for all units of the analysis (Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female) separately as gender effects were found on academic performance (CGPA), and since family structure and gender together exert a significant interaction effect on CGPA. After having adequately addressed the assumptions of multiple regression (outliers, linearity, multivariate normality, multicollinearity and homoscedasticity of residuals), scores on the predictor variables – 1) Family Functioning, 2) Adjustment, and 3) Identity with CGPA as the criterion variable were entered appropriately. No concerns for multicollinearity of the predictor variables were raised from the analyses.

Results of the hierarchical regression analyses executed for Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female samples separately in several combinations of the prediction model are reported in the following order of sections followed by a summarized discussion:

- Prediction of Academic Performance by Family Functioning, Adjustment, and Identity for Intact Male
- Prediction of Academic Performance by Family Functioning, Adjustment, and Identity for Intact Female
- Prediction of Academic Performance by Family Functioning, Adjustment, and Identity for Broken Male.
- Prediction of Academic Performance by Family Functioning, Adjustment, and Identity for Broken Female

#### 4.1 Prediction of Academic Performance by Family Functioning, Adjustment, and Identity for Intact Male.

Results of hierarchical regression analysis revealed that Family Functioning (FAMG) alone predicted 2.8% of the total variance in the students' CGPA which was not statistically significant for the Intact male samples. Family Functioning and Adjustment (CPAQ) together predicted 3.3% of the total variance in CGPA which was statistically significant at the .05 level. Also, Family Functioning Adjustment, and Identity (EPSI-I) together explained 5% of the variance in the CGPA of the Intact male samples, which was statistically significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.1: Hierarchical regression analyses testing the predictability of CGPA from Family Functioning (FAMg), Adjustment (CPAQ) & Identity (EPSI-I) for Intact Male samples.

Predictors	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Step 1</i>					
(Constant)	7.560	0.534		14.16	0.00
FAMG	-0.843	0.432	-0.193	-1.952	0.05
<i>Step 2</i>					
(Constant)	8.603	0.997		8.630	0.00
FAMG	-0.641	0.460	-0.147	-1.392	0.17
CPAQ	-0.537	0.434	-0.131	-1.237	0.22
<i>Step 3</i>					
(Constant)	6.212	1.748		3.553	0.00
FAMG	-0.664	0.456	-0.153	-1.456	0.15
CPAQ	-0.053	0.520	-0.013	-0.101	0.92
EPSI-I	0.495	0.299	0.200	1.658	0.10

Note.  $\Delta R^2 = .028$  for step 1 ( $p = .054$ );  $\Delta R^2 = .033$  for step 2 ( $p = .013$ );  $\Delta R^2 = .05$  for step 3 ( $p = .048$ ).

#### 4.2. Prediction of Academic Performance by Family Functioning, Adjustment, and Identity for Intact Female:

Results of hierarchical regression analysis revealed that Family Functioning alone predicted 1% of the total variance in the students' CGPA which was not statistically significant for the Intact female samples. Family Functioning and Adjustment together predicted 2.1% of the total variance in CGPA, which was not statistically significant at the .05 level. Also, Family Functioning Adjustment, and Identity together explained 2.8% of the variance in the CGPA of the Intact female samples, which was not statistically significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.2: Hierarchical regression analyses testing the predictability of CGPA from Family Functioning (FAMg), Adjustment (CPAQ) & Identity (EPSI-I) for Intact Female samples.

Predictors	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Step 1</i>					
(Constant)	6.423	0.706		9.10	0.000
FAMG	0.100	0.607	0.017	0.17	0.869
<i>Step 2</i>					
(Constant)	8.970	1.439		6.24	0.000
FAMG	0.423	0.619	0.070	0.68	0.496
CPAQ	-1.169	0.578	-0.208	-2.02	0.046
<i>Step 3</i>					
(Constant)	11.027	2.143		5.15	0.000
FAMG	0.437	0.617	0.073	0.71	0.480
CPAQ	-1.567	0.654	-0.279	-2.40	0.018
EPSI-I	-0.455	0.352	-0.146	-1.29	0.200

Note.  $\Delta R^2 = -.01$  for step 1 ( $p = .869$ );  $\Delta R^2 = .021$  for step 2 ( $p = .971$ );  $\Delta R^2 = .028$  for step 3 ( $p = .129$ )

### 4.3. Prediction of Academic Performance by Family Functioning, Adjustment, and Identity for Broken Male.

Results of hierarchical regression analysis revealed that Family Functioning alone predicted 2.9% of the total variance in the students' CGPA which was statistically significant at the .05 level for the Broken male samples. Family Functioning and Adjustment together predicted 2.1% of the total variance in CGPA which was not statistically significant at the .05 level. Also, Family Functioning, Adjustment, and Identity together explained 1.1% of the variance in the CGPA of the Broken male samples, which was not statistically significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.3: Hierarchical regression analyses testing the predictability of CGPA from Family Functioning (FAMg), Adjustment (CPAQ) & Identity (EPSI-I) for Broken Male samples.

Predictors	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Step 1</i>					
(Constant)	7.187	0.671		10.704	0.000
FAMG	-1.023	0.514	-0.197	-1.993	0.049
<i>Step 2</i>					
(Constant)	6.793	1.141		5.956	0.000
FAMG	-1.140	0.583	-0.220	-1.955	0.054
CPAQ	0.212	0.495	0.048	0.429	0.669
<i>Step 3</i>					
(Constant)	6.826	1.905		3.584	0.001
FAMG	-1.147	0.653	-0.221	-1.757	0.082
CPAQ	0.209	0.527	0.047	0.396	0.693
EPSI-I	-0.007	0.333	-0.003	-0.022	0.983

Note.  $\Delta R^2 = .029$  for step 1 ( $p = .049$ );  $\Delta R^2 = .021$  for step 2 ( $p = .144$ );  $\Delta R^2 = .011$  for step 3 ( $p = .260$ )

#### 4.4. Prediction of Academic Performance by Family Functioning, Adjustment, and Identity for Broken Female.

Results of hierarchical regression analysis revealed that Family Functioning alone predicted 8.7% of the total variance in the students' CGPA which was statistically significant at the .05 level for the Broken female samples. Family Functioning and Adjustment together predicted 8.4% of the total variance in CGPA which was statistically significant at the .05 level. Also, Family Functioning Adjustment, and Identity together explained 7.8% of the variance in the CGPA of the Broken female samples, which was statistically significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.4: Hierarchical regression analyses testing the predictability of CGPA from Family Functioning (FAMg), Adjustment (CPAQ) & Identity (EPSI-I) for Broken Female samples.

Predictors	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Step 1</i>					
(Constant)	8.884	0.758		11.720	0.000
FAMG	-1.962	0.607	-0.310	-3.233	0.002
<i>Step 2</i>					
(Constant)	9.715	1.294		7.507	0.000
FAMG	-1.737	0.671	-0.275	-2.589	0.011
CPAQ	-0.399	0.503	-0.084	-0.793	0.429
<i>Step 3</i>					
(Constant)	10.693	2.078		5.147	0.000
FAMG	-1.828	0.690	-0.289	-2.650	0.009
CPAQ	-0.570	0.579	-0.120	-0.985	0.327
EPSI-I	-0.185	0.307	-0.073	-0.603	0.548

Note.  $\Delta R^2 = .087$  for step 1 ( $p = .002$ );  $\Delta R^2 = .084$  for step 2 ( $p = .007$ );  $\Delta R^2 = .078$  for step 3 ( $p = .013$ )

These analyses revealed that family functioning, identity and adjustment significantly predicted academic performance only for Intact Males and Broken females. On further examining the main effects for Intact males, no significant main

effects of family functioning, identity and adjustment on academic performance were found. However, for non-Intact females, the effect of family functioning was significant at each level of the analysis, although the effects of identity and adjustment were not significant.

The findings suggest that identity and adjustment may not necessarily predict academic performance while, on the other hand, family functioning alone seems to significantly predict academic performance, especially for Broken female samples. Although boys from Broken homes do tend to suffer more academic problems, Allison and Furstenberg (1989) found that female adolescents also suffer academically, especially concerning with teacher-rated assessments, even if the mechanisms underlying gender-related processes within the family context in relation to academic performance is still unclear. The effect of non-Intactness on academic performance in relation to the family process (and its facets) and other variables is a problem requiring further consideration.

### **Moderating role of Identity and Psychological Maladjustment in the Relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance.**

In examining the fourth objective of studying the roles of identity and psychological maladjustment in the relationship between family functioning and academic performance in children of Intact and Broken families, it was hypothesized that identity and psychological maladjustments will play a mediating or moderating role in the relationship between the family functioning and academic performance. Accordingly, we may expect the relationship between family functioning and academic performance to vary according to the levels of identity and psychological maladjustment over all the units of analyses: Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female.

**PROCESS v.4.1** (Hayes, 2022), an extension for SPSS, was used for testing the moderating role of Identity (EPSI-I), entered as the moderating variable, in the relationship between Family Functioning (FAMg) and Academic Performance (CGPA) for all units of the analyses. Assumptions that underlie multiple regression



analysis like linearity, independent errors, normality, homoscedasticity and non-multicollinearity were generally satisfied, and mean centering of variables and bootstrapping (1000) were automatically executed by PROCESS.

### **5. Moderating role of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance.**

To test for the moderating role of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA), moderation analysis was executed for Intact Male, Intact Female, non-Intact Male and Broken Females separately in several combinations and are reported in the following order of sections followed by a summarized discussion:

- Moderating role of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for **Intact Male.**
- Moderating role of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for **Intact Female.**
- Moderating role of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for **Broken Male.**
- Moderating role of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for **Broken Female.**

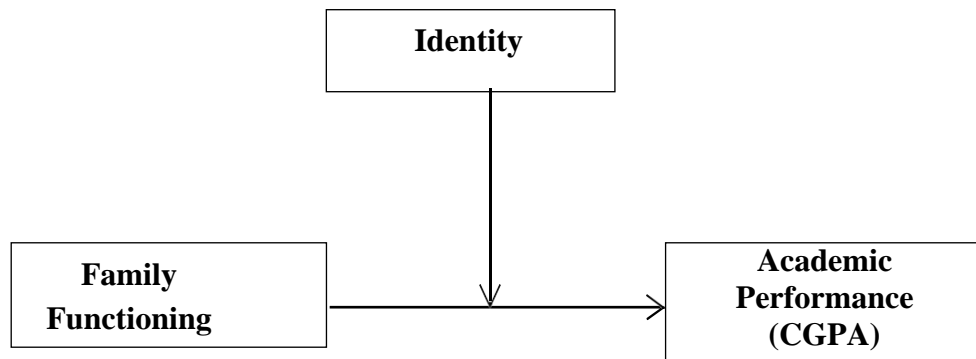


Figure 4: Moderation model for testing the moderating role of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance.

### 5.1. Moderating role of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact Male.

Results of moderation analysis of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact Male indicates that Identity and Family Functioning explained 16.45 % of the total variance in Academic Performance (CGPA), which was statistically significant. Significant interaction effect of Identity and Family Functioning on Academic Performance (CGPA) was also found for Intact Male, indicating that identity played a moderating role in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact males.

Simple slope analysis (Figure 5.1) and conditional effects of Family Functioning on CGPA at different values of Identity (Table 5.1) revealed that only when the level of identity was high,  $b = 0.6172$ , 95% CI [-3.3439, -.8937],  $t = -3.1411$ ,  $p < .01$  (green slope in Figure 5), the relationship between family functioning and academic performance was significantly negative. **This indicates that increase in family dysfunctionality decreases academic performance (as indicated by the students' CGPA) for male adolescent from Intact families who are high in their sense of identity, but not for those of average or low levels.**

Table 5.1: Moderation analysis of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact Male samples (N = 100).

Model Summary

<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
.4056	.1645	1.4072	6.3022	3.0000	96.00	.0006

Model

	<i>coeff</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
constant	6.4690	.1212	53.3573	.0000	6.2284	6.7097
FAMg	-.6329	.4135	-1.5307	.1291	-1.4537	.1878
EPSII	.3854	.2386	1.6149	.1096	-.0883	.8591
Int_1	-2.8822	.9176	-3.1411	.0022	-4.7037	-1.0608

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

<i>Level</i>	<i>EPSII</i>	<i>Effect</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Low	-.5155	.8530	.6392	1.3345	.1852	-.4158	2.1217
Moderate	.0000	-.6329	.4135	-1.5307	.1291	-1.4537	.1878
High	.5155	-2.1188	.6172	-3.4329	.0009	-3.3439	-.8937

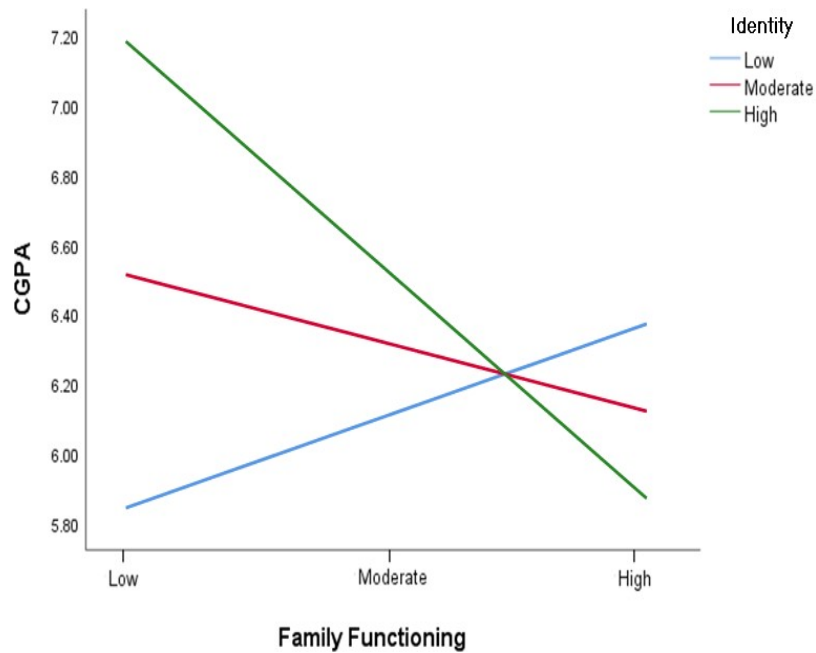


Figure 5: Simple slopes equations of the regression of Family Functioning on CGPA at three levels of identity for Intact Male samples.

**5.2. Moderating role of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact Female.**

Results of moderation analysis of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact Female samples indicate that Identity and Family Functioning explained 2.18 % of the total variance in Academic Performance (CGPA), which was not statistically significant. No significant interaction effect of Identity and Family Functioning on Academic Performance (CGPA) was found for Intact Female,  $b = -1.7942$ , 95% CI [-4.2613, .6728],  $t = -1.4436$ ,  $p = .1521$ , indicating that identity did not play a moderating role in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact Female samples.

**Table 5.2: Moderation analysis of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact Female samples (N = 100).**

**Model Summary**

<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
.1478	.0218	2.4982	.7143	3.0000	96.0000	.5458

**Model**

	<i>coeff</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
constant	6.511	.1590	40.94	.0000	6.1958	6.8272
FAMg	.0492	.6112	.08	.9360	-1.1640	1.2623
EPSII	-.0547	.3166	-.17	.8631	-.6831	.5736
Int_1	-1.7942	1.2429	-1.44	.1521	-4.2613	.6728

**5.3. Moderating role of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Male.**

Results of moderation analysis of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Male samples indicates that 7.29 % of the total variance in Academic Performance (CGPA) was explained by Identity and Family Functioning, which was not statistically significant. No significant interaction effect of Identity and Family Functioning on Academic Performance (CGPA) was found for Non-Intact Male,  $b = 1.5034$ , 95% CI [-.0950, 3.1018],  $t = 1.8670$ ,  $p = .0650$ , indicating that identity did not play a moderating role in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Male samples.

Table 5.3: Moderation analysis of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Male samples (N = 100).

<i>Model Summary</i>						
<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
.2699	.0729	2.2673	2.5151	3.0000	96.0000	.0629

<i>Model</i>						
	<i>coeff</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
constant	6.0341	.1708	35.3359	.0000	5.6951	6.3730
FAMg	-.5204	.6894	-.7549	.4521	-1.8889	.8480
EPSII	.0096	.3108	.0310	.9753	-.6073	.6265
Int_1	1.5034	.8052	1.8670	.0650	-.0950	3.1018

#### **5.4. Moderating role of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Female.**

Results of moderation analysis of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Female samples indicates that Identity and Family Functioning explained 12.12 % of the total variance in Academic Performance (CGPA), which was statistically significant. No significant interaction effect of Identity and Family Functioning on Academic Performance (CGPA) was found for Broken Female,  $b = -.4523$ , 95% CI [- 3.7210, .3531],  $t = -1.6409$ ,  $p = .1041$ , indicating that identity did not play a moderating role in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Female samples.

Table 5.4: Moderation analysis of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Female (N = 100)

<i>Model Summary</i>						
<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
.3481	.1212	2.0943	4.4126	3.0000	96.0000	.0059

<i>Model</i>						
	<i>coeff</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
constant	6.3810	.1565	40.7719	.0000	6.0704	6.6917
FAMg	-2.0340	.6619	-3.0730	.0028	-3.3479	-.7201
EPSII	-.0256	.2651	-.0965	.9233	-.5517	.5006
Int_1	-1.6840	1.0262	-1.6409	.1041	-3.7210	.3531

Erikson viewed ego identity as serving to protect individuals in the face of change produced by sudden changes of personal or situational problems. With this rationale, we may expect that identity would moderate the negative effect of family dysfunction on academic performance. However, this seems to hold true only for the Intact male group in the study, and only for those showing a high sense of identity at that. The reason for Intact males being the only group for whom this moderation occurs currently does not have a satisfactory explanation. It is suggested that future studies should look into the detailed experiences of the four levels of analysis (or the four groups) to provide a satisfactory answer.

## 6. Moderating role of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance.

To test for the moderating role of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA), moderation analysis was again executed for Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female samples separately in several combinations and are reported in the following order of sections followed by a summarized discussion:

- Moderating role of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for **Intact Male**
- Moderating role of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for **Intact Female**
- Moderating role of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for **Broken Male**
- Moderating role of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for **Broken Female**

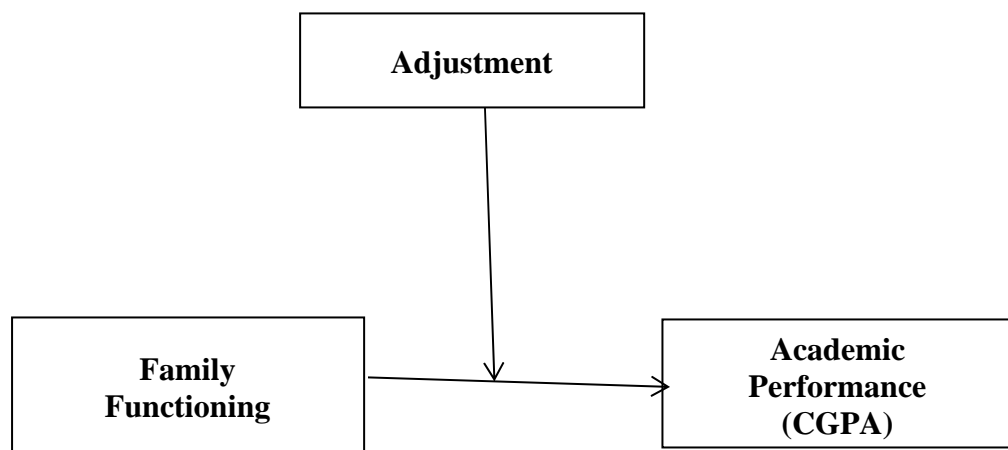


Figure 4: Moderation model for testing the moderating role of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance.



### 6.1. Moderating role of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact Male.

Results of moderation analysis of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact Male samples indicates that Adjustment and Family Functioning explained 12.47 % of the total variance in Academic Performance (CGPA), which was statistically significant. Significant interaction effect of Adjustment and Family Functioning on Academic Performance (CGPA) was found for Intact Male,  $b = 3.9337$ , 95% CI [1.1606, 6.7067],  $t = 2.8157$ ,  $p = .0059$ , indicating that Adjustment played a moderating role in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact male samples.

Simple slope analysis (Figure 6.1) and conditional effects of Family Functioning on CGPA at different values of Identity revealed that only when the level of identity was low,  $b = -2.0082$ , 95% CI [6.1648, 6.6785],  $t = 49.6223$ ,  $p < .01$  (green slope in Figure 6.1), the relationship between family functioning and academic performance was significantly negative. **This indicates that increase in family dysfunctionality decreases academic performance (as indicated by the students' CGPA) for male adolescent from Intact families whose levels of maladjustment are low, but not for those of average or high levels.**

Table 6.1: Moderation analysis of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact Male (N = 100).

#### Model Summary

<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
.3531	.1247	1.4743	4.5583	3.000	96.000	.005

#### Model

	<i>coeff</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
constant	6.421	.129	49.622	.000	6.1648	6.6785
FAMg	-.7837	.4476	-1.7508	.0832	-1.6722	.1048
CPAQ	-.1994	.4360	-.4573	.6485	-1.0649	.6661

Int\_1            3.9337            1.3970            2.8157            .0059            1.1606            6.7067

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

Level	CPAQ	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Low	-.3113	-2.008	.6585	-3.05	.003	-3.3153	-.7011
Mod.	.0000	-.7837	.4476	-1.75	.0832	-1.6722	.1048
High	.3113	.4408	.5877	.75	.4550	-.7257	1.6074

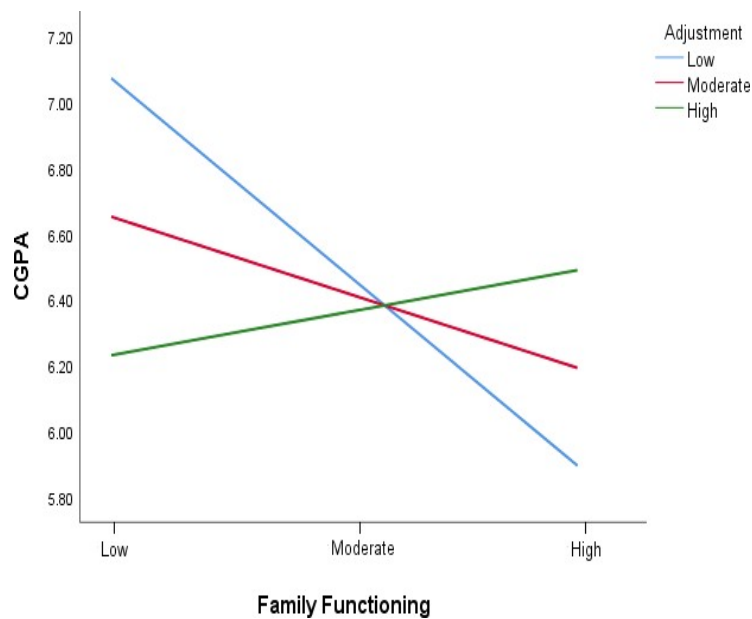


Figure 7: Simple slopes equations of the regression of Family Functioning on CGPA at three levels of identity for young female adults.

## 6.2 Moderating role of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact Female.

Results of moderation analysis of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact Female samples indicates that 4.62 % of the total variance in Academic Performance (CGPA) was explained by Adjustment and Family Functioning; which however was not statistically significant. No significant interaction effect of Adjustment and Family Functioning on Academic Performance (CGPA) was found for Intact Female,  $b = -2.3999$ , 95% CI [-8.5609, 3.8812],  $t = -.7466$ ,  $p = .4571$ , indicating that Adjustment did not play a

moderating role in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact Female samples.

Table 6.2: Moderation analysis of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact Female (N = 100).

**Model Summary**

<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
.2150	.0462	2.4359	1.5516	3.0000	96.0000	.2062

**Model**

	<i>coeff</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
constant	6.5808	.1667	39.4700	.0000	6.2498	6.9117
FAMg	.3141	.6371	.4931	.6231	-.9505	1.5788
CPAQ	-1.3008	.6058	-2.1473	.0343	-2.5033	-.0983
Int_1	-2.3399	3.1341	-.7466	.4571	-8.5609	3.8812

**6.3. Moderating role of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Male.**

Results of moderation analysis of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Male samples indicates that 5.84 % of the total variance in Academic Performance (CGPA) was explained by Adjustment and Family Functioning; which however was not statistically significant. No significant interaction effect of Adjustment and Family Functioning on Academic Performance (CGPA) was found for Broken Male,  $b = -1.9478$ , 95% CI [-4.8347, .9392],  $t = -1.3392$ ,  $p = .1837$ , indicating that Adjustment did not play a moderating role in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Male samples.

Table 6.3: Moderation analysis of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Male (N = 100)

<b>Model Summary</b>						
<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
.2416	.0584	2.3028	1.9833	3.0000	96.0000	.1216
<b>Model</b>						
	<i>coeff</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
constant	5.9774	.1671	35.7694	.0000	5.6457	6.3091
FAMg	-.8778	.6133	-1.4314	.1556	-2.0951	.3395
CPAQ	-.0108	.5206	-.0208	.9834	-1.0442	1.0225
Int_1	-1.9478	1.4544	-1.3392	.1837	-4.8347	.9392

#### **6.4. Moderating role of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Female.**

Results of moderation analysis of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Female samples, given in Table 6.4 indicates that Adjustment and Family Functioning explained 10.32 % of the total variance in Academic Performance (CGPA), which was statistically significant. No significant interaction effect of Adjustment and Family Functioning on Academic Performance (CGPA) was found for Broken Female,  $b = .6836$ , 95% CI [-3.4412, 4.8084],  $t = .3290$ ,  $p = .7429$ , indicating that Adjustment did not play a moderating role in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Female samples.

Table 6.4: Moderation analysis of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Broken Female (N = 100).

**Model Summary**

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.3212	.1032	2.1372	3.6821	3.0000	6.0000	.0147

**Model**

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	6.4567	.1608	40.1442	.0000	6.1375	6.7760
FAMg	-1.7515	.6754	-2.5932	.0110	-3.0923	-.4108
CPAQ	-.3648	.5164	-.7063	.4817	-1.3899	.6603
Int_1	.6836	2.0780	.3290	.7429	-3.4412	4.8084

Conventionally, and from past literature, adjustment (or maladjustment) should further propel the negative effects of family functioning. As with the moderating effect of identity, the moderation of adjustment was significant for only Intact males at the low level. Again, explanations for this particular characteristic is yet pervasive and future studies must –again – detail the experiences of the four levels of analysis to provide a satisfactory answer. It may only be gleaned here at this stage that family functioning and dysfunctioning in Intact families influence the performance of their boys especially those with strong identity, indicating that all may not be well in Intact families as well. It is the functioning also and not only the family structure that is important for healthy development of children.

Male children from Intact families, irrespective of their family structure may still perform poorly in their academic activities. One particular study (Lin et al., 2019) found that family functioning, rather than family structure, plays a more important role

in predicting the reasoning abilities and math achievement among American minorities. Families with varied home structures perform differently, notably in terms of cohesion, flexibility, and communication, i.e., **“adolescents demonstrate better cognitive functioning in environments with high levels of organization, limit setting and parental support** (Schroeder and Kelley 2010). This is evident in Taylor et al. (2010) who found that African-American children from single-parent households do not perform worse in terms of their academic activities than those of children from two-biological parent homes; some, in fact, thrive.

The findings from the moderation analyses only partially support the **fourth** hypothesis. Identity and psychological maladjustment play a moderating role in the relationship between family functioning and academic performance, but only for Intact males. This could possibly be due to differences in experiences of the particular sample, i.e., Intact Male. A qualitative approach detailing the experience of each particular sample (Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female) may shed some light on the findings.

Chapter - V

**SUMMARY & CONCLUSION**





The main objective of this study was to investigate the impact of Intact and Broken family functioning on psychological adjustments and academic performance of adolescents. Numerous studies have demonstrated that children from Intact families—those with two married biological parents—are less likely to display adverse psychological and educational outcomes, such as poorer academic performance, riskier behaviour, and decreased subjective well-being, compared to children from Broken families—those without two married biological parents (Shek et al., 2015).

The causes of marital breakdown and its consequences for family life have drawn much attention in the different disciplines of psychology, social work, sociology, anthropology and psychiatry. Sociological causes of marital breakdown received much attention from several and a combination of theoretical perspectives - role conflict, symbolic interactionism, structural - functionalism, social exchange and systems theory. Secularism, modernization, industrialization and urbanization are often considered to have negatively impacted on marital stability. Thus, the causes of marital breakdown are known to be many, but no single cause is known to predispose a married couple to a point of breakdown. However, a combination and interaction of a number of causal factors has the likely potential to affect marital stability (Fambawl, 2004).

The Mizo community adheres to a patriarchal and patrilineal form of society, in which the father's side of the family tree is used to determine the line of the family tree. The youngest son is typically the successor to his father's property in Mizo society, and the female unmarried members of the family are expected to stay in the ancestral home, while the other son/s are expected to make a home of his own after marriage. Therefore, the ancestral home typically consists of a father, a mother, and their children, the grandparents, and other unmarried siblings. Sen (1992) states that “Divorce is allowed in the Mizo society. The bond of matrimony among them is very loose. Divorce is very simple and it does not require going to the Court etc”.

Thus, marital breakdown is a fairly common occurrence in Mizoram. Being born outside of wedlock is not as stigmatized as it is in other states. However, the children of Broken families are seen to be adversely affected not only in how well they

perform in school but also how they live their daily lives. Mizoram State Commission for Protection of Child Rights (MSCPCR, 2021) recorded that Mizoram has a total of 52 Child Care Institutions (CCI), which is disproportionate to the state's total population of just over one million. It speaks about the increasingly alarming rate of Broken homes. To date, very little scientific literature or scientific research has been provided on the cause of Broken homes, and on the effect these non-Intact homes may have on the academic performance as well as the well-being of the children who are either in the orphanages, or Child Care Institutions (CCI) or in the Broken homes.

This study will try to examine how the phenomenon of Intactness or Brokenness of families affect the psychological adjustment of the children, which could affect their academic performance, within the context of Mizoram, and Aizawl city in particular. It is hoped that this study will assist parents and other stakeholders in understanding the enormous risk they expose their children to and in prioritizing their future and their proper care and upbringing.

Given the theoretical and empirical background pertaining to the focus of the study, several objectives and hypotheses were put forth. The first objective was to describe the family functioning of Intact and Broken families. The second objective was to elucidate the effect of family structure (Intact versus Broken) on family functioning, identity, psychological maladjustments and academic performance of adolescents. The third objective was to elucidate the gender differences in the measures of dependent variables. And finally, the fourth objective of the study was to study the roles of identity and psychological maladjustment in the relationship between family functioning and academic performance in children of Intact and Broken families.

Employing a multistage sampling procedure, samples were recruited randomly at each stage of the sampling process to finally arrive at a sufficient sample size required for this study. 200 male and 200 female adolescents, each from Intact and Broken homes in equal proportion, were randomly selected from classes IX to XII from a representative random sample of secondary and higher secondary schools in the city of Aizawl, Mizoram. A demographic information schedule was used to

determine their family structure, i.e., whether they were from Intact or Broken families. The demographic information of the participants like age, sex, religion, family type (joint/nuclear), school and class in which they were studying were recorded to equate/match the participants to maintain homogeneity and representativeness of the sample for the study.

Samples were randomly selected from different schools within and around the city of Aizawl, viz. St. Paul's Higher Secondary School, Synod Higher Secondary School, Home Mission School, Mount Carmel School, Govt. Mizo Higher Secondary School, Govt. Central Higher Secondary School, and Govt. Dinthar High School, and St. Xavier's Higher Secondary School. The mean age of the Intact Male samples was 16.23 (SD = 1.05) and their ages ranged from 14 to 19. The majority of them (96%) came from Christian households while a minority of them came from Hindu households (4%). 70% of the participants from this category came from nuclear families while 30 % of them came from joint families, and all of them had sufficient knowledge in Mizo and English. The mean age of the Intact Female samples was 16.91 (SD = 1.27) and their ages ranged from 14 to 21. All of them (100%) came from Christian households. 78% of the participants from this category came from nuclear families while 22 % of them came from joint families, and all of them had sufficient knowledge in Mizo and English.

The mean age of the Broken Male samples was 16.49 (SD = 1.50) and their ages ranged from 14 to 21. All of them (100%) came from Christian households. 100% of the participants from this category came from nuclear families and all of them had sufficient knowledge in Mizo and English. Also, the mean age of the Broken Female samples was 16.12 (SD = 1.57) and their ages ranged from 14 to 20. All of them (100%) came from Christian households. 100% of the participants from this category came from nuclear families and all of them had sufficient knowledge in Mizo and English.

Since parametric statistics were selected as the default statistics for data analysis, extreme outliers were deleted, mild outliers were winsorized to maintain equal sample sizes in each cell of the design (2 family structure x 2 gender). The

preceding tests for assumptions that underlie the application of parametric tests were first checked and found to be generally acceptable: linearity, normality (skewness/kurtosis), homogeneity of variance (Levene's statistic) and independence of errors as applicable for the four groups, viz. Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken male, Broken Female. Finally, in the current study, the exercises in data screening yielded a total sample size of 400 with 100 participants in each cell of the design (2 family structure x 2 gender).

To address the objectives of the study, the items across the behavioural measures of family functioning (the General Scale of the Family Assessment Measure; Skinner, Stainhauer & Santa-Barabara, 1995), psychological adjustment (the Personality Assessment Questionnaire; Rohner & Khaleque, 2005), mental well-being as indexed through the students' levels of depression and anxiety (Beck Depression Inventory – II; Beck, Steer & Brown, 1996; and Beck Anxiety Inventory; Beck & Steer, 1993), identity (the Identity Subscale of Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory; Rosenthal, Gurney & Moore, 1981), and the cumulative grade point average of the students were first entered in Microsoft Excel (Office 2007) and then, transferred to SPSS – 22 (Statistical Product and Service Solutions, Version 22).

The psychometric adequacy of each of the behavioural measures were first ascertained which included (i) item-total coefficients of correlation (ii) inter-scale relationships (where applicable), and (i) reliability coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha) over all the levels of analyses. Descriptive statistics comprising of Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis and Standard Errors were also included for comparison of the test scores between the groups, and to check the data distributions for further statistical analyses (Miles & Shevlin, 2004). This was followed by statistical analyses of the data using SPSS 22 to address the objectives and hypotheses of the study.

To meet the assumptions of a Two- Way ANOVA (2 Family Structure x 2 Gender) test on the variables, the corresponding descriptive statistics comprising of Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis and their Standard Errors, as well as for each cell of the design are given in Table 2.3; and the corresponding Levene's statistics are given in Table 2.2. In order to meet the requirements for parametric testing, Skewness,

Kurtosis and Homogeneity of Variances (Levene's statistics) were checked. The results of skewness and kurtosis hardly violated the demands for normal distribution. The assumption of homogeneity of variance (in Table 2.2) indicated some instances of violation of the assumption of homogeneity of variance; although, non-significance level of diagnostic test of parametric assumptions were set leniently at a .01 level considering the robustness of parametric methods and equal sample sizes randomly generated using SPSS 22 for all units of analyses (Fields, 2016).

The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients of the whole General Scale of the Family Assessment Measure III (FAMg) in the current study yielded values ranging from 0.71 to 0.90 showing excellent reliability of the scale in terms of internal consistency. Alpha coefficients of the Child Personality Assessment Questionnaire used in this study ranged from 0.84 to 0.85 across the comparison units indicating that the scale is fit for use among Mizo adolescents. Reliability assessment of the second version of the Beck's Depression Inventory (BDI-II) in the current study has also yielded high Cronbach's Alpha values ranging from 0.84 – 0.91 indicating that the inventory is fit for use among the samples. Internal consistency of the Beck's Anxiety Inventory (BAI) in the current study ranges between 0.84 – 0.89 across the levels of analyses indicating good reliability. Also, Cronbach's Alpha values found for the Identity subscale of the Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory (EPSI-I) in the current study range between 0.65 – 0.76 for the participants, which are – more or less – adequate.

On the measurement of Family Functioning, the average profiles of the samples, Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male & Broken Female, all fit into the 'moderate' area of family functioning, which is to say that Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female all see their respective families as functioning normally on an average. On the measurement of Adjustment, the Item Mean scores of both Intact Male and Intact Female may be interpreted as "Low" indicating that both male and female children from Intact families have low overall psychological maladjustment; on the other hand, the Item Mean scores of Broken Male and Broken Female may be interpreted as "High", indicating that both male and female children from Broken homes or non-Intact families show high overall psychological adjustment. On the measurement of Depression, male and female adolescents from

Intact families, and male adolescents from Broken families tend to experience mild levels of depression, while female adolescents from Broken families tend to experience moderate levels of depression. On the measurement of Anxiety, on looking at the Item Mean responses of the samples, those of Intact Male samples, Intact Female samples and Broken Male samples indicate that these particular samples tend to experience mild levels of anxiety, while those of Broken Female samples indicate that they tend to experience moderate levels of anxiety. On the measurement of Identity, the Item Mean score of the Intact Male samples may be interpreted to be 'high' revealing that male children from Intact families tend to be the least identity-confused and highest in their identity-achievement among these samples. At the same time, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female samples can be interpreted as moderate. That is, the identity achievement of these samples can be said of as moderate. Finally, on the measurement of Academic Performance, the average CGPA of the Intact Male, Intact Female and Broken Female samples can be graded 'C1' with their percentages lying between 51-60. On the other hand, the average CGPA of Broken Male samples of can be graded as 'C2' with a percentage range of 41-50.

Family Structure and Gender are the two characteristic variables on which variations in the various psychological phenomena are to be explained in this study. The second and fourth objectives of the study attempts to elucidate the effect of family structure (Intact versus Broken) on family functioning, identity, psychological maladjustments and academic performance of adolescents, and to elucidate the gender differences in the measures of dependent variables respectively. Consequently, the following hypotheses were framed: (i) It is expected that family functioning of Broken families will be poorer than Intact families (ii) Adolescents of Broken families will show more identity confusion, more psychological maladjustments and poorer academic performance than adolescents of Intact families, and (iii) Gender differences are expected in the measures of the dependent variables.

The effects of 'family structure' and 'gender', and their interaction effects on family functioning (FAMg), maladjustment (PAQ), depression (BDI), anxiety (BAI), identity (EPSI-I) and academic performance (CGPA) were separately addressed using Two - Way ANOVA (2 Family structure x 2 Gender). The model of these objectives

yielded four units of analyses, viz. Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female with equal sample sizes (100) in each cell of the design.

The first objective of the study (O1) was to describe the family functioning of Intact and Broken families. The item mean scores of the samples on Family Functioning when converted to their equivalent T-scores were found to all 'Moderate', revealing that the samples, Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female all perceive their respective families as functioning normally at an average. This means that the current Mizo children (or adolescent) samples displayed relatively similar characteristics when addressing the various aspects of their respective family environment. However, significant main effects were found for family structure (Table 2.1) on family functioning meaning that the family functioning of Broken families was poorer than that of Intact families which supports the first hypothesis.

On investigating the second objective, i.e. to elucidate the effect of 'family structure' (Intact versus Broken) on family functioning, identity, psychological maladjustments and academic performance of adolescents, the analysis showed that family structure did have a statistically significant main effect on family functioning. Children from Broken families were poorer in their self-presentation of their family functioning than children from Intact families. The hypothesis that family functioning of Broken families will be poorer than Intact families was supported by the study. Similar findings have been reported by other researchers (e.g., Agate et al., 2007; Hornberger et al., 2010; Brown & Manning, 2009; Freistadt & Strohschein, 2013), and even among Chinese collectivistic cultures (Shek, 2006 & 2008).

The analysis also showed that family structure did have a statistically significant main effect on psychological adjustment. The findings support the second hypothesis that adolescents of Broken families are more maladjusted than those from Intact families. This finding was found to be consistent with researches reporting that children from Broken homes tend to show problems with adjustment than children from Intact families (e.g., Amato, 1994, 2000, 2001; Slater et al., 1983; Hetherington, 1989, 1999; Kelly & Emery, 2003; Lansford, 2009).

Family structure was also found to have a statistically significant main effect on depression with children from Broken families experiencing higher levels of depression than children from Intact families. However, rather than family structure as the cause, the reason may be attributed to family conflicts (Mechanic and Hansell, 1989).

'Family structure' did not have a statistically significant main effect on anxiety, meaning that children from Broken families did not display significantly higher levels of anxiety than children from Intact families. Mechanic and Hansell (1989) found that family conflict had a greater direct impact on long-term changes in well-being (i.e., depression, anxiety, physical & social well-being, self-esteem) than the structure of the family structure. This may explain why despite the risks posed by disruption of the family structure in Broken families, children from such homes do not exhibit more anxiety than their peers from Intact families.

Significant main effect of 'family structure' on identity was also found, which indicates that children from Broken families show more identity confusion than children from Intact families. Vaičiulienė (1999) had made similar findings and also founded that single-parent adolescents experience identity crisis earlier and longer than those in Intact families.

Finally, the analysis showed that family structure did have a statistically significant main effect on the cumulative grade point average (CGPA) of the students with the findings suggesting that students from Broken families show poorer academic performance than students from Intact families as shown through their CGPA. Findings from the study are consistent with that of McLanahan and Schneider (2013) who argued that Parental divorce has a negative impact on a range of outcomes for children, including educational attainment and happiness. The results of the investigation of the third objective was to elucidate the gender differences in the measures of dependent variables. The analysis showed that male adolescents were poorer in their self-presentation of family functioning than female adolescents Hetherington et al. (1979) found that, immediately following the divorce, boys and girls experienced some disruption in family functioning and adjustments, however, the



effects appeared to be more sustained in boys. Wallerstein (1985a) also found that eighteen months following the divorce, many of the girls appeared recovered, but boys were significantly more troubled at school, in the playground and at home.

To summarize the effect of 'family structure', the current findings support the second hypothesis of the study and confirm that adolescents of Broken families show more identity confusion, more psychological maladjustments and poorer academic performance than adolescents of Intact families. Also, children from Broken families experience higher levels of depression than do children from non-Intact families. However, anxiety was not necessarily higher in the 'Broken' groups, implying that less conflict as an aftermath of divorce could have reduced the anxiety levels of children regardless of the family structure.

The analysis also showed that gender did have a statistically significant main effect on psychological adjustment with male adolescents showing better adjustment than female adolescents. Slater et al. (1983) found that adolescent girls from disrupted homes had lower self-esteem and more behaviour problems than adolescent boys in similar homelife situations. Furthermore, while female adolescents from disrupted homes reported higher levels of family conflict than females from Intact families, the opposite was true for males.

The analysis also showed that gender did have a statistically significant main effect on depression and anxiety with male adolescents experiencing lower levels of depression and anxiety. Females, in general, have been shown to be more prone to symptoms of depression and anxiety around the world (Albert, 2015). Even among Broken families, depression and anxiety, along with other psychological problems still tend to be higher (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1975; Frost and Pakiz, 1990).

The analysis showed that gender did not have a statistically significant main effect on identity with the findings suggesting that male adolescents did not differ significantly in terms of identity from female adolescents which may be possibly due to gender differences in identity formation.

The analysis showed that gender did have a statistically significant main effect on CGPA. The findings suggest that male adolescents show poorer academic performance than female adolescents.

Summarizing the effect of 'gender', the findings partially support the third hypothesis and confirm that there were gender differences in the measures of the dependent variables: male adolescents were poorer in their self-presentation of family functioning than female adolescents, but show better adjustment than female adolescents. Also, they experience lower levels of anxiety than female but show poorer academic performance. However, there was no significant difference in their scores on identity, which may be possibly due to gender differences in identity formation.

Additionally, on investigating the interaction effects of 'Family Structure' and 'Gender' on family functioning, adjustment, depression, anxiety, identity, and CGPA, there was a statistically significant interaction between the effects of family structure and gender on the CGPA of the students. Family structure and gender together seem to influence the academic performance of the students. Post hoc analysis of the CGPA using Scheffe's test show that Intact Males, Intact Females and Broken female samples scored significantly higher than Broken Males.

In order to highlight the relationships between Family Functioning, Adjustment, Depression, Anxiety, Identity and the Students' CGPA, Pearson's correlation coefficients were obtained for these measures through bivariate correlations between the scores on all of the measures across the four groups, viz. Intact males, Intact females, Broken males and Broken females. A particular interest in the current study was on the relationship between family functioning and academic performance. Significant negative correlation between family functioning and academic performance was more pronounced for both male and female children from Broken families. From these findings, it is indeed clear that divorce and dissolution may have an association with reduced school success and accomplishment. Previous researches have shown that this disparity starts from primary education with divorce-exposed adolescents being less likely to continue education in adulthood (Biblarz & Gottainer, 2000; Astone & McLanahan, 2001). During the phase of marital

disturbance, children have poorer academic expectations and test scores. Moreover, the financial instabilities created by divorce is problematic as it results in the decline of the standard of living (Ducan & Holfman, 1985; Whitman, 1985) thereby affecting the standard of education.

To examine the predictability of Academic Performance of the participants as indicated by their CGPA from Family Functioning, Adjustment and Identity, hierarchical regression analyses were executed for all units of the analysis. From these analyses, it may be seen that family functioning, identity and adjustment significantly predicted academic performance only for Intact male and Broken female samples. On further examining the main effects for Intact male samples, there were no significant main effects of family functioning, identity and adjustment on academic performance. However, for Broken female samples, the effect of family functioning was significant at each level of the analysis, although the effects of identity and adjustment were not significant. The findings suggest that identity and adjustment may not necessarily predict academic performance while, on the other hand, family functioning seems to significantly predict academic performance, especially for Broken females. Although boys from Broken homes do tend to suffer more academic problems, Allison and Furstenberg (1989) found that female adolescents also suffer academically, especially concerning with teacher-rated assessments, although the mechanisms underlying gender-related processes within the family context in relation to academic performance is still unclear. The effect of Brokenness on academic performance in relation to the family process (and its facets) and other variables is a problem requiring further consideration.

To test for the moderating role of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA), moderation analysis was executed for Intact male, Intact female, Broken male and Broken female separately. Results of moderation analysis of Identity in reveal that the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) was significantly moderated by Identity only for Intact Male samples. Identity and Family Functioning explained 16.45 % of the total variance in Academic Performance (CGPA), which was statistically significant. Significant interaction effect of Identity and Family

Functioning on Academic Performance (CGPA) was also found for Intact Male, indicating that identity played a moderating role in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact males.

Simple slope analysis and conditional effects of Family Functioning on CGPA at different values of Identity revealed that only when the level of identity was high, the relationship between family functioning and academic performance was significantly moderated. Erikson viewed ego identity as serving to protect individuals in the face of change produced by sudden changes of personal or situational problems. Therefore, we may expect that identity would moderate the negative effect of family dysfunction on academic performance. However, this seems to hold true only for the Intact male group in the study, and for those showing a high sense of identity at that. The reason for Intact males being the only group for whom this moderation occurs currently does not have a satisfactory explanation. It is suggested that future studies should look into the detailed experiences of the four levels of analysis (or the four groups) to provide a satisfactory answer.

To test for the moderating role of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA), moderation analysis was executed for Intact male, Intact female, Broken male and Broken female samples separately. Adjustment moderated the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) only for Intact Male. Adjustment and Family Functioning explained 12.47 % of the total variance in Academic Performance (APRS), which was statistically significant. Significant interaction effect of Adjustment and Family Functioning on Academic Performance (APRS) was found for Intact Male indicating that Adjustment played a moderating role in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (APRS) for Intact males.

Simple slope analysis and conditional effects of Family Functioning on CGPA at different values of Identity revealed that only when the level of identity was low, the relationship between family functioning and academic performance was significantly negative. This indicates that increase in family dysfunctionality decreases academic performance (as indicated by the students' CGPA) for male adolescent from

families whose levels of maladjustment are low, but not for those of average or high levels. Similar to the moderating effect of identity, the moderation of adjustment was significant for only Intact males at the low level. Again, explanations for this particular characteristic is yet pervasive and future studies must –again – detail the experiences of the four levels of analysis to provide a satisfactory answer.

Conventionally, and from past literature, adjustment (or maladjustment) should further propel the negative effects of family functioning. As with the moderating effect of identity, the moderation of adjustment was significant for only Intact males at the low level. Again, explanations for this particular characteristic is yet pervasive and future studies must –again – detail the experiences of the four levels of analysis to provide a satisfactory answer. It may only be gleaned here at this stage that family functioning and dysfunctioning in Intact families influence the performance of their boys especially those with strong identity, indicating that all may not be well in Intact families as well. It is the functioning also and not only the family structure that is important for healthy development of children.

Male children from Intact families, irrespective of their family structure may still perform poorly in their academic activities. One particular study (Lin et al., 2019) found that family functioning, rather than family structure, plays a more important role in predicting the reasoning abilities and math achievement among American minorities. Families with varied home structures perform differently, notably in terms of cohesion, flexibility, and communication, i.e., ‘adolescents demonstrate better cognitive functioning in environments with high levels of organization, limit setting and parental support’ (Schroeder and Kelley 2010). This is evident in Taylor et al. (2010) who found that African-American children from single-parent households do not perform worse in terms of their academic activities than those of children from two-biological parent homes where some, in fact, thrive.

The findings from the moderation analyses only partially support the fourth hypothesis. Identity and psychological maladjustment play a moderating role in the relationship between family functioning and academic performance, but only for Intact males. This could possibly be due to differences in experiences of the particular

sample, i.e., Intact Male. A qualitative approach detailing the experience of each particular sample (Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female) may shed some light on the findings.

The study does suffer from certain limitations. First, the study does not contextualize the effects of demographic factors on family functioning other than that of family structure and gender. Previous studies have shown that the effects of socioeconomic factors such as poverty, the gender of the parent in a single-parent household, the educational attainment of parents and regional differences (e.g., urban vs rural residence) do have an effect on a child's well-being, as well as on his or her cognitive and academic experiences (Wenk & Hardesty, 1993; Garrett, An'andu, & Ferron, 1994; Huston, 1991; Boyer, 1993; Furstenberg & Kiernan, 2001). For such reasons, and to better understand the circumstances of the family environment, it is suggested that future studies must consider integrating other socioeconomic and demographic factors to determine their effects on family functioning.

The study also does not address the effect of the time of divorce on children among Broken families. It has been well-documented that parental divorce can have negative consequences for children, because it causes great distress during a developmentally critical point of life. These consequences can be seen in the emotional, psychological, educational, social, and interpersonal reactions of the children (Rappaport et al., 2013). Previous studies have mentioned that children who experienced parental divorce in their youth, under the age of 21 are more likely to enter into sexual relationships at an earlier age than children who experienced parental divorce in young adulthood (Furstenberg & Kiernan, 2001), end their relationships faster (Furstenberg & Kiernan, 2001; Kiernan & Cherlin, 1999), while those who were adults are less likely to have children earlier and out-of-wedlock (Furstenberg & Kiernan, 2001). Future studies must also consider the effects of the timing of parental divorce since early life stages could be the most vulnerable since children lack understanding and the ability to mourn their loss, and since it provides ample time for the negative consequences of divorce to accumulate (Kalter & Rembar, 1981).

Another limitation with the study is that, the quality and type of parental control was not addressed and therefore, it is suggested that future researches should look at the form and extent of parental control in order to have a better understanding of how Broken families and families – in general – function. Also, while the current study does not address specifically to the educational context of the respondents, the results does suggest that males, especially those from non-Intact families may be suffering academically. To further look into this problem, subsequent studies are recommended especially those that consider the sociocultural elements and backgrounds of the Mizo population.

Moreover, it must be remembered that the questionnaires used in the study rely on a self-report of the respondents across the items. As such, the possibility of response bias cannot be ruled out. Therefore, it is suggested that the results and findings must be interpreted with caution.

Despite its limitations, the study does provide further insight to the effect of family structure on family functioning, the results of the current study have significant implications for future research and professional practice because there is so little existing literature on children's behavioural outcomes and family functioning within the Mizo context. The current research has shown that children from Broken families are more likely to experience psychological, behavioural and academic problems. Specifically, children from Broken families tend to be poorer in their self-presentation of family functioning, poorer in psychological adjustment, higher in depression, more confused in their sense of identity and poorer in their academic performance. Given that this study's findings support a link between children's behaviour and family functioning, it is crucial for teachers and mental-health professionals working with this population to comprehend this link and be aware of any potential implications for the development of the child and the family as a whole. Given the major findings, it is crucial that family functioning be improved to the highest possible level while identifying risk factors for child and adolescent adjustment problems, including academic difficulties, behavioural problems and substance use problems, and mood problems while identifying for child and adolescent adjustment problems, including

academic difficulties, behavioural problems and substance use problems, and depressed mood (Lee & McLanahan, 2015).

In conclusion, there is a growing population of children growing up among divorced parents who may be often underrepresented in research. The current work suggests that there are notable differences in the family functioning of Intact and Broken families with the negative consequences being more pronounced among children from Broken families. Extant literature is hardly robust especially for the Mizo population. It is strongly encouraged that researchers continue to document the nuanced differences between Intact and Broken families, especially in the ways family structure affects the developmental contexts of children. To best serve the psychological and academic needs of children, we must establish their unique needs that are specific and characteristic of them. Once these needs are accurately established, we will be able to provide efficacious support for all children.

The findings from the current study can be used to substantiate the need and implementations of psychoeducational programs and workshops that addresses the problems faced by children coming from Broken families. Moreover, psychologists, policy makers and educators may take the information provided by the study into consideration when creating research-based interventions to target specific social issues and as a way of improving academic outcomes. That is, interventions and rehabilitation plans may be tailored for students suffering from the negative consequences of divorce in ways that are slightly different for students from other contexts. Additionally, it is suggested that future studies look into the protective factors specific to the Mizo culture which will be important in understanding of interventions aimed at improving the cognitive and academic progresses that will result in viable and transferable gains.



## **APPENDICES**

**DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM**

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

He booklet ah hian Mizoram a kan nunphung in enkawl dan leh a kaihawih zirchianna Questionnaire hrang hrang a awm a. Khawngaih takin uluk taka min lo chhansak ve turin ka ngen a che. He thil hi research-na atan chauh a hman tur a nih avangin mimal chhanna hi **confidential** vek a ni a, hming ziah pawh a ngai lo va, I ngaih dan / hmuh dan leh nihna dik takin I chhang dawn nia.

Kum zat: \_\_\_\_\_ Pawl zat: \_\_\_\_\_ Roll No. \_\_\_\_\_ Mipa:  Hmeichhia:

Tuna awmna Khua: \_\_\_\_\_ Mahni Khua: \_\_\_\_\_ Hnam hming: \_\_\_\_\_

Nu leh Pate nena awm: \_\_\_\_\_ Nu leh pate inthen: \_\_\_\_\_ Nu/Pa thi tawh: \_\_\_\_\_

**Nu/pa thi emaw inthen emaw an nihin, tu bulah zawk nge i awm thai rawh**

**Nu bulah**

**Pa bulah**

**Family Type (a hnuaiah thai rawh):**

Nuclear Family (Mahni chhungkaw bik - nu, pa, unau te nen chauh a awm)

Joint Family (Mahni chhungkaw bik bakah pi,pu,ni,patea etc. te nena chengho)

Pa hnathawh: \_\_\_\_\_

Nu hnathawh: \_\_\_\_\_

Unau engzatnge in nih? : \_\_\_\_\_

**Chhungkuaa i nihna ber (Pakhat thai rawh):**

PA / PASAL/ NU / NUPUI / FA / PI or PU / ADANG \_\_\_\_\_

**Kaihhruaina :**

A hnuaiah hian chhungkaw khawsakhona chungchang ziah lan a ni a. Heng thute hi uluk takin chhiar la. Chhanna tur ruahman sa (pawm thlap, pawm, pawm lo, pawm lo tawp) zinga mi pakhat hi in chhungkua nena inmil bera i hriat i thai dawn nia. In **chhungkua** nen a inmil chiah chiah lo ni a i hriat pawhin a awm / hnaih ber ni a i hriatah i thai dawn nia.

APPENDIX – II

Family Assessment Measure – III (FAM – III)

		<b>Pawm thlap (Strongly agree)</b>	<b>Pawm (agree)</b>	<b>Pawm lo (disagree)</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp (strongly disagree)</b>
1	Kan harsatna chungchangah inhnial nan hun kan hmang hnem lutuk. (We spend too much time arguing about what our problems are.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
2	In chhung khura tih tur awm ang ang kan ti theuh. (Family duties are fairly shared.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
3	An thil sawi awmzia ka zawhin a tu pawhin tha takin min chhang thin. (When I ask someone to explain what they mean, I get a straight answer.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
4	Kan chhung zinga miin buaina a tawhin a thinrim nge, a lungngai nge, a hlau tih kan hre thei lo. (When someone in our family is upset, we don't know if they are angry, sad or scared)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
5	Kan chhungkua aia inrelbawl fel an awm bik chuang lovang (We are as well adjusted as any family could possibly be.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>

6	Mahni mimal bik nihna hi kan chhungkua-ah chuan lan chhuah ngaihna a awm lo (You don't get a chance to be an individual in our family.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
7	Kan chhungkuaah dan leh dun kan neih chhan ka zawhin chhanna mumal ka dawng lo. (When I ask why we have certain rules, I don't get a good answer.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
8	Kan chhungkuain thil dik leh dik lo kan thlir dan a inang. (We have the same views on what is right and wrong.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
9	Kan chhungkua aia inngeih chhungkaw dang an awm thein ka hmu lo. (I don't see how any family could get along better than ours.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
10	A chang chuan midang ai hian kan thinur hma thin. (Some days we are more easily annoyed than others)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
11	Harsatna a lo thlenin a chinfel dan tur kawng hrang hrangin kan ngaihtuahho. (When problems come up, we try different ways of solving them.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>

12	Ka mawhphurhna aia tam ti turin ka chhungten min phut. (My family expects me to do more than my share.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
13	Chhungkaw thilah tunge thu ber tih chungchangah kan inhnial thin (We argue about who said what in our family.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
14	Kan chhungkuaah thil ngaimawh zawng kan neihin kan inhrilh tlang thin. (We tell each other about things that bother us.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
15	Tuna kan chhungkaw hlimna dinhmun aia nasa hian kan la hlim thei. (My family could be happier than it is.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
16	Kan chhungkua kan inhmangaih tlang. (Our family love each other)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
17	Kan chhungkuaah thil tisial ta ila, a pawl theih dan turzia hi hriat phak pawh a ni lo (When you do something wrong in your family, you don't know what to expect.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
18	Chhungkua kan chenhonaah awm dan tur inhrilh hriat a harsa. (It's hard to tell what the rules are in our family.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>

19	Kan chhungkuaa kanhlimna aia nasa a chhungkaw dang hlim an awm ka ring lo. (I don't think any family could possibly be Happier than mine.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
20	A chang hi chuan keimahni theuh lakah kan diklo thin. (Sometimes we are unfair to each other.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
21	Buaina kan chinfel theihloh khawp kan khawl khawm ngai lo. (We never let things pile up until they are more than we can handle.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
22	Chhungkuaa mawhphurhna kan insem dan hi tha kan titlang. (We agree about who should do what in our family)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
23	Kan chhungkua/inchung khur a thil thleng ka hre ngai lo. (I never know what's going on in our family.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
24	Ka nun min tibwaitu ka chhungte ka hriattir thei. (I can let my family know what is bothering me.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
25	Inchung khur/chhungkuaah kan thinrim ngai lo (We never get angry in our family.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
— 26	K a chhung ten ka chungah thuneih an tum. (My family tries to run my life.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>

27	Thil kan tihsualin sawifiahna hun kan nei lo (If we do something wrong, we don't get a chance to explain.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
28	Kan ngaihdan kan sawi te kan insawisel sak thin (We argue about how much freedom we should have to make our own decisions.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
29	Kan chhungkua chu kan inhrethiam tawn (Myfamily and I understandeach other completely.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
30	Midang rilru tih nat chang kan nei (We sometimes hurt each other's feelings)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
31	Engemaw tluang lo a awm palhin a siam tha leh turin hun a duh rei (When things aren't going well it takestoo long to work them out.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
32	Chhungkaw member dang thiltih an ring zo lo (We can't rely on family members to do their part.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
33	Midang thu leh hla kan ngaichang (We take thetime to listen to each other.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
34	Thinrim an awmin a chhan kan ngaihtuah lo (When someone is upset, we don't find out until much later.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
35	Engemaw chang chuan kan inngaihsak lo (Sometimes we avoid each other.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>

36	Kan chhungkua chu kan inpawh (We feel close to each other)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
37	Inhremna hi kan pawm (Punishment are fair in our family.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
38	Chhungkaw inkaihhraina hian min nghawng lo (The rules in our family don't make sense)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
39	Kan chhungkaw kalphung thenkhat hi chuan min ti lawm lo (Some things about my family don't entirely please me.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
40	Kan inti thinrim ngai lo (We never get upset with each other)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
41	Harsatna bik nei an awmin a siam that dan kan zawng (We deal with our problems even when they're serious.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
42	Engkimah chhungkaw inngahna len en rawn bik nih tum an awm (One family member always tries to be the center of attention.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
43	An lungawi loh deuh hian ka thusawi an pawm lo (My family lets me have my say, even if they disagree.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>



4	Kan chungkaw thinrim tawh insiamthat leh nan hun a duh rei thin. (When our family gets upset, we take too long to get over it.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
45	Kan diklohna thup lovin kan inhrethiam tawn. (We always admit our mistakes without trying to hide anything)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
46	Kan inring lo tawn(We don't really trust each other)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
47	Hrilh hriat kan nih hma chuan thil tih kan harsat (We hardly ever do what is expected of us without being told)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
48	Kan rilrua awm chungkuaah zalen takin kan sawi thin (We are free to say what we think in our family.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
49	Kan chungkua hi kan tha vek bik lo(My family is not a perfect success.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>
50	Mi chungkaw rilru tih nat kan nei ngai lo. (We have never let down another family member in any way.)	<b>Pawm thlap</b>	<b>Pawm</b>	<b>Pawm lo</b>	<b>Pawm lo tawp</b>

**APPENDIX-III**

**Personality Assessment Questionnaire (PAQ)**

A hnuaiia thute hian mahni inhmuh dan chi hrang hrang a tarlang a. Ngun takin hengte hi a mal te tein chhiar la, engtiangin nge nangma chungah a thlen ve le? Rei tak ngaihtuah lovin I rilrua lo lang hmasa ang zelin I chhang anga, zawhna dangah I pakai zel dawn nia.

Thu pakhat tawpah chhanna bawm pali zel dah a ni a. Thu chu nangma chungchangah a dik emaw dik lo emaw chhanna pakhat chauh tick ang che. A vaiin a indawt te tein chhang la. Nangmahin I tana I duhzawng ang ni lovin nangma nihna dik tak ni a.

***Chhunzawm rawh le***

		<i>Almost Always True of me. (Keimah ah)</i>	<i>Sometimes True of me (Keimah ah )</i>	<i>Rarely True of me (Keimah ah a)</i>	<i>Almost Never True of me (Keimah ah )</i>
1	Insual leh rawng taka awm hi ka ngaihtuah thin.(I think about fighting or being unkind)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
2	Ka damloh hian, kanu leh pate hian min khawngaih se ka duh. (I want my parents to feel sorry for me when I feel ill.)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
3	Keimah hi ka in ngai hlu. (I like myself)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
4	Midang pawhin an tih theih chu keipawhin ka ti ve thei. (I feel I can do the things I want as well as most people)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>

5	Ka ngaih dan midangte hnena tihlan ka harsat. (I have difficulty showing people how I feel)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
6	Thiltih tum ka neiha, ka tih leh theih si loh hian ka rilru a nain ka thin a rim thin. (I feel bad or get angry when I try to do something and I cannot do it)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
7	Nun hi nuam ka ti. (I feel life is nice)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
8	Thil emaw mi emaw kutthlak chawrh ka duh. (I want to hit something or someone)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
9	Ka nu leh pate hian nasa takin min hmangaih se ka duh. (I like my parents to give me a lot of love)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
10	Tha tawkah ka inngai thei lova, engtikahmah ka tha tawk thei dawn baw lo. (I feel I am no good and I never will be any good)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
11	Thil engmah tha takin ka ti ve thei lovin ka hria. (I feel I cannot do things well)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>

12	Ka nu leh pate bulah hi chuan hmangaihna lantir hi ka tan a awlsam. (It is easy for me to be loving with my parents)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
13	Chhan tha tak pawh awm si lovin ka hlim lovin ka phunchhiar ringawt zel. (I am in a bad mood and grumpy without any good reason)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
14	Nun hi hlauhawmna hlira khatin ka hmu. (I see life as full of dangers)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
15	Ka thinrim lutuk hi thil te ka paih darhin, ka paih keh thin. (I get so angry I throw or break things)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
16	Ka hlim loh chang chuan ka harsatna te hi mahni chauh a chinfel ka duh thin. (When I am unhappy I like to work out my problems by myself)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
17	Ka la hriat ngai loh mi ka tawn hian, kei aia tha turah ka ngai thin. (When I meet someone I do not know, I think (s) he is better than I am)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
18	Thil ka duh tawh chu hlawhtling taka bei ve thei ka ni. (I can compete successfully for things I want)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>

19	Thian bulfuk tak neih leh siam hi ka harsat. (I have trouble making and keeping good friends)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
20	Thil a kal dan tur anga a kal loh hian ka lungawi lo thin. (I get upset when things go wrong)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
21	Khawvel hi ka ngaih dan chuan hmun hlimawm leh tha a ni. (I think the world is a good, happy place)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
22	Thil athlak deuh tih chingte chu ka nuihsawh thin. (I make fun of people who do stupid things)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
23	Ka nu leh paten min ngaihsak viau hian nuam ka ti. (I like my parents to give me a lot of attention)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
24	Mi fel tak niin ka inhria a, ka inhmuh dan hian mite pawhin min hmu ve tur a ni. (I think I am a good person and other people should think so too)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
25	Mi hlawhchhamah ka inngai. (I think I am a failure)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>

26	Ka chhungte hnenah anmahni ka hmangaih a ni tih awlsam takin ka lantir thei. (It is easy for me to show my family that I love them)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
27	Rei lote chhung ka hlimin ka lawm em em a, a hnu lawkah ka lungngaiin ka hlim lo leh si thin. (I am cheerful and happy one minute and gloomy and unhappy the next)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
28	Ka tan chuan khawvel hi hmun hlimawm loh a ni. (For me the world is an unhappy place)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
29	Ka thinrim hi chuan ka titau/tumbuau thin. (I pout or sulk when I get angry)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
30	Thil eng emawa buaina ka neih hian fuihna dawn ka duh thin. (I like to be given encouragement when I am having trouble with something)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
31	Tha ve tawkah ka inngai. (I feel pretty good about myself)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>

32	Ka thiltih tum tam takte hi tihlawhtling thei lovin ka inngai thin. (I feel I cannot do many of the things I try to do)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
33	Ka mi ngainat deuh hnena ka rilru dik tak tihlan hi harsa ka ti. (It is hard for me to show the way I really feel to someone I like)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
34	Thinrim emaw lungawi loh emaw hi ka tan chuan thil mak a ni. (It is unusual for me to get angry or upset)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
35	Khawvel hi hmun hlauhawm takah ka ngai. (I see the world as a dangerous place)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
36	Thinrim insum hi harsa ka ti. (I have trouble controlling my temper)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
37	Ka damloh emaw intihnat emaw hian ka nu leh paten min buaipui chung thin se ka ti. (I like my parents to make a fuss over me when I am hurt or sick)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
38	Keimahah hian ka hlim lo. (I get unhappy with myself)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>

39	Ka thiltihah te hian hlawhtlingin ka inhria.(I feel I am a success in the things I do)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
40	Ka thiante hnenah ka ngainatzia awlsam takin ka lantir thei. (It is easy to show my friends I really like them)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
41	Harsatna lian tham deuh ka tawhin ka lung ni lo hma thei hle. (I get upset easily when I come across hard problems)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>
42	Nun hi ka tan chuan a tha a ni. (Life for me is a good thing)	<i>A dik deuh ziah</i>	<i>A chang changin a dik</i>	<i>A dik khat khawp</i>	<i>A dik lo deuh ziah</i>



## APPENDIX-III

### Beck Depression Inventory – II (BDI – II)

**Kaihhruaina:** A hnuaiyah hian zawhna HLAWM hrang 21 a awm a. Hengte hi PAKHAT TE TE IN ULUK TAKIN CHHIAR LA. **Kar hnih liam ta chhunga (vawiin tiamin)** i rilru put hmang mil pui ber a hnuaiya chhanna (0 to 4 or 3 number neite) te zinga mi **pakhat chauh** hi i thai dawn nia. A chhannate nen a i inmil deuh thum chuan number sangber hi i thai dawn nia.

#### **1. Lungngaihna / Hlimlohna (Sadness):**

- 0. Ka lungngai lo. (I do not feel sad.)
- 1. Ka lungngai deuh reng. (I feel sad much of the time.)
- 2. Engtik lai pawhin ka lungngai. (I am sad all the time.)
- 3. Tawrh ngaihna awm lo khawpin ka lungngai. (I am so sad or unhappy that I can't stand it.)

#### **2. Beidawna (Pessimism):**

- 0. Ka hma hun lo kal tur atan ka lungngai lo (I am not discouraged about my future.)
- 1. Ka hma hun tur ka ngaihtuah hian tunhma aiin ka beidawng zual (I feel more discouraged about my future than I used to be.)
- 2. Thil engmah hi ka tan chhuak tha turin ka beisei lo. (I do not expect things to work out for me.)
- 3. Ka hma hun hi beisei bo niin a chhe tawlh tawlh bawk ang. (I feel my future is hopeless and will only get worse.)

#### **3. Hlawhchhamna (Past Failure):**

- 0. Mi hlawhchhamah ka inngai lo. (I do not feel like a failure.)
- 1. Ka hlawhchham tur aia nasain ka hlawhchham. (I have failed more than I should have.)
- 2. Ka nun ka en letin hlawhchhamna ka hmu teuh. (As I look back, I see a lot of failures.)
- 3. Mi hlawhchham thak niin ka inhria (I feel I am a total failure as a person.)

#### **4. Nuam Tihna Hloh (Loss of Pleasure):**

- 0. Tun hmaa nuam ka tih thin kha nuam ka la ti reng. (I get as much pleasure as I ever did from the things I enjoy.)
- 1. Tun hmaa ka hlimpui thin ka hlimpui tawh lo. (I don't enjoy things as much as I used to.)

2. Tun hmaa nuam ka tih thinte kha nuam ka ti ta mang lo. (I get very little pleasure from the things I used to enjoy.)
3. Nuam ka tih thinte khan nawmna min thlen tawh ngai lo (I can't get any pleasure from the things I used to enjoy.)

**5. Inthiamlohna (Guilty Feelings):**

0. Inthiam lohna ka nei ringawt hran lo. (I don't feel particularly guilty.)
1. Ka thil tih tawhah emaw tihawm takah emaw inthiamlohna ka nei teuh. (I feel guilty over many things I have done or should have done.)
2. Inthiam lohna ka nei deuh reng. (I feel quite guilty most of the time.)
3. Engtiklai pawhin inthiam lohna ka nei. (I feel guilty all of the time.)

**6. Hremna (Punishment Feelings):**

0. Hrem niin ka inhre lo (I don't feel I am being punished)
1. Hrem tur ni awmin ka inhria (I feel I may be punished.)
2. Hremna tuar turin ka inngai. (I expect to be punished.)
3. Hremna ka tawk niin ka inhria. (I feel I am being punished)

**7. Mahni Inngaina (Self-Dislike):**

0. Ka inngaih dan a ngai reng. (I feel the same about myself as ever.)
1. Mahni inrintawkna ka hloh. (I have lost confidence in myself.)
2. Keimahah hian ka beidawng. (I am disappointed in myself.)
3. Keimah ka inngaina lo. (I dislike myself)

**8. Mahni Inselna (Self-Criticalness):**

0. A tul bakin ka indem ngai lo. (I don't criticize or blame myself more than usual.)
1. Tun hma aiin mahni indemna ka ngah. (I am more critical of myself than I used to be.)
2. Ka thiam lohna reng rengah ka indem. (I criticize myself for all of my faults.)
3. Thil tha lo thleng reng rengah keimah ka lo indem thin. (I blame myself for everything bad that happens.)

**9. Mahni intihhlum duhna rilru (Suicidal Thoughts or Wishes)**

0. Mahni intihhlum duhna rilru ka nei lo. (I don't have any thoughts of killing myself.)
1. Mahni intihhlum duhna ka nei tawh a, mahse ka puitlin lo thin. (I have thoughts of killing myself, but I would not carry them out)
2. Mahni intihhlum ka duh. (I would like to kill myself.)
3. Remchang hmu ila mahni intihhlum ka duh. ( I would kill myself if I had the chance.).

**10. Tahna (Crying)**

- 0. Tun hma aiin ka tap nasa chuang lo. (I don't cry anymore than I used to.)
- 1. Tunhma aiin ka tap nasa. (I cry more than I used to.)
- 2. Thil ho teah pawh ka tap thin. (I cry over every little thing.)
- 3. Tah ka chaka mahse ka tap thei lo. (I feel like crying, but I can't.)

**11. Nun Phili (Agitation):**

- 0. Ka nun phili dan a danglam hran lo. (I am no more restless or wound up than usual.)
- 1. A pangngai aiin ka nun a phili nasa zawk. (I feel more restless or wound up than usual.)
- 2. Ka phili lutuka awm hle hle harsa ka ti. (I am so restless or agitated that it's hard to stay still.)
- 3. Ka phili lutuk a thil eng engemaw ti lovin ka awm thei lo. (I am so restless or agitated that I have to keep moving or doing something).

**12. Thiltih Tuilohna (Loss of Interest):**

- 0. Midangte leh thil tihah ka tui lo lem lo (I have not lost interest in other people or activities)
- 1. Midangte leh thil tihah ka tui lo sawt. (I am less interested in other people or things than before.)
- 2. Midangteah leh thil tihah tuina ka hlauh deuh vek. (I have lost most of my interest in other people or things)
- 3. Engkimah tuina neih harsa ka ti tawh. (It's hard to get interested in anything).

**13. Thu mumal lo/Thu mum lo (Indecisiveness):**

- 0. Thu tlukna mumal takin ka la siam thei reng. (I make decisions about as well as ever.)
- 1. A pangngai aiin thu tlukna mumal tak siam harsa ka ti. (I find it more difficult to make decisions than usual.)
- 2. Tun hma aiin thu tlukna ka siam mumal thei lo. (I have much greater difficulty in making decisions than I used to.)
- 3. Thu tlukna reng reng siam ka harsat. (I have trouble making any decisions)

**14. Tlaktlailohna/Tangkailohna (Worthlessness):**

- 0. Mi tlak tlai lo niin ka inhre lo (I do not feel I am worthless).
- 1. Mi hmantlak leh tangkai niin ka inhre ta lo. (I don't consider myself as worthwhile and useful as I used to.)
- 2. Midangte nen a tehkhin pheih chuan tlak tlai lo tak niin ka inhria. (I feel more worthless as compared to other people.)
- 3. Mi tlak tlai lo hulhual niin ka inhria (I feel utterly worthless.)

**15. Chakna hloh (Loss of Energy):**

0. Tun hma angin chakna ka la nei reng. (I have as much energy as ever.)
1. Tun hma aiin chakna ka nei tlem. (I have less energy than I used to have)
2. Thil tam tak ti turin chakna ka nei lo (I don't have enough energy to do very much.)
3. Engmah tih theihna chakna ka nei lo. (I don't have enough energy to do anything)

**16. Mut hunbi inthlak (Changes in Sleeping Pattern):**

0. Mut hunbi inthlak ka la tawng lo. (I have not experienced any change in my sleeping pattern)
- 1 (a) Ka mut thin zat pangngai aiin ka mu tam. (I sleep somewhat more than usual.)  
(b) Ka mut thin zat pangngai aiin ka mu tlem (I sleep somewhat less than usual.)
- 2 (a) A pangngai aiin ka mu tam. (I sleep a lot more than usual)  
(b) A pangngai aiin ka mu tlem. (I sleep a lot less than usual.)
- 3 (a) Nileng deuh thawin ka mu thin. (I sleep most of the day)  
(b) Darkar hnih-khatin ka tho hmaa ka mu leh thei tawh lo thin. (I wake up 1-2 hours early and can't get back to sleep)

**17. Thinchhiatna (Irritability):**

0. A hma aiin ka thin a chhe chuang lo. (I am no more irritable than usual)
1. A hma aiin ka thin a chhia. (I am more irritable than usual.)
2. Tun hma aiin ka thinchhe zawk fe. (I am much more irritable than usual.)
3. Engtik lai pawhin ka thin a ter. (I am irritable all the time.)

**18. Chaw chakna danglam (Changes in Appetite):**

0. Ka chaw chaknaah danglamna ka nei lo. (I have not experienced any change in my appetite)
- 1 (a) Ka chaw chakna a tla hniam. (My appetite is somewhat less than usual.)  
(b) Ka chaw chakna a zual. (My appetite is somewhat greater than usual.)
- 2 (a) A hma aiin ka chaw chakna a tlahniam duai. (My appetite is much less than before)  
(b) A pangngai aiin ka chaw ei a tui em em. (My appetite is much greater than usual)
- 3 (a) Ka chaw ei a tui hlawl lo (I have no appetite at all)  
(b) Engtik lai pawhin chaw ka chak. (I crave food all the time.)

**19. Rilru sawrbingna a harsatna (Concentration Difficulty):**

0. A hma ang rengin rilru sawrbingnaah harsatna ka nei lo. (I can concentrate as well as ever.)
1. A pangngai aiin Rilru sawrbing ka harsat. (I can't concentrate as well as usual.)
2. Thil pakhata rilru rei tak sawrbing ka harsat. (It's hard to keep my mind on anything for very long.)

3. Engahmah ka rilru ka sawrbing thei lo a nih hi. (I find I can't concentrate on anything.)

**20. Hahna/Chauhna (Tiredness or Fatigue):**

0. A pangngai aiin ka chau hran lo. (I am no more tired or fatigued than usual.)
1. A pangngai aiin ka chau hma. (I get more tired or fatigued more easily than usual.)
2. Thil ka tih thin tam tak ti turin ka chau lutuk tlat tawh. (I am too tired or fatigued to do a lot of the things I used to do.)
3. Thil ka tih thin zawng zawng deuh thaw ti turin ka chau lutuk tawh. (I am too tired or fatigued to do most of the things I used to do.)

**21. Tisa chakna hloh (Loss of Interest in Sex):**

0. Tun hnaiah tisa chakna hman kawngah danglamna ka neiin ka hre lo. (I have not noticed any recent change in my interest in sex.)
1. Tun hma aiin tisa chakna hman lam ka tui vak lo. (i am less interested in sex than i used to be.)
2. Tunah chuan tisa chakna hman lam hi tui tawh lo tak ka ni. (I am much less interested in sex now.)
3. Tisa chakna hman chakna pakhatmah ka nei tawh lo. (i have lost interest in sex completely.)

**APPENDIX-IV**

**Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI)**

A hnuaiia nun enghelhna lo lang thin hrang hrangte hi ngun takin chhiar la, **kar hmasa atanga vawiin thlenga** i awm dan atangin column chhunga chhanna pakhat hi i awm dan mil ber i thai dawn nia.

	Kar hmasa atanga vawiin thlengin	Engahma h ka ngai lo (NOT AT ALL)	Min ti buai tham lo (MILDLY It did not bother me much)	Awm a tinuam lo, mahse ka tuar thei (MODERATELY It was very unpleasant, but I could stand it.)	Min ti buai lo (SEVERELY I could barely stand it)
1	Kut/ke/taksa mu chem chem (Numbness or tingling.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
2	Thlansa (Feeling hot.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
3	Ding nghet thei lo (Wobbliness in legs.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
4	Hahdam thei lo (Unable to relax.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
5	Thil tha lo ber thlen hlauthawng (Fear of the worst happening.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
6	Luhai / ni huih(Dizzy or lightheaded.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo

7	Lungphu rang (Heart pounding or racing.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
8	Nghet lo (Unsteady.)	Ne ilo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
9	Hlau em em (Terrified.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
10	Zamna (Nervous.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
11	Thawchham dawna inhriatna (Feelings of choking.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
12	Kut khur (Hands trembling.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
13	Taksa derthawng (Shaky.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
14	Mahni inthunun zawh loh hlahna (Fear of losing control.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
15	Thawk harsa (Difficulty breathing.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo

16	Thih hlahna (Fear of dying.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
17	Hlahna (Scared)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
18	Pum nuam lo (Indigestion or discomfort in abdomen.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
19	Nikhaw hre lo a tlu (Faint.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min tibuai tham lo)	<b>Nuam lo</b> tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram	A <b>nasa</b> hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
20	Hmai sen/sa hem hem (Face flushed.)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min <b>tibuai tham lo</b> )	<b>Nuam lo tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram</b>	A nasa hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo
21	Khawlum vang ni lo a thlan tla bawrh bawrh (sweating (not due to heat).)	Nei lo	<b>tlem</b> (min <b>tibuai tham lo</b> )	<b>Nuam lo tham viau a, mahse ka tuar thei hram</b>	A nasa hle a, ka tuar thei mang lo



**APPENDIX-V**

**Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory (EPSI)**

A hnuuia sentence te khu ngun takin chhiar la, a piah a chhanna te zing a mi I nihna mil ber pakhat chhanna i thai dawn nia.

		<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
		<b>Ngai lo (Never)</b>	<b>Ngai mang lo (Rarely)</b>	<b>A chang changin (Sometimes)</b>	<b>Ni fo mai (Often)</b>	<b>A zing lutuk (Very Often)</b>
1	Keima lak a ka rilru puthmang ka thlak nasa (I change my opinion of myself a lot*)	Ngai lo	Ngai mang lo	A chang changin	Ni fo mai	A zing lutuk
2	Ka nih tumah ka Chiang (I've got a clear idea of what I want to be)	Ngai lo	Ngai mang lo	A chang changin	Ni fo mai	A zing lutuk
3	Ka nihnaah ka Chiang lo (I feel mixed up *)	Ngai lo	Ngai mang lo	A chang changin	Ni fo mai	A zing lutuk
4	Nun a thil pawimawhah ka Chiang. (The important things in life are clear to me.)	Ngai lo	Ngai mang lo	A chang changin	Ni fo mai	A zing lutuk
5	Ka nghet/ka buai lo. (I've got it together.)	Ngai lo	Ngai mang lo	A chang changin	Ni fo mai	A zing lutuk
6	Eng ang mi nge ka nih ka inhria. (I know what kind of person I am.)	Ngai lo	Ngai mang lo	A chang changin	Ni fo mai	A zing lutuk

7	Ka nun hmakhua tur ka thlang fel thei lo. (I can't decide what I want to do with my life.)	Ngai lo	Ngai mang lo	A chang changin	Ni fo mai	A zing lutuk
8	Mipa ka nihna / hmeichhia ka nihnaah ka chiang em em. (I have a strong sense of what it means to be male/female.)	Ngai lo	Ngai mang lo	A chang changin	Ni fo mai	A zing lutuk
9	Ka in ngainain ka nihnaah hian ka induh tawk. (I like myself and am proud of what I stand for.)	Ngai lo	Ngai mang lo	A chang changin	Ni fo mai	A zing lutuk
10	Tunge ka nih hi ka chiang tak tak lo. (I don't really know who I am*.)	Ngai lo	Ngai mang lo	A chang changin	Ni fo mai	A zing lutuk
11	Mi zingah inveng ran/lem a ka awm a ngaiin ka hre tlat zel. (I find I have to keep up a front when I'm with people*)	Ngai lo	Ngai mang lo	A chang changin	Ni fo mai	A zing lutuk
12	Ka nunah ka cheng tak tak lo thinin ka inhria. (I don't really feel involved*.)	Ngai lo	Ngai mang lo	A chang changin	Ni fo mai	A zing lutuk

**APPENDIX– VII**

**Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA)**

<b>Grade</b>	<b>CGPA</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
A1	10.0	91-100
A2	9.0	81-90
B1	8.0	71-80
B2	7.0	61-70
C1	6.0	51-60
C2	5.0	41-50
D	4.0	33-40
E1	C	21-32
E2	C	00-20.

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### **1. Educational Qualification**

<b>Grade</b>	<b>Year of Passing</b>	<b>Board</b>	<b>Grade/Division</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Secondary School Leaving Examination	1978	T.N State Board	Second Class	50.8%
Higher Secondary Examination	1980	Board of Hr. Sec. Exam (TN)	First Class	65.3%
B.Sc. (Botany)	1986	Bharathidasan University	First Class	71.4%
B. Ed	1992	Annamalai University	Second Class	58.0%
M.Ed	1997	Annamalai University	Second Class	56.6%
M.A. (English)	1999	Annamalai University	Second Class	53.3%
M.Sc (Counselling Psychology)	2013	Martin Luther Christian University	3.84/4.00	
Ph.D. Course Work Examination	2014	MZU	O	7.6 GPA

## 8. Work Experience

<b>Institution</b>	<b>Designation</b>	<b>Subject</b>	<b>Duration</b>
St. Paul's Hr. Sec. School, Aizawl	Teacher	Science	1986 - 1990
Montfort School, Chabua, Assam	Teacher	Science & English	1991 – 1994
Montfort School, Champaknagar, Tripura	Principal		1994 – 2000
St. Paul's Hr. Sec. School, Aizawl	Principal		2001 – 2004
Montfort School, Resubelpara, Meghalaya	Principal		2004 – 2007
Montfort School, Chabua, Assam	Principal		2007 – 2011
Montfort Academy, Melriat, Aizawl	Principal		2013 - 2015
St. John's Hr. Sec. School, Kolasib	Principal		2015 – 2019
St. Paul's Hr. Sec. School, Aizawl	Principal		2019 till date

## **PARTICULARS OF THE CANDIDATE**

**NAME OF THE CANDIDATE** : James P.K.  
**DEGREE** : Doctor of Philosophy  
**DEPARTMENT** : Psychology

**TITLE OF THE THESIS** : Impact of Intact and Broken Family  
Functioning on Psychological  
Adjustments and Academic  
Performance of Adolescents.

**DATE OF ADMISSION** : 31.07.2014

**APPROVAL OF RESEARCH PROPOSAL**

**1. DRC** : 06.04.2015  
**2. BOS** : 13.04.2015  
**3. SCHOOL BOARD** : 01.05.2015

**MZU REGISTRATION NO** : 7128 of 2014  
**Ph.D. REGISTRATION NO.** : MZU/Ph.D./786 of 01/05/2015

**& DATE**

**EXTENSION (IF ANY)** : Till 31<sup>st</sup> December, 2022

**(ZOENGPARI)**

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## **ABSTRACT**

Humans are inherently social creatures and live in communities. They live in families, tribes, and nations, interconnected as a global community, relying on cooperation to learn, survive and thrive. This process of socialization begins in families. Families have long been acknowledged by researchers, policy-makers, and experts as the fundamental unit of society (Bogenschneider & Corbett, 2004). The ‘most significant and persistent of all human social groups’ is the family (Smit et al., 2009). The concept of family is central to the social life of individuals as it represents their earliest and most enduring relationships that have a whole lot of influence on their life.

Traditionally, the family had a narrow definition that included only relationships of blood, marriage, and adoption. More recently, the definition of family has expanded to include more variations based on strong commitment and emotional ties among the individuals living together. Close emotional ties, commitment, and care are the essential characteristics of a family. According to Worsley, ‘Families can be considered as having a universal characteristic and serving as the fundamental building block of human society, that is, as a group of people united by shared objectives, reciprocal rights, and obligations’ (Worsley, 1980).

Globally, the family is seen as the most permanent and essential social unit for the healthy functioning of individuals and society (Hochfeld, 2007). They provide the primary setting in which children learn the behaviour, attitudes, values, and beliefs deemed acceptable by society (Ogwo, 2013). Recent evidences confirm the important role families play in fostering academic success, productivity in the economy, social competence, and other outcomes (Bogenschneider & Corbett, 2010). Families thus play a significant role in people's lives. As Ozbay observes, ‘Unquestionably and significantly, families have a substantial and influential influence in a person's development’ (Özbay, 2004).

Families are said to be ‘Intact’ if both biological parents live together with their children. The parents are obligated by law to provide for the children and directly share their earnings with them. An **Intact family** is a nuclear family whose composition has remained stable, without divorce or other sources of division, according to the Oxford



English Dictionary. On the other hand, Broken or non-Intact families are made up of people who have lost a spouse, remarried, or have families where one or both parents have been divorced or have always been single.

With the family playing a crucial role in the development of children and adolescents. Recent studies on the family characteristics influencing personality formation and ensuring bonding among members (Berry et al., 2006; Relvas & Vaz, 2007). According to a study based on mothers' reports, Intact families had the highest parental participation, the most pleasurable parent-child interactions, and the fewest conflicts between children and parents (Acock & Demo, 1994).

However, 'Intactness' of a family does not necessarily mean that it is healthy or that the child is well-cared-for. In an editorial published in 'Grand Magazine,' on June 19, 2012, Christine Crosby, asserts that a marriage's 'Intactness' is in no way a predictor of its health or of whether it will be harmful to a child. The 'Intact' doctrine allows parents who are destructive and abusive to conceal their misdeeds from the law, grandparents, and other members of the extended family. Majority of parents however are kind, caring, and loving. Most children in Intact families, who are raised by both biological parents, have rarely witnessed a marital breakdown. The benefits of this family arrangement for kids have been postulated to be numerous. First, both biological parents are easily accessible to youngsters. However, Intact families may still have parental conflict (Simons et al., 1996), and parents' physical presence does not guarantee their emotional presence (La Rossa, 1988). In other words, spending more time together does not always translate into higher quality time (Acock & Demo, 1994).

A **Broken family** is defined as one that is structurally not Intact (Adu-Okoree et al., 2020; Ichado, 1998; Omoruyi, 2014). A variety of reasons could lead to family breakup. Anderson, (2021), a psychiatrist and psychotherapist, who specializes in the treatment of trauma notes that "A Broken family is one that includes unhealthy or severed relationships within the family unit. They are often associated with divorce but certainly can occur in an Intact family where various members are in conflict with

or estranged from each other." In such cases the children are raised by single parents, stepparents or others related to the biological parents. The break-up of a family can have many negative impacts on the children as they are more likely to develop emotional issues, such as anger, resentment, loneliness and depression. Children from Broken families are more likely to engage in early sexual activities and have difficulties in school. Children raised in Broken family environments may have their social and educational processes are negatively affected. (Mooney et al., 2009). They may experience more conflicts, and display addictive, timid, and accusatory characteristics. They are generally known to be unstable and may face many traumatic experiences as they are likely to miss the emotional and psychological security, in particular the warmth, love, and companionship that cohabiting couples create between themselves and, in turn, between them and their children, is what defines a family. (Barnard, Alan John, 2021).

Numerous studies have demonstrated that children from non-Intact families—those without two married biological parents—are more likely to display adverse psychological and educational outcomes, such as poorer academic performance, riskier behaviour, and decreased subjective well-being, compared to children from Intact families - those with both the married biological parents (Shek et al., 2015). According to researchers, a person's current or previous family structure may explain why they have lower psychological health (Ganong & Coleman, 2016), physical (Sauvola et al., 2000), as well as emotional and educational well-being (Schrodt & Ledbetter, 2007), among other issues.

A Broken family environment, besides affecting them emotionally and psychologically, also affect children's academic performance (Achilike, 2017; Adu-Okoree, et al., 2020; Awoniyi, 2019; Kasoma, 2013; Minolin & Priya, 2018; Ugwuta, 2016; Smardon, 2008). It is because the children from such backgrounds generally find it difficult to cope with situations at home as well as in school settings. The success of pupils in the classroom has a direct impact on the quality of graduates a country produces, graduates who will be able to play key roles in the country's political and economic spheres (Ali et al., 2009). Past researchers have found that a wide

variety of factors - mental, financial, social, emotional, and environmental - that might influence a student's academic performance and success.

Academic performance can be characterized as all-around excellence in all academic fields, both in the classroom and outside of it. It involves distinction in areas like sportsmanship, self-assurance, communication abilities, punctuality, the arts, and culture, which can only be attained when a person is well adjusted. Academic achievement is the ability to acquire knowledge or certain level of competence in school tasks often measured by standardized tests and expressed in a grade or units based on students' performance (Trow, 1956). Academic achievement, according to Good (1959), is "the knowledge received or abilities developed in the school disciplines generally designed by test scores or marks issued by the teacher." It is the academic performance of the students encompasses both their curriculum and extracurricular activities (Mehta,1969).

A case study of the Mizoram exploring the impact of Intact and non-Intact family functioning on psychological adjustments and academic performance of adolescents brought us to interesting findings. Mizoram is one of the states in India which has been successful in bringing almost all children to at least the primary school. However, it is found that psychological and mental disorders ranging from anxiety, depression, inattentiveness, insomnia, among others were prevalent among school children because of the excess usage of drugs and other substance abuse among the students. This is an alarming news for all the stakeholders of education and the administration.

This study tried to determine how the phenomenon of Broken families affect the overall family functioning of the children, which may result in their poor maladjustment and their poor academic performance within the context of Mizoram and Aizawl city in particular. Additionally, this study may assist parents and other stakeholders in understanding the enormous risk they expose their children to and in prioritizing their future and their proper care and upbringing so that they can successfully reintegrate into the family and society at large. Given the theoretical and empirical background pertaining to the focus of the study, the following objectives

and hypotheses were put forth: 1) To describe the family functioning of Intact and Broken families, 2) To elucidate the effect of family structure (Intact versus Broken) on family functioning, identity, psychological maladjustments and academic performance of adolescents, 3) To elucidate the gender differences in the measures of dependent variables, and 4) To study the roles of identity and psychological maladjustment in the relationship between family functioning and academic performance in children of Intact and Broken families.

To achieve these objectives, the following hypotheses were also framed: 1) It is expected that family functioning of Broken families will be poorer than Intact families, 2) Adolescents of Broken families will show more identity confusion, more psychological maladjustments and poorer academic performance than adolescents of Intact families, 3) Gender differences are expected in measures of the dependent variables, and 4) It is expected that identity and psychological maladjustments will play a moderating role in the relationship between family functioning and academic performance.

The main objective of this study was to investigate the impact of Intact and Broken family functioning on psychological adjustments and academic performance of adolescents. 200 male and 200 female adolescents, each from Intact and Broken homes in equal proportion, were randomly selected from classes IX to XII from a representative random sample of secondary and higher secondary schools in the city of Aizawl, Mizoram. A demographic information schedule was used to determine their family structure, i.e., whether they were from Intact or Broken families. To achieve the objectives, a two-way classification of the variables, viz. 'Gender' (Male and Female) and 'Family Structure' (Intact and Broken) on the dependent variables was incorporated in this study. Moreover, a correlational research design was employed to elucidate the relationships between the behavioural measures, i.e., family functioning, adjustment, depression, anxiety, identity and academic performance on the levels of analyses. Linear regression models were used to examine the predictability of academic performance from family functioning, adjustment and identity across the levels of analyses. Further, moderation analysis was used to examine the moderating

role of identity in the relationship between family functioning and academic performance and the moderating role of adjustment in the relationship between family functioning and academic performance over the levels of analyses.

The following psychological tools were used for measurement purposes of the main variables of interest in this study: The General Scale of the Family Assessment Measure – III (FAMg; Skinner, Steinhauer & Santa-Barbara, 1995) which measures the overall family functioning of a family, the Child Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ or CPAQ; Rohner & Khaleque, 2005) which measures the overall adjustment of a child, the Beck's Depression Inventory (BDI, BDI-1A, BDI II; Beck, Steer & Brown, 1996) which measures the symptoms of depression experienced by individuals, the Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI; Beck, Epstein, Brown & Steer, 1988) which measures the symptoms of anxiety experienced by individuals, and the Identity subscale of the Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory (EPSI-I; Rosenthal, Gurney and Moore, 1981) which measures the sense of identity of an individual. Moreover, the academic performance indicators were assessed using the cumulative grade-point average of the student from the most recent exam on a grade point scale of 0 to 10.

The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients of the whole General Scale of the Family Assessment Measure III (FAMg) in the current study yielded values ranging from 0.71 to 0.90 showing excellent reliability of the scale in terms of internal consistency. Alpha coefficients of the Child Personality Assessment Questionnaire used in this study ranged from 0.84 to 0.85 across the comparison units indicating that the scale is fit for use among Mizo adolescents. Reliability assessment of the second version of the Beck's Depression Inventory (BDI-II) in the current study has also yielded high Cronbach's Alpha values ranging from 0.84 – 0.91 indicating that the inventory is fit for use among the samples. Internal consistency of the Beck's Anxiety Inventory (BAI) in the current study ranges between 0.84 – 0.89 across the levels of analyses indicating good reliability. Also, Cronbach's Alpha values found for the Identity subscale of the Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory (EPSI-I) in the current study range between 0.65 – 0.76 for the participants, which are – more or less – adequate.

On the measurement of Family Functioning, the average profiles of the samples, Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male & Broken Female, all fit into the 'moderate' area of family functioning, which is to say that Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female all see their respective families as functioning normally on an average. On the measurement of Adjustment, the Item Mean scores of both Intact Male and Intact Female may be interpreted as 'Low' indicating that both male and female children from Intact families have low overall psychological maladjustment; on the other hand, the Item Mean scores of Broken Male and Broken Female may be interpreted as 'High', indicating that both male and female children from Broken homes or non-Intact families show high overall psychological adjustment. On the measurement of depression, male and female adolescents from Intact families, and male adolescents from Broken families tend to experience mild levels of depression, while female adolescents from Broken families tend to experience moderate levels of depression. On the measurement of Anxiety, on looking at the Item Mean responses of the samples, those of Intact Male samples, Intact Female samples and Broken Male samples indicate that these particular samples tend to experience mild levels of anxiety, while those of Broken Female samples indicate that they tend to experience moderate levels of anxiety. On the measurement of Identity, the Item Mean score of the Intact Male samples may be interpreted to be 'high' revealing that male children from Intact families tend to be the least identity-confused and highest in their identity-achievement among these samples. At the same time, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female samples can be interpreted as moderate. That is, the identity achievement of these samples can be said of as moderate. Finally, on the measurement of Academic Performance, the average CGPA of the Intact Male, Intact Female and Broken Female samples can be graded 'C1' with their percentages lying between 51-60. On the other hand, the average CGPA of Broken Male samples of can be graded as 'C2' with a percentage range of 41-50.

The **first** objective of the study (O1) was to describe the family functioning of Intact and Broken families. The item mean scores of the samples on Family Functioning when converted to their equivalent T-scores were found to all 'Moderate', revealing that the samples, Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken

Female all perceive their respective families as functioning normally at an average. This means that the current Mizo children (or adolescent) samples displayed relatively similar characteristics when addressing the various aspects of their respective family environment. However, significant main effects were found for family structure on family functioning meaning that the family functioning of Broken families was poorer than that of Intact families which supports the first hypothesis.

On investigating the **second** objective, i.e., to elucidate the effect of 'family structure' (Intact versus Broken) on family functioning, identity, psychological maladjustments and academic performance of adolescents, the analysis showed that family structure did have a statistically significant main effect on family functioning. Children from Broken families were poorer in their self-presentation of their family functioning than children from Intact families. The hypothesis that family functioning of Broken families will be poorer than Intact families was supported by the study

The analysis also showed that family structure did have a statistically significant main effect on psychological adjustment. The findings support the second hypothesis that adolescents of Broken families are more maladjusted than those from Intact families.

Family structure was also found to have a statistically significant main effect on depression with children from Broken families experiencing higher levels of depression than children from Intact families. However, rather than family structure as the cause, the reason may be attributed to family conflicts.

'Family structure' did not have a statistically significant main effect on anxiety, meaning that children from Broken families did not display significantly higher levels of anxiety than children from Intact families. This may be due to the fact that family conflict had a greater direct impact on long-term changes in well-being as shown in previous literature.

Significant main effect of 'family structure' on identity was also found, which indicates that children from Broken families show more identity confusion than children from Intact families.

Finally, the analysis showed that family structure did have a statistically significant main effect on the cumulative grade point average (CGPA) of the students with the findings suggesting that students from Broken families show poorer academic performance than students from Intact families as shown through their CGPA.

The results of the investigation of the **third** objective were to elucidate the gender differences in the measures of dependent variables. The analysis showed that male adolescents were poorer in their self-presentation of family functioning than female adolescents. The analysis also showed that gender did have a statistically significant main effect on psychological adjustment with male adolescents showing better adjustment than female adolescents. Also, that gender did have a statistically significant main effect on depression and anxiety with male adolescents experiencing lower levels of depression and anxiety. However, gender did not have a statistically significant main effect on identity with the findings suggesting that male adolescents did not differ significantly in terms of identity from female adolescents. The analysis showed that gender did have a statistically significant main effect on CGPA showing that male adolescents show poorer academic performance than female adolescents.

The findings partially support the **third** hypothesis and confirm that there were gender differences in the measures of the dependent variables: male adolescents were poorer in their self-presentation of family functioning than female adolescents, but show better adjustment than female adolescents. Also, they experience lower levels of anxiety than female but show poorer academic performance than female adolescents. However, there was no significant difference in their scores on identity, which may be possibly due to gender differences in identity formation.

On examining the effect of gender on education, females perform academically better than males; further, when we factor in the effect of family structure (i.e., the interaction effect of family structure and gender), of both groups of males, those from Broken families perform more poorly than their peers from the other groups.



In order to highlight the relationships between Family Functioning, Adjustment, Depression, Anxiety, Identity and the Students' CGPA, Pearson's correlation coefficients were obtained for these measures through bivariate correlations between the scores on all of the measures across the four groups, viz. Intact males, Intact females, Broken males and Broken females.

A particular interest in the current study was on the relationship between family functioning and academic performance. Significant negative correlation between family functioning and academic performance was more pronounced for both male and female children from Broken families. From these findings, it is indeed clear that divorce and dissolution may have an association with reduced school success and accomplishment. Previous researches have shown that this disparity starts from primary education with divorce-exposed adolescents being less likely to continue education in adulthood. During the phase of marital disturbance, children have poorer academic expectations and test scores. Moreover, the financial instabilities created by divorce is problematic as it results in the decline of the standard of living thereby affecting the standard of education.

To examine the predictability of Academic Performance of the participants as indicated by their CGPA from Family Functioning, Adjustment and Identity, hierarchical regression analyses were executed for all units of the analysis. From these analyses, it may be seen that family functioning, identity and adjustment significantly predicted academic performance only for Intact males and Broken females. On further examining the main effects for Intact males, there were no significant main effects of family functioning, identity and adjustment on academic performance. However, for Broken females, the effect of family functioning was significant at each level of the analysis, although the effects of identity and adjustment were not significant. The findings are suggestive of the possibility that identity and adjustment may not necessarily predict academic performance while, on the other hand, family functioning seems to significantly predict academic performance, especially for Broken females. Previous research has shown that although boys from Broken homes do tend to suffer more academic problems, female adolescents also suffer academically, especially

concerning with teacher-rated assessments, although the mechanisms underlying gender-related processes within the family context in relation to academic performance is still unclear. The effect of Brokenness on academic performance in relation to the family process (and its facets) and other variables is a problem requiring further consideration.

To test for the moderating role of Identity in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA), moderation analysis was executed for Intact male, Intact female, Broken male and Broken female separately. Results of moderation analysis of Identity in reveal that the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) was significantly moderated by Identity only for Intact Male samples. Identity and Family Functioning explained 16.45% of the total variance in Academic Performance (CGPA), which was statistically significant. Significant interaction effect of Identity and Family Functioning on Academic Performance (CGPA) was also found for Intact Male, indicating that identity played a moderating role in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) for Intact males.

Simple slope analysis and conditional effects of Family Functioning on CGPA at different values of Identity revealed that only when the level of identity was high, the relationship between family functioning and academic performance was significantly moderated. Erikson viewed ego identity as serving to protect individuals in the face of change produced by sudden changes of personal or situational problems. Therefore, we may expect that identity would moderate the negative effect of family dysfunction on academic performance. However, this seems to hold true only for the Intact male group in the study, and for those showing a high sense of identity at that. The reason for Intact males being the only group for whom this moderation occurs currently does not have a satisfactory explanation. It is suggested that future studies should look into the detailed experiences of the four levels of analysis (or the four groups) to provide a satisfactory answer.

To test for the moderating role of Adjustment in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA), moderation analysis was

executed for Intact male, Intact female, Broken male and Broken female separately. Adjustment moderated the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (CGPA) only for Intact Male. Adjustment and Family Functioning explained 12.47 % of the total variance in Academic Performance (APRS), which was statistically significant. Significant interaction effect of Adjustment and Family Functioning on Academic Performance (APRS) was found for Intact Male indicating that Adjustment played a moderating role in the relationship between Family Functioning and Academic Performance (APRS) for Intact males.

Simple slope analysis and conditional effects of Family Functioning on CGPA at different values of Identity revealed that only when the level of identity was low, the relationship between family functioning and academic performance was significantly negative. This indicates that increase in family dysfunctionality decreases academic performance (as indicated by the students' CGPA) for male adolescent from families whose levels of maladjustment are low, but not for those of average or high levels. Similar to the moderating effect of identity, the moderation of adjustment was significant for only Intact males at the low level. Again, explanations for this particular characteristic is yet pervasive and future studies must –again – detail the experiences of the four levels of analysis to provide a satisfactory answer.

The findings from the moderation analyses only partially support the **fourth** hypothesis. Identity and psychological maladjustment play a moderating role in the relationship between family functioning and academic performance, but only for Intact males. This could possibly be due to differences in experiences of the particular sample, i.e., Intact Male. A qualitative detailing the experience of each particular sample (Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female) may shed some light on the findings.

Male children from Intact families, irrespective of their family structure may still perform poorly in their academic activities. One particular study (Lin et al., 2019) found that family functioning, rather than family structure, plays a more important role in predicting the reasoning abilities and math achievement among American minorities. Families with varied home structures perform differently, notably in terms

of cohesion, flexibility, and communication, i.e., “**adolescents demonstrate better cognitive functioning in environments with high levels of organization, limit setting and parental support** (Schroeder and Kelley 2010). This is evident in Taylor et al. (2010) who found that African-American children from single-parent households do not perform worse in terms of their academic activities than those of children from two-biological parent homes; some, in fact, thrive.

Conventionally, and from past literature, adjustment (or maladjustment) should further propel the negative effects of family functioning. As with the moderating effect of identity, the moderation of adjustment was significant for only Intact males at the low level. Again, explanations for this particular characteristic are yet pervasive and future studies must – again – detail the experiences of the four levels of analysis to provide a satisfactory answer. It may only be gleaned here at this stage that family functioning and dysfunctioning in Intact families influence the performance of their boys especially those with strong identity, indicating that all may not be well in Intact families as well. It is the functioning also and not only the family structure that is important for healthy development of children.

The findings from the moderation analyses only partially support the **fourth** hypothesis. Identity and psychological maladjustment play a moderating role in the relationship between family functioning and academic performance, but only for Intact males. This could possibly be due to differences in experiences of the particular sample, i.e. Intact Male. A qualitative approach detailing the experience of each particular sample (Intact Male, Intact Female, Broken Male and Broken Female) may shed some light on the findings.

The study thus found that children from Broken families show poorer family functioning than children from Intact families and that the family structure does have an effect on all of these variables except anxiety. Children from Broken families were poorer in family functioning, were more maladjusted, and performed poorly in their academics than children from Intact families. Identity and psychological maladjustment moderated the relationship between family functioning and academic

performance among male children of Intact families only. Gender differences were found for the behavioural measures except identity, with the males poorer in their presentation of their family functioning than females. Though the females tend to be poorer in psychological adjustment than males, and experience higher levels of depression and more symptoms of anxiety than males. Also, females tend to perform academically better than males.

The study does suffer from certain **limitations**. First, the study does not contextualize the effects of demographic factors on family functioning other than that of family structure. Previous studies have shown that the effects of socioeconomic factors such as poverty, the gender of the parent in a single-parent household, the educational attainment of parents and regional differences (e.g., urban vs rural residence) do have an effect on a child's well-being, as well as on his or her cognitive and academic experiences (Wenk & Hardesty, 1993; Garrett, An'andu, & Ferron, 1994; Huston, 1991; Boyer, 1993; Furstenberg & Kiernan, 2001). For such reasons, and to better understand the circumstances of the family environment, it is suggested that future studies must consider integrating other socioeconomic and demographic factors to determine their effects on family functioning.

The study also does not address the effect of the time of divorce on children among Broken families. It has been well-documented that parental divorce can have negative consequences for children, because it causes great distress during a developmentally critical point of life. These consequences can be seen in the emotional, psychological, educational, social, and interpersonal reactions of the children (Rappaport et al., 2013). Previous studies have mentioned that children who experienced parental divorce in their youth, under the age of 21 are more likely to enter into sexual relationships at an earlier age than children who experienced parental divorce in young adulthood (Furstenberg & Kiernan, 2001), end their relationships faster (Furstenberg & Kiernan, 2001; Kiernan & Cherlin, 1999), while those who were adults are less likely to have children earlier and out-of-wedlock (Furstenberg & Kiernan, 2001). Future studies must also consider the effects of the timing of parental divorce since early life stages could be the most vulnerable since children lack

understanding and the ability to mourn their loss, and since it provides ample time for the negative consequences of divorce to accumulate (Kalter & Rembar, 1981).

Another limitation with the study is that, the quality and type of parental control was not addressed and therefore, it is suggested that future researches should look at the form and extent of parental control in order to have a better understanding of how Broken families and families – in general – function . Also, while the current study does not address specifically to the educational context of the respondents, the results does suggest that males, especially those from non-Intact families may be suffering academically. To further look into this problem, subsequent studies are recommended especially those that consider the sociocultural elements and backgrounds of the Mizo population. Moreover, with the questionnaires used in the study relying on a self-report of the respondents across the items, the possibility of response bias cannot be ruled out. Therefore, it is suggested that the results and findings must be interpreted with caution.

Despite its limitations, the study does provide further **insight** to the effect of family structure on family functioning, the results of the current study have significant implications for future research and professional practice because there is so little existing literature on children's behavioural outcomes and family functioning within the Mizo context. The current research has shown that children from Broken families are more likely to experience psychological, behavioural and academic problems. Specifically, children from Broken families tend to be poorer in their self-presentation of family functioning, poorer in psychological adjustment, higher in depression, more confused in their sense of identity and poorer in their academic performance. Given that this study's findings support a link between children's behaviour and family functioning, it is crucial for teachers and mental-health professionals working with this population to comprehend this link and be aware of any potential implications for the development of the child and the family as a whole. Given the major findings, it is crucial that family functioning be improved to the highest possible level while identifying risk factors for child and adolescent adjustment problems, including academic difficulties, behavioural problems and substance use problems, and mood

problems while identifying for child and adolescent adjustment problems, including academic difficulties, behavioural problems and substance use problems, and depressed mood (Lee & McLanahan, 2015).

The current work suggests that there are notable differences in the family functioning of Intact and Broken families with the negative consequences being more pronounced among children from Broken families. Extant literature is hardly robust especially for the Mizo population. It is strongly encouraged that researchers continue to document the nuanced differences between Intact and Broken families, especially in the ways family structure affects the developmental contexts of children. To best serve the psychological and academic needs of children, we must establish their unique needs that are specific and characteristic of them. Once these needs are accurately established, we will be able to provide efficacious support for all children.

The findings from the current study can be used to substantiate the need and implementations of psychoeducational programmes and workshops that addresses the problems faced by children coming from Broken families. Moreover, psychologists, policy makers and educators may take the information provided by the study into consideration when creating research-based interventions to target specific social issues and as a way of improving academic outcomes. That is, interventions and rehabilitation plans may be tailored for students suffering from the negative consequences of divorce in ways that are slightly different for students from other contexts. Additionally, it is suggested that future studies look into the protective factors specific to the Mizo culture which will be important in understanding of interventions aimed at improving the cognitive and academic progresses that will result in viable and transferable gains.