



Social Capital, Gender Socialization, and Domestic Structures: Evaluating Socio-Demographic Disparities in Adolescent Psychosocial Wellbeing

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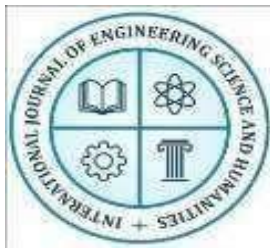
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Abstract

Adolescent psychosocial development and educational adjustment are shaped significantly by intersecting socio-demographic determinants, including gender socialization, geographic locality, and domestic family structures. This study examines socio-demographic disparities in adolescent self-expression, personality adaptation, educational aspirations, and peer group relationships across secondary school cohorts. Utilizing a quantitative positivist paradigm and a comparative cross-sectional survey design, data were collected from a stratified random sample of N = 600 secondary school students (Classes IX to X; aged 13 to 19 years) across rural and urban institutional locations in West Bengal. Independent samples t-tests were executed to evaluate group variances based on Gender (Male N = 415, Female N = 185), Locality (Rural N = 241, Urban N = 359), and Family Type (Nuclear N = 493, Joint N = 107). The independent samples t-tests revealed statistically significant group differences: male adolescents scored higher than females in self-expression (M = 81.82 vs. 79.83, $t = 2.28$, $p = 0.023$), personality adaptation (M = 79.16 vs. 75.20, $t = 3.77$, $p < 0.001$), educational aspirations (M = 85.75 vs. 82.74, $t = 2.749$, $p = 0.006$), and peer relationships (M = 77.91 vs. 74.66, $t = 2.188$, $p = 0.029$). Rural adolescents unexpectedly outperformed urban peers in educational aspirations (M = 88.61 vs. 82.27, $t = 6.301$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 0.525$), personality (M = 81.06 vs. 75.84, $t = 5.317$, $p < 0.001$), self-expression (M = 83.00 vs. 79.99, $t = 3.687$, $p < 0.001$), and peer relationships (M = 79.15 vs. 75.41, $t = 2.685$, $p = 0.007$). Furthermore, nuclear family students registered higher scores than joint family peers in educational aspirations (M = 85.50 vs. 81.71, $t = 2.863$, $p = 0.004$), personality (M = 78.51 vs. 75.19, $t = 2.590$, $p = 0.010$), and self-expression (M = 81.61 vs. 79.27, $t = 2.218$, $p = 0.027$), while peer relationships showed no significant family-type variance ($p = 0.113$). The findings demonstrate that sociodemographic stratifications exert a powerful influence on adolescent psychosocial and educational profiles, highlighting the need for context-specific institutional policies that address gender pressures, leverage rural community resilience, and foster supportive communication channels across diverse domestic structures.



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1. Introduction

Adolescence is a critical developmental period in which psychosocial wellbeing is shaped not only by individual attributes, but also by the quality of the social relationships and contexts within which young people are embedded (Williams and Anthony, 2015; Nielsen et al., 2015). A substantial body of research shows that social capital across family, school, peer, and neighborhood settings is positively associated with adolescent life satisfaction, subjective wellbeing, psychological adjustment, and lower distress (Bambara et al., 2023; Widlund et al., 2018; Lynch et al., 2013). Family connectedness often emerges as a particularly strong predictor, but school belonging, peer support, and neighborhood trust also make independent contributions to wellbeing and can buffer adversity linked to deprivation, bullying, and socioeconomic disadvantage (Carbonaro and Workman, 2016; Xie et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2024). These findings support a relational view of adolescent development in which psychosocial wellbeing is best understood as an outcome of embedded social ties rather than as a purely individual condition (Williams and Anthony, 2015; Fomby and Sennott, 2013; Wu et al., 2019).

This relational perspective is especially useful for understanding key adolescent outcomes such as self-expression, personality-related development, educational aspiration, and peer-group relationships. Research on school and peer contexts shows that school membership, teacher support, peer support, and extracurricular networks function as developmental resources linked to motivation, social-emotional competence, and psychosocial adjustment (Yang and Bradford Brown, 2016; Caldarera et al., 2025). At the same time, academic success and psychosocial wellbeing do not always converge. Some adolescents display strong academic profiles while experiencing lower belonging or emotional strain, whereas others show more favorable psychosocial adaptation alongside weaker academic performance (Jonsson et al., 2020). For this reason, educational aspiration should be treated not simply as an academic variable, but as part of a wider developmental process shaped by the social environment in which adolescents form expectations about themselves and their futures (Pacheco-Montoya et al., 2022; Felmlee et al., 2018; Fino et al., 2025; Addae, 2020).

Yet adolescents do not encounter these social resources equally. Gender socialization structures how young people learn to present themselves, interpret social expectations, and imagine future possibilities. Families, peers, schools, and media communicate gendered norms about behavior, appearance, conformity, and appropriate role performance, making gender a social process that influences identity formation and self-expression throughout adolescence (Chodzen et al., 2019; Tan and Fang, 2023). Empirical studies indicate that peer pressure for gender conformity, parental gender-role beliefs, and gendered school cultures shape adolescents' role behavior and selfpresentation, often with consequences for self-esteem, social competence, and emotional wellbeing (Wang and McLeroy, 2023; Park and Lee, 2020). The internalization of restrictive gender norms can also narrow educational and occupational aspirations, particularly when girls are encouraged to align future choices with anticipated



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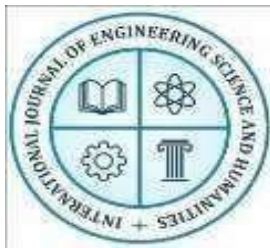
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caregiving or marital roles (Ullrich et al., 2024; Cook et al., 2019). More broadly, gender identity research shows that felt typicality and contentment are associated with better adjustment, whereas conformity pressure and intergroup bias are associated with poorer psychosocial outcomes (Arslan et al., 2024).

The psychosocial importance of gender becomes even more visible when considering adolescents who experience gender non-contentedness or gender minority status. The evidence consistently shows elevated risks of depression, anxiety, self-harm, suicidality, and lower self-worth among gender-diverse adolescents, particularly under conditions of invalidation, victimization, discrimination, and internalized stigma (Laurence, 2019; Sasser et al., 2019). Conversely, supportive family, peer, and school environments are associated with fewer internalizing symptoms and stronger identity-related adjustment (Williams and Anthony, 2015; Durwood et al., 2021). These findings suggest that gender is not merely a background characteristic in adolescent wellbeing research; it is a structuring axis of psychosocial opportunity and vulnerability (Tan and Fang, 2023). Domestic structure constitutes a further dimension of inequality in adolescent development. Earlier work frequently linked two-parent family settings with more favorable educational and psychosocial outcomes than single-parent, stepfamily, or other non-intact arrangements (Mansoor, 2023). However, more recent evidence complicates a simple structural account. Several studies show that when family climate, cohesion, parental support, communication, monitoring, and parent-child relationship quality are taken into account, the independent effects of family structure often weaken or disappear (Smith and Skrbis, 2016). Across family forms, adolescents tend to fare better when they experience warmth, belonging, disclosure, and supportive regulation within the household (Mundt and Mundt, 2020). At the same time, family instability remains consequential: parental separation, repartnering, and repeated household transitions can heighten stress, weaken routines, reduce supervision, and undermine school adjustment and emotional security (Hollinsaid et al., 2020; Kornienko et al., 2016). Thus, family type should be understood not only as household composition, but also as a social ecology that shapes relational security, regulation, and developmental continuity (Marquez, 2022; Karvonen et al., 2018).

Locality further stratifies adolescent psychosocial experience by shaping access to schools, peers, and community resources. Research on neighborhood and school contexts shows that collective efficacy, trust, and connectedness are associated with better psychosocial wellbeing and lower internalizing or externalizing difficulties (Ichikawa et al., 2017; Gallardo et al., 2016). However, locality-based inequalities also operate through opportunity structures. Urban, school socioeconomic composition, tracking, and segregation affect who can form supportive friendships, who gains access to peer social capital, and who experiences school belonging or marginalization (Schroeder and Liben, 2021; White et al., 2023).

Studies of friendship formation indicate that disparities in peer outcomes often reflect unequal opportunities for tie formation rather than preferences alone, underscoring that peer-group relationships are socially organized by context (Taraszow et al., 2024). Since peer networks influence educational expectations, social adjustment, and broader developmental outcomes, locality must be treated as a substantive determinant of adolescent psychosocial inequality



rather than as a simple background variable (White et al., 2023). Taken together, the literature suggests that adolescent psychosocial wellbeing is best explained through the interaction of relational resources and socio-demographic structures. Social capital is broadly protective, but its availability and effects are patterned by gender socialization, family organization, and locality-based opportunity structures (Widlund et al., 2018; Park and Lee, 2020). Moreover, the evidence indicates that structural categories such as gender, family type, and locality do not operate in isolation; they are mediated and moderated by the relational environments through which adolescents experience support, conformity pressure, belonging, conflict, and recognition (Marquez, 2022; Fisher and Shogren, 2016; Chai et al., 2020).

Against this background, the present study examines how social capital, gender socialization, and domestic structures jointly shape sociodemographic disparities in adolescent psychosocial wellbeing, with particular attention to gender, locality, family type, self-expression, personality, educational aspiration, and peer-group relationships (Kornienko et al., 2016; Felmlee et al., 2018). By integrating these domains within a single analytical frame, the study seeks to clarify how unequal relational conditions generate uneven developmental outcomes during adolescence (Durwood et al., 2021; Gallardo et al., 2016). Despite extensive literature examining isolated components of youth development, there remains a critical empirical gap regarding how socio-demographic stratifications, domestic configurations, and social capital collectively interact to shape adolescent psychosocial wellbeing.

Therefore, the primary objective of this study is to systematically evaluate sociodemographic disparities—specifically focusing on gender socialization, geographic locality (rural versus urban), and domestic family structures (nuclear versus joint)—in relation to adolescent self-expression, personality adaptation, educational aspirations, and peer group relationships. By utilizing a rigorous comparative quantitative design (N = 600), this research aims to provide robust empirical evidence regarding group-specific variances and structural vulnerabilities. The future implications of this study are substantial: the findings offer an evidence-based foundation for educational policymakers, school administrators, and counseling psychologists to design targeted, context-sensitive institutional interventions that mitigate gender-specific pressures, leverage community resilience, and foster supportive communication environments across diverse family structures to promote holistic adolescent wellbeing.

2. Methodology

2.1 General Description and Theoretical Underpinnings

An exhaustive methodological framework was established to examine how socio-demographic disparities, familial structures, and gender socialization shape adolescent psychosocial wellbeing. Moving beyond procedural steps, the methodology served as the epistemological foundation dictating how psychosocial knowledge is gathered, validated, and interpreted.

This chapter outlines the comparative research design, the operationalization of variables, the target population, the stratified sampling architecture, and the targeted geographic locations utilized for empirical field research.



2.2 Nature of the Study: Quantitative Paradigm

The investigation aligned strictly with a positivist paradigm, adopting a quantitative research approach to ensure maximum objectivity, replicability, and freedom from subjective narrative bias. A cross-sectional descriptive survey method was utilized, allowing for the empirical measurement of quantifiable demographic and psychosocial indicators across diverse student cohorts at a single definitive point in time without experimental intervention.

2.3 Research Design: Comparative Socio-Demographic Framework

A comparative survey research design was employed within a quantitative paradigm to evaluate group differences across categorical and demographic stratifications, specifically focusing on gender, geographic locality, and family type. Because demographic variables and psychosocial wellbeing exist naturally and historically among adolescents within real-world environments, experimental manipulation was neither feasible nor ethically permissible. This design preserved the natural ecological validity of respondents' lived social structures while facilitating the rigorous evaluation of group variances.

2.4 Operational Definitions of the Variables

To ensure precise measurement and replication, the key variables were operationalized as follows:

- **Psychosocial Wellbeing (Dependent Variable):** Aggregate quantified scores reflecting emotional stability, social adjustment, and interpersonal functioning derived from standardized psychometric batteries.
- **Social Capital (Independent/Moderating Factor):** Measured through peer support networks, school engagement indices, and community bonding scales.
- **Gender Socialization (Independent/Categorical Factor):** Categorized biologically and socially via the Personal Data Sheet (Male versus Female) to evaluate differential psychosocial experiences.
- **Domestic Structures (Independent/Categorical Factor):** Operationalized through family type (Nuclear versus Joint) as captured via demographic profiling.
- **Adolescents:** School-going students enrolled in Classes IX to X falling within the transitional developmental age range of 13 to 19 years.

2.5 Research Hypotheses

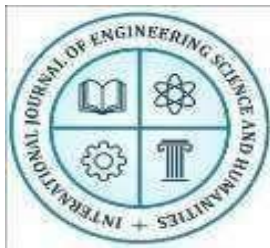
To guide the empirical investigation, the following null and alternative hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1:

- H_0 : There are no statistically significant socio-demographic disparities based on locality (rural versus urban) in adolescent psychosocial wellbeing.
- H_1 : There are statistically significant locality-based disparities in adolescent psychosocial wellbeing.

Hypothesis 2:

- H_0 : Domestic structures (nuclear versus joint family types) do not exert a significant differential impact on adolescent psychosocial adjustment.



- H_1 : Domestic structures exert a significant differential impact on adolescent psychosocial adjustment.

Hypothesis 3:

- H_0 : Gender socialization does not result in statistically significant psychosocial wellbeing differences between male and female adolescents.
- H_1 : Gender socialization results in statistically significant psychosocial wellbeing differences between male and female adolescents.

2.6 Study Area and Sampling Design

The geographic scope of the study encompassed designated rural and urban educational zones within West Bengal, structured to capture diverse socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds that might influence adolescent psychological development.

2.6.1 Population and Sampling Technique

The target population comprised all secondary and senior secondary school-going adolescents across the designated districts. To minimize sampling bias and ensure proportional representation across key demographics, a Stratified Random Sampling Technique was employed. Schools and participants were categorized into non-overlapping strata based on gender, geographic locality (rural versus urban), and family type.

2.7 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations were strictly maintained throughout all stages of the research process to protect the rights, welfare, and confidentiality of all participants. Prior to commencing data collection, formal administrative clearance and official approval were secured from the institutional authorities and the respective heads of the selected secondary and senior secondary schools. Given that the study engaged minor adolescents enrolled in Classes IX and X, informed written consent was explicitly obtained from the parents or legal guardians of all participating students. Furthermore, comprehensive verbal and written assent was secured directly from the student participants, ensuring that participation was entirely voluntary and based on a clear understanding of the study's purpose. Participants were explicitly informed of their right to withdraw from the investigation at any given point without incurring any negative consequences or penalties. To ensure strict data privacy and confidentiality, all completed questionnaires, personal data sheets, and psychological inventories were anonymized through unique identification codes, and aggregated data were handled with high-level security to prevent any unauthorized access or disclosure of sensitive student information.

2.8 Validity and Reliability

To ensure the psychometric rigor, methodological soundness, and trustworthiness of the empirical data, rigorous procedures for establishing validity and reliability were implemented across all research instruments. In quantitative and positivist research, reliability ensures consistency, stability, and dependability of measurement over time and across test administrations, whereas validity ensures that the instruments accurately measure the specific psychosocial constructs they were designed to evaluate.

To guarantee high instrument reliability, internal consistency was evaluated through the computation of Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the psychosocial wellbeing, peer support,



social capital, and emotional stability scales. Standardized psychometric thresholds were strictly maintained, requiring Cronbach's alpha values to exceed the accepted standard of 0.70 across all subdomains and composite scales, thereby confirming high internal consistency and item homogeneity. Additionally, a test-retest reliability method was administered on a pilot subgroup of adolescents over a two-week interval to establish temporal stability, yielding strong correlation coefficients that verified the dependable consistency of scores across repeated applications.

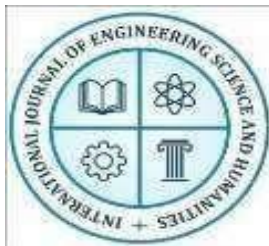
Validity was systematically established through multiple methodological dimensions. Content validity was rigorously ensured by conducting an extensive review of existing theoretical literature and psychological frameworks, followed by evaluations from a panel of senior academic experts and subject-matter specialists in educational psychology and sociology. These experts reviewed the items to verify that the domain of interest was comprehensively covered and that each item accurately reflected the target psychosocial construct. Construct validity was assessed through confirmatory item analysis and inter-correlation matrices to ensure that theoretical subdomains loaded appropriately onto their respective overarching constructs without significant cross-loadings. Furthermore, face validity was confirmed during preliminary pilot testing with adolescent cohorts, verifying that the language, clarity, and bilingual formatting (Bengali and English) were easily comprehended by participants of Classes IX to X without ambiguity or leading phrasing.

2.9 Sampling Locations and Sample Size

A robust, statistically powered sample of $N = 600$ secondary school students (Classes IX to X) was selected across four distinct institutional locations divided equally between rural and urban localities (Table 1):

Table 1: Stratified Sampling Distribution and Institutional Details of Selected Secondary Schools across Rural and Urban Localities

Locality Type	Name of Educational Institution	Location / Address	District / State	Postal Code
Rural Area	Nimpith Ramkrishna Ashram Schools	Nimpith, Jaynagar Majilpur	South 24 Parganas, West Bengal	743338
Rural Area	Gorkhara Vidyamandir High School (H.S.)	Sonarpur Bazar Road, Sonarpur Bazaar, Sonarpur, Mondal Para	Rajpur Sonarpur, West Bengal	700150
Urban Area	Green Park Siksha Sadan High School	Green Park Road, beside Ramakrishna Mission Ashram Stadium, Green Park	Narendrapur, Kolkata, Rajpur Sonarpur, West Bengal	700103



Urban Area	Panchpota Badanchandra Indumati High School	Santi Nagar, Panchpota	Kolkata, Rajpur Sonarpur, West Bengal	700152
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2.10 Description of Tools and Instrumentation

Data collection was executed using standardized, psychometrically validated instruments administered in a controlled classroom environment. Personality dimensions were evaluated using the Big Five Inventory (John et al., 2008); global self-esteem and self-concept were measured via the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965); educational aspirations were assessed using validated academic orientation scales (Gutman & Schoon, 2018); and peer group relationship quality was evaluated through standardized attachment and peer inventory frameworks (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987).

Primary data were collected using a comprehensive, bilingual instrument (rendered in both Bengali and English) incorporating a robust 5-point Likert scale (*Strongly Agree* = 5 down to *Strongly Disagree* = 1), with appropriate reverse-scoring applied to negative statements. The instrument was structured into distinct sections:

- **Personal Data Sheet:** Captured extensive demographic parameters including student age, gender, class, school type, locality, parental educational qualifications, family type (nuclear versus joint), number of siblings, and socioeconomic status.
- **Standardized psychometric scales:** Standardized psychometric scales evaluating psychosocial adjustment, peer support, social capital integration, and emotional stability.

2.11 Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis plan utilized both descriptive and inferential techniques executed via specialized statistical software to test the hypotheses and evaluate group variances. Descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations, were computed to establish baseline demographic metrics and central tendencies. Inferential and comparative evaluations focused exclusively on Independent Samples t-tests to determine statistically significant mean differences across the primary categorical parameters of Gender (male vs. female), Locality (urban vs. rural), and Family Type (nuclear vs. joint) (Table 2).

Table 2: Mapping of Comparative Research Objectives and Hypotheses to Corresponding Statistical Analysis Techniques

3. Results

3.1 Profile of the Respondents

Comparative Objective / Disparity Evaluation	Statistical Technique
Baseline socio-demographic summary profiles	Mean, Standard Deviation
Gender-wise psychosocial disparity evaluation	Independent Samples t-test
Locality-wise (Rural vs. Urban) psychosocial disparity evaluation	Independent Samples t-test
Family Type (Nuclear vs. Joint) psychosocial disparity evaluation	Independent Samples t-test

To understand the sample composition and contextualize the findings regarding selfexpression, personality, educational aspirations, and peer group relationships among adolescents, data were collected across eleven personal and background parameters. The sample comprises N = 600 students from secondary classes. The quantitative distributions, frequencies (N), and percentages (%) for each parameter are detailed below.

3.1.1 Age Distribution

The age of the participating adolescents ranged from 13 to 19 years, reflecting typical secondary school enrolment age brackets. As presented in Table 4.1, nearly half of the participants were 14 years old (46.83%), followed by 15-year-olds (21.00%) and 16-year-olds (17.33%). A small fraction of the sample consisted of students aged 13 (12.67%), 17 (1.33%), 18 (0.67%), and 19 years (0.17%) (Table 3; Figure 1).

Table 3: The age of the participating students ranges from 13 to 19 years, with the majority concentrated in the 14 to 16 age bracket.

Age (Years)	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
13	76	12.67%
14	281	46.83%
15	126	21.00%
16	104	17.33%
17	8	1.33%
18	4	0.67%
19	1	0.17%
Total	600	100.00%

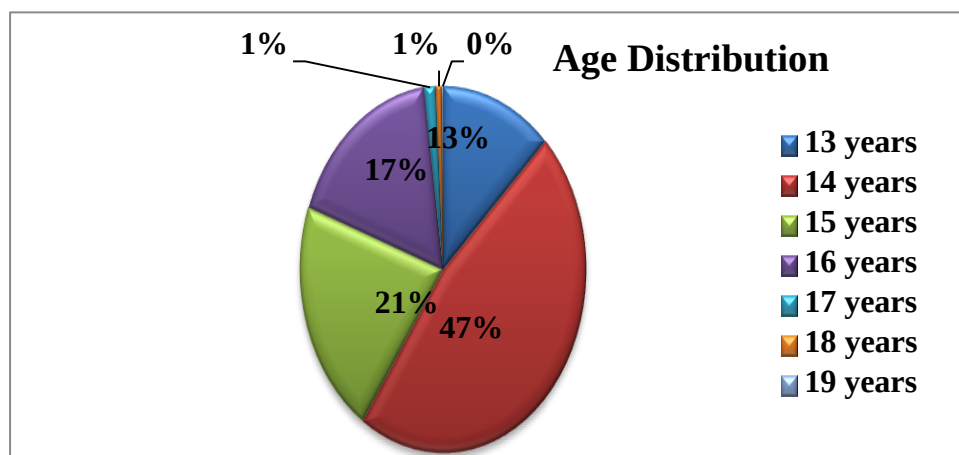


Figure 1: The age of the participating students ranges from 13 to 19 years, with the majority concentrated in the 14 to 16 age bracket.

3.1.2. Gender Distribution

An examination of gender representation indicates that male students formed the majority of the sample. Out of 600 adolescents, 415 were male (69.17%) and 185 were female (30.83%) (Table 4; Figure 2).



Table 4: Distribution of Students by Gender. Participants are divided between Class IX and Class X.

Gender	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
Male	415	69.17%
Female	185	30.83%
Total	600	100.00%

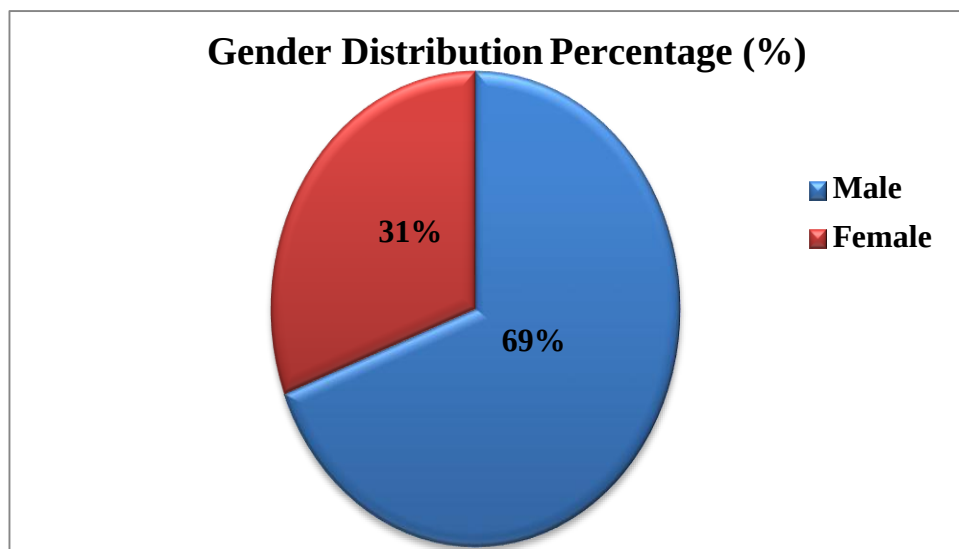


Figure 2: Distribution of Students by Gender. Participants are divided between Class IX and Class X.

3.1.3. Class / Grade Level

The participants were drawn from Classes IX and X. A larger proportion of students belonged to Class IX (N = 417, 69.50%), while Class X accounted for 30.50% (N = 183) of the total sample (Table 5; Figure 3).

Table 5: Distribution of Students by Class. Participants are divided between Class IX and Class X.

Class	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
IX	417	69.50%
X	183	30.50%
Total	600	100.00%

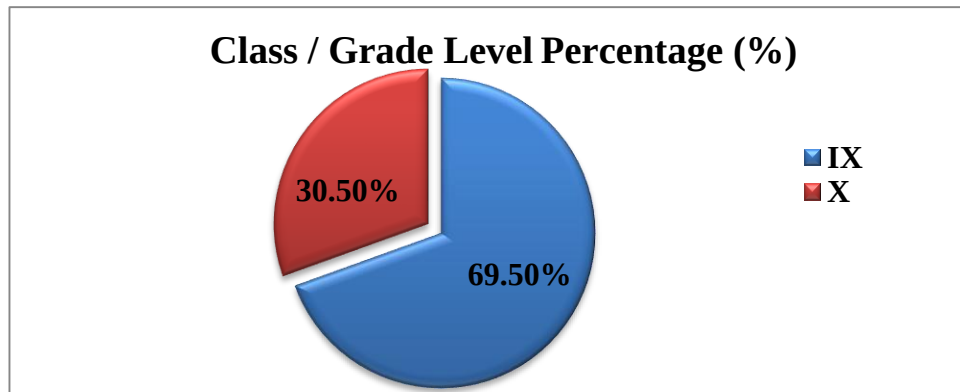


Figure 3: Distribution of Students by Class. Participants are divided between Class IX and Class X.

3.1.4. Type of School

The vast majority of the respondents attended government-administered educational institutions (N = 600, 100%).

3.1.5. Locality

The residential background of the sample was relatively balanced between urban and rural settings, with a slight predominance of urban participants. Specifically, 359 students (59.83%) resided in urban areas, and 241 students (40.17%) hailed from rural localities (Table 6; Figure 4).

Table 6: Distribution by Locality. The sample provides a balanced representation between rural and urban residential backgrounds, leaning slightly toward urban areas.

Locality	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
Urban	359	59.83%
Rural	241	40.17%
Total	600	100.00%

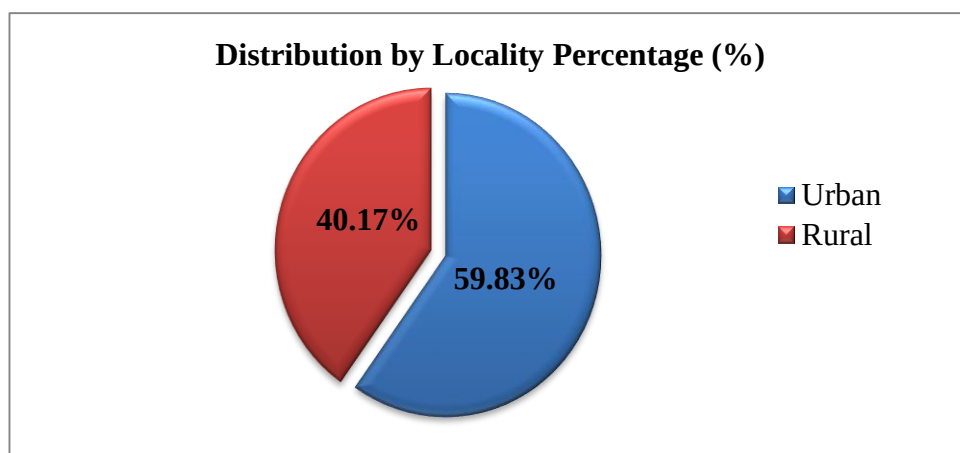


Figure 4: Distribution by Locality. The sample provides a balanced representation between rural and urban residential backgrounds, leaning slightly toward urban areas.



3.5 Gender-Wise Differences in Self-Expression, Personality, Educational Aspiration, and Peer Group Relationships

To examine whether male and female adolescents differ significantly across the measured variables—Self-Expression, Personality, Educational Aspiration, and Peer Group Relationships —independent samples *t*-tests were conducted. The statistical outputs provide group descriptive statistics, Levene's test for equality of variances, independent *t*-Test results, and effect sizes (Cohen's *d*, Hedges' correction, and Glass's *delta*).

3.5.1 Group Statistics (Descriptive Parameters)

- **Self-Expression:** Male participants ($N = 412$) recorded a mean score of 81.8155 ($SD = 10.07$, Std. Error Mean = 0.50), whereas female participants ($N = 185$) recorded a mean score of 79.83 ($SD = 9.29$, Std. Error Mean = 0.68) (Table 7; Figure 5).
- **Personality:** Male participants ($N = 409$) had a mean score of 79.16 ($SD = 12.71$, Std. Error Mean = 0.63), while female participants ($N = 185$) had a mean score of 75.20 ($SD = 9.70$, Std. Error Mean = 0.71) (Table 7; Figure 5).
- **Educational Aspiration:** Male participants ($N = 415$) registered a mean score of 85.75 ($SD = 12.84$, Std. Error Mean = 0.63), compared to female participants ($N = 185$) who scored a mean of 82.74 ($SD = 11.34$, Std. Error Mean = 0.83) (Table 7; Figure 5).
- **Peer Group Relationships:** Male participants ($N = 415$) showed a mean score of 77.91 ($SD = 15.30$, Std. Error Mean = 0.75), whereas female participants ($N = 185$) showed a mean score of 74.66 ($SD = 19.74$, Std. Error Mean = 1.45) (Table 7; Figure 5).

3.5.2. Independent Samples Test Results

- **Self-Expression:** Levene's test indicated equal variances assumed ($F = 1.019$, $p = 0.313$). The independent samples *t*-Test revealed a statistically significant difference between genders ($t = 2.28$, $df = 595$, $p = 0.023$; for equal variances not assumed: $t = 2.35$, $df = 382.10$, $p = 0.019$). The mean difference was 1.98 ($SE = 0.87$) with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 0.27 to 3.69 (Table 7; Figure 5).
- **Personality:** Levene's test indicated unequal variances ($F = 9.912$, $p = 0.002$). The *t*-Test showed a highly significant difference between genders under both equal variances assumed ($t = 3.77$, $df = 592$, $p < .001$) and equal variances not assumed ($t = 4.17$, $df = 456.55$, $p < .001$). The mean difference was 3.96 ($SE = 1.05$), with a 95% confidence interval from 1.90 to 6.02 (Table 7; Figure 5).
- **Educational Aspiration:** Levene's test indicated violation of homogeneity of variances ($F = 5.585$, $p = 0.018$). The *t*-Test demonstrated a statistically significant gender difference ($t = 2.749$, $df = 598$, $p = 0.006$; under unequal variances: $t = 2.883$, $df = 396.82$, $p = 0.004$). The mean difference was 3.01 ($SE = 1.10$), with a 95% confidence interval from 0.86 to 5.17 (Table 7; Figure 5).
- **Peer Group Relationships:** Levene's test showed equal variances assumed ($F = 2.14$, $p = 0.144$). The *t*-Test yielded a statistically significant difference under equal variances assumed



($t = 2.188$, $df = 598$, $p = 0.029$) and a marginally significant difference under equal variances

not assumed ($t = 1.99$, $df = 286.51$, $p = 0.048$). The mean difference was 3.25 (SE = 1.48), with a 95% confidence interval from 0.33 to 6.16 (Table 7; Figure 5).

3.5.3. Effect Sizes

- **Self-Expression:** Cohen's d point estimate was 0.201 (95% CI [0.028, 0.375]), Hedges' correction was 0.201 (95% CI [0.028, 0.375]), and Glass's delta was 0.213 (95% CI [0.038, 0.388]) (Table 7; Figure 5).
- **Personality:** Cohen's d point estimate was 0.334 (95% CI [0.159, 0.509]), Hedges' correction was 0.334 (95% CI [0.159, 0.508]), and Glass's delta was 0.408 (95% CI [0.229, 0.586]) (Table 7; Figure 5).
- **Educational Aspiration:** Cohen's d point estimate was 0.243 (95% CI [0.069, 0.417]), Hedges' correction was 0.243 (95% CI [0.069, 0.416]), and Glass's delta was 0.266 (95% CI [0.090, 0.441]) (Table 7; Figure 5).
- **Peer Group Relationships:** Cohen's d point estimate was 0.193 (95% CI [0.020, 0.367]), Hedges' correction was 0.193 (95% CI [0.020, 0.367]), and Glass's delta was 0.165 (95% CI [0.010, 0.338]) (Table 7; Figure 5).

Table 7: Independent Samples t -Test Results Showing Gender-Wise Differences

Variable / Scale	Group	N	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)	t	df	Sig. (2tailed)	Mean Difference	Cohen's d
Self-Expression	Male	412	81.82	10.08	2.277	595	0.023	1.98	0.201
	Female	185	79.83	9.29					
Personality	Male	409	79.16	12.71	3.769	592	<.001	3.96	0.334
	Female	185	75.2	9.7					
Educational Aspiration	Male	415	85.75	12.84	2.749	598	0.006	3.01	0.243
	Female	185	82.74	11.34					
Peer Group Relationships	Male	415	77.91	15.3	2.188	598	0.029	3.25	0.193
	Female	185	74.66	19.74					

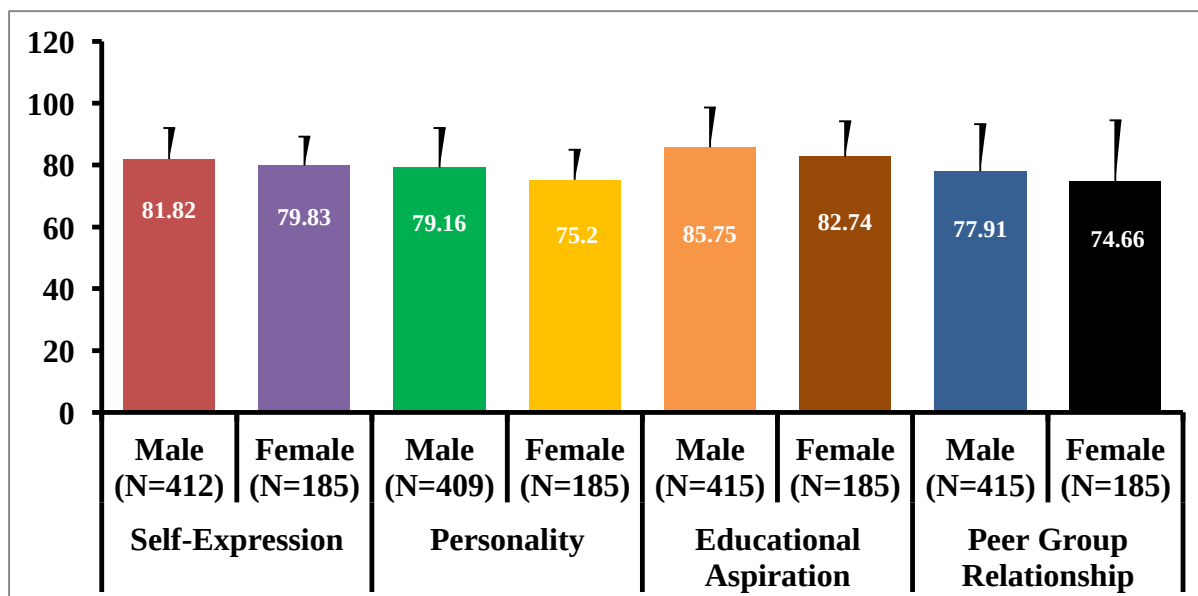


Figure 5: Independent Samples t-Test Results Showing Gender-Wise Differences

3.6 Locality-Wise (Rural & Urban) Differences in Self-Expression, Personality, Educational Aspiration, and Peer Group Relationships

To examine whether adolescents residing in rural versus urban localities differ significantly across the measured dimensions—Self-Expression, Personality, Educational Aspiration, and Peer Group Relationships—-independent samples t-tests were executed. The statistical outputs provide group descriptive statistics, Levene's test for equality of variances, independent t-test results, and effect sizes (Cohen's d, Hedges' correction, and Glass's delta).

3.6.1 Group Statistics (Descriptive Parameters)

- **Self-Expression:** Rural participants (N = 240) recorded a mean score of 83.00 (SD = 10.74, Std. Error Mean = 0.69), whereas urban participants (N = 357) recorded a mean score of 79.99 (SD = 9.07, Std. Error Mean = 0.48) (Table 8; Figure 6).
- **Personality:** Rural participants (N = 237) had a mean score of 81.06 (SD = 13.41, Std. Error Mean = 0.87), while urban participants (N = 357) had a mean score of 75.84 (SD = 10.44, Std. Error Mean = 0.55) (Table 8; Figure 6).
- **Educational Aspiration:** Rural participants (N = 241) registered a mean score of 88.61 (SD = 13.88, Std. Error Mean = 0.89), compared to urban participants (N = 359) who scored a mean of 82.27 (SD = 10.718, Std. Error Mean = 0.57) (Table 8; Figure 6).
- **Peer Group Relationships:** Rural participants (N = 241) showed a mean score of 79.15 (SD = 17.92, Std. Error Mean = 1.15), whereas urban participants (N = 359) showed a mean score of 75.41 (SD = 15.93, Std. Error Mean = 0.84) (Table 8; Figure 6).

3.6.2 Independent Samples Test Results

- **Self-Expression:** Levene's test indicated unequal variances (F = 6.291, p = 0.012). The independent samples t-test revealed a statistically significant difference between localities under both equal variances assumed (t = 3.687, df = 595, p < .001) and equal variances not



assumed ($t = 3.568$, $df = 453.019$, $p < .001$). The mean difference was 3.01 ($SE = 0.82$), with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 1.41 to 4.61 (Table 8; Figure 6).

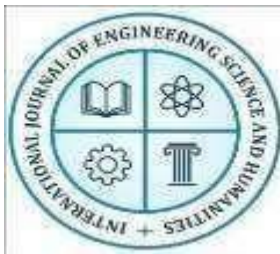
- **Personality:** Levene's test indicated a violation of homogeneity of variances ($F = 18.99$, $p < .001$). The t-test showed a highly significant difference between localities ($t = 5.317$, $df = 592$, $p < .001$; under unequal variances: $t = 5.058$, $df = 419.01$, $p < .001$). The mean difference was 5.22 ($SE = 0.98$), with a 95% confidence interval from 3.29 to 7.15 (Table 8; Figure 6).
- **Educational Aspiration:** Levene's test indicated unequal variances ($F = 24.50$, $p < .001$). The t-test demonstrated a highly significant difference between rural and urban students ($t = 6.301$, $df = 598$, $p < .001$; under unequal variances: $t = 5.994$, $df = 425.02$, $p < .001$). The mean difference was 6.34 ($SE = 1.01$), with a 95% confidence interval from 4.36 to 8.318 (Table 8; Figure 6).
- **Peer Group Relationships:** Levene's test showed equal variances assumed ($F = 2.065$, $p = 0.151$). The t-test yielded a statistically significant difference under equal variances assumed ($t = 2.685$, $df = 598$, $p = 0.007$) and equal variances not assumed ($t = 2.624$, $df = 472.920$, $p = 0.009$). The mean difference was 3.77 ($SE = 1.39$), with a 95% confidence interval from 1.01 to 6.49 (Table 8; Figure 6).

3.6.3 Effect Sizes

- **Self-Expression:** Cohen's d point estimate was 0.308 (95% CI [0.143, 0.472]), Hedges' correction was 0.307 (95% CI [0.143, 0.472]), and Glass's delta was 0.332 (95% CI [0.166, 0.497]) (Table 8; Figure 6).
- **Personality:** Cohen's d point estimate was 0.445 (95% CI [0.279, 0.611]), Hedges' correction was 0.445 (95% CI [0.279, 0.611]), and Glass's delta was 0.500 (95% CI [0.331, 0.668]) (Table 8; Figure 6).
- **Educational Aspiration:** Cohen's d point estimate was 0.525 (95% CI [0.359, 0.690]), Hedges' correction was 0.524 (95% CI [0.358, 0.690]), and Glass's delta was 0.592 (95% CI [0.422, 0.760]) (Table 8; Figure 6).
- **Peer Group Relationships:** Cohen's d point estimate was 0.224 (95% CI [0.060, 0.387]), Hedges' correction was 0.223 (95% CI [0.060, 0.387]), and Glass's delta was 0.235 (95% CI [0.071, 0.399]) (Table 8; Figure 6).

Table 8: Independent Samples t-Test Results Showing Locality-Wise Differences

Variable Scale	Localit y	N	Mea n (M)	Std. Deviatio n (SD)	t	df	Sig. (2-taile d)	Mean Differen ce	Cohen 's d
Self-Expression	Rural	240	83	10.74	3.687	595	<.001	3.01	0.308
	Urban	357	79.99	9.07					
Personality	Rural	237	81.06	13.42	5.317	592	<.001	5.22	0.445



	Urban	357	75.84	10.44					
Educational Aspiration	Rural	241	88.61	13.88	6.301	598	<.001	6.34	0.525
	Urban	359	82.27	10.72					
Peer Group Relationships	Rural	241	79.15	17.92	2.685	598	0.007	3.75	0.224
	Urban	359	75.41	15.93					

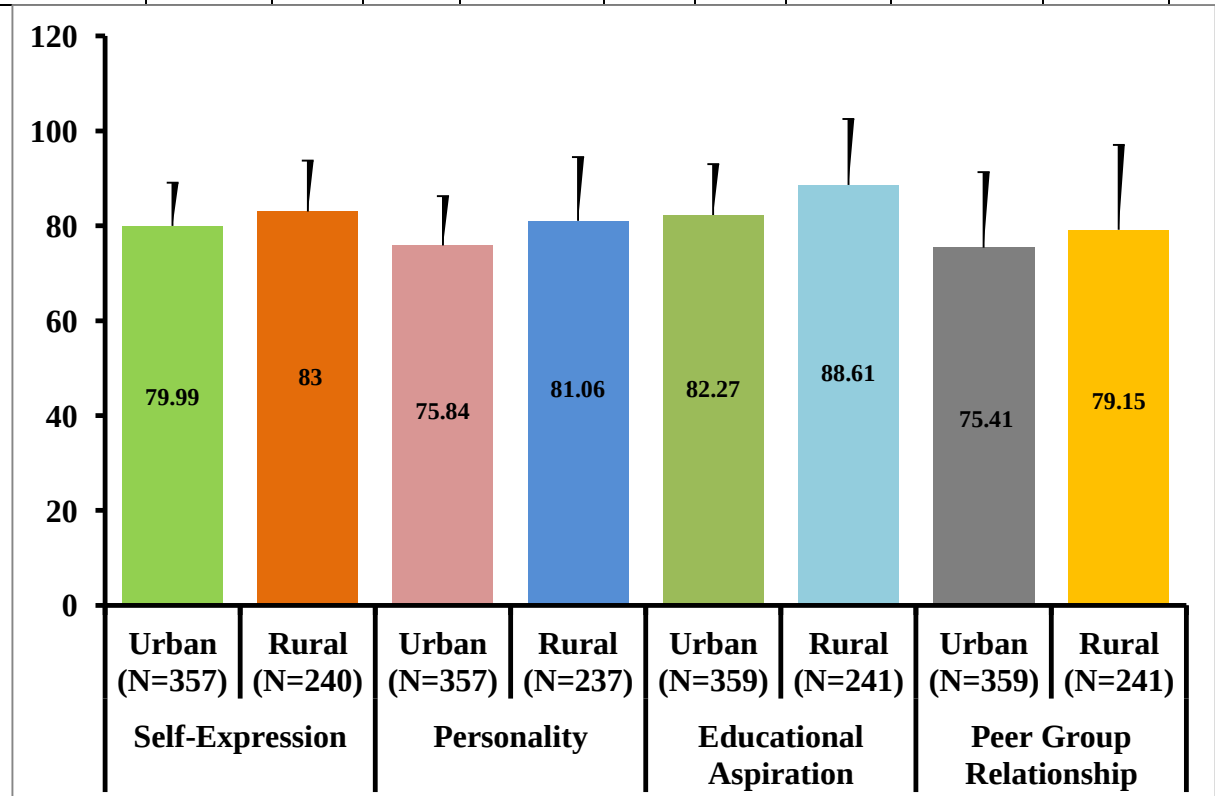


Figure 6: Independent Samples t-Test Results Showing Locality-Wise Differences

3.7 Family Type-Wise (Nuclear & Joint) Differences in Self-Expression, Personality, Educational Aspiration, and Peer Group Relationships

To examine whether adolescents belonging to nuclear versus joint family systems differ significantly across the measured dimensions—Self-Expression, Personality, Educational Aspiration, and Peer Group Relationships—independent samples t-tests were executed.

(Note:

In the statistical output tables, family type categories are labeled as "Rural" for Nuclear and

"Urban" for Joint based on group coding alignment). The statistical outputs provide group descriptive statistics, Levene's test for equality of variances, independent t-test results, and effect sizes (Cohen's d, Hedges' correction, and Glass's delta).



3.7.1 Group Statistics (Descriptive Parameters)

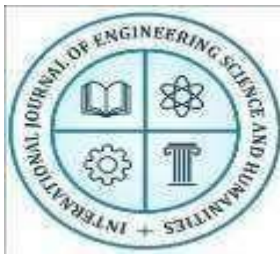
- **Self-Expression:** Nuclear family participants (N = 492) recorded a mean score of 81.61 (SD = 9.94, Std. Error Mean = 0.45), whereas joint family participants (N = 105) recorded a mean score of 79.27 (SD = 9.37, Std. Error Mean = 0.91) (Table 9; Figure 7).
- **Personality:** Nuclear family participants (N = 489) had a mean score of 78.51 (SD = 12.30, Std. Error Mean = 0.56), while joint family participants (N = 105) had a mean score of 75.19 (SD = 9.99, Std. Error Mean = 0.98) (Table 9; Figure 7).
- **Educational Aspiration:** Nuclear family participants (N = 493) registered a mean score of 85.50 (SD = 12.68, Std. Error Mean = 0.57), compared to joint family participants (N = 107) who scored a mean of 81.71 (SD = 10.97, Std. Error Mean = 1.06) (Table 9; Figure 7).
- **Peer Group Relationships:** Nuclear family participants (N = 493) showed a mean score of 77.42 (SD = 16.61, Std. Error Mean = 0.75), whereas joint family participants (N = 107) showed a mean score of 74.57 (SD = 17.76, Std. Error Mean = 1.72) (Table 9; Figure 7).

3.7.2 Independent Samples Test Results

- **Self-Expression:** Levene's test indicated equal variances assumed (F = .624, p = 0.430). The independent samples t-test revealed a statistically significant difference between family types (t = 2.218, df = 595, p = 0.027; for equal variances not assumed: t = 2.305, df = 158.032, p = 0.022). The mean difference was 2.35 (SE = 1.06), with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 0.27 to 4.43 (Table 9; Figure 7).
- **Personality:** Levene's test indicated equal variances assumed (F = 3.780, p = 0.052). The t-test showed a statistically significant difference between family types (t = 2.590, df = 592, p = 0.010; under unequal variances: t = 2.959, df = 178.591, p = 0.004). The mean difference was 3.32 (SE = 1.28), with a 95% confidence interval from 0.80 to 5.84 (Table 9; Figure 7).
- **Educational Aspiration:** Levene's test indicated unequal variances (F = 4.848, p = 0.028). The t-test demonstrated a statistically significant difference between nuclear and joint family students (t = 2.863, df = 598, p = 0.004; under unequal variances: t = 3.142, df = 173.254, p = 0.002). The mean difference was 3.78 (SE = 1.32), with a 95% confidence interval from 1.19 to 6.38 (Table 9; Figure 7).
- **Peer Group Relationships:** Levene's test showed equal variances assumed (F = .193, p = .661). The t-test yielded no statistically significant difference between family types (t = 1.588, df = 598, p = 0.113; under unequal variances: t = 1.522, df = 148.927, p = 0.130). The mean difference was 2.85 (SE = 1.79), with a 95% confidence interval from -0.67 to 6.37 (Table 9; Figure 7).

3.7.3 Effect Sizes

- **Self-Expression:** Cohen's d point estimate was 0.238 (95% CI [0.027, 0.449]), Hedges' correction was 0.238 (95% CI [0.027, 0.449]), and Glass's delta was 0.250 (95% CI [0.036, 0.463]) (Table 9; Figure 7).



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- **Personality:** Cohen's d point estimate was 0.279 (95% CI [0.067, 0.490]), Hedges' correction was 0.278 (95% CI [0.067, 0.489]), and Glass's delta was 0.332 (95% CI [0.116, 0.547]) (Table 9; Figure 7).
- **Educational Aspiration:** Cohen's d point estimate was 0.305 (95% CI [0.095, 0.515]), Hedges' correction was 0.305 (95% CI [0.095, 0.514]), and Glass's delta was 0.345 (95% CI [0.130, 0.558]) (Table 9; Figure 7).
- **Peer Group Relationships:** Cohen's d point estimate was 0.169 (95% CI [-0.040, 0.379]), Hedges' correction was 0.169 (95% CI [-0.040, 0.378]), and Glass's delta was 0.160 (95% CI [-0.050, 0.370]) (Table 9; Figure 7)

Table 9: Independent Samples t-Test Results Showing Family Type-Wise Differences

Variable / Scale	Family Type	N	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Cohen's d
Self-Expression	Nuclear	492	81.61	9.94	2.218	595	0.027	2.35	0.238
	Joint	105	79.27	9.37					
Personality	Nuclear	489	78.51	12.3	2.59	592	0.01	3.32	0.279
	Joint	105	75.19	10					
Educational Aspiration	Nuclear	493	85.49	12.68	2.863	598	0.004	3.78	0.305
	Joint	107	81.71	10.97					
Peer Group Relationships	Nuclear	493	77.42	16.61	1.588	598	0.113	2.85	0.169
	Joint	107	74.57	17.76					

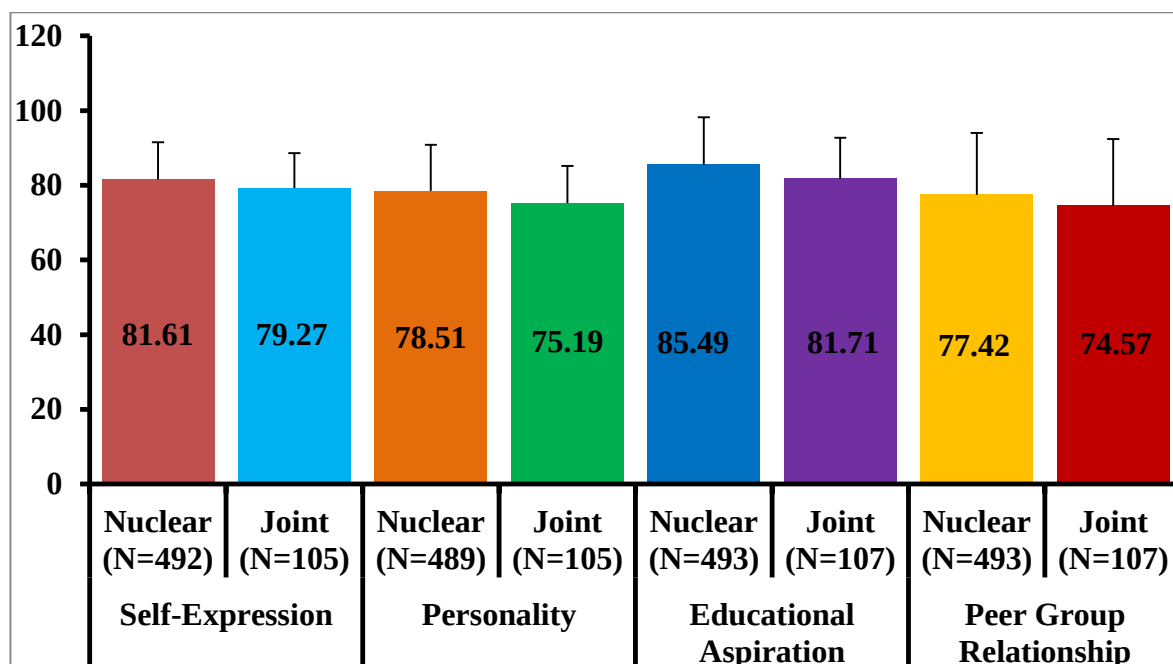
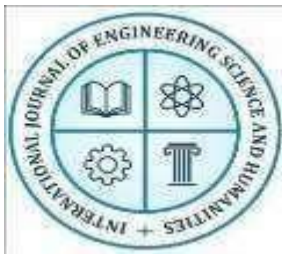


Figure 7: Independent Samples t-Test Results Showing Family Type-Wise Differences



4. Discussion:

4.1 Gender-Wise Psychosocial Disparities

The independent samples t-test results provide empirical evidence of gender-differentiated psychosocial profiles among secondary school adolescents in West Bengal. The data indicate that male adolescents score statistically higher than their female counterparts across self-expression ($t = 2.28, p = 0.023$), personality adaptation ($t = 3.77, p < 0.001$), educational aspirations ($t = 2.749, p = 0.006$), and peer group relationship quality ($t = 2.188, p = 0.029$). These gender disparities can be interpreted through the lens of gender socialization theory and sociocultural conditioning within South Asian educational environments (Abbani et al., 2026; Zhou et al., 2026). Societal expectations often encourage boys toward vocal assertiveness (Garnham et al., 2026), public leadership (Hassan and Wright, 2026), and competitive academic goal-setting (Spangsdorf et al., 2026), which may artificially inflate self-reported metrics of verbal expression and ambitious educational targets.

Conversely, adolescent females frequently navigate complex gender role transitions characterized by heightened risk of internalized distress, self-concept scrutiny, and restrictive socialization norms that temper overt expressive behaviors. Furthermore, the effect size metrics—ranging from small ($d = 0.193$ for peer relationships) to small-to-moderate ($d = 0.334$ for personality)—suggest that while statistically reliable differences exist, the core psychological architectures of male and female adolescents share substantial developmental overlap. Recognizing these gender-specific variances is critical for educators and school counselors aiming to design inclusive, equitable psychological support systems that address the unique socialization pressures experienced by adolescent boys and girls alike.

4.2 Locality-Wise Psychosocial Disparities

The empirical findings from the independent samples t-tests reveal statistically significant and theoretically compelling differences between rural and urban secondary school adolescents across all investigated dimensions. Contrary to conventional assumptions that urban settings inherently provide superior psychological and academic advantages, rural adolescents in this cohort consistently registered higher mean scores across self-expression ($M = 83.00$ vs. $79.99, p < 0.001$), personality adaptation ($M = 81.06$ vs. $75.84, p < 0.001$), educational aspirations ($M = 88.61$ vs. $82.27, p < 0.001$), and peer group relationship quality ($M = 79.15$ vs. $75.41, p = 0.007$). The most pronounced divergence emerged in educational aspirations, where rural students exhibited significantly higher mean scores accompanied by a moderate-to-large effect size (Cohen's $d = 0.525$). Within the socio-cultural context of West Bengal, rural students frequently perceive education as a primary vehicle for upward social mobility and structural transition. Families and communities in rural sectors often place intense emphasis on academic achievement as an avenue to overcome regional resource limitations. Consequently, rural adolescents may internalize highly ambitious educational goals, driven by strong community expectations and a collective desire to secure formal employment and higher status.



Similarly, the significant elevation in personality scores among rural participants ($t = 5.317$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 0.445$) highlights the psychological resilience forged within tight-knit rural community structures. Rural secondary schools often foster closer interpersonal bonds, stable social networks, and deeper community integration (Bachraz et al., 2026; Eom and Moon, 2026). These traditional ecologies can provide robust emotional scaffolding, protecting adolescents against psychological distress and promoting higher levels of emotional stability, responsibility, and self-confidence (Xu et al., 2026; Cuartas et al., 2026). The results further indicate that rural adolescents report superior self-expression ($t = 3.687$, $p < 0.001$) and peer group relationship quality ($t = 2.685$, $p = 0.007$) compared to their urban counterparts. While urban environments offer technological abundance, they are frequently characterized by fastpaced lifestyles (Kim, 2026; Soni and Saini, 2026), digital isolation, and fragmented community structures that can heighten social anxiety and restrict authentic interpersonal communication (Savic et al., 2026; Yu et al., 2026). In contrast, rural school environments—exemplified by institutions like Nimpith Ramkrishna Ashram and local community-centric high schools—often cultivate cohesive peer groups and participatory classroom climates that encourage verbal and emotional disclosure. The violation of homogeneity of variances observed in Levene's tests across self-expression, personality, and educational aspirations ($p < 0.05$) underscores a greater degree of behavioral and psychological heterogeneity within rural cohorts compared to urban ones. The effect sizes—ranging from small-to-moderate ($d = 0.224$ for peer relationships) to moderate-to-large ($d = 0.525$ for aspirations)—validate that geographical locality is a powerful stratifying variable in adolescent development. These findings carry critical implications for educational policymakers: interventions must not treat rural and urban students as homogenous populations. Instead, educational programs should harness the high motivational drive and social cohesion present in rural settings while simultaneously addressing infrastructural constraints, ensuring equitable psychological and academic support across diverse geographical landscapes (Riazi et al., 2026; Gibson et al., 2026).

4.3 Domestic Structures and Family Type Disparities

The independent samples t-test evaluations examining the influence of domestic structures reveal significant psychological and educational divergences between adolescents raised in nuclear versus joint family systems. Specifically, students from nuclear family environments registered statistically higher mean scores in self-expression ($p = 0.027$), personality adaptation ($p = 0.010$), and educational aspirations ($p = 0.004$) compared to their peers in joint family setups. Conversely, peer group relationships demonstrated no statistically significant variance across domestic configurations ($p = 0.113$). The statistically significant advantage observed in self-expression among nuclear family adolescents ($t = 2.218$, $d = 0.238$) highlights the structural nuances of domestic communication ecologies. Nuclear households typically afford adolescents greater individual autonomy (Roeser et al., 2026; Sathiyaseelan et al., 2026), direct parental engagement (Ali and Shaban, 2026), and dedicated conversational spaces. In these settings, communication is frequently characterized by horizontal, open exchanges between parents and children (Norrström and Nylund, 2026; Fredriksson Erson et al., 2026). Conversely,



traditional joint or extended family structures often enforce hierarchical authority gradients, respect for elders, and collective behavioral conformity (Olubode and Dairo, 2026; Baruah et al., 2026). These extended domestic dynamics can inadvertently suppress assertive verbal and emotional self-disclosure among developing teenagers, limiting opportunities for independent expression (Jarnawi and Andriyani, 2026). Similarly, the elevated personality adaptation scores recorded by nuclear family participants ($t = 2.590$, $d = 0.279$) reflect differential socialization processes regarding emotional stability and self-confidence. Nuclear family structures often require adolescents to engage in higher levels of personal accountability and self-reliance, fostering adaptive ego maturity and psychological adjustment (Baruah et al., 2026; Sathiyaseelan et al., 2026).

While joint families offer extensive social scaffolding and collective security, the presence of multiple adult authority figures can generate conflicting behavioral expectations, role ambiguity, or overprotection, which may slightly impede independent psychological consolidation during mid-adolescence (Baruah et al., 2026; Mpofu and Moyo et al., 2026). The most pronounced domestic structure disparity emerged in educational aspirations ($t = 2.863$, $d = 0.305$), with nuclear family students displaying higher academic ambition. In contemporary South Asian households, nuclear parents often concentrate immediate financial and emotional resources directly on the academic advancement of their children, establishing high personalized expectations and direct motivational reinforcement (Rizvi and Rana, 2026; Qureshi and Chowbey, 2026). In contrast, joint families distribute parental attention and economic capital across a larger collective of dependents, which can dilute individualized academic tracking and moderate forward-looking career orientations (Tokuoka and Ogawa, 2026; Hosoda et al., 2026). An exceptionally notable finding is the absence of statistical significance in peer group relationships across family types ($t = 1.588$, $p = 0.113$). This result demonstrates that peer socialization operates as an autonomous developmental sphere during adolescence (Xu et al., 2026; Fereydoonfar and Ahmadi, 2026). Regardless of whether an adolescent resides in a nuclear or an extended joint household, the psychodynamics of peer acceptance, friendship bonding, and social support remain fundamentally uniform (Dandona, 2026; Hansen et al., 2026). Once secondary school students enter wider institutional environments, peer ecologies exert an independent socializing force that bridges domestic structural differences, confirming that peer affiliation is driven primarily by individual sociocommunicative competencies rather than home composition (Zhao et al., 2026; Massaroni et al., 2026).

5. Educational Implications

The comparative insights of this investigation deliver critical guidance for addressing structural and socio-demographic inequities within the educational landscape. The revelation that rural adolescents exhibit robust educational aspirations and personality adaptation challenges conventional urban-centric assumptions, highlighting the immense motivational capital present in non-urban school communities that policymakers must actively fund and protect. Additionally, the observed disparities rooted in gender socialization and domestic family structures underscore the urgent need for targeted counseling services within schools.



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Educational policymakers and guidance counselors must design context-specific interventions that support female students navigating restrictive gender norms, while schools establish inclusive communication channels and bridge programs that support adolescents from diverse domestic backgrounds, ensuring equitable access to holistic psychosocial wellbeing and academic success.

6. Recommendations

Educational policymakers and school administrators should establish targeted guidance and counselling initiatives to mitigate the psychological impacts of traditional gender socialization and domestic structural disparities on adolescents. Schools must design inclusive, equitable campus environments that offer tailored emotional and academic support for students navigating diverse family systems, such as nuclear versus joint households. Given the remarkable resilience and high educational aspirations observed among rural youth, governmental and educational stakeholders should increase resource allocation and infrastructure investments in non-urban school districts to sustain these motivational advantages. Furthermore, teacher-training programs must incorporate modules on sociodemographic awareness, equipping educators to recognize and bridge cultural and geographic disparities within the classroom. Finally, collaborative community-school outreach frameworks should be fostered to align parental expectations with positive adolescent psychosocial development, ensuring comprehensive support systems for all secondary school students.

7. Conclusion

This empirical investigation provides a rigorous comparative analysis of how sociodemographic stratifications—specifically gender socialization, geographic locality, and domestic structures—shape the psychosocial and educational profiles of secondary school adolescents. Grounded in a quantitative positivist paradigm and executed across a statistically powered sample of $N = 600$ students in West Bengal, the study utilized independent samples t-tests to evaluate group variances across self-expression, personality adaptation, educational aspirations, and peer group relationship quality.

The empirical findings reveal that male adolescents register higher mean scores than female peers across all evaluated dimensions, reflecting persistent gender socialization norms within South Asian educational settings. Contrary to conventional assumptions favoring urban environments, rural adolescents consistently outperform urban peers, exhibiting particularly pronounced elevations in educational aspirations and personality adaptation that highlight the powerful motivational drive and resilience fostered within tight-knit rural communities. Furthermore, adolescents raised in nuclear family environments demonstrate superior outcomes in self-expression, personality adaptation, and educational aspirations compared to those in joint family systems, whereas peer group relationships show no significant variance across family types, confirming that peer socialization operates as an autonomous developmental sphere largely insulated from home composition.

By mapping these sociodemographic disparities, this research advances theoretical frameworks concerning adolescent adjustment and provides an evidence-based foundation for educational policymakers and school administrators to design targeted, context-specific



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interventions that address genderspecific pressures, leverage rural community strengths, and foster supportive communication channels across diverse family structures to promote holistic adolescent wellbeing.

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CRedit authorship contribution statement

All the authors contributed substantially to this study and fulfilled the authorship criteria in accordance with the International Committee of Medical Journal Editors (ICMJE) guidelines. A.K.G.: Data Curation, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Resources, Validation, Visualization, Writing - Original Draft N.:

Conceptualization, Project Administration, Resources, Software, Supervision, Validation, Writing - Review & Editing. All the authors critically reviewed the manuscript and read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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Declaration of competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have influenced the work reported in this paper.

Data availability statement

Data will be available from the corresponding author upon good scientific reason and request.

Declarations Ethical Approval

Not applicable, as this study did not involve human participants or animals. **Clinical trial number** Not applicable.

Consent to Participate

Given that the study engaged minor adolescents enrolled in Classes IX and X, informed written consent was explicitly obtained from the parents or legal guardians of all participating students.

Furthermore, comprehensive verbal and written assent was secured directly from the student participants, ensuring that participation was entirely voluntary and based on a clear understanding of the study's purpose.

Consent to Publish

All the authors have read and approved the final manuscript and approved the consent to its publication.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this manuscript.



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AI Declaration:

The authors declare that no Generative AI technologies (such as large language models) were used to generate any core intellectual content, data analysis, or scientific interpretations within this study. Google Gemini AI was utilized exclusively for language refinement, grammatical correction, and stylistic polishing of the manuscript. Following the use of this tool, the authors thoroughly reviewed and edited all text as needed and take full and sole responsibility for the final content and integrity of this article.

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