

**ATTITUDE TOWARDS FAMILY MEMBERS AMONG
COLLEGE STUDENTS IN RELATION TO MOBILE PHONE
ADDICTION**

*Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment for the requirement
of Masters of Science in Psychology*

ANJALI K. EMMANUAL

Candidate Code: P1716002



**FATIMA MATA NATIONAL COLLEGE (AUTONOMOUS),
KOLLAM**

(Affiliated to the University of Kerala)

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that Ms. ANJALI K EMMANUAL, the student of fourth semester MSc Psychology has satisfactorily completed the project on the paper entitled “**ATTITUDE TOWARDS FAMILY MEMBERS AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS IN RELATION TO MOBILE PHONE ADDICTION**” under my guidance in partial fulfilment of the requirement for MSc degree in Psychology, at Fatima Matha National College (Autonomous), affiliated to the University of Kerala.

Place: Kollam

Date: 28/06/2019

Counter signed by,

Supervisor

Dr. Anil Jose P. S

Assistant Professor & Head
Department of Psychology
FMN College
Kollam

Dr. Anil Jose P. S

Assistant Professor & Head
Department of Psychology
FMN College
Kollam

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this research entitled “**ATTITUDE TOWARDS FAMILY MEMBERS AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS IN RELATION TO MOBILE PHONE ADDICTION**” is prepared under the guidance and supervision of Dr. Anil Jose P. S, Assistant Professor & Head, Department of Psychology, Fatima Mata National College, Kollam. This study has not been submitted to any other university or institution for any other purpose.

ANJALI K EMMANUAL

Place: Kollam

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F.M.N.College

Kollam

ANJALI K EMMANUAL

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ABSTRACT

The present study was conducted to assess, and compare the mean difference among college students on attitude toward family members in relation to their mobile phone addiction. A total of 120 sample were drawn for this study from different colleges in Kollam district in Kerala by means of random sampling method. The age of the participants was ranged from 18 to 25 years. The sample were further divided in to 2 equal groups consisting of 60 male college students and 60 female college students. The level of Mobile Phone Addiction was assessed using Mobile Phone Addiction Scale, Attitude towards Family Members was assessed using Attitude Scale Toward Home and Family.

Karl Pearson Product Moment Correlational analysis. One-way ANOVA and Duncan multiple range post hoc analysis were performed to test the significance of the hypotheses. Results revealed the existence of a significant difference between impulsivity of mobile phone usage and attitude toward family members. The study also revealed that there exists a significant difference between participants having high impulsivity and low impulsivity and between participants having high impulsivity and moderate impulsivity.

KEY WORDS: Mobile Phone Addiction, Attitude Towards Family Members, Impulsivity,

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In the present era, every individual possesses their own mobile phone. To an extent the personality and the economic status of an individual is determined through their model of mobile phone. So more than a machine, mobile phone has become a part of an individual. The invention of mobile phone makes the impossible things possible to a least, connecting the persons who are far away from home through video calling so that individuals can experience the presence of their loved ones in the absence of their physical presence. Now the companies developing mobile phones are competing in a great extent to include more and more unique features in their mobile phone model so as to attract the youngsters in a big deal to the virtual world of mobile phone

1.1: MOBILE PHONE ADDICTION

Mobile phone addiction or problematic mobile phone usage is a behavioural addiction similar to other addictions like internet addiction, video game addiction, gambling etc. Smartphone addiction, sometimes colloquially known as “nomophobia” (fear of being without a mobile phone), is often fueled by an Internet overuse problem or Internet addiction disorder. If there is no specific amount of time spent on your phone, or the frequency you check for updates, or the number of messages you send or receive that indicates an addiction or overuse problem.

After all, it’s rarely the phone or tablet itself that creates the compulsion, but rather the games, apps, and online worlds it connects us to. Many applications which is helpful for studies, game applications and the social networking sites which enable the adolescents to be connected with their friends and family, adolescents are fond of using mobile phone most of the day in the present scenario. Teens are extremely vulnerable to developing a cell phone addiction. The human brain isn’t fully developed until about 25 years of age. Adolescents who become dependent on their smartphones could experience negative alterations in brain development.

Smartphone addiction can encompass a variety of impulse-control problems, including:

- **Virtual relationships:** Addiction to social networking, dating apps, texting, and messaging can extend to the point where virtual, online friends become more important than real-life relationships. While the Internet can be a great place to meet new people, reconnect with old friends, or even start romantic relationships, online relationships are not a healthy substitute for real-life interactions. Online friendships can be appealing as they tend to exist in a bubble, not subject to the same demands or stresses as messy, real-world relationships. Compulsive use of dating apps can change your focus to short-term hook ups instead of developing long-term relationships.
- **Information overload:** Compulsive web surfing, watching videos, playing games, or checking news feeds can lead to lower productivity at work or school and isolate for hours at a time. Compulsive use of the Internet and smartphone apps can cause you to neglect other aspects of your life, from real-world relationships to hobbies and social pursuits.
- **Cybersex addiction.** Compulsive use of Internet pornography, sexting, nude-swapping, or adult messaging services can impact negatively on your real-life intimate relationships and overall emotional health. While online pornography and cybersex addictions are types of sexual addiction, the Internet makes it more accessible, relatively anonymous, and very convenient. Excessive use of dating apps that facilitate casual sex can make it more difficult to develop long-term intimate relationships or damage an existing relationship.
- **Online compulsions:** Online compulsions like gaming, gambling, stock trading, online shopping, or bidding on auction sites like eBay can often lead to financial and job-related problems. While gambling addiction has been a well-documented problem for years, the availability of Internet gambling has made gambling far more accessible. Compulsive stock

trading or online shopping can be just as financially and socially damaging. eBay addicts may wake up at strange hours in order to be online for the last remaining minutes of an auction.

Even though mobile phone has many positive benefits in the daily life of an individual it also creates severe impairment to health or distress in one's life. The severe addiction to mobile phone can result in death also. The death of a 16-year-old boy in Madhya Pradesh due to playing a game continuously for 6 hours is an example for such situation. For an adolescent mobile phone addiction results in developing impaired self-esteem, impaired work performance, interpersonal conflicts and negative alternations in the brain. Heavy smartphone use can often be symptomatic of other underlying problems, such as stress, anxiety, depression, or loneliness. Smartphone addiction can also negatively impact your life by:

- **Increasing loneliness and depression.** While it may seem that losing online will temporarily make feelings such as loneliness, depression, and boredom evaporate into thin air, it can actually make you feel even worse. Users, especially teens, tend to compare themselves unfavourably with their peers on social media, promoting feelings of loneliness and depression.
- **Fuelling anxiety.** The heavier a person's phone use, the greater the anxiety they experienced. One researcher found that the mere presence of a phone in a work place tends to make people more anxious and perform poorly on given tasks.
- **Increasing stress.** The need to continually check and respond to email can contribute to higher stress levels and even burnout.
- **Exacerbating attention deficit disorders.** The constant stream of messages and information from a smartphone can overwhelm the brain and make it impossible to focus attention on any one thing for more than a few minutes without feeling compelled to move on to something else.
- **Diminishing your ability to concentrate and think deeply or creatively.** The persistent buzz, ping or beep of smartphone can distract

from important tasks, slow work, and interrupt those quiet moments that are so crucial to creativity and problem solving.

- **Disturbing your sleep.** Excessive smartphone use can disrupt your sleep, which can have a serious impact on your overall mental health. It can impact your memory, affect your ability to think clearly, and reduce your cognitive and learning skills.
- **Encouraging self-absorption.** Snapping endless selfies, posting all your thoughts or details about your life can create an unhealthy self-centeredness, distancing you from real-life relationships and making it harder to cope with stress. Some studies found that people who spend a lot of time on social media are more likely to display negative personality traits such as narcissism.

1.1.1: Warning signs of smartphone overuse include:

Spending a lot of time connected to your phone only becomes a problem when it absorbs so much of your time it causes you to neglect your face-to-face relationships, your work, school, hobbies, or other important things in your life. If you find yourself ignoring friends over lunch to read Facebook updates or compulsively checking your phone in while driving or during school lectures, then it's time to reassess your smartphone use and strike a healthier balance in your life.

- Trouble completing tasks at work or home. Do you find laundry piling up and little food in the house for dinner because you've been busy chatting online, texting, or playing video games? Perhaps you find yourself working late more often because you can't complete your work on time.
- Isolation from family and friends: If social life suffering because of all the time you spend on your phone or other device? If you're in a meeting or chatting with friends, do you lose track of what's being said because you're checking your phone? Have friends and family expressed concern about the

amount of time you spend on your phone? Do you feel like no one in your “real” life—even your spouse—understands you like your online friends?

- **Concealing your smartphone use:** Do you sneak off to a quiet place to use your phone? Do you hide your smartphone use or lie to your boss and family about the amount of time you spend online? Do you get irritated or cranky if your online time is interrupted?
- **Having a fear of missing out:** Do you hate to feel out of the loop or think you’re missing out on important news or information if you don’t check your phone regularly? Do you need to compulsively check social media because you’re anxious that others are having a better time, or leading a more exciting life than you? Do you get up at night to check your phone?
- **Feeling of dread, anxiety, or panic** if you leave your smartphone at home, the battery runs down or the operating system crashes. Or do you feel phantom vibrations—you think your phone has vibrated but when you check, there are no new messages or updates?

1.1.2: Treatment for Smartphone Addiction

There are now specialist treatment centres that offer digital detox programs to help you disconnect from digital media. Individual group therapy can also give you a tremendous boost in controlling your technology use.

- **Cognitive-behavioural Therapy** provides step-by-step ways to stop compulsive behaviours and change your perceptions about your smartphone and the Internet. Therapy can also help you learn healthier ways of coping with uncomfortable emotions—such as stress, anxiety, or depression—that may be fuelling your smartphone use.
- **Marriage or couples Counselling.** If excessive use of Internet pornography or online affairs is affecting your relationship, counselling can

help you work through these challenging issues and reconnect with your partner.

- **Group Support.** Organizations such as Internet Tech Addiction Anonymous (ITAA) and On-Line Gamers Anonymous offer online support and face-to-face meetings to curb excessive technology use. Of course, you need real-life people to benefit fully from any addiction support group. Online support groups can be helpful in finding sources of assistance, but it's easy to use them as an excuse to spend even more time on your smartphone. Sex Addicts Anonymous can be a place to try if you're having trouble with cybersex addiction.

1.1.3: Helping a Teen with Smartphone Addiction

Any parent who's tried to drag a child or teen away from a smartphone or tablet knows how challenging it can be to separate kids from social media, messaging apps, or online games and videos. Youngsters lack the maturity to curb their smartphone use on their own, but simply confiscating the device can often backfire, creating anxiety and withdrawal symptoms in your child. Instead, there are plenty of other ways to help your child find a healthier balance:

- **Be a good role model.** Children have a strong impulse to imitate, so it's important you manage your own smartphone and Internet use. It's no good asking your child to unplug at the dinner table while you're staring at your own phone or tablet. Don't let your own smartphone use distract from parent-child interactions.
- **Use apps to monitor and limit your child's smartphone use.** There are a number of apps available that can limit your child's data usage or restrict texting and web browsing to certain times of the day. Other apps can eliminate messaging capabilities while in motion, so you can prevent your teen using a smartphone while driving.

- **Create “phone-free” zones.** Restrict the use of smartphones or tablets to a common area of the house where you can keep an eye on your child’s activity and limit time online. Ban phones from the dinner table and bedrooms and insist they’re turned off after a certain time at night.
- **Encourage other interests and social activities.** Get your child away from screens by exposing them to other hobbies and activities, such as team sports, Scouts, and after-school clubs. Spend time as a family unplugged.
- **Talk to your child about underlying issues.** Compulsive smartphone use can be the sign of deeper problems. Is your child having problems fitting in? Has there been a recent major change, like a move or divorce, which is causing stress? Is your child suffering with other issues at school or home?
- **Get help.** Teenagers often rebel against their parents, but if they hear the same information from a different authority figure, they may be more inclined to listen. Try a sports coach, doctor, or respected family friend. Don’t be afraid to seek professional counselling if you are concerned about your child’s smartphone use.

1.1.4: Dimensions of Mobile Phone Addiction

❖ Maladaptive Usage

Maladaptive behaviours refer to types of behaviours that inhibit a person's ability to adjust to particular situations or not adjusting adequately or appropriately to the environment or situation. Maladaptive behaviours are never good because they prevent people from adapting to the demands of life. Maladaptive Responses are defined as beliefs and attitudes that are oriented away from intention to influence or change the conditions of the stressors, and anxieties as elicited negative affective states in the course of such maladaptive responses (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989).

❖ Self-Expression

Self-expression is the expression of your personality, feelings, or opinions, for example through an artistic activity such as drawing or dancing. The conflict between self-expression and the pressure to conform is a central one for her. How we share and express ourselves to others forms the basis of our personality, as understood by everyone but us, and sets the tone for our entire lives. It's a vital aspect of life to pay attention to, especially if you want to feel more understood and more in tune with the people you care about. The way that we share ourselves is known as self-expression, and it turns out there are a lot of ways to do it. There are few "wrong" ways of expressing yourself, but there are some things you can do that give you a better chance of hearing and being heard than others. Kim and Ko (2007) note that self-expression is one of the most highly-regarded and venerated values in Western civilization due to the near-deification of "the individual" in our society. Not only is self-expression a vital practice of Western culture, it is also baked into the very roots of psychology. After all, psychology is all about the study of the mind, including the self, others, and groups of people. The way we learn about the mind is through the expression of individuals—verbally or otherwise (Kim & Ko, 2007). De la Huerta's (2014) article provides a good brief overview of why self-expression is so important in our society. She argues that self-expression is a vital piece of the puzzle that is fulfillment in life; it allows us to be our best selves, reach our full potential, and make valuable contributions to the world we live in. Authentic self-expression is how we embrace who we are, all the way from the positive traits and acts we keep on the surface to the darker and less valued pieces of ourselves that we bury deep down. According to Glaser, this state is where we get our best and most innovative work done. Acting in alignment with our authentic selves activates our prefrontal cortex, giving us greater access to our higher-order abilities like creative and innovative thinking, problem-solving, and planning. Two artists and educators, Jay M. Hanes and Eleanor Weisman, agree that self-expression is not only important for our relationship with ourselves and our relationships with others, it's also vital for our work. They propose that we learn about ourselves through expressing ourselves,

reflecting on our core self and engaging in creative learning that will benefit us in all walks of life and all disciplines and industries (Hanes & Weisman, 2016).

❖ Peer Relationship

Peer acceptance represents social status or popularity within a large group, whereas friendships represent relationships based on mutual respect, appreciation, and liking. Both peer relationships and friendships become increasingly important as children grow into adolescence. Experiencing positive peer relationships and friendships contribute to positive self-image, social competence and academic achievement, among other outcomes, and may act as a buffer against the negative impact of family troubles. Young people who find it difficult to develop such relationships are more likely to be aggressive, lonely and depressed (Yu, Tepper & Russell, 2009). The characteristics for being in a peer relationship are having common interests, likes, or hobbies, feeling comfortable with sharing private thoughts, feelings, or stories, understanding each other and conflict resolution.

❖ Interpersonal Relationship

A close association between individuals who share common interests and goals is called interpersonal relationship or a strong bond between two or more people refers to interpersonal relationship. Attraction between individuals brings them close to each other and eventually results in a strong interpersonal relationship. The various type of interpersonal relationship includes, Friendship, Love, Platonic relationship, Family relationship and Professional relationship. George Levinger, identified five stages of interpersonal relationships in a study on 1980. He called this stage theory, which includes; acquaintance, build up, continuation, deterioration and ending (termination). A successful interpersonal relationship will only go through the first three stages. A relationship that ends in a breakup with a friend or romantic partner will go through all five of these stages. Interpersonal relationships are important for your overall physical and emotional happiness. Relationships help fight loneliness while also give a sense of purpose in life. For instance, the closeness an individual feel with family and friends is an

essential part of your social support. Relationships in other aspects of your life outside of romance and family can also have a positive effect on you, such as getting together with acquaintances for a shared interest or hobby. All interpersonal relationships are built on loyalty, support, and trust. Close relationships may also be built on love. Mutual respect and reciprocation of these qualities is important in maintaining all your relationships. Otherwise, the relationship can become one-sided.

❖ Impulsivity

Inclined to act on impulse rather than thought. People who are overly impulsive, seem unable to curb their immediate reactions or think before they act. As a result, they may blurt out answers to questions or inappropriate comments, or run into the street without looking. Their impulsivity may make it hard for a child to wait for things they want or to take their turn in games. They may grab a toy from another child or hit when they are upset. Impulsive actions are typically poorly conceived, prematurely expressed, unduly risky, or inappropriate to the situation that often result in undesirable consequences, which imperil long-term goals and strategies for success. Impulsivity can be classified as a multifactorial construct. A functional variety of impulsivity has also been suggested, which involves action without much forethought in appropriate situations that can and does result in desirable consequences. "When such actions have positive outcomes, they tend not to be seen as signs of impulsivity, but as indicators of boldness, quickness, spontaneity, courageousness, or unconventionality" Thus, the construct of impulsivity includes at least two independent components: first, acting without an appropriate amount of deliberation, which may or may not be functional; and second, choosing short-term gains over long-term ones.

❖ Usage Time

The action or habitual or customary practice of using something for a time than a limit. The usage time is usually measured in terms of minutes and hours.

1.2: NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

With the widespread popularity and use of mobile phone, it has become a vital component in the daily living of an individual. In the present world, every youngster owns their own mobile phone. One of the greatest advantages of mobile phone is that it makes the communication process easier than in the past. This easiness in communication makes the individual to be always connected with their friends and family members irrespective of how far they are, especially useful at the time of emergencies and disasters. Since many social networking applications and online as well as offline game applications are available in the mobile phone, youngsters would like to spend most of their day in mobile than participating or doing any other outdoor activities. Although, these social networking sites have been greatly seen at the time of natural disaster flood happened in last year at Kerala.

The addiction to mobile phone among youngsters has serious disadvantages on their physical as well as mental health. As an individual's brain fully develops only by age 25, the probability for youngsters to get addicted to mobile phone is higher when compared with individuals of other age group. When the youngster spends more time on mobile phone, they are less aware about their biological feelings like hunger or thirst especially while playing games according to interest irrespective of offline or online which results in the disruption of the biological functioning of the body to the extreme stage of death. The death of a 16-year-old boy in Madhya Pradesh due to playing a game continuously for 6 hours is an example for such a situation.

As the youngsters spend more time in the virtual world of mobile phone they have less or no time to spend time with their family members and at home. Because of such a situation they become less aware about the economic condition and the importance of familial relationship. The present study examines how much the level of mobile phone addiction among the youngsters affects their relationship and attitude toward their family members.

1.3: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

To study is entitled as “Attitude towards family members among college students in relation to mobile phone addiction”.

1.4: VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

In this study two variables are there under consideration, (i) Mobile Phone Addiction (independent variable) and (ii) Attitude Towards Family Members (dependent variable)

1.5: OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

- **Mobile phone Addiction:** The unlimited and overuse of mobile phone and the various applications in the mobile phone.
- **Maladaptive Usage:** The inability of an individual to adjust and control the use of mobile phone under certain circumstances or situations where use of mobile phone is restricted.
- **Self-Expression:** The self-expression, thought and feelings of an individual about them self.
- **Peer Relationship:** Social status or popularity within a large group especially on same age group of an individual based on mutual respect, appreciation, and liking.
- **Impulsivity:** The tendency to act without any forethought or to act in a while.
- **Usage Time:** The time something is used usually calculated on the basis on hours and minutes.

- **Interpersonal Relationship:** A close association and strong bond between two or more persons.

1.6: ORGANIZATION OF CHAPTER

Chapter 1 has presented General introduction, Introduction, and Need and significance Statement of the problem, Variables of the study and Operational definition of key terms. Chapter 2 contains the studies related to variable, objectives of the study and hypotheses. Chapter 3 contains the method and procedures used to gather data for the present study. Chapter 4 contains the result and analyses and findings to emerge from the study. Chapter 5 contains the summary of the study and findings, conclusion drawn from the findings, a discussion and recommendations for further study.

A literature review is a search and evaluation of the available literature in your given subject or chosen topic area. It documents the state of the art with respect to the subject or topic you are writing about. A literature review shows your readers that you have an in-depth grasp of your subject; and that you understand where your own research fits into and adds to an existing body of agreed knowledge. A literature review has four main objectives, it surveys the literature in your chosen area of study, it synthesises the information in that literature into a summary, it critically analyses the information gathered by identifying gaps in current knowledge; by showing limitations of theories and points of view; and by formulating areas for further research and reviewing areas of controversy, it presents the literature in an organised way

2.1 STUDIES ON MOBILE PHONE ADDICTION

Jacobs (1986) conducted a study on A general theory of addictions: A new theoretical model. A general theory of addictions is proposed, using the compulsive gambler as the prototype. Addiction is defined as a dependent state acquired over time to relieve stress. Two interrelated sets of factors predispose persons to addictions: an abnormal physiological resting state, and childhood experiences producing a deep sense of inadequacy. All addictions are hypothesized to follow a similar three-stage course. A matrix strategy is outlined to collect similar information from different kinds of addicts and normal. The ultimate objective is to identify high risk youth and prevent the development of addictions.

Aoki and Downes (2003) conducted a study on an analysis of young people's use of and attitudes toward cell phones examined college students' cell phone usage from a behavioural and psychological perspective. By utilizing both qualitative (focus groups) and quantitative (survey) approaches, the study suggests these individuals use the cell phone for a variety of purposes: to help them feel safe, for financial benefits, to manage time efficiently, to keep in touch with

friends and family members. The study also examined degree to which the individuals are dependent on the cell phones and what they view as the negatives of their utilization. The finding of the study was people have various feelings and attitudes toward cell phone usage.

Wilksa (2003) conducted a study on Mobile Phone Use as Part of Young People's Consumption Styles reported on an empirical study of the connection between consumption patterns and mobile phone use. The data was collected through a survey from Finnish young people aged 16–20. The results indicated that young people's relationship to the mobile phone is consistent with their general consumption styles. An addictive use of the phone was related to trendy and impulsive consumption styles and prevalent among females and technology enthusiasm and trend-consciousness was linked to impulsive consumption and hard values and prevalent among males. In general, a frugal mobile phone use was not related to gender but to environmentalism and thrifty consumption. The traditional gender division in mobile phone use styles that could be observed is interesting in the light of conjectures that genders are becoming more alike in their use of new technology. Technology enthusiasm, usually regarded as a typically male thing, was also linked and influenced to female consumption styles.

Leena, Tomi, and Arja (2005) conducted a study on Intensity of mobile phone use and health compromising behaviours—how is information and communication technology connected to health-related lifestyle in adolescence? aimed on studying the association of mobile phone use with health compromising behaviours like smoking, snuffing, and alcohol. 3485 participants aged between 14 to 16 years were studied. The results indicated that mobile phone was used by 89% of respondents and by 13% for at least 1 hour daily. The intensity of use was positively associated with health compromising behaviours and associations remained, although somewhat reduced, after including weekly spending money in the models.

Kamibeppu and Sugiura (2005) conducted a study on Impact of the Mobile Phone on Junior High-School Students' Friendships in the Tokyo Metropolitan Area investigated how junior high school students use their own mobile phone and to examine the impact of using it on their friendship. The participants were 651 students in grade 8 from five public junior high schools in the Tokyo metropolitan area. Each participant had completed a questionnaire that created by the researchers. The findings of the study show that the proportion of having their own mobile phone was 49.3% and that of not having it was 50.7%. The students use mobile phone much more frequently for e-mail than as a phone and most of them exchanged e-mails between schoolmates, and more than a half of them exchanged e-mails more than 10 times a day. Sociable students estimated that their own mobile phone was useful for their friendship, but they experienced some insecurity or started staying up late at night engaged in e-mail exchanges.

Niemz, Griffiths and Banyard (2005) conducted a study on Prevalence of Pathological Internet Use among University Students and Correlations with Self-Esteem, the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ), and Disinhibition attempted to provide more evidence for the existence of Internet addiction among students, a population considered to be especially vulnerable. The sample constitute of 371 British students. The scales used for the study were the Pathological Internet Use (PIU) scale, the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12), a self-esteem scale, and two measures of disinhibition. Results showed that 18.3% of the sample were considered to be pathological Internet users, whose excessive use of the Internet was causing academic, social, and interpersonal problems and pathological Internet users had lower self-esteem and were more socially disinhibited. There was no significant difference in GHQ scores.

In a study conducted by Toda, Monden, Kubo, and Morimoto (2006) on mobile phone dependence and health-related lifestyle of university students investigated the associations between the intensity of mobile phone use and health-related lifestyle. 275 university students, were evaluated using health-related lifestyle using the Health Practice Index and required to complete the

Mobile Phone Dependence Questionnaire (MPDQ). The result of the study revealed that for males, there was a significant relationship between smoking habits and mobile phone dependence and male respondents with low HPI scores were significantly higher for mobile phone dependence. These findings suggest particularly for males, the intensity of mobile phone use may be related to healthy lifestyle.

Jenaro, Flores, Gomez-Vela, Gonzalez-Gil and Caballo (2007) conducted a study on Problematic internet and cell-phone use: Psychological, behavioural, and health correlates aimed to assess pathological Internet and cell-phone use in college students, and to identify psychological, health, and behavioural correlates. For the study cross-sectional design was utilized. The data was gathered from 337 students. The measures used for the study were Over-use Scale (IOS), and the Cell-Phone Over-Use Scale (COS). Beck Anxiety Inventory, Beck Depression Inventory, and the General Health Questionnaire-28. The results of the study show heavy Internet use is associated with high anxiety; high cell-phone use is associated to being female, and having high anxiety and insomnia.

In an article by Lee and Chae (2007) on Children's Internet Use in a Family Context: Influence on Family Relationships and Parental Mediation examined whether children's Internet use influence decline in family time and family communication. The study was conducted among 222 fourth, fifth and sixth grade Korean children. The findings of the study reveal total time using for the Internet was related to perceived declines in family time but not related to family communication and influence of the Internet on family time and family communication differed by the type online activities of the children.

Walsh and White (2007) conducted a study on Me, My Mobile, and I: The Role of Self- and Prototypical Identity Influences in the Prediction of Mobile Phone Behaviour examined the effect of and relationship between self- and prototypical identity influences on high-level mobile phone use from a theory of planned behaviour perspective. 252 university students were the participants. The participants completed 2 questionnaires in which the first questionnaire assessed

the standard TPB constructs (attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control), as well as self- and prototypical identity influences and the second questionnaire assessed level of mobile phone use of the participant in the previous week. The findings of the study indicated support for the theory of planned behaviour in predicting high-level mobile use intentions and behaviour. Self-identity and prototype similarity, also significantly predicted intentions. The effects of prototype similarity on intentions were mediated via self-identity processes.

In a study conducted by Yen, Yen, Chen, Chen and Ko (2007) on Family Factors of Internet Addiction and Substance Use Experience in Taiwanese Adolescents examined the differences in the diversity of family factors between adolescents with and without Internet addiction and substance use experience. The participants were 2328 boys and 1334 girls constitute a total of 3662 students from seven junior high schools, six senior high schools, and four vocational high schools in southern Taiwan. The family factors assessed included perceived family satisfaction, family economic status, parents' marriage status, care-givers, the frequency of intra-family conflict, families' habitual alcohol use, and perceived parents' or care givers' attitude toward adolescents' substance use. The study also demonstrated that the characteristics of higher parent-adolescent conflict, habitual alcohol use of siblings, perceived parents' positive attitude to adolescent substance use, and lower family function could be used develop a predictive model for Internet addiction in the multiple logistic regression analysis. The results showed that adolescent Internet addiction and substance use experience shared similar family factors which indicate that Internet addiction and substance use should be considered in the group of behavioural problem syndromes.

Billieux, Linden, Acremont, Ceschi and Zermatten (2007) conducted a study on Does impulsivity relate to perceived dependence on and actual use of the mobile phone? analysed whether impulsivity, which has often been related to various forms of addictive behaviours, is associated with massive use of and dependence on the mobile phone. The participants were 108 female undergraduate

psychology students and they were screened using a questionnaire evaluating actual use of and perceived dependence on the mobile phone, and with the French adaptation of the UPPS Impulsive Behaviour Scale which identifies four distinct components associated with impulsive behaviour: Urgency, lack of Premeditation, lack of Perseverance, and Sensation Seeking. The results indicated that a relationship can be established between the use of and perceived dependence on the cellular phone and two facets of impulsivity: Urgency and lack of Perseverance.

Walsh, Shari, White, Katherine and Young (2007) conducted a study on Young and connected: Psychological influences of mobile phone use amongst Australian youth investigated psychosocial factors influencing mobile phone use amongst Australian youth. 946 participants completed a questionnaire assessing level of mobile phone use, uses and gratifications relating to use, and three addiction indicators, withdrawal, loss of control and salience. The results of the study revealed social and self-gratification predicted level of use and addictive tendency, with self-gratification exhibiting the greatest impact on the three addiction indicators.

Philipps, Butt and Blaszczyński (2007) conducted a study on Personality and Self-Reported Use of Mobile Phones for Games. 112 participants participated in this study and they were administered with NEO FI and Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory. Through the statistical analysis using multiple regression found that people low on agreeableness were more likely to use their mobile phones to play games. The findings also imply an interplay between personality traits and excessive or problematic use on mobile phones that is relevant to proposed innovations such as gambling on mobile phones.

Hooper and Zhou (2007) conducted a study on Addictive, Dependent, Compulsive? A Study of Mobile Phone Usage address the claims that mobile phone usage is addictive. This study was undertaken to categorize mobile phone usage behaviour based on the underlying motivation. In a survey of 184 students,

six categories were identified, addictive, compulsive, dependent, habitual, voluntary and mandatory. From the results of the study it was found that the behaviour cannot be conclusively categorized as any specific type, although there was stronger support for mobile phone usage being categorized as dependent, voluntary or mandatory behaviour, rather than being addictive, compulsive or habitual.

Thomee, Eklof, Gustafsson, Nilsson and Hagberg (2007) conducted a study on Prevalence of perceived stress, symptoms of depression and sleep disturbances in relation to information and communication technology (ICT) use among young adults – an explorative prospective study with the aim to prospectively investigate whether high quantity of information and communication technology (ICT) use is a risk factor for developing psychological symptoms among young ICT users. 1127 college students responded to a questionnaire at baseline and at 1-year follow-up. Exposure variables, include different types of ICT use, and effect variables, include perceived stress, symptoms of depression and sleep disturbances, were assessed. Prevalence ratios were computed, based on symptom-free subjects at baseline and prevalence of symptoms at follow-up. The results indicated that for women, high combined use of computer and mobile phone at baseline was associated with increased risk of reporting prolonged stress and symptoms of depression at follow-up, and number of short message service (SMS) messages per day was associated with prolonged stress also, online chatting was associated with prolonged stress, and e-mailing and online chatting were associated with symptoms of depression, while Internet surfing increased the risk of developing sleep disturbances. For men, number of mobile phone calls and SMS messages per day were associated with sleep disturbances. SMS use was also associated with symptoms of depression. The findings suggest that ICT may have an impact on psychological health, although causal mechanisms are unclear.

In a study conducted by Walsh, White and Young (2008) on Over-connected? A qualitative exploration of the relationship between Australian youth

and their mobile phones reported a qualitative exploration of psychological factors relating to mobile phone use amongst Australian youth. In focus group discussions, 32 participants, aged between 16 and 24 years, had took part. Thematic data analysis focussed on identifying the psychological benefits arising from mobile phone use and whether mobile phone addiction was occurring amongst this group. The result of the study indicated that mobile phone use was believed to provide numerous benefits to users and is an intrinsic part of most young people's lives. It emerged that some young people are extremely attached to their mobile phone with symptoms of behavioural addiction revealed in participants' descriptions of their mobile phone use.

Butt and Philips (2008) conducted a study on Personality and self-reported mobile phone use examined amounts and types of mobile phone use from extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and self-esteem. Participants were 112 mobile phone owners. The participants reported on their use of their mobile phones and completed the NEO-FFI and the Coopersmith self-esteem inventory. The results of the study indicated extraverts and disagreeable extraverts reported spending more time calling, and changing ring tone and wallpaper, implying the use of the mobile phone as a means of stimulation and they were less likely to value incoming calls. In messaging using SMS the neurotic, disagreeable, unconscientious and extroverted spent more time.

Leung (2008) conducted a study on linking psychosocial attributes to addiction and improper use of the mobile phone among adolescents in Hong Kong with the purpose to identify addiction symptoms that are uniquely associated with mobile phone use among adolescents in Hong Kong and to examine how demographics and psychological attributes (such as leisure boredom, sensation seeking, and self-esteem) of individuals are related to the addiction symptoms and to explore how these attributes, mobile phone addiction symptoms, and social capital can predict improper use of the mobile phone. Data were gathered from 402 participants aged 14–20 in Hong Kong. By using exploratory factor analysis researcher has identified four addiction symptoms: “losing control and receiving

complaints,” “anxiety and craving,” “withdrawal/escape,” and “productivity loss.” Results of the study revealed that the higher one scored on leisure boredom and sensation seeking, the higher the likelihood one was addicted, conversely, participants who scored high on self-esteem demonstrated less of such tendency.

Weisskrich (2008) conducted an empirical research on Parenting by Cell Phone: Parental Monitoring of Adolescents and Family Relations. The study measured the frequency, duration, and nature of calls may relate to parents’ and to adolescents’ perceptions of truthfulness and family relationships. 196 participants (13% father–son, 11% father–daughter, 30% mother–son, and 46% mother–daughter) participated in this study. They had completed the questionnaire indicating cell phone use, their truthfulness of activities, the nature of their calls to one another, and family relationships. The parents were, on average, 45.38 years old and were 83% Euroamerican, 9% Asian American, 3% Latino, 3% African American, 2% Mixed ethnicity, and 1% American Indian. The adolescents were, on average, 16.25 years old and were 77% Euroamerican, 9% Asian American, 4% Latino, 3% African American, 8% Mixed ethnicity, and .5% American Indian. Correlational analyses and multiple regression analyses were used for the analysis of the data. Results revealed that parents who called more frequently reported less truthfulness when speaking to their adolescents via cell phone and greater frequency in parental calls was associated with less adolescent-reported truthfulness. The multiple regression analyses for parents indicate, calls when upset were associated with less parental knowledge and poorer family relations.

Billieux, Linden, Rochat (2008) conducted a study on the role of impulsivity in actual and problematic use of the mobile phone. The main aims of the present study were, to validate a new questionnaire assessing problematic mobile phone use: The Problematic Mobile Phone Use Questionnaire (PMPUQ), and to investigate the relationships between the PMPUQ and the multi-faceted construct of impulsivity. 339 participants had participated in this study and they were screened using the PMPUQ and the UPPS Impulsive Behaviour Scale

(UPPS) which assesses four distinct components associated with impulsive behaviours (urgency, lack of premeditation, lack of perseverance and sensation seeking). The results of the study showed that the PMPUQ has an acceptable fit and assesses four different dimensions of problematic mobile phone use (prohibited use, dangerous use, dependence, financial problems). While each facet of impulsivity played a specific role in mobile phones use, urgency appeared to be the strongest predictor of problematic use.

Igarashi, Motoyoshi, Takai, and Yoshida (2008) conducted a study on No mobile, no life: Self-perception and text-message dependency among Japanese high school students investigate how self-perception of text-message dependency leads to psychological/behavioral symptoms in relation to personality factors. Japanese high school students completed a self-report questionnaire measuring frequency of text-messages, self-perception of text-message dependency, psychological/behavioral symptoms, extroversion and neuroticism. Self-perception of text-message dependency was composed of three factors: perception of excessive use, emotional reaction, and relationship maintenance. Although message frequency was significantly related to psychological/behavioral symptoms, this effect was qualified by self-perception and personality factors. In particular, self-perception of text-message dependency strongly affected psychological/behavioral symptoms. Importance of distinction between extroverted and neurotic text-message dependency through the process of self-perception of maladaptive behavior is discussed

Ha, Chin, Park, Ryu and Yu (2008) conducted a study on Characteristics of Excessive Cellular Phone Use in Korean Adolescents to evaluate the possible psychological problems related to excessive cellular phone use in adolescents. 595 adolescents were the participants of this study. Results of the study revealed that the potentially excessive user group had a tendency to identify themselves with their cellular phones and to have difficulties in controlling usage and they expressed more depressive symptoms, higher interpersonal anxiety, and lower self-esteem.

Toda, Ezoe, Nishi, Mukai, Goto and Morimoto (2008) conducted a study on mobile phone dependence on female students and perceived parental rearing attitudes investigated the associations between mobile phone dependence and perceived parental rearing attitudes. The sample population consist of 155 female students. Participants completed the Mobile Phone Dependence Questionnaire (MPDQ) and the Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI). The results revealed that in relation to maternal rearing attitudes, a statistically significant difference in MPDQ scores between respondents who fell in the categories for high care or high protection and low care or low protection. In relation to paternal rearing attitudes, no such difference was apparent. Thus, these findings suggest that the childhood relationship with the mother may be associated with mobile phone dependence.

Lee, Lee and Shin (2009) conducted a study on The Effects of Personal, Familial, School Environmental Variables on Mobile Phone Addiction by Adolescent examined effective variables influencing on adolescents' mobile phone addiction. 666 middle or high school students who had their own mobile phone in Gwangju were the participants of the study. Data were analysed with frequency, percentage, Cronbach's α , mean, SD, Pearson's correlation and multiple regression using SPSS/PC WIN 14.0 program. The major findings of the study were the most frequently used function of student mobile phones was text message and they used text message more than 41 times a day. Mostly they were talking to the same sex friends on the phone and the monthly charges ranged from 20,000 to 30,000 won. In general, they called to their friends after school. Their parents' attitudes toward their mobile phone using showed that the most of their parents did not care about their children's mobile phone use. The restriction of using their mobile phone at school was normal. The average scores of mobile phone addiction were lower than median (3.0) but, self-esteem, self-control, family strengths, peer conformity and school life adaptation were higher than median. The adolescence's mobile phone additions were influenced by peer conformity, school life adaptation, school levels, sex and self-control.

Chen and Katz (2009) conducted a study on Extending family to school life: College students' use of the mobile phone seeks to understand if there is a

pattern between college students' mobile phone usage and their family members at home, and to what degree it affects their college life. 40 undergraduate students who were majoring in communication studies participated in the study and they participated in three focus group interviews conducted on February 1, February 2, and February 15, 2006. One of the main findings is that the mobile phone is “a must” for college students to keep in contact with their family and college students use mobile phones to have more frequent contact with their family and to fulfil family roles. College students also utilize mobile phones to share experiences and emotional and physical support with their parents.

Ezoe, Toda, Yoshimura, Naritomi, Den and Morimoto (2009) conducted a study on Relationships of personality and lifestyle with mobile phone dependence among female nursing students. The participants 132 female college students attending a nursing school in Osaka, Japan who were administered with Mobile Phone Dependence Questionnaire, self-report questionnaire. To analyse the data multiple regression analysis was used. The results indicated that scores for extroversion and neuroticism were positively related to the score of the Mobile Phone Dependence Questionnaire while the score for healthy practices was negatively related to that of the MPDQ. These findings suggest that mobile phone dependence in female college students is associated with elevated traits of extroversion and neuroticism, as well as an unhealthy lifestyle.

In a study conducted by Zulkefly and Baharudin (2009) on Mobile Phone use Amongst Students in a University in Malaysia: Its Correlates and Relationship to Psychological Health explored the extent of mobile phone use and personal and family factors related to the mobile phone use and, the relationship between problem mobile phone use and psychological health. 386 students who were selected through the multi-stage cluster sampling completed a self-administered questionnaire. The results revealed that the students were found to spend on average 6 hours daily on their mobiles. Text message was the most used feature and peers were the most frequently contacted person. Male and younger students were more interested with other features like MMS and GPRS of the mobiles and

the students from higher income families spent more time and money on their mobile phone. Additional analyses showed that students with lower self-esteem and spent more time on the phone were more likely to be problem phone users. Also, adolescents who spend more time on their mobile phone were also more vulnerable to psychological disturbances.

Beranuy, Obrest, Carbonell, Chamarro (2009) conducted a study on Problematic Internet and mobile phone use and clinical symptoms in college students: The role of emotional intelligence examined the maladaptive use of the Internet and the mobile phone and its relationship to symptoms of psychological distress and mental disorder, as well as to the possible role of perceived emotional intelligence in this relationship. 365 undergraduate university freshmen at Ramon Llull University, Barcelona, Spain, majoring in Psychology, Education, Health Studies and Journalism and Broadcasting were the participants. The scales assessing the negative consequences of maladaptive use of both the Internet (CERI) and the mobile phone (CERM), a self-report scale on Perceived Emotional Intelligence (TMMS-24), and a clinical instrument to check for complaints related to the presence of psychological distress (*Symptom Checklist-90-R*; SCL-90-R) are used for the purpose of the study. Results indicated that psychological distress is related to maladaptive use of both the Internet and the mobile phone. Females scored higher than males on the mobile phone questionnaire, showing more negative consequences of its maladaptive use. With respect to major study, students of Journalism and Broadcasting showed a more maladaptive pattern of Internet use than students of other majors. The components of Perceived Emotional Intelligence contributed to the explanation of the variance of the general indicators of psychological distress, but to a lesser degree than maladaptive use of Internet and mobile phone.

King, Valenca and Nardi (2010) conducted a case study on Nomophobia: The Mobile Phone in Panic Disorder with Agoraphobia: Reducing Phobias or Worsening of Dependence? In the report of the case study, researchers discuss a

hypothesis for the development, in individuals with panic disorder and agoraphobia, of dependence on his or her mobile phone. Researchers presented the case report of a patient who has continuously kept his mobile phone with him since 1995 because of his over whelming need to feel safe and to be able immediately call emergency services and the people he trusts when he feels sick. The patient was treated with medication and cognitive behaviour therapy and patient showed significant change in his panic disorder and phobias. But there has been no change in his nomophobia.

An article done by Dixti, Shukla, Bhagwat, Bindal, Goyal, Zaidi, and Shrivastava (2010) on A Study to Evaluate Mobile Phone Dependence among Students of a Medical College and Associated Hospital of Central India examined to find out the prevalence of nomophobia in the Indian scenario considering the tremendous increase in the number of mobile phone users in the past decade. This study was a cross-sectional study conducted amongst 200 M.B.B.S. students from M.G.M. Medical College, Indore. Students who are both day scholars and hostelers, who use mobile phone for more than one-year duration for at least 1-2 h per day were included in the study. An adopted version of questionnaire developed by Dr. Marcus L. Raines was used to study mobile phone dependence among the study subjects. The study population comprised 106 males and 94 females; of these 92 were day scholars and 108 were residents of hostels in between the age group of 17 to 28 years. Out of the entire study group, 18.5% students were found to be nomophobes. In gender-based observation, 19% males and 18% females were found to be nomophobes. Twenty one out of 108 hostelers and 16 out of 92-day scholars were found to be nomophobic. No statistically significant association was observed in relation to gender, place of stay and academic sessions with nomophobia score.

Koo (2010) conducted a study on Cell Phone Addiction in Highschool Students and Its Predictors to identify cell phone addiction in high school students and variables predicting this addiction. The participants were 469 adolescents from four high schools. Data were collected through self-report questionnaires, and

analysed using the SPSS program. The results of the study indicated that, about the high school students, 88.4% reported being average users, 7.5%, heavy users, and 4.1%, cell phone addicted. Cell phone addiction was significantly correlated with immediate self-control, self-efficacy, depression, and peer support. Predictors of cell phone addiction were the following: receiving text message on weekends, immediate self-control, main use (text message), minute per call on weekdays, listening to music, gender (female), monthly call charges, depression, person called (friends), and self-efficacy. These factors explained 39% of variance in cell phone addiction. The above findings indicate that cell phone addiction in high school students was influenced by gender, cell phone use, and psychological factors.

In a study conducted by Jin and Park (2010) on In-Person Contact Begets Calling and Texting: Interpersonal Motives for Cell Phone Use, Face-to-Face Interaction, and Loneliness examined how cell-phone use is related to interpersonal motives for using cell phones, face-to-face communication, and loneliness. 232 college students who owned a cell phone were surveyed for the study. The findings revealed that affection and inclusion were relatively strong motivations for using voice calls and text messaging, and that interpersonal motives were positively related to the amount of cell-phone use, including calling and texting. The amount of face-to-face interaction was positively associated with the participants' cell-phone use and their interpersonal motives for using cell phones, the more the participants engaged in face-to-face interaction with other people, the higher their motives were and the more frequent cell-phone use was. Loneliness did not have a direct relation to cell-phone use but, the participants with higher levels of loneliness were less likely to engage in face-to-face social interaction, which led them to use cell phones less and to be less motivated to use cell phones for interpersonal purposes.

Lu, Watanabe, Liu, Uji, Shono and Kitamura (2011) conducted a study on Internet and mobile phone text-messaging dependency: Factor structure and correlation with dysphoric mood among Japanese adults. The participants of the

study were 92 men and 54 women. The scales used in the study were Internet Addiction Questionnaire (IAQ), the Self-perception of Text-message Dependency Scale (STDS), and the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS). The results of the study indicated that prevalence of “light Internet addiction” and “severe Internet addiction” were 33.7% and 6.1% for men whereas they were 24.6% and 1.8% for women. The prevalence of “light mobile phone text-message addiction” was 3.1% for men and 5.4% for women. There were no cases of “severe text-message addiction”. Researchers performed an EFA of the IAQ and STDS subscales, and this revealed a two-factor structure – Internet Dependency and Text-message Dependency. An STDS subscale, Relationship Maintenance, showed a moderate factor loading of the factor that reflected unhealthy Internet use. In a path analysis, Depression was associated with both Internet Dependency and Text-message Dependency whereas Anxiety was associated negatively with Text-message Dependency. These results suggest applicability of the IAQ and STDS and that Internet and Text-message Dependences are factorially distinct.

Walsh, White, Cox and Young (2011) conducted a study on Keeping in constant touch: The predictors of young Australians’ mobile phone involvement. The participants of the study 292 young Australians, aged 16–24 years. The participants completed an online survey assessing the effects of self-identity, in-group norm, the need to belong, and self-esteem on their frequency of mobile phone use and mobile phone involvement, Structural equation modelling revealed that age and self-identity significantly predicted the frequency of mobile phone use. In contrast, age, gender, self-identity and in-group norm predicted young people’s mobile phone involvement. Neither self-esteem nor the need to belong significantly predicted mobile phone behavior.

Thomme, Harenstam and Hagberg (2011) conducted a study on Mobile phone use and stress, sleep disturbances, and symptoms of depression among young adults - a prospective cohort study investigate whether there are associations between psychosocial aspects of mobile phone use and mental health symptoms in a prospective cohort of young adults. The study group consisted of

young adults 20-24 years old (n = 4156), who responded to a questionnaire at baseline and 1-year follow-up. Mobile phone exposure variables included frequency of use, but also more qualitative variables: demands on availability, perceived stressfulness of accessibility, being awakened at night by the mobile phone, and personal overuse of the mobile phone. Mental health outcomes included current stress, sleep disorders, and symptoms of depression. Prevalence ratios (PRs) were calculated for cross-sectional and prospective associations between exposure variables and mental health outcomes for men and women separately. There were cross-sectional associations between *high* compared to *low mobile phone use* and stress, sleep disturbances, and symptoms of depression for the men and women. When excluding respondents reporting mental health symptoms at baseline, *high mobile phone use* was associated with sleep disturbances and symptoms of depression for the men and symptoms of depression for the women at 1-year follow-up. All qualitative variables had cross-sectional associations with mental health outcomes. In prospective analysis, *overuse* was associated with stress and sleep disturbances for women, and *high accessibility stress* was associated with stress, sleep disturbances, and symptoms of depression for both men and women.

Augner and Hacker (2011) conducted a study on Associations between problematic mobile phone use and psychological parameters in young adults aims to address possible associations between excessive or dysfunctional use of mobile phones and certain psychological variables. The participants of the study were 196 young adults. A survey was arranged to measure Problematic Mobile Phone Use, daily mobile phone use in minutes, use of short message service (SMS) and also included psychological and health variables (e.g., chronic stress, depression). Statistical analysis indicated that chronic stress, low emotional stability, female gender, young age, depression, and extraversion are associated with Problematic Mobile Phone Use.

Aggarwal, Grover and Basu (2012) conducted a study on Mobile Phone Use by Resident Doctors: Tendency to Addiction-Like Behaviour to explore the

pattern of mobile phone use among resident doctors and evaluate the same using substance dependence criteria. Participants were 192 resident Doctors. The participants were asked to complete a 23-item questionnaire, specifically designed for the present study based on the ICD-10 dependence syndrome criteria and CAGE questionnaire. The results indicated that 82% percent of the resident doctors have been using mobile phone for more than five years and 72% of them have been using it for more than an hour every day. Making and receiving calls was the main purpose of use among 90% of the resident doctors, followed by texting and for using Internet services. Nearly forty percent of the participants fulfilled the ICD-10 substance dependence criteria, while 27.1% of the subjects scored two or more on the CAGE questionnaire. Finally, 23.4% of the subjects self-rated themselves to be “addicted” to mobile phones.

In a study conducted by Hong, Chiu and Huang (2012) on A model of the relationship between psychological characteristics, mobile phone addiction and use of mobile phones by Taiwanese university female students investigated the relationship between psychological characteristics, mobile phone addiction and use of mobile phones. The participants of the study were 269 Taiwanese female university students. They were administered Rosenberg’s self-esteem scale, Lai’s personality inventory, and a mobile phone usage questionnaire and mobile phone addiction scale. The result of the study found that social extraversion and anxiety have positive effects on mobile phone addiction, and self-esteem has negative effects on mobile phone addiction. Mobile phone addiction has a positive predictive effect on mobile phone usage behavior.

Yang, Brown and Braun (2013) conducted a study on From Facebook to cell calls: Layers of electronic intimacy in college students’ interpersonal relationships examined usage patterns of mobile phones among college students. The participants were 34 college students from six geographically stratified focus group interviews. The analyses of the study revealed a sequence of media use tied

to stages of relationship development from Facebook in early stages to instant messaging and then cell phones as a relationship progressed. Males were less explicit about the sequence, except when referring to cross-sex relationships. were less explicit about the sequence, except when referring to cross-sex relationships.

Khang, Kim and Kim (2013) conducted a study on Self-traits and motivations as antecedents of digital media flow and addiction: The Internet, mobile phones, and video games aimed to explore levels of media consumption, self-traits and individual motivations as antecedents of media flow and addiction. By focusing specifically on the use of three prominent digital media forms—the Internet, video games, and mobile phones, and four psychological factors—self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-control and dispositional media use motives this study examined the influence of each on media users’ experiences of flow and levels of addiction for each of the mediums considered. The results showed that self-control most significantly affected both users’ flow and addiction in relation to their use of the Internet, video games, and mobile phones. Also, two dimensions of dispositional media use motives, namely pastime and self-presence, exhibited significant associations with flow and addiction for users’ consumption of two or all three media types. The amount of time spent using media was significantly related to the flow and addiction associated with all digital media usage.

Chiu, Hong and Chiu (2013) conducted a study on An Analysis on the Correlation and Gender Difference between College Students’ Internet Addiction and Mobile Phone Addiction in Taiwan with the aim to analyse the correlation between the two traits and to discuss the influence confirming that the gender has difference. The study collected 448 college students on an island as study participants with 61.2% males and 38.8% females. The participants were issued mobile phone addiction scale and internet addiction scale adopts the structural equation model to process the collect data. The result of the study show that mobile phone addiction and internet addiction are positively related, female college students score higher than male ones in the aspect of mobile addiction.

Toda and Ezoe (2013) conducted a study on Multifactorial study of mobile phone dependence in medical students: relationship to health-related lifestyle, type A behaviour, and depressive state investigated factors contributing to mobile phone dependence. The sample size constitutes of 139 medical students. The participants were administered with Mobile Phone Dependence Questionnaire MPDQ, a self-reporting questionnaire designed to evaluate mobile phone dependence, Health Practice Index (HPI), Tokai University Type A Pattern Scale designed to assess patterns of behaviour for Japanese population and Beck Depression Inventory-II (BDI-II). Through the statistical analysis using Multivariate logistic regression analysis data was analysed. The results revealed that scores for poor health- related lifestyle, Type A behaviour pattern, and presence of depression are independently associated with degree of mobile phone dependency. These findings suggest that persons with an unhealthy lifestyle, Type A behaviour traits, or depression might benefit from mobile phone use guidance.

In a study conducted by Dir, Cyders, Coskunpinar (2013) on from the bar to the bed via mobile phone: A first test of the role of problematic alcohol use, sexting, and impulsivity-related traits in sexual hook-ups provided the first test of a causal, temporal model in which sexting mediates the relationship between problematic alcohol use and sexual hook-ups; and impulsivity-related traits and alcohol-related expectancies predict problematic alcohol use and sexting. The participants were 611 college students in which 77.3% were female. The results of the study were analysed through a causal path model using structural equation modelling. The results indicated that , Problematic alcohol use ($b = .05, p < .001$) and sexting ($b = .14, p < .05$) were related to sexual hook-ups; and sensation seeking and negative urgency were related to problematic alcohol use ($b = .96, p < .001, b = .60, p < .05$) and sexting ($b = .11, p < .05, b = .12, p < .001$); also, problematic alcohol use was indirectly related to hook-ups through sexting ($b = .01, p < .01$).

Lee, Chang, Lin and Cheng (2014) conducted a study on the dark side of smartphone usage: Psychological traits, compulsive behaviour and technostress

investigates the dark side of the smartphone trend and examined the link between psychological traits and the compulsive behaviors of smartphone users, and the stress caused by those compulsive behaviors. An empirical study was conducted upon 325 participants and compared Structural Equation Modeling with competing models. The results of the study show that compulsive usage of smartphone and technostress are positively related to psychological traits including locus of control, social interaction anxiety, materialism and the need for touch. Gender differences are also found in the aforementioned relationships.

Lepp, Barkley and Karpinski (2014) conducted a study on the relationship between cell phone use, academic performance, anxiety, and satisfaction with Life in college students investigated the relationships between total cell phone use and texting on Satisfaction with Life. The participants of the study were 496 college students. It was hypothesized that the relationship would be mediated by Academic Performance (GPA) and anxiety. Two separate path models indicated that the cell phone use and texting models had good overall fit. The results showed that cell phone use and texting was negatively related to GPA and positively related to anxiety; in turn, GPA was positively related satisfaction with Life to while anxiety was negatively related to satisfaction with Life.

Roberts, Yaya and Manolis (2014) conducted a study on *The Invisible Addiction: Cell-phone Activities among Male and Female College Students* with the objective to investigate which cell-phone activities are associated with cell-phone addiction. Participants are required to a questionnaire which contain a measure of cell-phone addiction and questions that asked how much time participants spent daily on 24 cell-phone activities. About 164 College undergraduates had participated in this study through an online survey. The findings of the study revealed cell-phone activities are associated significantly with cell-phone addiction (e.g., Instagram, Pinterest), as well as activities that one might logically assume did not associated with this form of addiction (eg., Internet use and Gaming). Cell-phone activities that drive cell-phone addiction were found to vary considerably across male and female cell-phone users.

Griffiths (2014) conducted a case study on Does Internet and Computer "Addiction" Exist? Some Case Study Evidence. In the study it was seen that to date, there is very little empirical evidence that computing activities (i.e., internet use, hacking, programming) are addictive. Anecdotal evidence indicates that the typical "addict" is a teenager, usually male, with little or no social life, and little or no self-confidence. This article emphasised on five case studies of excessive computer usage. The results of the study showed that of the five cases, only two of them describe "addicted" subjects. The excessive usage in the majority of cases was purely symptomatic and was highlighted how the subjects used the Internet/computer to counteract other deficiencies.

A study was conducted by Babadhi, Zamani, Abedhini, Akbari and Hedayati (2014) on the relationship between mental health and addiction to mobile phones among university students of Shahrekord, Iran to investigate the behaviour of mobile phone addicts and mental health of university students of Shahrekord, Iran. The study population consisted of 296 students who were randomly selected from Payame Noor University, Islamic Azad University, and University of Medical Sciences. the Symptom Checklist-90-R(SCL-90-R) questionnaire, and the 32-point scale questionnaire of behaviour associated with mobile phone use (Hooper and Zhou, 2007) questionnaires were used for the study. Data analysis was done through statistical analysis, frequency distribution, mean, one-way ANOVA, chi-square, and LSD (Least significance difference) using SPSS software. The results of the study showed university students of Shahrekord, based on the six categories of mobile addiction behaviours, were mostly placed in habitual behaviours addiction and intentional (21.49%) categories. By reviewing mental health indicators, it was found that students were affected with depressive disorder (17.30%), obsessive compulsive disorder (14.20%), and interpersonal sensitivity (13.80%). The results showed that there was a significant inverse relationship between mental health and habitual behaviours ($r = -0.417$), dependence ($r = -0.317$), addiction ($r = -0.330$), and incontinence ($r = -0.309$) in using mobile phone ($P < 0.001$).

Mok, Choi, Kim, Choi, Lee, Ahn, Choi and Song (2014) conducted a study on Latent class analysis on internet and smartphone addiction in college students aimed to classify distinct subgroups of people who use both smartphone and the internet based on addiction severity levels and how the classified groups differed in terms of sex and psychosocial traits was examined. The participants were 178 males and 270 females constitute a total of total of 448 university students in Korea. The participants were given a set of questionnaires examining the severity of their internet and smartphone addictions, their mood, their anxiety, and their personality. The statistical methods used for the analysis of the data were Latent class analysis and ANOVA. The results of the study indicated significant differences between males and females were found for most of the variables (all $P < 0.05$). In terms of internet usage, males were more addicted than females ($P < 0.05$); however, regarding smartphone, this pattern was reversed ($P < 0.001$). Also, each sex showed clear patterns with the three-class model based on likelihood level of internet and smartphone addiction ($P < 0.001$). A common trend for psychosocial trait factors was found for both sexes: anxiety levels and neurotic personality traits increased with addiction severity levels (all $P < 0.001$). The Lie dimension was inversely related to the addiction severity levels (all $P < 0.01$).

In a study conducted by Bernroider, Krumay, Marigol and Sebasatin (2014) on Not Without My Smartphone! Impacts of Smartphone Addiction on Smartphone Usage explored the potential negative effects of smartphone addiction on beliefs and implications for technology use. Through this study, researchers investigated whether beliefs distorted by addiction, termed maladaptive cognitions, influence usage behaviour and thereby potentially lead to smartphone over-use by using a quantitative survey linking smartphone addiction with technology acceptance. Out of 296 responses based on PLS-SEM results, researchers claimed that beliefs are positively inflated by smartphone addiction in relation to perceived security, usefulness, and enjoyment, and that these beliefs ultimately bias a person's smartphone usage behaviour.

Lee, Cho, Kim and Noh (2014) conducted a study on Smartphone Addiction in University Students and Its Implication for Learning focused on the level of university students' addiction to their smartphones and to understand the difference between self-regulated learning, learning flow, based on smartphone addiction level. The participants were 210 university students in Seoul the results indicated that the higher the addiction level is, the lower level of self-regulated learning the students have, as well as low level of flow when studying. A further interview for smartphone addiction group was also conducted, and it has been found that the smartphone addict learners are constantly interrupted by the other applications on the phones when they are studying, and does not have enough control over their smartphone learning plan and its process.

Vacaru and Sheridan (2014) conducted a study on New Zealand Youth and Their Relationships with Mobile Phone Technology aimed to qualitatively explore the relationship between young people and mobile phones, with a specific focus on problematic use. For the study five focus groups were comprising of 45 participants aged 13 to 18 were selected. Focus groups were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim and the data were thematically analysed using a general inductive approach. The analysis revealed five main themes, relating to the practicality of using a mobile phone, socialisation via mobile phones, harm caused by use of mobile phone technology, and the development of attachment and addiction to a mobile phone. The findings indicated that young people recognise problematic behaviour in relation to mobile phone use, and note that such behaviour is linked to physical, social and psychological consequences.

In a study conducted by Lee, Song, Lee, Ko, Lee, Kim, Chung (2014) on Hooked on smartphones: an exploratory study on smartphone overuse among college students analysed how the usage patterns of smartphone overuse is related to negative aspects such as sleep deprivation and attention deficits in young adults. The study was conducted among 95 college students using surveys, logged data, and interviews. The participants were divided into risk and non-risk groups based on self-reported rating scale for smartphone overuse. The usage data of the participants were analysed to identify between-group usage differences, which

ranged from the overall usage patterns to app-specific usage patterns. The results of the study show that the risk group has longer usage time per day and different diurnal usage patterns and the risk group users are more susceptible to push notifications, and tend to consume more online content.

Fernandez, Serrano, Blanxart and Gibson(2014) Prevalence of Problematic Mobile Phone Use in British Adolescents. The participants were 1,026 secondary school pupils aged between 11 and 18 years. The scale used for the study was Spanish version Mobile Phone Problem Use Scale to estimate the prevalence of possible problematic users. The analysis of the study showed the prevalence of problematic users among the students was 10%, and the typical problematic user tended to be an adolescent between 11 and 14 years old, studying in a public school, who considered themselves to be an expert user of this technology, who made extensive use of their mobile phone, and who attributed the same problem of use among their peers. These users presented notable scores in all the symptoms covered by the scale used to assess problematic use.

Tavakolizadeh, Atarodi. Ahmadpour, and Pourgheisar, (2014) The Prevalence of Excessive Mobile Phone Use and its Relation with Mental Health Status and Demographic Factors Among the Students of Gonabad University of Medical Sciences aimed to determine the prevalence of excessive mobile phone use and its relationship with mental health status and demographic factors on the students of Gonabad University of Medical Sciences. 700 students in the university were the participants. The scales used for the study were, GHQ-28, mobile phone addiction scale. The statistical method used for the analysis of the data were Chi-square test, student t-test and ANOVA in SPSS-18 software the results of the study revealed the prevalence of excessive mobile phone use was seen on 36.7% of the students. There was a significant relation between the prevalence of excessive mobile phone use and mental health status in general ($P > 0.05$), and also somatization ($P < 0.05$), anxiety and depression specifically ($P < 0.05$), but no significant relation was found between the excessive mobile phone use and social dysfunction ($P < 0.05$), and also sex, age, marital status, settlement,

and academic achievement ($P < 0.05$). There was also a significant relation between education degree in MSc and doctoral degree students and the prevalence of excessive mobile phone.

Smetaniuk (2014) conducted a study on A preliminary investigation into the prevalence and prediction of problematic cell phone use explored into the behaviour of excessive use of mobile phones as a pathological behaviour. Two studies investigated criteria for problematic mobile phone usage by examining 301 students in Study 1 and 362 nonstudents in Study 2 responses to a set of adapted mobile phone addiction inventories. Study 1 investigated cell phone addiction inventories as constructs designed to measure problematic cell phone use. Whereas, study 2 sought to predict age, depression, extraversion, emotional stability, impulse control, and self-esteem as independent variables that augment respondents' perceptions of problematic use. The results from Study 1 and Study 2 indicated that 10 to 25% of the participants tested exhibited problematic cell phone usage. Additionally, age, depression, extraversion, and low impulse control are the most suitable predictors for problematic use.

In a literature review by Barashdi, Bouazza and Jabur (2015) on Smartphone Addiction among University Undergraduates: A Literature Review reviewed the growing literature on Smartphone addiction among university undergraduates to identify trends. The literature review was done based on literatures published during the period 1996- 2013. By adopting the thematic structure original research papers were reviewed in this study. The paper also reviewed and examined the relationship between Smartphone addiction among undergraduates and their academic achievement and significant differences in addiction among undergraduates according to their gender, field of study, parents' educational level and family income level. The findings of the literature reviews show some studies have shown gender differences in Smartphone addictive use, others have proved that gender and Smartphone use are not significantly related and only a few studies have examined the relationship between addiction and students' field of study. In some of the articles reviewed researchers have found

that humanities students have a higher addiction level than physical science students. The results regarding Smartphone usage and family income had showed contrary indications. Because so far, little is known about the extent of the relationship between socio-economic factors (such as parental education and family income), mobile phone use behaviour and addiction among university students.

Wook, Jin, Seok, Heejune, Jeung et.al (2015) conducted a study on Comparison of risk and protective factors associated with smartphone addiction and Internet addiction assessed the risk and protective factors associated with smartphone addiction in college students and compared these factors to those linked to Internet addiction. 448 college students in South Korea completed the Smartphone Addiction Scale, the Young's Internet Addiction Test, the Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test, the Beck Depression Inventory I, the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Trait Version), the Character Strengths Test, and the Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale. The data were analysed using multiple linear regression analyses. The risk factors for smartphone addiction were female gender, Internet use, alcohol use, and anxiety, while the protective factors were depression and temperance. In contrast, the risk factors for Internet addiction were male gender, smartphone use, anxiety, and wisdom/knowledge, while the protective factor was courage. These differences may result from unique features of smartphones, such as high availability and primary use as a tool for interpersonal relationships.

Haug, Castro, Kwon, Filler, Kowatsch and Schaub (2015) conducted a study on Smartphone use and smartphone addiction among young people in Switzerland investigated indicators of smartphone use, smartphone addiction, and their associations with demographic and health behaviour-related variables in young people. The study sample consist of 1,519 students from 127 Swiss vocational school classes. For assessing Smartphone addiction, a short version of the Smartphone Addiction Scale for Adolescents (SAS-SV) was used. Logistic regression analyses were conducted to investigate demographic and health-related

predictors of smartphone addiction. The results of the study indicated that Smartphone addiction occurred in 256 (16.9%) of the 1,519 students and reporting that social networking was the most personally relevant smartphone function associated with smartphone addiction. The Smartphone addiction was more prevalent in younger adolescents of age 15 to 16 years compared with young adults of age 19 years and older. The result also shows alcohol and tobacco consumption were unrelated to smartphone addiction.

Deursen, Bolle, Hegner and Kommers (2015) conducted a study on Modelling habitual and addictive smartphone behaviour: The role of smartphone usage types, emotional intelligence, social stress, self-regulation, age, and gender investigated the role of process and social oriented smartphone usage, emotional intelligence, social stress, self-regulation, gender, and age in relation to habitual and addictive smartphone behavior. 386 respondents were responded through an online survey for this study. The results showed that habitual smartphone use is an important contributor to addictive smartphone behavior. The process related smartphone use is a strong determinant for both developing habitual and addictive smartphone behavior. People who extensively use their smartphones for social purposes develop smartphone habits faster, which in turn might lead to addictive smartphone behavior. In this study, researchers did not find an influence of emotional intelligence on habitual or addictive smartphone behavior, while social stress positively influences addictive smartphone behavior, and a failure of self-regulation seems to cause a higher risk of addictive smartphone behavior. Also, men experience less social stress than women, because women have a higher chance in developing habitual or addictive smartphone behavior. The results also indicated age negatively affects process and social usage, and social stress.

In a study conducted by Lepp, Barkley and Esfahani (2015) on Exploring the relationships between college students' cell phone use, personality and leisure examined the cell phone use based on personality and leisure. The participants were 454 college students and they were classified into distinct groups based on their cell phone use and personality traits, and then compared each group's leisure

experiences. The participants completed validated surveys assessing personality (Big 5) and dimensions of the leisure experience (boredom, challenge, distress, awareness) and demographics of cell phone use. The result was assessed through cluster analysis, produced a valid, three-group solution, consisting of “High Use” group characterized by using cell phones for 10 hours per day, and two Low Use groups using cell phones for 3 hours per day. The low groups again characterized by divergent personalities like extroverted and introverted. Through ANOVA each group’s leisure experiences was compared and found that the “Low Use Extrovert” had significantly less boredom, greater preference for challenge, and greater awareness of opportunities and benefits than the other groups and the “High Use” group experienced significantly more leisure distress than the other groups.

Ghasempour and Mahmoodi (2015) conducted a study on the role of depression and attachment styles in predicting student’s addiction to cell phones which aimed at investigating the role of depression and attachment styles in predicting cell phone addiction among college students. The study was a descriptive correlational study, with a sample of 100 students from Payame Noor University, Reyneh Center, Iran, Participants were asked to complete the adult attachment inventory (AAI), Beck depression inventory-13 (BDI-13) and the cell phone overuse scale (COS). Results of the study using stepwise multiple regression analysis showed that depression and avoidant attachment style were the best predictors of students' cell phone addiction ($R(2) = 0.23$).

Choi (2015) conducted a study on Physical activity level, sleep quality, attention control and self-regulated learning along to smartphone addiction among college students to investigate physical activity level, sleep quality, attention control, and self-regulated learning along to smartphone addiction level among college students. The data were obtained from 269 college students by structured questionnaire, analysed using SPSS 18.0. The results showed that significant differences with smartphone addiction level and, gender, grade level, daily using time, physical activity level, sleep quality and attention control. Smartphone addiction level

have correlations with physical activity level, sleep quality, attention control, and self-regulated learning.

Roberts, Pulling and Manolis (2015) conducted a study on I need my smartphone: A hierarchical model of personality and cell-phone addiction examined the relationship between a full range of personality traits and cell phone addiction. The study uses measures of the Big-Five personality traits and measures of materialism and need for arousal, Barratt's (1959) impulsiveness scale, and a four-item measure of cell phone addiction. The respondents were 346 college students. Data were analysed using structural equation modelling. The results of the study show the elemental traits of emotional instability and materialism and central trait of attention impulsiveness exhibited a direct and positive association with cell phone addiction. A significant negative relationship was found between conscientiousness and all three dimensions of Barratt's impulsiveness scale.

In a study conducted by Li, Lee and Baekley (2015) Locus of control and cell phone use: Implications for sleep quality, academic performance, and subjective well-being explored individuals with an external locus of control, have less control over their cell phone use (i.e., more likely to use at bedtime; more likely to use in class and while studying) and are consequently more vulnerable to the negative outcomes associated with excessive cell phone use (i.e., poor sleep quality, reduced academic performance, and reduced subjective well-being) in comparison to individuals with an internal locus of control. 516 undergraduate college students were the respondents of the study and they responded to their cell phone use, locus of control, sleep quality, academic performance, and subjective well-being by completing validated surveys and a path model was also used to examine how locus of control relates to students' cell phone use and the key outcome variables. The result of the study exhibited reasonable model fit with all paths being statistically significant and in the hypothesized direction so that an individual with a greater external locus of control may have difficulty controlling use at inopportune times and the negative effects associated with high frequency use may be exacerbated.

Kim, Jeong, Cho, Jung Kwak, Rho and Choi (2016) conducted a study on Personality Factors Predicting Smartphone Addiction Predisposition: Behavioural Inhibition and Activation Systems, Impulsivity, and Self-Control with the purpose to identify personality factor-associated predictors of smartphone addiction predisposition (SAP). Participants were 2,573 men and 2,281 women aged between 20 to 49 years. Participants completed the Korean Smartphone Addiction Proneness Scale (K-SAPS) for adults, the Behavioural Inhibition System/Behavioural Activation System questionnaire (BIS/BAS), the Dickman Dysfunctional Impulsivity Instrument (DDII), and the Brief Self-Control Scale (BSCS) and reported their smartphone usage pattern in the basis weekday or weekend average usage hours and main use of their smartphone. The data was analysed in three steps, (1) identifying predictors with logistic regression, (2) deriving causal relationships between smartphone addiction predisposition and its predictors using a Bayesian belief network (BN), and (3) computing optimal cut-off points for the identified predictors using the Youden index. The results indicated that female gender and scores on BAS-Drive and BSCS directly increased smartphone addiction predisposition. BAS-Reward Responsiveness and DDII indirectly increased smartphone addiction predisposition. This study raises the possibility that personality factors contribute to smartphone addiction predisposition.

Alijooma, Al.Quadah, Albursan, Bakhiet and Abduljabbar (2016) conducted study on Smartphone addiction among university students in the light of some variables explored the frequency and indices of smartphone addiction in a group of King Saud University students and investigated whether there were differences in smartphone addiction based on gender, social status, educational level, monthly income and hours of daily use. Researchers developed a questionnaire probing smartphone addiction consisting of five dimensions, 1) overuse of smartphone, 2) the psychological-social dimension, 3) the health dimension, 4) preoccupation with smartphones, and 5) the technological dimension. After being validated, the questionnaire was administered to 416

students at King Saud University who were the participants of this study. Results showed that addiction percentage among participants was 48%. The order of smartphone addiction indices was overuse of smartphone, the technological dimension, the psychological-social dimension, preoccupation with smartphones, and the health dimension. Significant gender differences were found in the degree of addiction on the whole questionnaire and all of its dimensions with the exception of the technological dimension in favour of males and significant differences by social status were found in favour of the unmarried. Bachelor degree students were found to have the highest degree of addiction. Significant differences by hours of daily use were also detected in favour of participants using the smartphone for more than 4 h a day. As to the monthly income dimension, significant differences were found on the health dimension in favour of participants with lower monthly income.

Darcin, Noyan, Nurumedov, Yilmaz and Dilbaz (2016) conducted a study on Smartphone Addiction in Relation with Social Anxiety and Loneliness Among University Students in Turkey to determine smartphone addiction in relation with social anxiety and loneliness among university students. 367 students who have a smartphone in a university in Istanbul participated in the study. The participants were given a set of questions about their style of smartphone use, Smartphone Addiction Scale-Short version (SAS-SV), UCLA Loneliness Scale and Brief Social Phobia Scale. The results indicated that significant difference was found between users who declare their mainly purpose to use a smartphone as access to social network sites and who declare it as access to internet or a phone call ($p < 0.001$). Addictive tendencies were negatively correlated with the age of owning the first mobile phone. Scores in total and all subscales of Brief Social Phobia Scale are positively correlated with Smartphone Addiction Scale-Short version scores in both sexes. Scores of UCLA Loneliness scale were also positively correlated with Smartphone Addiction Scale-Short version scores in female students.

Hawi and Samaha (2016) conducted a study on to excel or not to excel: Strong evidence on the adverse effect of smartphone addiction on academic performance aimed to verify whether achieving a distinctive academic performance is unlikely for students at high risk of smartphone addiction and whether this phenomenon was equally applicable to male and female students. 293 university students who were selected through systematic random sampling participated in this survey through an online survey. In the survey questionnaire the Smartphone Addiction Scale-Short Version (SAS-SV) was used. The results showed that male and female university students were equally susceptible to smartphone addiction and male and female university students were equal in achieving cumulative GPAs with distinction or higher within the same levels of smartphone addiction. Also, the study reveals undergraduate students who were at a high risk of smartphone addiction were less likely to achieve cumulative GPAs of distinction or higher.

Chen, Yan, Tang, Yang, Xie and Ha (2016) conducted a study on Mobile phone addiction levels and negative emotions among Chinese young adults: The mediating role of interpersonal problems evaluated the mediating role of interpersonal problems in the link between mobile phone addiction levels and negative emotions among mobile phone addicts and possible-mobile phone addicts respectively. The participants were 1089 young adults in China who were selected by using cluster sampling. Results showed that compared with nonaddicts, mobile phone addicts or possible mobile phone addicts spent more money and time on mobile phone use and were more vulnerable to have negative emotions. Also, interpersonal problem was a significant mediator between mobile phone addiction levels and negative emotions.

Lee, Kim, Ha, Yoo, Han, Jung and Jang (2016) conducted a study on Dependency on Smartphone Use and its Association with Anxiety in Korea investigated the relationship between smartphone dependency and anxiety. The Participants were 725 men and 511 women smartphone-using students from six

universities in Suwon, South Korea. The scales to measure smartphone dependency and anxiety, were questionnaires of Yang's test developed from Young's Internet Addiction Test and Zung's Self-Rating Anxiety Scale respectively. The data was analysed by using multiple logistic regression to determine the association between smartphone dependency and anxiety. The results of the study revealed that women were significantly more dependent on smartphones than were men (mean smartphone dependency score: 50.7 vs. 56.0 for men and women, respectively, $p < 0.001$). The amount of time spent using smartphones and the purpose of smartphone use affected smartphone dependency in both men and women particularly, when daily use time increased, smartphone dependency showed an increasing trend. Compared with times of use less than 2 hours vs. more than 6 hours, men scored 46.2 and 56.0 on the smartphone dependency test, while women scored 48.0 and 60.4, respectively ($p < 0.001$). For both men and women, increases in smartphone dependency were associated with increased anxiety scores. With each one-point increase in smartphone dependency score, the risk of abnormal anxiety in men and women increased by 10.1% and 9.2%, respectively ($p < 0.001$).

A study by Gokcerashan, Mumcu, Haslaman and Cevik (2016) on Modelling smartphone addiction: The role of smartphone usage, self-regulation, general self-efficacy and cyberloafing in university students investigated the roles of smartphone usage, self-regulation, general self-efficacy and cyberloafing in smartphone addiction. The responses from 598 participants who are attending a public university in Ankara, Turkey was collected through an online survey. The results of the study showed that both the duration of smartphone usage and cyberloafing positively affected smartphone addiction and the effect of self-regulation on smartphone addiction was negative and significant. In addition, neither self-regulation nor general self-efficacy had an effect on cyberloafing.

Liu, Lin, Pan and Lin (2016) conducted a study on Smartphone gaming and frequent use pattern associated with smartphone addiction to investigate the risk factors of smartphone addiction in high school students. The participants were 689

students, who owns a smartphone aged 14 to 21, from a vocational high school in Taiwan. The participants completed a set of questionnaires, including the 10-item Smartphone Addiction Inventory, Chen Internet Addiction Scale, and a survey of content and patterns of personal smartphone use. For determining the variables associated with smartphone addiction Multiple linear regression models were used. The results revealed that Smartphone gaming and frequent smartphone use were associated with smartphone addiction. Furthermore, both the smartphone gaming-predominant and gaming with multiple-applications groups showed a similar association with smartphone addiction. Gender, duration of owning a smartphone, and substance use were not associated with smartphone addiction.

Samaha and Hawi (2016) conducted a study on Relationships among smartphone addiction, stress, academic performance, and satisfaction with life investigated the relationship between risk of smartphone addiction and satisfaction with life mediated by stress and academic performance and satisfaction with life mediated by stress and academic performance facilitates smartphone addiction. 300 university students selected through systematic random sampling method were the participants of the study. The scales used were the Smartphone Addiction Scale - Short Version, the Perceived Stress Scale, and the Satisfaction with Life Scale. Pearson correlations and multivariate analysis of variances were used for the analysis of the data. The results of the study showed that smartphone addiction risk was positively related to perceived stress and negatively related to satisfaction with life.

In a study conducted by Seo, Park, Kim and Park (2016) on Mobile phone dependency and its impacts on adolescents' social and academic behaviours examine the possible intrapersonal (i.e., attention, depression) and interpersonal (i.e., social relationships with friends, social relationships with teachers) problems related to mobile phone dependency and their impacts on academic achievement in adolescents in South Korea using a national sample of 2159 high school students which include 1074 male and 1085 female. A structural equation modelling approach with mediation analysis was employed to test the seven hypotheses

drawn from conceptual and empirical bases. Results showed that mobile phone dependency negatively predicted attention and positively predicted depression, which in turn, affect social relationships with friends and both Korean language arts and mathematics achievement. Also, the mediating roles of attention, depression, and relationships with friends were found between mobile phone dependency and the academic achievement of middle and high school students in South Korea.

Elhai, Levine, Dvorak, and Hall (2017) conducted a study on Non-social features of smartphone use are most related to depression, anxiety and problematic smartphone use to investigate two specific smartphone usage types – process use and social use – for associations with depression and anxiety; and in accounting for relationships between anxiety/depression and problematic smartphone use. 308 participants from Amazon's Mechanical Turk internet responded to the questionnaires about their depression and anxiety symptoms, and problematic smartphone use along with process and social smartphone use dimensions for this study. The results of the study discovered the association between anxiety symptoms was stronger with process versus social smartphone use and depression symptom severity was negatively associated with greater social smartphone use. Also, process smartphone use was more strongly associated with problematic smartphone use so that process smartphone use accounted for relationships between anxiety severity and problematic smartphone use.

Deshpande and Deshpande (2017) conducted a study on A study of cell phone dependency among college students to investigate the demographic factors contributing to the problem of cell phone dependency. The participants of the study were 400 students from different colleges in Mumbai, Navi-Mumbai, and Thane jurisdiction through clustered sampling and snowball sampling. The Mobile Phone Problem Use Scale (MPPUS) developed by Bianchi & Phillips was used to measure the cell phone dependency. Through the study researchers examined factors like gender, educational qualification, family type, living arrangement and other factors pertaining to duration of years using cell phones, availability of wi-

fi, and subscription plan. were used for data collection. Independent t-test and One-Way ANOVA was used to analyse the obtained data. Results of the study indicated that gender and duration of years using cell phone were statistically significant in predicting cell phone dependency and other factors were not statistically impact cell phone dependency.

Aker, Sahin, Sezgin and Oguz (2017) conducted a study on Psychosocial Factors Affecting Smartphone Addiction in University Students with the purpose to evaluate psychosocial factors affecting smartphone addiction in university students. The participants were 495 students possessing smartphones in Ondokuz Mayıs University. Smartphone addiction scale- short version, the flourishing scale, the general health questionnaire and the multidimensional scale of perceived social support are the scales used for the study. The data was analysed using multiple regression analysis. the results indicated that depression, anxiety, insomnia and familial social support significantly predicted smartphone addiction.

Kuss, Kanjo, Rumsey, Kibowski, Wang and Sumich (2018) conducted a study on Problematic Mobile Phone Use and Addiction Across Generations: The Roles of Psychopathological Symptoms and Smartphone Use with aim of to extend the predictive power of psychopathological symptoms like depression, anxiety and stress, mobile phone use (i.e. calls, SMS, time spent on the phone, as well as the engagement in specific smartphone activities) across Generations X and Y on problematic mobile phone use. The sample size of the study was 273 adults. Findings of the study revealed prohibited use and dependence were predicted by calls/day, time on the phone and using social media. Only for dependent mobile phone use, stress appeared as significant. Using social media and anxiety significantly predicted belonging to Generation Y, with calls per day predicted belonging to Generation X. This finding suggests Generation Y are more likely to use asynchronous social media-based communication, whereas Generation X engage more in synchronous communication.

Sethuraman, Rao, Charlette, Thatkar and Vincent (2018) conducted a study on Smartphone addiction among medical college students in the Andaman and Nicobar Islands with the objective to evaluate the level of smart phone usage among medical college students in the Andaman and Nicobar Islands and their demographic characteristics. A cross sectional study was conducted on 192 medical students. By using a self-administered SAS scale the level of smart phone addiction of the participants was assessed and the participants were classified into smart phone non-user group, a low smart phone user group and a high smart phone user group. The results indicated that out of 192 subjects who completed the questionnaires 85.40% (n=164) had smart phone addiction. Out of the total 192 students 28 students (14.60%) were low smart phone users, of which 9 were boys (14.30%) and 19 were girls (14.70%). Among 164 (85.40%) high smart phone users 54 students were boys (85.70%) and 110 were girls (85.30%) which was not statistically significant at 5% level (chi square=0.007, p=0.935).

Nowreen and Ahad (2018) conducted a study on Effect of smartphone usage on quality of sleep in medical students with the aim to find out the effect of smartphone addiction on sleep quality among medical students of SKIMS Medical College, Srinagar. This cross-sectional study was conducted on 236 medical students from October 2017 to December 2017 using a self-administered questionnaire consisting of three parts, smartphone addiction scale (SAS-SV), and Pittsburgh sleep quality index (PSQI). For the data analysis, to correlate SAS scores and PQSI scores Pearson correlation coefficient was used. The results of the study indicated the prevalence of smartphone addiction in this study was found out to be 34.4%. 62.7% were poor sleepers as assessed by PQSI scores. There was a positive correlation between overall PQSI scores and SAS scores. In the subgroups, the correlation was significant for males and those residing in the hostel. Correlations were highly significant for younger age group (17–19) and 1st year of study.

Cha and Seo (2018) conducted a study on Smartphone use and smartphone addiction in middle school students in Korea: Prevalence, social networking

service, and game use aimed to examine smartphone use patterns, smartphone addiction characteristics, and the predictive factors of the smartphone addiction in middle school students in South Korea. The participants of the study were 1824 middle school students who use smartphone who sampled randomly from strata based on city, age, and sex with 51 percent males and 49 percent females. To measure the prevalence of smartphone addiction a validated Smartphone Addiction Proneness Scale. This self-rating questionnaire contains 15 items across three subscales, namely, daily difficulties, intolerance, and withdrawal. Along with a face to face interview was also conducted with the help of trained interviewers. The participants have responded to questions on smartphone use patterns, such as the duration of daily smartphone use; commonly used content of a smartphone, such as game, SNS, music, or learning; and the purposes of the content used, such as fun/stress reduction, communication with people, accessing latest information, or passing time. Chi-square test was conducted to investigate differences in the demographic variables and smartphone use behaviours and *t* test was used to examine differences in the use duration of smartphone, SNS, game, and messenger services and multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to identify the predictors of smartphone addiction between the smartphone addiction and normal user groups. The results of the study reveal out of the 1824 participants, 563 (30.9%) were identified as a risk group for smartphone addiction and 1261 (69.1%) were classified as a normal user group according to their scores on the Smartphone Addiction Proneness Scale. The risk group for smartphone addiction showed significantly higher scores on the scale as well as on each subscale of the tool as compared with the normal users.

Quadhad, Alburasan, Bakhiet, Hassan, Alfian, Alijoomaa and Al-khadher (2019) conducted a study on Smartphone Addiction and Its Relationship with Cyberbullying Among University Students explored smartphone addiction and cyberbullying among a group of university students. Participants were 449 male and female university students whose ages ranged from 17 to 24 years. A scale probing smartphone addiction and cyberbullying was used to collect data. The results of the study indicated in terms of the daily usage of smartphones, 67.3

participants were found to use smartphones for more than 4 h per day so that the frequency of smartphone addiction among participants was 33.2. The frequency of cyberbullying reported by participants was 20.7. The significant differences between males and females in smartphone addiction and cyberbullying were found favouring males.

2.2 STUDIES ON ATTITUDE TOWARDS FAMILY MEMBERS

McHale, Crouter, Whiteman (2003) conducted a study on *The Family Contexts of Gender Development in Childhood and Adolescence* emphasizing children's dyadic family relationship experiences with their parents and siblings and gendered dynamics in the marriage and the differential family experiences of sisters versus brothers have implications for gender development. The result of the study found that family experiences have a more important impact on gender development than has previously believed.

Fuligni and Zhang (2004) conducted a study on *Attitudes Toward Family Obligation Among Adolescents in Contemporary Urban and Rural China* examined the sense of obligation to support, assist, and respect among the family of adolescents. The participants of the study were 10th and 12th grade students from 700 urban and rural area of China. The results of the study show urban male adolescents have a weaker sense of family obligation than rural male adolescents, urban and rural female adolescents and single child did not differ from those with siblings in terms attitudes toward family support and respect.

A study conducted by Velleman, Templeton, Copello (2005) on the role of the family in preventing and intervening with substance use and misuse: a comprehensive review of family interventions, with a focus on young people examined family processes and structures that have been associated with young people commencing substance use. The result of the study found that there is significant evidence for family involvement in young people's taking up, and later misusing, substances.

Wisdom and Agnor (2007) conducted a study on Family heritage and depression guides: Family and peer views influence adolescent attitudes about depression. For the study, they interviewed 15 adolescents to examine how the views and behaviours of others influence teens' decisions about seeking care for depression. By using a grounded theory approach, they found that teens' families, peers, and siblings contributed uniquely to teens' decisions in seeking care for depression. Families may disclose a "heritage" of depression, and their choices about disclosing family mental health issues, previous treatment, and coping strategies affected teens' understanding of depression. Peer "depression guides," who had themselves experienced depression, provided teens with advice on recognizing depression, managing stigma, and seeking care. Siblings bridged the roles of peer and family, influencing teens' choices about accessing treatment.

2.3: OBJECTIVES

1. To assess the attitude towards family members and mobile phone addiction level of the participants.
2. To find out the significant interrelationship between the study variables.
3. To find out the significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to the mobile phone addiction.
4. To find out the mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to the maladaptive usage.
5. To find out the significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to their self-expression .
6. To find out the significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to their peer relationship.
7. To find out the significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to their interpersonal relationship.
8. To find out the significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to their impulsivity.

9. To find out the significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to their usage time.

2.4: HYPOTHESES

1. There will be significant interrelationship between the study variables.
2. There will be significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to the mobile phone addiction.
3. There will be significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to the maladaptive usage.
4. There will be significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to their self-expression.
5. There will be significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to their peer relationship.
6. There will be significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to their interpersonal relationship
7. There will be significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to their impulsivity.
8. There will be significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to their usage time.

3.1: RESEARCH DESIGN

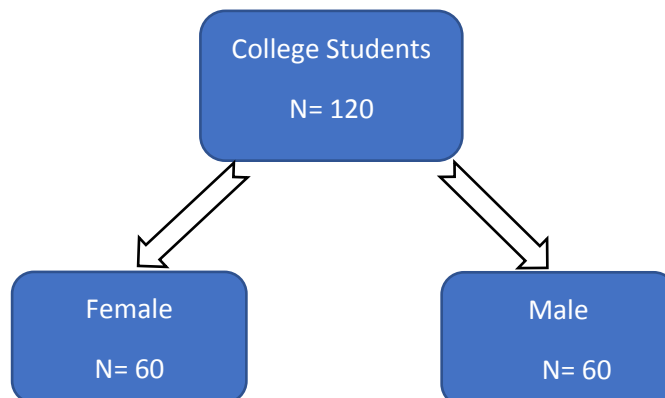
Research design is defined as a framework of methods and techniques chosen by a researcher to combine various components of research in a reasonably logical manner so that the research problem is efficiently handled. It provides insights about “how” to conduct research using a particular methodology.

Descriptive research was used for this study. Descriptive research design is a scientific method which involves observing and describing the behaviour of a subject without influencing it in any way. It attempts to gather quantifiable information that can be used to statistically analyse a target audience or a particular sample. Descriptive research is defined as a research method that describes the characteristics of the population or phenomenon that is being studied. In other words, descriptive research primarily focuses on describing the nature of a demographic segment and focuses more on the “what” of the research subject rather than the “why” of the research subject. Hence, these studies are really correlational or observational, and not truly experimental. This type of research is conclusive in nature, rather than exploratory.

3.2: PARTICIPANTS

A sample of 120 participants were drawn from the population of college students from Kollam district in Kerala by means of purposive sampling method. The sample was further subdivided on the basis of gender consisting of 60 male college students and 60 female college students. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 25 years.

Figure 3.1: The Distribution of Sample



3.2.1: Inclusion criteria

- College students of the age range from 18 to 25 years
- Regular college students
- College students who use smart phone
- College students who can speak and write Malayalam and English

3.2.2: Exclusion criteria

- College students who doesn't use smart phone
- Private college students
- College students having any behavioural or emotional disorders
- College students having any physical, developmental or congenital disorders

3.3: VARIABLES

The variables of the study were

Independent Variable: Mobile Phone Addiction

Dependent Variable: Attitude towards Family Members

3.4: MEASURES

Mainly two Psychological Measures were used in this study

3.4.1: Mobile phone addiction scale

Mobile phone addiction scale developed by Velayudhan and Srividya (2012) was used in this study. The scale consists of 37 items that measures mobile phone addiction across six factors. They are maladaptive usage, self-expression, peer relationship, interpersonal relationship, impulsivity, usage time. The reliability of the scale was found to be 0.79. The split half reliability index was found to be statistically significant at 0.75. Criterion related validity also referred as instrumental validity is used to demonstrate the accuracy of measure by comparing it with another measure which has been demonstrated to be valid.

Administration

The scale can be administrated both individually and in group. The participant was requested to indicate their response in the columns ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The participant was asked not to omit any questions and not to indicate a dual response to a single item. They were informed that responses and personal data will be used for study purpose only.

Scoring

A score for 5 was given for strongly agree, 4 for agree, 3 for undecided, 2 for disagree and 1 for strongly disagree. The negative items were scored in opposite order. The total score will be done by a simple addition of the scores (factor wise).

3.4.2: Attitude Scale towards Home and Family.

Attitude scale towards home and family developed by Saraswat and Jain (2005) is used in this study. The scale consists of 40 items that measures attitude toward family members based on two categories; (i) attitude toward parents and (ii) attitude toward siblings. The test- retest reliability was found to be 0.72 and the validity of the scale was determined in the terms of construct and content validity.

Administration

The scale can be administrated both individually and in group. The participant was requested to indicate their response in the columns ranging from always to never. The participant was asked not to omit any questions and not to indicate a dual response to a single item. They were informed that responses and personal data will be used for study purpose only.

Scoring

A score for 5 was given for always, 4 for very often, 3 for sometimes, 2 for seldom and 1 for never. The total score will be done by a simple addition of the scores.

3.4.3: Socio Demographic Sheet

The socio- demographic sheet was prepared by the researcher itself. It includes the name, age, sex, education, area of residence of the individual. In addition to this the

kind of mobile phone the participant and the intensity of mobile phone usage by the participant were included for the purpose of this study.

3.5: DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Step 1: Collection of Demographic Details

Participants were met at their educational institutions and adequate rapport was established. The demographic details like age, sex, education etc were collected with the due consent of the participant.

Step 2: Assessment of Mobile Phone Addiction

Mobile phone addiction of the participant was assessed using mobile phone addiction scale.

Step 3: Assessment of Attitude toward Family Members

Attitude toward Family Members of the participant was assessed using Attitude scale toward home and family.

3.6: STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The collected data from the participants were analysed using SPSS. The Pearson's product moment correlational analysis was used to assess the intercorrelation between the study variables. One – way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Duncan's multiple range post hoc analysis were used to assess the mean difference between the groups.

3.6.1: Pearson's Product Moment Correlational Analysis

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (or Pearson correlation coefficient, for short) is a measure of the strength of a linear association between two variables and is denoted by r . Basically, a Pearson product-moment correlation attempts to draw a line of best fit through the data of two variables, and the Pearson correlation coefficient, r , indicates how far away all these data points are to this line of best fit (i.e., how well the data points fit this new model/line of best fit). The Pearson correlation coefficient, r , can take a range of values from +1 to -1.

3.6.2: One - way Analysis of Variance

The One-Way analysis of variance (ANOVA) compares the means of two or more independent (unrelated) groups. The one -way ANOVA is an omnibus test statistic and cannot indicate which specific group shows statistically significant difference from each other; it tells only at least two groups were different. For determining which of the groups in the study differ from each other a post hoc test must be used.

3.6.3: Duncan's Multiple Range Post hoc Analysis

While conducting ANOVA, the results will indicate only if there is a difference in means., it won't pinpoint the pairs of means that are different. Post hoc tests can be used to identify the pairs of means that differ. Duncan's multiple range post hoc analysis was used in this study.

The present study was conducted to assess, and compare the mean difference among college students on attitude toward family members in relation to their mobile phone addiction. A total of 120 participants were drawn from the students by means of random sampling method from different colleges located at Kollam district, in Kerala. The sample consist of 60 males and 60 females of the age range 18-25 years.

The Descriptive Statistics of the collected data are presented:

For Attitude towards family members the mean score obtained by the participants was 153.61 with a Standard Deviation = 25.751

For Maladaptive usage the mean score obtained by the participants was 19.25 with a Standard Deviation = 7.033

For Self- expression the mean score obtained by the participants was 20.12 with a Standard Deviation= 6.499

For Peer Relationship the mean score obtained by the participants was 16.133 with a Standard deviation = 5.095

For Interpersonal Relationship the mean score obtained by the participants was 15.900 with a standard Deviation = 4.063

For Impulsivity the mean score obtained by the participants was 12.241 with a Standard deviation= 10.167

For Usage Time the mean score obtained by the participants was 15.61 with a Standard Deviation= 2.88

For Mobile Phone Addiction the mean score obtained by the participants was 98.01 with a Standard Deviation= 21.644

Table 4.1: Summary of Interrelationship between Study Variables

The first hypothesis examined the relationship between the study variables, stated that “There will be significant relationship between study variables”.

	Attitude toward family members	Maladaptive usage	Self-expression	Peer relationship	Inter personal relationship	Impulsivity	Usage time	Mobile phone addiction
Attitude toward family members	1	-.222*	-.148	-.034	-.105	-.117	.068	-.134
Maladaptive usage	-.222*	1	.537**	.560**	.323**	.329**	.020	.769**
Self-expression	-.148	.537**	1	.566**	.406**	.234*	-.023	.804**
Peer relationship	-.034	.560**	.566**	1	.424**	.286**	-.042	.741**
Inter personal relationship	-.105	.323**	.406**	.424**	1	.185*	.010	.556**
Impulsivity	-.117	.329**	.234*	.286**	.185*	1	.033	.381**
Usage time	.068	.020	-.023	-.042	.010	.033	1	.140
Mobile phone addiction	-.134	.769**	.804**	.741**	.556**	.381**	.140	1

Correlates of Attitude Toward Family Members

The results indicate that the existence of a significant negative interrelationship between attitude toward family members and maladaptive usage ($r=.222$). The results imply as maladaptive usage increases attitude towards family members decreases.

The other study variables self-expression ($r=.148$), peer relationship ($r=.034$), interpersonal relationship ($r=.105$), impulsivity ($r=.117$), usage time ($r=.134$) and mobile phone addiction ($r=.134$) have no significant relationship on attitude toward family members.

Correlates of Maladaptive Usage

The results indicate that the existence of a significant relationship between maladaptive usage and self-expression ($r=.537$), peer relationship ($r=.560$), interpersonal relationship ($r=.323$), impulsivity ($r=.329$), and mobile phone addiction ($r=.769$) and a significant negative relationship between attitude toward family members and maladaptive usage ($r=.222$). The results imply an increase in self-expression, peer relationship, interpersonal relationship, impulsivity, and mobile phone addiction increase the maladaptive usage and an increase in attitude towards family members decreases the maladaptive usage.

The relationship between maladaptive usage and usage time ($r=.020$) were not found to be significant.

Correlates of Self-Expression

The results indicate that the existence of a significant relationship between self-expression and maladaptive usage ($r=.537$), peer relationship ($r=.560$), interpersonal relationship ($r=.406$), impulsivity ($r=.234$), and mobile phone addiction ($r=.804$). The result implies that an increase in maladaptive usage, peer relationship, interpersonal relationship, impulsivity, and mobile phone addiction increase the self-expression.

The relationship between self-expression and attitude toward family members ($r=.148$) usage time ($r=.023$) were not found to be significant.

Correlates of Peer Relationship

The results indicate that the existence of a significant relationship between peer relationship and maladaptive usage ($r=.560$), self-expression ($r=.566$), interpersonal relationship ($r=.424$), impulsivity ($r=.286$), and mobile phone addiction ($r=.741$). The result implies that an increase in maladaptive usage, self-expression, interpersonal relationship, impulsivity, and mobile phone addiction increase the peer relationship.

The relationship between peer relationship and attitude toward family members ($r=.034$), usage time ($r=.042$) were not found to be significant.

Correlates of Interpersonal Relationship

The results indicate that the existence of a significant relationship between interpersonal relationship and maladaptive usage ($r=.323$), self-expression ($r=.406$), peer relationship ($r=.424$), impulsivity ($r=.185$), and mobile phone addiction ($r=.556$). The result implies that an increase in maladaptive usage, self-expression, peer relationship, impulsivity, and mobile phone addiction increase the interpersonal relationship.

The relationship between interpersonal relationship and attitude toward family members ($r=.105$), usage time ($r=.010$) were not found to be significant.

Correlates of Impulsivity

The results indicate that the existence of a significant relationship between impulsivity and maladaptive usage ($r=.329$), self-expression ($r=.234$), peer relationship ($r=.286$), interpersonal relationship ($r=.185$), and mobile phone addiction ($r=.381$). The result implies that an increase in maladaptive usage, self-expression, peer relationship, interpersonal relationship, and mobile phone addiction increase the impulsivity.

The relationship between interpersonal relationship and attitude towards family members ($r=.117$), usage time ($r=.033$) were not found to be significant.

Correlates of Usage Time

The results indicate that usage time was not found to be significant to all study variables, attitude towards family members ($r=.068$) maladaptive usage ($r=.020$), self- expression ($r=.023$), peer relationship ($r=.042$), interpersonal relationship ($r=.010$), impulsivity ($r=.033$) and mobile phone addiction($r=.140$).

Correlates of Mobile Phone Addiction

The results indicate that the existence of a significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and maladaptive usage ($r=.769$), self- expression ($r=.804$), peer relationship ($r=.741$), inter personal relationship ($r=.556$), and impulsivity ($r=.381$). The result implies that an increase in maladaptive usage, self-expression, peer relationship, interpersonal relationship, and impulsivity increase the mobile phone addiction.

The relationship between interpersonal relationship and attitude towards family members ($r=.134$), usage time ($r=.140$) were not found to be significant.

Table 4.2: Summary of ANOVA of participant’s attitude towards family members in relation to their mobile phone addiction.

Variable	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F Ratio
Mobile Phone addiction	Between Groups	1434.668	2	717.334	1.083
	Within Groups	77481.698	117	662.237	
	Total	78916.367	119		

The second hypothesis examined the mean difference among participants on attitude towards family members in relation to their mobile phone addiction. The analysis of variance revealed that there is no significant difference among college students on attitude toward family members based on their mobile phone addiction. Thus, hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4.3: Summary of ANOVA of participant’s attitude towards family members in relation to their maladaptive usage.

Variable	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F Ratio
Maladaptive Usage	Between Groups	2176.950	2	1088.475	.195
	Within Groups	76739.417	117	655.892	
	Total	78916.367	119		

The third hypothesis examined the mean difference among participants on attitude towards family members in relation to their maladaptive usage of mobile phone. The analysis of variance revealed that there is no significant difference among college students on attitude toward family members based their maladaptive usage of mobile phone. Thus, hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4.4: Summary of ANOVA of participant’s attitude towards family members in relation to their self-expression.

Variable	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F Ratio
Self-Expression	Between Groups	878.460	2	439.230	.520
	Within Groups	78037.907	117	666.991	
	Total	78916.367	119		

The fourth hypothesis examined the mean difference among participants on attitude towards family members in relation to self – expression. The analysis of variance revealed that there is no significant difference among college students on and attitude toward family members based on their self – expression. Thus, hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4.5: Summary of ANOVA of participant’s attitude towards family members in relation to their peer relationship.

Variable	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F Ratio
Peer Relationship	Between Groups	55.479	2	27.739	.960
	Within Groups	78860.888	117	674.025	
	Total	78916.367	119		

The fifth hypothesis examined the mean difference among participants on attitude towards family members in relation to peer relationship. The analysis of variance revealed that there is no significant difference among college students on attitude toward family members based on their peer relationship. Thus, hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4.6: Summary of ANOVA of participant’s attitude towards family members in relation to their interpersonal relationship.

Variable	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F Ratio
Interpersonal Relationship	Between Groups	1675.986	2	837.993	1.269
	Within Groups	77240.380	117	660.174	
	Total	78916.367	119		

The sixth hypothesis examined the mean difference among participants on attitude towards family members in relation to interpersonal relationship. The analysis of variance revealed that there is no significant difference among college students on attitude toward family members based on interpersonal relationship. Thus, hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4.7: Summary of ANOVA of participant’s attitude towards family members in relation to their impulsivity.

Variable	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F Ratio
Impulsivity	Between Groups	4042.295	2	2021.148	3.158*
	Within Groups	74874.071	117	639.949	
	Total	78916.367	119		

(*significant at 0.05 level)

Table 4.8: Duncan post hoc analysis results of attitude towards family members across groups based on impulsivity.

No	Group	N	M	Group		
				1	2	3
1	High	17	140.52	()	*	*
2	Low	60	153.65		()	-
3	Moderate	43	158.74			()

(* indicates difference between groups)

The seventh hypothesis examined the mean difference among participants on attitude towards family members in relation to impulsivity. The analysis of variance revealed that there is significant difference among college students on attitude toward family members based on their impulsivity. Thus, hypothesis is accepted.

The Duncan multiple range post hoc analysis revealed that there exists a significant difference between participants having high impulsivity and low impulsivity and between participants having high impulsivity and moderate

impulsivity. There is no significant difference between low impulsivity and moderate impulsivity on attitude towards family members.

Table 4.9: Summary of ANOVA of participant’s attitude towards family members in relation to their usage time.

Variable	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F Ratio
Usage Time	Between Groups	760.389	2	380.195	.569
	Within Groups	78155.978	117	668.000	
	Total	78916.367	119		

The eighth hypothesis examined the mean difference among participants on attitude towards family members in relation to usage time. The analysis of variance revealed that there is no significant difference among college students on their usage time and attitude toward family members. Thus, hypothesis is rejected.

5.1: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

To study the attitude towards family members among college students based on mobile phone addiction.

5.2: VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

In this study two variables are there under consideration, (i) Mobile phone addiction (independent variable) and (ii) attitude towards family members (dependent variable)

5.3: PARTICIPANTS

A sample of 120 participants were drawn from the population of college students from Kollam district in Kerala by means of purposive sampling method. The sample was further subdivided on the basis of gender consisting of 60 male college students and 60 female college students. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 25 years.

5.4: MEASURES OF THE STUDY

Mainly two Psychological Measures were used in this study

❖ Mobile phone addiction scale

Mobile phone addiction scale (2012) developed by Velayudhan and Srividya is used in this study. The scale consists of 37 items that measures mobile phone addiction across six factors. They are maladaptive usage, self-expression, peer relationship, interpersonal relationship, impulsivity, usage time. The reliability of the scale was found to be 0.79. The split half reliability index was found to be statistically significant at 0.75. Criterion related validity also referred as instrumental validity is used to demonstrate the accuracy of measure by comparing it with another measure which has been demonstrated to be valid.

❖ Attitude scale towards home and family.

Attitude scale towards home and family (2005) developed by Saraswat and Jain is used in this study. The scale consists of 40 items that measures attitude toward family members based on two categories; (i) attitude toward parents and

(ii) attitude toward siblings. The test- retest reliability was found to be .72 and the validity of the scale was determined in the terms of construct and content validity.

5.5: STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED

The Pearson's product moment correlational analysis was used to assess the intercorrelation between the study variables. One – way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Duncan's multiple range post hoc analysis were used to assess the mean difference between the variables

Pearson's product moment correlational analysis

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (or Pearson correlation coefficient, for short) is a measure of the strength of a linear association between two variables and is denoted by r . Basically, a Pearson product-moment correlation attempts to draw a line of best fit through the data of two variables, and the Pearson correlation coefficient, r , indicates how far away all these data points are to this line of best fit (i.e., how well the data points fit this new model/line of best fit). The Pearson correlation coefficient, r , can take a range of values from +1 to -1.

One - way analysis of variance

The One-Way analysis of variance ("ANOVA ") compares the means of two or more independent (unrelated) groups. The one -way ANOVA is an omnibus test statistic and cannot indicate which specific group shows statistically significant difference from each other; it tells only at least two groups were different. For determining which of the groups in the study differ from each other a post hoc test must be used.

Duncan's multiple range post hoc analysis

While conducting ANOVA, the results will indicate only if there is a difference in means., it won't pinpoint the pairs of means that are different. Post

hoc tests can be used to identify the pairs of means that differ. Duncan's multiple range post hoc analysis was used in this study.

5.6: TEST OF TENABILITY OF HYPOTHESES

- The first hypothesis was “There will be significant interrelationship between the study variables” and the hypothesis is accepted
- The second hypothesis was “There will be significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to the mobile phone addiction” and the hypothesis is rejected.
- The third hypothesis was “There will be significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to the maladaptive usage” and the hypothesis is rejected.
- The fourth hypothesis was “There will be significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to their self-expression” and the hypothesis is rejected.
- The fifth hypothesis was “There will be significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to their peer relationship” and the hypothesis is rejected.
- The sixth hypothesis was “There will be significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to their interpersonal relationship” and the hypothesis is rejected.
- The seventh hypothesis was “There will be significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to their impulsivity” and the hypothesis is accepted
- The eighth hypothesis was “There will be significant mean difference on attitude towards family members in relation to their usage time” and the hypothesis is rejected.

5.7: MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

- There has been significant inter relationship between the study variables except usage time
- The variable usage time do not have any significant relationship with other study variables
- There is a significant difference among college students on attitude toward family members based on their impulsivity
- There is a significant difference between participant having high impulsivity and low impulsivity on attitude toward family members
- There is a significant difference between participants having high impulsivity and moderate impulsivity on attitude toward family members
- There is no significant difference among college students on attitude toward family members based on maladaptive usage of mobile phone
- There is no significant difference among college students on attitude toward family members based on self- expression
- There is no significant difference among college students on attitude toward family members based on peer relationship
- There is no significant difference among college students on attitude toward family members based on inter personal relationship
- There is no significant difference among college students on attitude toward family members based on usage time
- There is no significant difference among college students on attitude toward family members based on mobile phone addiction.

5.8: IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The present study was to find out the impact of mobile phone addiction upon the attitude toward family members among college students. As most of the youngsters like to spend more time in their mobile phone by using the social networking applications and game applications, they are becoming less attached

with their family. As they get virtual friends through the games, they are less likely to spend a quality time with family members. This will result in impaired relationship on youngster's social life and the youngster's approach to the rules and norms in the society. Also, the increased mobile phone use of a youngster will affect their education also as the productivity or output given by them as a student decreases due to such kind of addiction to mobile phone. The findings of the current study show that impulsivity of youngsters has an influence on their attitude toward family members. This impulsivity is sometimes fostered as a result of their over attachment to their mobile phone and its use. So, it is important to make a positive change to this kind of situation in order to create a happy home environment and a productive generation.

5.9: LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- The study was limited to a certain geographical area
- The researcher was not able to control the extraneous variable like the influence environmental factors and individuals coping skills etc and it might have influenced the results of the present study.

5.10: SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- The study can be broadened by adding some more demographic variables such as culture, caste, etc which may influence the variable under consideration.
- The individual difference of the participant should be taken into consideration.
- More variables such as personality types, stress coping skills may help to generate more relevant findings.
- The ecological validity can be increased by increasing the sample size and extending the geographical area for sample selection

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SOCIO- DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Name :

Age :

Sex:

Course:

Stream:

Area : Urban Rural

Type of mobile phone you use: (Put ✓ marks in the appropriate box)

Phone without internet Smart Phone

Intensity of Mobile Phone usage: (Put ✓ marks in the appropriate box)

Less than 1 hour 1-2 hours 2-3 hours More than 3 hours

MPAS

Dear Participants,

The following are some statements regarding your mobile phone usage. Read the statements carefully and mark the option that comes into your mind by a tick (✓) in any one of the five alternatives for each statement. Please don't leave any statement unanswered. Kindly provide your response in the respective column based on the alternatives given below.

1 = Strongly Agree 2 = Agree 3 = Uncertain
4 = Disagree 5 = Strongly Disagree

Thanking you in advance for your co-operation in advance.

No	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	Missed calls often worry me.					
2	I feel irritated when someone asks me to switch off the mobile phone.					
3	I feel offended when someone indicates that I am spending more time talking on the mobile phone.					
4	I would quarrel with others who snatch my cell phone.					
5	I feel irritated when I stay away from my cell phone.					
6	I do not control of number of calls I make on a mobile.					
7	I feel restless when I do not receive a call on a mobile for some time.					
8	I spend more time sending SMS rather than any other activity of the day.					
9	I am able to explain myself better through a mobile phone.					
10	Most of the times I think that the call that was made or received was unnecessary					

11	I feel people admire me carrying my mobile phone					
12	Talking through mobile phone is more pleasurable than a face-to-face conversation.					
13	I get more calls during the late hours of the day					
14	I think I can make more friends through a cell phone call					
15	I am able to maintain the friendship I had cultivated through a cell phone					
16	I have been scolded by my family members or professors for being more attentive to my cell phone					
17	My parents point out long hours of cell phone usage					
18	Mobile phone has changed my relationship with my brothers/sisters					
19	I feel neglected or rejected when my friends do not speak to me over the cell phone.					
20	I feel that my friend is closer when I speak to him/her over the cell phone					
21	Sending SMS interesting is an interesting act					
22	I have a sense of urgency in checking missed calls immediately when I return to switch on mode					
23	I have a sense of urgency in checking missed SMS immediately when I return to switch on mode					
24	My cell phone always remains switched on mode					
25	I don't mind making a call while driving					
26	I would like to spend more time downloading or changing ring tones frequently					
27	My mobile phone bill increases every month					
28	I ask for more money to pay the cell phone bills					
29	I spend most of my pocket money on cell phone bills.					
30	I spend the money meant for other purposes such as buying books for paying cell phone bills					
31	I have been hurt or met with an accident because I was concentrated on a cell phone talk					
32	I would not mind talking in a cell phone while eating, crossing a road and writing					
33	Cell phone bills make me cut the number of calls I make					
34	I feel that my self- esteem is enhanced because my latest model of a mobile					
35	My image and confidence level is boosted when I show the latest model of a mobile, I have among my friends					
36	I feel that the mobile is a part of my personality					
37	I feel nagged by my cell phone					

ASF

The following are some statements regarding your approach to family members. Read the statements carefully and mark the option that comes into your mind by a tick (✓) in any one of the five alternatives for each statement. Please don't leave any statement unanswered. Kindly provide your response in the respective column based on the alternatives given below.

1 = Always

2 = Very Often

3 = Sometimes

4 = Seldom

5 = Never

No	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	I feel that my parents hold very modern views					
2	My Parents pay attention to me.					
3	My parents appreciate me in front of my brothers and sisters					
4	My parents support me in front of my friends					
5	My parents like to attend my friends visiting me at home					
6	My parents like my way of dressing up.					
7	My parents don't interfere in my personal matters.					
8	I feel my parents give due importance to me.					
9	I feel that my parents provide me an opportunity to express my ideas.					
10	I feel that my parents allow me to take decisions on my own.					
11	I feel that even when I am wrong my parents do agree with me and ask me to give second thought.					
12	I feel that my parents try to understand my feelings.					
13	I feel that I behave as my parents expect me to do.					
14	I feel that my parents Love me.					
15	I feel that I am a Loving child of my parents.					
16	Our difference of opinions Sorted out through discussion between me and my parents.					
17	When I discuss among with my parents, they appreciate my discussion					
18	I feel that I can get along with my parents easily					
19	I feel that my parents reward me for all good things I do					
20	I feel my parents correct me on small matters in my interest.					
21	I feel that my parents have such expectations from me which are possible for me.					
22	When I make mistake, my parents correct me of my mistakes					
23	My parents take care of my likes and dislikes.					

24	My parents try to keep me happy					
25	I feel that my parents are interested in my success					
26	I feel frank to talk of my personal matters to my parents.					
27	I feel frank to talk of my experiences with my parents					
28	I feel that my parents are very frank with me					
29	It is possible for me to understand what kind of behaviour my parents expect from me					
30	I feel, I am lucky to have my brothers and sisters					
31	I feel that my presence at my home makes my parents happy					
32	I feel that my brothers and sisters love me.					
33	My brothers and sisters understand me.					
34	I feel that my brothers & sisters like my company.					
35	I get along well with my brothers and sisters.					
36	I like my brothers and sisters					
37	My brothers and sisters keep me happy					
38	My brothers and sisters take care of me studies					
39	My brothers and sisters praise me					
40	I feel that my brothers and sisters are ready to help me in my studies					

**SELF-ESTEEM AND PEER PRESSURE IN RELATION TO
ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVE AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS**

*Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment for the requirement
of Masters of Science in Psychology*

ANJU A. H

Candidate Code: P1716003



**FATIMA MATA NATIONAL COLLEGE (AUTONOMOUS),
KOLLAM**
(Affiliated to the University of Kerala)

2019

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that Ms. ANJU A.H, the student of fourth semester MSc Psychology has satisfactorily completed the project on the paper entitled “**SELF-ESTEEM AND PEER PRESSURE IN RELATION TO ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVE AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS**“ under my guidance in partial fulfilment of the requirement for MSc degree in Psychology, at Fatima Mata National College (Autonomous), affiliated to the University of Kerala.

Place: Kollam

Date: 28/6/2019

Counter signed by,

Supervisor

Dr. Anil Jose P. S

Assistant Professor & Head

Department of Psychology

FMN College

Kollam

Mr. Sijin K S

Lecturer

Department of Psychology

FMN College

Kollam

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this research entitled “**SELF-ESTEEM AND PEERPRESSURE IN RELATION TO ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVE AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS**” is prepared under the guidance and supervision of Mr. SIJIN K S, Faculty of Psychology, Fatima Mata National College, Kollam. This study has not been submitted to any other university or institution for any other purpose.

ANJU.A.H

Place: Kollam

Date: 28-06-2019

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F.M.N.College

Kollam

ANJU A.H

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ABSTRACT

The present study was conducted to assess the self-esteem and peer pressure in relation to achievement motive among college students. A total of 90 sample were drawn for this study by different college in Kollam, districts in Kerala by means of stratified random sampling method. The age of the participants was ranged from 17 to 23 years. The achievement motive of the participant was assessed using Achievement Motive Scale, self-esteem was assessed using Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale and peer pressure was assessed using Peer Pressure Scale.

The statistical techniques used in the study were Karl Pearson's product moment correlational analysis, one-way analysis of variance followed by Duncan's multiple range post hoc analysis. Results revealed the existence of a statistically significant negative relationship between achievement motive and self-esteem and between self-esteem and peer pressure. The study also revealed the existence of a significant difference on self-esteem in relation to achievement motive of the participants.

KEY WORDS: Achievement Motive, Self- esteem, peer pressure

CHAPTER-I

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

CHAPTER-III

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APPENDICES

In everyday life, individuals strive to be competent in their activities. In the past decade, many theorists have utilized a social-cognitive achievement goal approach in accounting for individuals striving for competence. Challenging tasks, persistence in the face of failure, and increased enjoyment of tasks (Elliot & Church, 1997).

Achievement in an educational institution may be taken to mean any desirable learning that is observed in the student by understanding in this way, any behavior that is learned may come within the scope of achievement. In this study the researcher has considered the following operational definition for the research purpose. “The achievement motivation is known as the scores achieved /obtained on the achievement scale by the respondents.” The self-imposed requirement for goal performance and description of instrumental act from the quality of the work, sometimes they involved in long term goal achievement or in accomplishment of some unique work. Achievement motivation seems to vary from person to person. Some people have high achievement motivations in school, while others in bowling, and while others in nothing at all. What makes us strive or not strive for that goal-well one easy way to think about it is through extrinsic and intrinsic motivators.

Peer pressure occurs when a peer group exerts direct or indirect pressure to do certain actions. The term “peer” often refers to people one knows in real life and who have a similar social status to oneself. However, peer pressure can also be exerted by the larger culture. For example, television shows can convey to the public an acceptable way to behave, even though the people on TV do not know every individual they are influencing.

Peer pressure can not only bring about changes in behavior, but also thoughts, opinions, and feelings. While peer pressure is most frequently used to describe the influence of friends on teenagers, all people can be subject to peer pressure. When a person has been pressured into unhealthy habits, a counselor can help the individual reevaluate and change their behavior. Many people consider peer pressure a negative

thing, but this isn't always the case. People, especially teens and young adults, may be more likely to do prosocial behaviors when they see people their own age doing the same things. For example, research has shown that teens with friends who volunteer are more likely to volunteer themselves.

Self-esteem could be defined as how a person feels about his or herself. It determines if you are satisfied with certain aspects of your life, for example, your appearance, your personality, your abilities and your relationship with others. Usually people are very judgmental with themselves comparing themselves with others and making decisions about themselves based on the comparisons that they made. People constantly estimate or appraise themselves. Therefore it could be that self-esteem refers to the positive or negative evaluation of ourselves. (Kassim 1996). Contemporary belief is that self-esteem is rooted in early childhood with a foundation of trust, unconditional love and security, impacted on as life progresses by a combination of positive and negative evaluations.

Some people have a higher self-esteem than others do and this could influence the way they think about themselves. Self-esteem could be linked to a person's response to success, failure changes in fortune, social interactions and other personal experiences (Heatherson and Polomey 1991).

1.1: ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVE

According to Atkinson and Feather (1966) the achievement motive is conceived as a latent disposition which is manifested in overt striving only when the individual perceives performance as instrumental to a sense of personal accomplishment.

According to Irving Sarnoff (Mangal, 1989) Achievement motive is defined in terms of the way an individual orients himself towards objects or conditions that he does not possess. If he values those objects and conditions, and he feels that he ought to possess them he may be regarded as having an achievement motive.

Motivation is the driving force behind a person's actions. There are many different types of motivation, and everyone is inspired by something different. For some people, these are essential components of motivation. Achievement Motivation is defined as behaviors dedicated to developing and demonstrating higher abilities. Those who are motivated by achievement tend to have a particular set of features. The first is that they choose their battles wisely. They are not gamblers when it comes to setting goals and will not set one that is impossible. That being said, they won't be as motivated by a task that can be easily accomplish either.

Different people are motivated by different factors. These factors depend upon the nature or type of person he/she is. McClelland proposed that there are three types of motivation that drive us all no matter what our background is. This includes achievement, affiliation, and power.

Need for achievement- People, whose motivation is driven by achievement, prefer working on projects whose results are based entirely on efforts and nothing else. Besides, they prefer moderately difficult or challenging tasks and tend to avoid high risk as well as low-risk situations. It is because high-risk situations may result in underachievement while low-risk situations are not convincing enough. Talking about rewards, either tangible or intangible, it has negligible influence on people who are directed by the need for achievement. However, they demand continued feedback from the superiors/supervisors as it helps them in comparing their expected achievement with actual achievement.

Need for Power- According to McClelland, need for power is the desire in people to be able to control one's as well as other people's actions. Such people's motivation is neither driven by recognition nor by rewards, but only by agreement and compliance from others.

Reportedly, people of this personality are found to be more argumentative, competitive, influencing and assertive than those who value achievement and

affiliation more. They are also known for their attitude (positive) towards discipline. However, people in this category are more likely to experience frustration in cases when situations are out of control as they feel powerless.

Need for affiliation- affiliation can be defined as the positive response an individual receives in return of their attempt to maintain an effective relationship with people who are present around him most of the time. People who value affiliation above achievement and power always look forward to maintaining warm interpersonal relationships with people they have recurring contact with. Having good bond with others creates a feeling of belongingness and relatedness which automatically results in a supportive and collaborative response from them.

However, these people are more likely to avoid highly competitive, uncertain and risky situations because they desire to receive love and acceptance, and fear rejection. Thus, they also adhere to workplace ethics and norms. Employees, whose motivation is driven by achievement, must be handed over challenging tasks with achievable goals. While less challenging or low-risk tasks are perceived as tasks not worth spending time and effort, tasks with unreachable goals demotivate these type of employees. Sports players are a good example of people of this type.

Some employees' motivation is highly influenced by power. Employees of this nature have strong desire to acquire power or authority to manage self and others that they become committed to their duty even when other motivational factors like payment are comparatively low. Example of such people is those who join the police.

Employees, whose motivation is driven by affiliation, demand cooperative working environment. As these employees prefer working in groups to working alone, they may be resistive to transfer due to their preference to stay close to their friends and family. Their resistance can be observed even in cases when a transfer is beneficial for personal development. Employees with such quality can perform well

when they are given tasks based on social interactions, for example, customer service, front desk clerk, etc.

1.2: SELF-ESTEEM

Self-esteem refers to a person's overall sense of his or her value or worth. It can be considered a sort of measure of how much a person "values, approves of, appreciates, prizes, or likes him or herself" (Adler & Stewart, 2004).

According to self-esteem expert Morris Rosenberg, self-esteem is quite simply one's attitude toward oneself (1965). He described it as a "favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the self".

In psychology, the term self-esteem is used to describe a person's overall sense of self-worth or personal value. In other words, how much you appreciate and like yourself.

Academic psychologists recognize two types of self-esteem. The first is general self-esteem, often measured using the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (which includes items such as "I take a positive attitude toward myself"). The second type of self-esteem is specific, often measuring self-esteem in a particular domain such as school, work, athletics, or appearance. These subdomains are then combined to form a complete self-esteem score (for example, in scales such as the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale or the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory). Although nonpsychologists sometimes use the term self-esteem to refer to body and appearance concerns, a psychologist is more specific and instead calls these body image or appearance self-esteem.

People high in self-esteem seem to know more about themselves and their preferences. They can furnish longer lists of their likes and dislikes, and they are more confident about their self-ratings. They are also more self-serving; they are more likely to take credit for their successes and blame outside sources for their failure. Self-esteem is also correlated with emotional stability: People with low self-esteem

experience negative moods more often and report more fluctuation in their moods. Self-esteem is often seen as a personality trait, which means that it tends to be stable and enduring. Self-esteem can involve a variety of beliefs about yourself, such as the appraisal of your own appearance, beliefs, emotions, and behaviors.

Self-esteem can play a significant role in your motivation and success throughout your life. Low self-esteem may hold you back from succeeding at school or work because you don't believe yourself to be capable of success. By contrast, having a healthy self-esteem can help you achieve because you navigate life with a positive, assertive attitude and believe you can accomplish your goals.

Various factors believed to influence our self-esteem include:

- Genetics
- Personality
- Life experiences
- Age
- Health
- Thoughts
- Social circumstances
- The reactions of others

Self-esteem has been a hot topic in psychology for decades, going about as far back as psychology itself. Even Freud, who many consider the founding father of psychology (although he's a bit of an estranged father at this point), had theories about self-esteem at the heart of his work. What self-esteem is, how it develops (or fails to develop) and what influences it has kept psychologists busy for a long time, and there's no sign that we'll have it all figured out anytime soon!

Appraisal of the effects of self-esteem is complicated by several factors. Because many people with high self-esteem exaggerate their successes and good traits, we emphasize objective measures of outcomes. High self-esteem is also a heterogeneous category, encompassing people who frankly accept their good qualities along with narcissistic, defensive, and conceited individuals. When self-esteem is weak, this underlying anxiety can instigate defensive behaviour to threats in contingent domains.

A large body of research suggests that this is not the case. Self-esteem does explain about 5% of the variance in school achievement, a small but statistically significant effect. However, as in any correlational study, there are three possibilities: High self-esteem could cause school achievement, school achievement could cause high self-esteem, or a third variable (such as income level) could cause both. To use a common analogy, the horse could be pulling the cart, or things could be reversed and the cart has been put before the horse. A third variable resembles the horse and the cart being towed on a flatbed truck: Neither the cart nor the horse is causing the motion in the other even though they are moving together.

Most studies have found that achievement leads to self-esteem, not vice versa. Another set of studies finds that controlling for third variables (such as family income) eliminates the correlation. This occurs because rich kids are both higher in self-esteem and do better in school. Self-esteem is also not consistently correlated with alcohol and drug abuse or teen pregnancy. Some studies have found that high self-esteem actually predicts earlier intercourse among teens. Overall, self-esteem does not seem to cause good outcomes for kids; the two are unrelated.

Despite this research, numerous school programs aim to increase children's self-esteem. A 2006 Google search showed that more than 300,000 elementary schools mention self-esteem in their mission statements. Most of these say that they seek to encourage or develop children's self-esteem. Some of these programs promote self-esteem without rooting it in achievement, in the belief that children should feel

good about themselves no matter what they do. Although the results of these programs are continuing to be debated, it seems likely that they will not have much impact if self-esteem does not cause achievement and good behavior (which appears to be the case).

There has recently been some debate about whether low self-esteem leads to antisocial behavior. Experimental lab studies consistently find no correlation between self-esteem and aggression. Two recent correlational studies, however, found that low self-esteem was correlated with delinquent behavior in a sample of adolescents, even after controlling for academic achievement, income, and parental support. Other variables, such as associating with delinquent friends, might explain the effect, which accounts for about 4% of the variance in delinquent behavior. Overall, the evidence suggests that self-esteem is not correlated with aggression, but that low self-esteem is linked to a slightly higher incidence of delinquent behavior.

Some evidence also indicates that low self-esteem is linked to eating disorders such as anorexia and bulimia. However, low self-esteem only predicts eating disorders when women are perfectionistic and feel overweight. Low self-esteem might also follow, rather than precede, eating disorders: People might start to feel badly about themselves after they develop an eating disorder.

One thing self-esteem does strongly predict is happiness. People who are high in self-esteem report being happy, and they are also less likely to be depressed. However, these studies have not proven causation and ruled out other third variable explanations, so further research needs to be done: It is not yet known if self-esteem causes happiness, happiness causes self-esteem, or if some other variable causes both. Self-esteem also leads to greater persistence on tasks, though the causation is not known here, either, and self-control is a better predictor of persistence. Self-esteem is also correlated with greater relationship confidence. High self-esteem people who experience a threat to their self-worth are subsequently more certain of their partners'

regard for them; in contrast, low self-esteem people began to doubt their partners' feelings, which can cause problems in the relationship.

The stability of self-esteem also plays a role. People whose self-esteem fluctuates wildly, or whose self-esteem heavily depends on a particular outcome, are more likely to be depressed and anxious. Stable self-esteem, and self-esteem that does not depend on certain things happening, is correlated with better mental health.

There are different factors that can influence self-esteem. Genetic factors that help shape overall personality can play a role, but it is often our experiences that form the basis for overall self-esteem. Those who consistently receive overly critical or negative assessments from caregivers, family members, and friends, for example, will likely experience problems with low self-esteem. Additionally, once inner thinking, age, any potential illnesses, disabilities, or physical limitations, and your job can affect your self-esteem.

. Many people tend to credit themselves when things go well, and blame others or luck when things go badly. This is called self-serving bias, and you can easily see how it preserves good self-feelings. Self-esteem boosting also explains in group bias, in which people believe that their own group is better than other groups. In other words, prejudice against people unlike ourselves may be rooted in our desire to feel good about ourselves. One set of researchers believes that the ultimate self-preservation—pushing away thoughts about death—explains patriotism and in group bias. They find that when people are reminded of death, they strongly defend their own worldviews. Another study found that when high self-esteem people are threatened, they respond by acting more boastful and ruder.

Overall, self-esteem does not explain as many things as most people believe it does. Self-esteem is good for relationships, but only if it does not cross over into narcissism. People with high self-esteem are happier, but their self-esteem does not

cause good things to happen in their lives. Instead, the pursuit of self-esteem can sometimes lead people to behave in ways that they might later regret.

1.3: PEER PRESSURE

A peer is a person who belongs to the same societal group based on age, grade or status, while a friend is a person whom we are attached to by affection or esteem. Peer pressure is feeling pressure from other age-mates to do something harmful for self and others. Peer pressure is broadly defined as any attempt by one or more peers to compel an individual to follow in the decisions or behaviors favoured by the pressuring individual or group (Sim & Koh, 2003).

Peers play a crucial role in a child's development by shaping his/her normative beliefs and interpretation of information regarding risk activities (Cox & Cox, 1998).

Peer pressure exists as the mutual effect of close friends and that the type of friendship determines the degree of influence. (Cohen, 1983).

If the relationship is homophilic with regard to a particular attitude or behavior, friendship selection anchors the individual's preexisting attitude or behavior pattern. However, if the new friend has a different attitude or behavior, so that the friendship is heterophilic, there may be attitude or behavior change via influence from one person to another (Maxwell, 2002).

Peers are people who are part of the same social group, so the term "peer pressure" means the influence that peers can have on each other. Although peer pressure does not necessarily have to be negative, the term "pressure" implies that the process influences people to do things that may be resistant to, or might not otherwise choose to do. So usually the term "peer pressure" is used when people are talking about behaviors that are not considered socially acceptable or desirable, such as experimentation with alcohol and drug use. The term "peer pressure" is not usually used to describe socially desirable behaviors, such as taking more exercise, or academic success.

Peer pressure may be referred to as that pressure that we feel from our peer group. Either in games or sports or in studies. This pressure can also be positive or negative. Sometimes in the force of peer pressure we achieve so much achievements that one cannot imagine and sometimes due to the same peer pressure, we even lose those achievements which we deserve to achieve. Therefore, we can say that peer pressure can act in both positive and negative way.

It doesn't mean that one should not make friends. a student's life contains a very important role of friends. If you've got no one to share your feelings with then you may get depressed. It is therefore necessary to make good friends. It is not always necessary that peer pressure act in a negative way only. It depends upon us that in which way we take it. Having peers is a good thing but having negative peer pressure is bad. So all you have to do is either ignore them or take that pressure in a positive way in order to touch the skies of successes

Peers are people who you socialize with or that are similar to you in age, interests, or in some other way. Peers can include people you are friends with, go to school with, work with or meet at an event. Peer pressure is when you are influenced by other people (your peers) to act in a certain way. If you're with friends who are doing something that you typically would not do and they convince you to do what they are doing, that is an example of peer pressure. Cross behavior analyses show that boys who smoke cigarettes and drink alcohol are significantly more likely to have friends with similar behaviors compared to boys who dip snuff and chew tobacco (Hunter et al., 1991).

It happens usually that in schools or colleges ,when we take part in some competition, then our those peers who are not capable to participate or to win in that competition start demotivating us and as a result either we don't participate in the competition or we fail to win in that competition. Sometimes when we are preparing for exams and studying in front of our peers, they start teasing us and as a result, our concentration diverts from studies resulting in poor performance in exams.

Peers, those people who belong to our age, our class, our school or they work with us. Peers play a very important and special role in our lives, either we can say in a positive way or in a negative way, it depends upon how we react to them. Especially, in schools and colleges, we got many friends, all of our age group. And all of them have a special bond with us. So it is almost impossible to get disconnected to them or to ignore them. Therefore how they behave and whatever they say leaves a great impact on our minds, maybe for lifetime. Therefore it is necessary to have a good peer group.

The brightest examples of such groups are the groups with the formal membership (political parties) and informal groups, especially among the teenagers (for example, classmates, group-mates, etc.). Peer pressure does not depend on the desire of an individual to belong to a certain social group and can reveal in different way, for example, doing such things which one would never do in the normal condition (smoking, taking drugs, having chaotic sexual relations, consuming alcohol, get married, find a job, have children, buy unnecessary things, including the expensive ones).

1.4: NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The present study tries to understand the relationship between two categories of variables thought to influence achievement motive, self-esteem and peer pressure. Self-esteem is used to describe a person's overall sense of self-worth or personal value. High self-esteem helps individuals to view themselves as active and capable and they set goals which helps them to learn new things. Self-esteem plays an important role in academic achievement, social and personal responsibility. When considering the effects of self-esteem on achievement motive, it is possible to promote a better achievement in students by identifying their self-esteem.

Peer pressure is the influence by other people (peers) to act in a certain way. A young person can experience peer pressure in varying degrees. Sometimes their

peers may proactively influence them to behave in certain ways and other times they may be just following along. Both of these situations are based on seeking approval, but it is also possible for peer pressure to be a result of bullying. So it is a major concern among students to find out the influence of peer pressure and its relation to their achievement motive.

Achievement Motivation is defined as behaviors dedicated to developing and demonstrating higher abilities. By identifying the relation of self-esteem and peer pressure on achievement motive one can take steps to improve their achievement by accepting positive and rejecting the negative outcomes. People are very motivated to preserve their self-esteem and good feelings about themselves. However, the main objective behind this theory is to understand characteristics of higher need achievers that the outcome associated with high need achievement and method of increasing the need for achievement. Thus, high self-esteem is an important factor leading to student's performance.

1.5: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The study is entitled as “**SELF-ESTEEM AND PEER PRESSURE IN RELATION TO ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVE AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS**”.

1.6: VARIABLES OF STUDY

The variables used in the study are self-esteem, peer pressure (dependent variable) and achievement motive (independent variable).

1.7: OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Achievement Motive: It is the desire to attain a high standard of excellence and to accomplish the unique objectives to show concern with competition with a standard of excellence.

Self-Esteem: It is the way people think about themselves, and how worthwhile they feel.

Peer Pressure: A feeling that one must do the same things as other people of one's age and social group in order to be liked or respected by them.

1.8: ORGANIZATION OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 1 has represented the introduction, introduction to specific variables, need and significance of the study, statement of the problem, variables of study and definition of terms. Chapter 2 gives the related theoretical background and studies related to the variables, hypothesis and the objectives of the study. The method and procedure used to gather data for the present study are prepared in chapter 3. Chapter 4 deals with the result and discussion part of the research. Chapter 5 contains a summary of the study and findings, conclusion drawn from the findings, the discussion part and recommendations for further study.

The review aims to provide contextual and theoretical grounds for the study. The literatures were reviewed under theoretical and empirical literatures on achievement motivation, peer pressure and self-esteem. Therefore the literature review will look at previous studies and publications related to the concept of above variables. The review ends with identification of the gap which gives way to the formation of conceptual framework for the study.

2.1: THEORIES RELATED TO ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVE

Achievement Motivation Theory

The Achievement motivation theory relates personal characteristics and background to a need for achievement and the associated competitive drive to meet standards of excellence. Achievement Motivation Theory (AMT) explains the integral relationship between an individual's characteristics and his/her need to achieve something in life. In doing so, it also takes into account the kind of competitive drive a person has to achieve set goals. (Martin, 2017).

AMT was put forward and refined by a group of researchers Murray (1938), Lowel (1953), Atkinson, Clark and Mc Cleland (1961) over the years. According to this theory, an individual's motivation to achieve something in life or the dire need to achieve a specific goal is governed by various internal factors such as willingness, determination, punctuality, personal drive along with numerous external factors (also known as environmental factors) such as pressures, expectations, targets, etc., set by relevant organizations, members of the family or the society. A person's need to achieve something and the reason behind his/her overall motivation to achieve a certain goal, according to the AMT, more often than not, comes from within and is strongly related to the individuals need for power and affiliation.

The earliest achievement motivation theories focused on people's aspired level of behavior and the perceived utility of different behaviors as indicated by the expectancies and values that people associated with those behaviors. A key

assumption underlying these approaches was that people make conscious and rational choices about their achievement behavior. Around the same time that the expectancy-value theories were emerging, personality psychologist Henry Murray proposed a system of psychological needs that included achievement (a need for efficiency and effectiveness) and infavoidance (a need to avoid humiliation and to refrain from action due to fear of failure). These needs were proposed to explain individual differences in behavior. David McClelland and colleagues in several works subsequently introduced the construct of achievement motives to account for individual differences in people's achievement behavior under similar conditions. Motives represented the strength of associations between environmental cues (e.g., competence pursuits where success or failure are possible) and learned affective responses to those cues. Given the importance of competence to the self, self-evaluative emotions such as pride and shame provided logical affective bases for these motives. (Conroy, n.d)

In their achievement motivation theory, McClelland et al. posited that a person's motivation is influenced by a tendency toward success and a tendency away from failure. Each of these tendencies was represented as the product of the person's perceived probability of succeeding (or failing), the value of the reward for succeeding (or the punishment for failing), and the person's motives. Thus, motives were proposed to refine basic expectancy-value predictions and elaborate on interindividual variation in behavior. Over time, the independence of approach and avoidance motivation became apparent, and the idea that approach and avoidance tendencies produced a single resultant motivation orientation was abandoned. In contemporary research, the approach and avoidance-based achievement motives are typically treated as independent predictors of motivational outcomes, and their direct effects on motivational outcomes receive more attention than their interactions with expectancies and values.

2.2 THEORIES RELATED TO SELF-ESTEEM

Stanley Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Theory

Contemporary belief is that self-esteem is rooted in early childhood with a foundation of trust, unconditional love and security, impacted on as life progresses by a combination of positive and negative evaluations. Stanley Coopersmith's (1967 as cited in Seligman, 1996, p.32) self-evaluation scale measured self-esteem in children and then assessed the parent's child rearing practices for those children with high self-esteem and concluded that the origins of higher self-esteem lay in clear rules and limits enforced by the parents.

Esteem in Maslow's Theory – The Hierarchy of Needs

The mention of esteem may bring to mind the fourth level of Maslow's pyramid: esteem needs. While these needs and the concept of self-esteem are certainly related, Maslow's esteem needs are more focused on external measures of esteem, such as respect, status, recognition, accomplishment, and prestige (McLeod, 2017). There is a component of self-esteem within this level of the hierarchy, but Maslow felt that the esteem of others was more important for development and need fulfillment than self-esteem. He explained that for one to achieve self-actualization and grow, their need for inner-respect and esteem from others must be met.

The need for self-esteem plays an important role in psychologist Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs, which depicts self-esteem as one of the basic human motivations. Maslow suggested that people need both esteem from other people as well as inner self-respect. Both of these needs must be fulfilled in order for an individual to grow as a person and achieve self-actualization.

Self-Determination Theory

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) states that man is born with an intrinsic motivation to explore, absorb and master his surroundings and that true high self-

esteem (Deci & Ryan, 1995 as cited in Ryan & Deci, 2004) is reported when the basic psychological nutrients, or needs, of life (relatedness, competency and autonomy) are in balance (Ryan & Deci, 2004; Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000 as cited in Ryan & Deci, 2004). When social conditions provide support and opportunity to fulfil these basic needs, personal growth, vitality and well-being are enhanced (Chirkou, Ryan, Kim, & Kaplan, 2003; La Guardia, Ryan, Couchman, & Deci, 2000 as cited in Ryan & Deci, 2004). Relatedness was an addition to the original theory to account for people's inherent ability to make meaning and connect with others through the internalisation of cultural practices and values (Ryan & Deci, 2004).

Terror Management Theory

TMT paints a somewhat morbid picture—high self-esteem promotes positive affect and personal growth, psychological well-being and coping as a buffer against anxiety in the knowledge of our eventual certain death, and reduces defensive anxiety related behaviour. Some researchers propose an integration of Attachment Theory and Terror Management Theory (Mikulincer, Florian, & Hirschberger, 2003 as cited in Pyszczynski et al., 2004).

An integration of TMT and Attachment Theory hypothesizes that self-esteem develops as a child realises that anxiety reduces as its needs are met by the caregiver, resulting in the evolution of their 'worldview' and the inextricable correlation between self-esteem and good relationships (Mikulincer, Florian, & Hirschberger, 2003 as cited in Pyszczynski et al., 2004). When self-esteem is weak, this underlying anxiety can instigate defensive behaviour to threats in contingent domains. Convincing people that an afterlife awaits them also eliminates the effect of mortality salience on self-esteem striving (Pyszczynski et al., 2004). The efficacy of these 'reminders' goes unchallenged in TMT as the pursuit of high self-esteem protects against death anxiety even when not consciously aware of it (Pyszczynski et al., 2004).

Sociometer Theory

To be excluded from a worthwhile relationship affects self-esteem more negatively than the positive impact of being included in increasing numbers of less meaningful relationships and inclusion is preferred to being just viewed positively (Leary, 1990; Leary & Downs, 1995 as cited in Leary et al., 1995). An individual's sociometer also has the added complexity of being concerned about its inclusive status with groups that might be considered negatively or not worthwhile, all of which add to the building up or reducing of one's self-esteem (Baumeister & Tice, 1990 as cited in Leary et al., 1995).

The best evidence of changes in self-esteem may be one's mood (Heatherton & Polivy, 1991 as cited in Leary et al., 1995) in the form of feelings of pride and high self-esteem, and shame with low self-esteem (Scheff, Retzinger, & Ryan, 1989 cited Leary et al., 1995), translating as levels of anxiety to both trait and state self-esteem (Spivey, 1989 as cited in Leary et al., 1995).

2.3: STUDIES RELATED TO ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVE

Veroff, Wilcox, and Atkinson, (1953) conducted a study on the achievement motive in high school and college age women. "The experimental procedure for producing an increase in achievement motivation and a measurable difference in the mean n Achievement score obtained from thematic apperception stories in male college students is shown to produce an increase in the mean n Achievement score of younger high school age male. The same experimental procedure does not produce an increase in the mean n Achievement score of female high school students.

Atkinson, Bastian, Earl, and Litwin, (1960) conduct a study on the effect of individual differences in strength of achievement motive on goal setting and preferences for imaginary bets equated for expected monetary value but differing in probability of winning. Measures of n Achievement were obtained by content analysis of responses to the French Test of Insight. Persons with high n Achievement scores

were assumed to have relatively stronger motives to approach success and those with low n Achievement scores relatively stronger motives to avoid failure. The results are consistent with the theory concerning motivational determinants of risk taking behavior and constitute evidence of the effects of individual differences in achievement motive in games of chance as well as skill."

Elizur, (1986) Attempted to develop an instrument—the Achievement Motive Questionnaire—for assessing achievement tendencies among individuals engaged in athletic and sporting activities and analyzed the relationship between achievement motive (AM) and sport performance (SP). AM was defined as being based on a behavior modality, type of confrontation, and time perspective. It was hypothesized that the empirical data would reflect the facets of the definition as independent classifications and the specified order of the elements of the facets and that there would be a positive relationship between AM and SP. 186 individuals (median age 20.5 yrs) who regularly engaged in weekly amateur sports or athletics, who were majoring in physical education, or who were attending physical education classes at a university served as Ss. Ss completed the Achievement Motive Questionnaire and supplied data on their best performances in swimming, running, and jumping. Smallest-space analysis confirmed the AM structure that was hypothesized in the development of the questionnaire. SP and AM were positively related to readiness to be confronted with difficulty, personal responsibility, solving problems, and satisfying the need to succeed. Results suggest that systematically defining the components of AM may enable distinctions to be made between different levels and types of AM across a variety of individuals and subpopulations.

Elizur and Beck, (1994) conducted a study “Gender Differences in Achievement Motive” among Hungarian sample. They then administered it to 165 women and 362 men employed by a large industrial corporation in Hungary in order

to examine achievement motivation. Although we found significant differences in the frequency of responses to the achievement motive items, the basic structure of the achievement motive domain was similar for women and men. They detected no special tendency for women to score higher than men on affective responses. These results support the view that gender differences in achievement motive are rooted in socialization processes rather than in basic differences between women and men.

Elliot & Church, (1997) found achievement goal is commonly defined as the purpose for engaging in a task, and the specific type of goal taken on creates a framework for how individuals experience their achievement pursuits. Achievement goal theorists commonly identify two distinct ideas toward competence: a performance goal focused on demonstrating ability when compared to others, and a mastery goal focused on the development of competence and task mastery. Performance goals are hypothesized to produce vulnerability to certain response patterns in achievement settings such as preferences for easy tasks, withdrawal of effort in the face of failure, and decreased task enjoyment. Mastery goals can lead to a motivational pattern that creates a preference for moderately.

Elliot & McGregor, (1999) stated that achievement motivation has been conceptualized in many different ways. Our understanding of achievement-relevant effects, cognition, and behavior has improved. Despite being similar in nature, many achievement motivation approaches have been developed separately, suggesting that most achievement motivation theories are in concordance with one another instead of competing. Motivational researchers have sought to promote a hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation by incorporating the two prominent theories: the achievement motive approach and the achievement goal approach. Achievement motives include the need for achievement and the fear of failure. These are the more predominant motives that direct our behavior toward positive and negative outcomes. Achievement goals are viewed as more solid cognitive representations pointing individuals toward a specific end. There are three types of

these achievement goals: a performance-approach goal, a performance-avoidance goal, and a mastery goal. A performance-approach goal is focused on attaining competence relative to others, a performance-avoidance goal is focused on avoiding incompetence relative to others, and a mastery goal is focused on the development of competence itself and of task mastery. Achievement motives can be seen as direct predictors of achievement-relevant circumstances. Thus, achievement motives are said to have an indirect or distal influence, and achievement goals are said to have a direct or proximal influence on achievement-relevant outcomes

Tanaka and Yamauchi, (2000) investigated the effect of achievement motive on goal orientation, and that of goal orientation on intrinsic interest in learning and academic achievement, based on the model proposed by Elliot and Church (1997). A sample of 222 fifth and sixth grade students of an elementary school, and another of 307 seventh, eighth and ninth grade students of a junior high school participated in the study. With multiple-sample structural equation modeling, the paths in two causal models, one for each of the elementary and junior high school samples, were compared. A path was found from hope for success to mastery orientation, from both hope for success and fear of failure to performance-approach orientation, and from fear of failure to performance-avoidance orientation. Mastery and performance-approach orientations each had a positive effect on intrinsic interest in learning. For elementary school children, performance-approach orientation enhanced academic achievement, and for junior high school students, mastery orientation mainly facilitated it. Performance-avoidance orientation had a negative effect on both intrinsic interest and academic achievement.

Fodor and Carver,(2000) conducted a study on undergraduate students in engineering and science completed using the Thematic Apperception Test, which was scored for achievement motivation and also for power motivation. They later participated in an experiment in which they first provided a solution to an engineering

problem. The experimenter then gave them preprogrammed, written feedback on how well they performed in two conditions of the experiment (positive or negative feedback) and no feedback in a third condition. Feedback was couched in the language of both achievement and power imagery. Last, students rendered solutions to a second engineering problem—the water-for-Tonya problem. Two students who had completed a course in the psychology of creativity performed ratings of each solution on dimensions designated as creativity and complexity. Ratings for the two dimensions moderately correlated with one another ($r = .62$) and therefore were combined and summed across the two evaluators to form a single overall Creativity score. Achievement motivation correlated positively with Creativity score in the positive- and negative-feedback conditions ($r_s = .43$ and $.38$) but not significantly in the no-feedback condition ($r = .10$). Power motivation correlated positively with Creativity in the positive-feedback condition ($r = .32$), and negatively in the negative-feedback condition ($r = -.25$), but not significantly in the no-feedback condition ($r = .17$). Multiple regression/correlation analysis lent further support to these findings. A major conclusion that these data suggest is a differential response to negative feedback. Achievement-motivated people appear to benefit from it, whereas power-motivated people do not.

Thompson, Davidson, & Barber, (1995) A study was conducted on students involving unsolvable problems to test some assumptions of the self-worth theory regarding motivation and effort. The results showed that there was no evidence of reported reduction of effort despite poorer performance when the tasks were described as moderately difficult as compared with tasks much higher in difficulty. The possibility was raised that low effort may not be responsible for the poor performance of students in situations which create threats to self-esteem. Two suggestions were made, one being that students might unconsciously withdraw effort, and the other stating that students may reduce effort as a result of withdrawing commitment from the problem. Regardless of which suggestion is true, self-worth theory assumes that

individuals have a reduced tendency to take personal responsibility for failure. Self-worth theory states that in certain situations students stand to gain by not trying and deliberately withholding effort. If poor performance is a threat to a person's sense of self-esteem, this lack of effort is likely to occur. This most often occurs after an experience of failure. Failure threatens self-estimates of ability and creates uncertainty about an individual's capability to perform well on a subsequent basis. If the following performance turns out to be poor, then doubts concerning ability are confirmed. Self-worth theory states that one way to avoid threat to self-esteem is by withdrawing effort. Withdrawing effort allows failure to be attributed to lack of effort rather than low ability which reduces overall risk to the value of one's self-esteem. When poor performance is likely to reflect poor ability, a situation of high threat is created to the individual's intellect. On the other hand, if an excuse allows poor performance to be attributed to a factor unrelated to ability, the threat to self-esteem and one's intellect is much lower

Sagie and Elizur, (2001) conduct a study which aimed to assess achievement motive of individuals varying in entrepreneurial orientation (small business students versus students of business and economics) or in cultural environment (US versus Japanese). Through re-analysis of a database aggregated in two previous studies. Based on a multifaceted definition of achievement motive, we hypothesized that the structure of the domain would be consistent across samples but its strength will vary. Overall, the results confirmed the hypothesis. Data of each sample reflected the three facets of achievement motive type of confrontation, time perspective related to task performance, and behavior modality. On most of the achievement motive scales small business students scored higher than business and economics students. In addition, achievement motive scores were highest for respondents from the USA (individualistic culture) than for their colleagues from Japan (collectivistic culture). Theoretical and applied implications were outlined.

Tanaka,(2001)investigated the effects of approach and avoidance achievement motives (the motive to achieve success and the motive to avoid failure) on three goal orientations (mastery, performance-approach, performance-avoidance goals) and the effects of goal orientations on intrinsic interest in learning and academic achievement for 157 tenth and 135 eleventh grade students of a Japanese girls' high school. Structural equation modeling indicated that mastery goals arose mainly from the motive to achieve success; however, the positive relation between the motive to avoid failure and mastery goals was also found. Performance-approach goals were related both the motive to achieve success and the motive to avoid failure. Performance-avoidance goals arouse mainly from the motive to avoid failure; however, the positive relation between the motive to achieve success and these goals was found. Mastery goals positively correlated with intrinsic interest and academic achievement, and scores on both performance-approach goals and performance-avoidance goals had no significant effects on either intrinsic or academic achievement.

Thrash and Hurst (2001) investigated achievement goal approach has attained prominence in the achievement motivation literature and has produced a valuable empirical yield. However, the precise nature of the achievement goal construct is in need of scrutiny, as is the issue of how achievement goals and their antecedents combine to produce competence-based self-regulation. In this article, we address these important conceptual issues in the context of the hierarchical model of achievement motivation. The approach–avoidance distinction, which has been an integral part of the achievement motivation literature since its inception, is highlighted throughout.

Elliot, (2002) explored two issues that point to convergences: moderation of concordance between implicit and self-attributed achievement motives, and the role of the two types of motive as antecedents of achievement goals. Significant positive correlations were found between implicit and self-attributed need for achievement and between implicit and self-attributed fear of failure. Individuals higher in self-

determination were more concordant in implicit and self-attributed need for achievement. Implicit and self-attributed achievement motives predicted achievement goals in a similar manner, and structural equation modeling yielded good fit for a conceptually parsimonious latent motive model. It is suggested that implicit and self-attributed motives converge in some respects (yet diverge in others), and implications for theory are discussed.

Neumeister, (2004) this study is a slice of an overarching research investigation of perfectionism in gifted college students. Utilizing a qualitative interview design, this study examined how gifted college students scoring high on 1 of 2 different dimensions of perfectionism (socially prescribed or self-oriented) perceived their achievement motivation. Findings indicated that, for the socially prescribed perfectionists, an underlying motive to avoid failure influenced their achievement goals and behaviors. Based on this motive, they set both performance-avoidance and performance-approach goals and tended toward procrastination in their work. In contrast, an underlying motive to achieve influenced the achievement goals and behaviors of the self-oriented perfectionists. These participants set both mastery and performance approach goals. They developed a strong work ethic, and they were motivated to seek out challenges. Implications of these findings are suggested, and recommendations for parents and educators working with gifted perfectionistic students are discussed.

Brunstein and Schmitt, (2004) examined the validity of an Implicit Association Test (Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998) for assessing individual differences in achievement tendencies. Eighty-eight students completed an IAT and explicit self-ratings of achievement orientation, and were then administered a mental concentration test that they performed either in the presence or in the absence of achievement-related feedback. Implicit and explicit measures of achievement orientation were uncorrelated. Under feedback, the IAT uniquely predicted students' test performance but failed to predict their self-reported task enjoyment. Conversely,

explicit self-ratings were unrelated to test performance but uniquely related to subjective accounts of task enjoyment. Without feedback, individual differences in both performance and enjoyment were independent of differences in either of the two achievement orientation measures.

Schmalt, (2005) examined the diverse validity aspects of a short form of the Achievement-Motive Grid (AMG-S; Schmalt, 1999). The AMG is a picture-based measure that combines features of the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT; Murray, 1943) with features of self-report questionnaires. Similar to the TAT, the motive gets aroused by presenting a set of pictured achievement situations. Similar to a questionnaire, the motive is measured with a set of statements representing characteristic components of the achievement motive. Quite in line with the original version, factor analyses of the AMG-S all recommend the adoption of a 3-factor solution in which 1 hope-of-success (HS) and 2 fear-of-failure (FF) concepts are differentiated. The HS and passive FF factor (FFp) are based on positive and negative efficacy evaluations, respectively. The active FF factor (FFa) describes anticipations of impending failure. FFp is clearly a "withdrawal" factor, whereas FFa is clearly an "invigoration" factor. In the construct validity section of this research, I focus on classical and recent elaborations of approach and avoidance motivation in which I show that HS, FFp, and FFa play a substantial role in a motive-goals-outcomes framework of achievement motivation.

Wiegand and Geller, (2005) emphasized that the positive psychology is becoming established as a reputable sub-discipline in psychology despite having neglected the role of positive reinforcement in enhancing quality of life. The authors discuss the relevance of positive reinforcement for positive psychology, with implications for broadening the content of organizational behavior management. Specifically, literature in achievement motivation is discussed, and ways to promote success-seeking over failure-avoiding are entertained.

Neumeister and Finch, (2006) investigated create and test a model that (a) illustrated variables influencing the development of perfectionism, and (b) demonstrated how different types of perfectionism may influence the achievement goals of high-ability students. Using a multiple-groups path analysis, the researchers found that parenting style was related to attachment, with authoritative and permissive parenting associated with secure attachment and authoritarian and uninvolved parenting associated with insecure attachment. Attachment, in turn, was related to perfectionism, with insecure attachment associated with either self-oriented or socially prescribed perfectionism. In addition, the model then illustrated that perfectionism would influence achievement goals, with self-oriented perfectionists more likely to set mastery or performance-approach goals, and socially prescribed perfectionists more likely to set performance-approach or performance-avoidance goals. The findings of this study are interpreted in the context of the existing literature, and implications for working with high-ability perfectionistic students are discussed.

Elliot and Pekrun (2007) found that Emotion is present in many ways throughout the achievement motivation process. Individuals bring general affective tendencies with them to achievement settings, and these dispositions influence the types of achievement goals that they adopt. In turn, the achievement goals that individuals adopt, influence the type of affect that they experience as they anticipate achievement tasks, engage in achievement tasks, and respond to achievement outcomes. Emotion is undoubtedly implicated in the achievement motivation process in other ways as well. Importantly, the fact that the hierarchical model grounds achievement motivation in deeply engrained personality dispositions does not mean that achievement goal adoption and resultant emotional experience are set in stone. Although it is true that temperament is quite stable over the lifespan, motive dispositions, although also stable, are likely to remain at least somewhat malleable into adulthood. Achievement goal adoption is multiply determined; many other factors besides general affective tendencies are involved in goal adoption, including

perceived competence, implicit theories of ability, and numerous properties of the achievement environment. Thus, both goals and emotions are amenable to change in achievement settings, but such change is undoubtedly constrained to a degree, given the stability of personality.

Job, Langens, and Brandstätter (2009) conducted a study on the “Effects of Achievement Goal Striving on Well-Being: The Moderating Role of the Explicit Achievement Motive”. This research is based on the theoretical conception of motives and goals as distinct motivational concepts. Previous research has demonstrated that discrepancies between implicit motives and goals have negative consequences for well-being. The authors have extended these findings to the explicit motive system, with four studies investigating the moderating role of the explicit achievement motive on the relationship between achievement goal striving and well-being. In line with their expectations, achievement goal striving was accompanied by high positive affect (Studies 1 and 2) and a high number of positive affective experiences (Study 3) only when the explicit achievement motive was high. Longitudinal Study 4 showed that the interaction between the explicit achievement motive and achievement goal commitment predicts changes in subjective well-being and health measured over a 3-month period.

Diseth and Kobbeltvedt, (2010) found that previous research is inconclusive regarding antecedents and consequences of achievement goals, and there is a need for more research in order to examine the joint effects of different types of motives and learning strategies as predictors of academic achievement. To investigate the relationship between achievement motives, achievement goals, learning strategies (deep, surface, and strategic), and academic achievement in a hierarchical model. Participants were 229 undergraduate students (mean age: 21.2 years) of psychology and economics at the University of Bergen, Norway. Variables were measured by means of items from the Achievement Motives Scale (AMS), the Approaches and Study Skills Inventory for Students, and an achievement goal scale. Correlation

analysis showed that academic achievement (examination grade) was positively correlated with performance-approach goal, mastery goal, and strategic learning strategies, and negatively correlated with performance-avoidance goal and surface learning strategy. A path analysis (structural equation model) showed that achievement goals were mediators between achievement motives and learning strategies, and that strategic learning strategies mediated the relationship between achievement goals and academic achievement. This study integrated previous findings from several studies and provided new evidence on the direct and indirect effects of different types of motives and learning strategies as predictors of academic achievement.

Zuber and Conzelmann (2013) examined that there is a positive relationship between achievement motivation and athletic performance, which is why the achievement motive is viewed as a potential criterion for talent. However, the underlying mechanism behind this relationship remains unclear. In talent and performance models, main effect, mediator and moderator models have been suggested. A longitudinal study was carried out among 140 13-year-old football talents, using structural equation modelling to determine which model best explains how hope for success (HS) and fear of failure (FF), which are the aspects of the achievement motive, motor skills and abilities that affect performance. Over a period of half a year, HS can to some extent explain athletic performance, but this relationship is not mediated by the volume of training, sport-specific skills or abilities, nor is the achievement motive a moderating variable. Contrary to expectations, FF does not explain any part of performance. Aside from HS, however, motor abilities and in particular skills also predict a significant part of performance. The study confirms the widespread assumption that the development of athletic performance in football depends on multiple factors, and in particular that HS is worth watching in the medium term as a predictor of talent.

Tatyana, Elena, and Natalia, (2015) The article describes the problem of motivating first-year students to study a complicated material of physics. The methodology of a team competition has been worked out to be implemented during the classes devoted to solving tasks in physics with the first year students majoring in engineering. Thus, special conditions are created for the student activity encouraged by the urge to achieve success. It has been shown that organization of a team competition in teaching physics helps students to feel an achievement motive in studying physics. The ways of forming the competing student teams have been studied in relation to sociometry and cognitive styles. The experiment results prompted the recommendations on forming the composition of competing teams in high schools and universities.

Gruber, (2017) found that picture story exercises like the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT; Heckhausen, 1963), different pictures are presented to a person with the instruction to create a story using the scenes portrayed in the image. It is assumed, that people identify themselves with the people in the images and project their unconscious motives (e.g., achievement motive) onto them. As the TAT shows only men in the pictures, critics claimed the test is gender-biased; assuming women cannot identify with men in pictures. However, it was not assessed, whether female protagonists of the picture really trigger the same achievement motive as men. Therefore, two studies were conducted to address the gender difference and validity of the TAT using a version with only men in the pictures (study 1) or only women in the pictures (study 2). The results shows that the original TAT of Heckhausen is a valid instrument for women and men, but the modified version with only women in the pictures cannot validly measure the achievement motive in the male sample.

2.4: STUDIES RELATED TO PEER PRESSURE

Lewis and Lewis, (1984) conducted a study on “Peer pressure and risk-taking behaviors in children”. They asked 771 children in grades 5-8 about the dares or challenges they received from other children. A pilot study established categories for classification of the actions proposed ("What did they try to get you to do?"); the techniques utilized ("How did they try to get you to do that?"); and children's responses ("What did you say or do?"). Peer pressure was reported most frequently by 8th grade students. About 50 per cent of the dares encouraged problem behaviors that placed the children (or others) at risk for personal injury, or the potential development of habits hazardous to their health. With increasing age, more occurred in the school environment and fewer involved risk of personal injury. Among 7th and 8th graders, more boys were dared to perform acts of violence, and more girls were challenged to be sexually active.

Clasen and Brown (1985) conducted a study on the multidimensionality of peer pressure in adolescence. A sample of 689 adolescents (grades 7–12) from two Midwestern communities who had been identified by peers as members of one of three major peer groups responded to a self-report survey measuring perceptions of peer pressure in five areas of behavior: involvement with peers, school involvement, family involvement, conformity to peer norms, and misconduct. Perceived pressures toward peer involvement were particularly strong, whereas peer pressures concerning misconduct were relatively ambivalent. Perceived pressures toward misconduct increased across grade levels and pressures to conform to peer norms diminished; grade differences in perceived peer pressures concerning family involvement were community specific. Compared to druggie-toughs, jock-popular perceived stronger peer pressures toward school and family involvement, and less pressure toward (stronger pressure against) misconduct; patterns of perceived pressure among loners were more variable across communities. Results elaborated the process of peer influence in adolescent socialization and identity development.

Bradford (1986) investigated Perceptions of peer pressure, peer conformity dispositions, and self-reported behavior among adolescents Two samples, consisting of a total of 1,027 6th–12th graders from separate communities, were given measures of peer conformity dispositions (willingness to accede to peer pressure), perceptions of peer pressure, and self-reported frequency of behavior concerning 2 major aspects of teenage life: peer involvement (degree of socializing with friends) and misconduct (drug/alcohol use, sexual intercourse, and minor delinquent behavior). Results indicate that perceived less peer pressure toward misconduct than peer involvement and also were comparatively less willing to follow peers in misconduct. Nevertheless, perceived peer pressure and conformity disposition accounted for more of the variance in self-reported misconduct than in self-reported peer involvement. Age differences were modest and varied among measures and samples. The samples also differed in the magnitude of perceived pressures and conformity dispositions as well as in the degree to which these variables were associated with self-reported behavior. It is concluded that the findings reveal a complexity in adolescent conformity that bears elaboration in future research

Montgomery, (1996) examined case studies from Bangladesh and Sri Lanka to explore a disadvantage of group lending schemes: the unnecessary social costs of repayment pressure. The author argues that extending credit and meeting the needs of the poor need not be incompatible. The poor can be protected from socially damaging peer pressure lending practices via flexible repayment schedules, savings facilities and short-term, high-interest consumption loans. The analysis suggests protectional devices for poor borrowers, better staff performance indicators, and self-management of some resources by the poor.

Godbold and Pfau (2000) investigated the “Conferring Resistance to Peer Pressure among Adolescents” and in this study, 417 sixth graders who were

nondrinkers participated in a test of inoculation theory. Students viewed either a normative or information-based antidrinking public service announcement (PSA) or a neutral PSA unrelated to alcohol. Half of the students immediately saw a set of commercials that included beer advertisements. All students then completed a questionnaire measuring threat vulnerability, perceptions of peer acceptance of alcohol use, attitudes, and behavioral intentions. Two weeks later, the remaining group viewed the commercials. The students again completed the questionnaire. Immediately after viewing, the normative PSA produced lower estimations of peer acceptance of alcohol than did either the informational or neutral PSAs. When viewing commercials immediately following the PSAs, students were most resistant to persuasion both immediately following viewing and 2 weeks later. Path models revealed that estimates of peer acceptance and threat vulnerability affected resistance.

Ngee Sim and Fen Koh, (2003) conduct a study on domain conceptualization of adolescent susceptibility to peer pressure. Using the peer pressure domains identified by Clasen and Brown (1985), five susceptibility domains were proposed although only four (family involvement, school involvement, peer involvement, and misconduct) were tested. In terms of measurement, cross-validated results showed that the model with the four domains provided the best fit. In terms of age and sex patterns, the different susceptibilities were characterized by different patterns of age trends and sex differences. In terms of incremental validity, all four susceptibilities predicted behavior in their domains beyond other potential predictors. In terms of relations with a theoretical correlate, the four susceptibilities were differentially related to parental knowledge of adolescents' lives. This overall pattern of results provides converging support for the domain conceptualization.

Perrine and Aloise-Young, (2004) investigated the theoretical orientation as well as empirical data to support self-monitoring as a moderator of the relation between peer influence and problem behavior during adolescence. A group of nonsmoking fifth and seventh graders (N=359) were included in a longitudinal study

to predict smoking one year later. Ten items from the Junior Self-Monitoring Scale were administered as well as self-reports of lifetime and current cigarette smoking, and measures of active peer pressure (direct offers) and passive peer pressure (normative beliefs). As expected, self-monitoring demonstrated a moderating influence on the relationship between passive forms of peer pressure and smoking onset, but did not influence the relationship between active forms of peer pressure and smoking due to the strength of active peer pressure situations (i.e., salient scripts for behavioral responses). Specifically, high self-monitors who believed that cigarette smoking was a normative behavior were more than three and a half times more likely to show progression from complete nonsmoker to current smoker over a one year period than were high self-monitors who did not believe that smoking was a normative behavior. In contrast, the rate of onset for low self-monitors was not dependent on normative beliefs. The implications of these findings for the design of adaptive prevention programs are discussed.

Backes-Gellner, Mohnen, and Werner, (2006) examined the effect of team-size on effort in start-up teams. We extend the model of Kandel and Lazear (1992) to study the joint effect of free-riding and peer pressure, which both dependent on team size in our model. The special characteristic of start-up teams is their unique monitoring technology, which is characterized primarily by spatial proximity and high-frequency decision making. For such teams our model predicts an inverted U-shape relation between effort and team-size. Based on a large sample of start-ups we find strong evidence for the inverted U-shape relationship, with maximum effort in teams with three members.

Steinberg and Monahan (2007) Investigated the age differences and developmental change in resistance to peer influence were assessed using a new self-report instrument that separates susceptibility to peer pressure from willingness to engage in antisocial activity. Data from four ethnically and socioeconomically diverse samples comprising more than 3,600 males and females between the ages of 10 and

30 were pooled from one longitudinal and two cross-sectional studies. Results show that across all demographic groups, resistance to peer influences increases linearly between ages 14 and 18. In contrast, there is little evidence for growth in this capacity between ages 10 and 14 or between 18 and 30. Middle adolescence is an especially significant period for the development of the capacity to stand up for what one believes and resist the pressures of one's peers to do otherwise.

Boehnke, (2007) examined consequences of high peer pressure on academic performance in mathematics among 14-year-old middle-school students in Germany, Canada, and Israel. Its core assumption is that students with very high abilities in mathematics underachieve in order to avoid social exclusion (in the form of being called, e.g., nerds) in their schools. Altogether almost 1,700 students were surveyed in the three cultures. Findings of the study make it obvious that—concerning achievement in mathematics—the primary victims of peer pressure in middle school are girls, boys more likely than girls being the perpetrators. High individual preferences of achievement values can buffer effects of peer pressure. However, from a pedagogical point of view it may nevertheless seem an option to teach mathematics in mono-gender courses, in order to improve the chances of both girls and boys to show an academic performance that concurs with their real competence.

Bellemare, Lepage, and Shearer, (2010) examined the real-effort experiment, simulating actual workplace conditions, comparing the productivity of workers under fixed wages and piece rates. Workers, who were paid to enter data, were exposed to different degrees of peer pressure under both payment systems. The peer pressure was generated in the form of private information about the productivity of their peers. They have two main results. First, they find no level of peer pressure for which the productivity of either male or female workers is significantly higher than the productivity without peer pressure. Second, they find that very low and very high levels of peer pressure can significantly decrease productivity (particularly for men

paid fixed wages). These results are consistent with models of conformism and self-motivation.

Mittone and Ploner, (2010) examined whether reciprocity is affected by what others know and do. Two types of social effects are investigated within the framework of a modified investment game. On the one hand, we assess the role played by the awareness that own choices are observed by another trustee—i.e., peer pressure. On the other hand, we measure the interaction between trustees' choices—i.e., social spillovers. We find that peer pressure fosters reciprocity and, to a lesser extent, so do social spillovers.

Haun and Tomasello, (2011) investigated the “Conformity to Peer Pressure in Preschool Children”. Both adults and adolescents often conform their behavior and opinions to peer groups, even when they themselves know better. The current study investigated this phenomenon in 24 groups of 4 children between 4;2 and 4;9 years of age. Children often made their judgments conform to those of 3 peers, who had made obviously erroneous but unanimous public judgments right before them. A follow-up study with 18 groups of 4 children between 4;0 and 4;6 years of age revealed that children did not change their “real” judgment of the situation, but only their public expression of it. Preschool children are subject to peer pressure, indicating sensitivity to peers as a primary social reference group already during the preschool years.

Gondoli, Corning, Blodgett Salafia, Bucchianeri, and Fitzsimmons, (2011) examined longitudinal connections among young adolescent heterosocial involvement (i.e., mixed-sex interactions), peer pressure for thinness, and body dissatisfaction. Three years of self-report questionnaire data were collected from 88 adolescent girls as they completed 6th through 8th grades. Results indicated that the relation between heterosocial involvement and body dissatisfaction was mediated by perceived peer pressure for thinness. Within this model, heterosocial involvement was associated with greater peer pressure for thinness. In turn, peer pressure for thinness

was associated with greater body dissatisfaction. Results are discussed in terms of their implications for prevention and intervention efforts aimed at girls during their middle-school years.

Chan and Chan, (2011) conducted a study on factors affecting susceptibility to peer pressure are not plentiful although this susceptibility has been found to be associated with youth problems such as substance use and risky sexual behavior. The present study examined how adolescents' susceptibility to peer pressure is related to their relationships with mothers and emotional autonomy from parents. Data were collected from 550 Hong Kong secondary school students using questionnaires. Structural equation modeling results showed that mothers' behavioral control and psychological control predicted adolescents' susceptibility to peer pressure in negative and positive directions respectively. A mediation model is established in which maternal warmth was a negative predictor of adolescents' susceptibility to peer pressure in the areas of peer activities, family activities, school activities, and misconduct behaviors and its effects were mediated by adolescents' emotional autonomy from parents. Implications for parenting programs are discussed.

Paluck, (2011) found that Individuals often conform to the intergroup attitudes and behaviors modeled by their peers in a given situation. To what extent does peer influence on intergroup prejudice 1) diffuse across a social network of peers and 2) affect attitudes and behavior across time? Student leaders ("Peer Trainers") were trained to confront expressions of intergroup prejudice in five randomly assigned high schools across a period of five months; students recruited to be Peer Trainers in five control schools waited to be trained. Independent surveys of Peer Trainers' social networks reveal that treatment Peer Trainers were significantly more likely than control Trainers to be nominated by peers as students who confront prejudice. Treatment Peer Trainers' tolerant behavior spread to close friends and to acquaintances in their social network; their attitudes spread inconsistently, and only

to close friends. Studying peer influence within social networks can improve understanding of social influence, prejudice reduction, and social change.

Shepherd, Lane, Tapscott, and Gentile (2011) investigated risky driving in response to peer pressure. In two studies, college students were socially influenced to be risky or not in a driving simulation. In both studies, confederate peers posing as passengers used verbal persuasion to affect driving behavior. In Study 1, participants encouraged to drive riskily had more accidents and drove faster than those encouraged to drive slowly or not encouraged at all. In Study 2, participants were influenced normatively or informationally to drive safely or riskily. As in Study 1, influence to drive riskily increased risk taking. Additionally, informational influence to drive safely resulted in the least risk taking. Together, the studies highlight the substantial influence of peers in a risk-related situation; in real life, peer influence to be risky could contribute to automobile accidents.

Cherie and Berhane, (2012) investigated the ecological factors that influence risky sexual behavior of adolescents is vital in designing and implementing sexual risk reduction interventions in specific contexts. Interventions undertaken without understanding the critical factors may not produce the desired results. The objective of this study was to identify the factors associated with adolescent risky sexual behavior among school adolescents in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. This cross-sectional study was done among randomly selected school adolescents in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Data were collected by an anonymous self-administered questionnaire. Risky sexual behavior was assessed by asking questions about sexual activity, consistent condom use and faithfulness to a single partner. Logistic regression analysis was done to identify factors related to sexual behavior using the ecological framework. Overall 377 (10.6%) of the 723 sexually active students were involved in risky sexual practices. Risky sexual behavior was significantly and very strongly associated with perception of peers' involvement in sexual intercourse.

Kiran-Esen, (2012) conducted a study on the relationship between levels of peer pressure and self-efficacy expectations among adolescents was examined. The data were obtained from 546 high school students using the Self-efficacy Expectation Scale, developed by Muris (2001) and adapted into Turkish by Celikkaleli, Gündogdu, and Kiran-Esen (2006), and the Peer Pressure Scale (Kiran-Esen, 2003b). Although the findings showed significantly negative relationships between peer pressure and general and academic self-efficacy expectations in these adolescents, no relationships were found between peer pressure and social and emotional self-efficacy expectations. Moreover, general and academic self-efficacy expectations were higher in adolescents who were experiencing low levels of peer pressure than in adolescents with moderate and high levels of general and academic self-efficacy. However, no significant differences were observed in terms of social and emotional self-efficacy expectations.

Vanden Abeele, Campbell, Eggermont, and Roe (2014) examined the key aspects of peer influence and the peer context in relation to two such practices: sexting and mobile porn use. There is considerable concern about adolescents producing, consuming, and distributing sexual materials via mobile phone communication.. The results of a high-school survey study (N = 1,943) revealed that 6% of Flemish teens (11–20 years of age) have sent a sext, while 9% use mobile porn. Teens who were more popular with the other sex and with a greater need for popularity were more likely to report both behaviors. Boys' mobile porn use was also predicted by perceived peer pressure. Same-sex popularity was unrelated to boys' sexting behavior and mobile porn use; for girls, a negative relationship was found.

Bonein & Denant-Boèmont,(2015)focused on the relationship between individual self-control and peer pressure. To this end, we performed a laboratory experiment that proceeded in two parts. The first part involved an individual real-effort task in which subjects could commit themselves to a particular level of

performance while being tempted by an alternative recreational activity. The second part consisted of bargaining in a power-to-take game in which previously earned revenues were at stake. The experimental treatments involved variations in the available information provided to peers about previous individual behavior. The results show that many subjects make a serious commitment. Further, the subsequent revelation of commitment level induces subjects to increase the credible components of their commitment decisions. Past individual behaviors also play a role in bargaining because (i) partners who have committed themselves benefit from lower rates of both take and destruction and (ii) partners who have succumbed to temptation suffer from higher rates of both take and destruction.

Georganas, Tonin, and Vlassopoulos, (2015) examined the “Peer effects arise in situations where workers observe each other’s work activity”. In this paper, we disentangle the effect of observing a peer from that of being observed by a peer, by setting up a real effort experiment in which we manipulate the observability of performance. In particular, we randomize subjects into three groups: in the first one subjects are observed by another subject, but do not observe anybody; in the second one subjects observe somebody else's performance, but are not observed by anybody; in the last group subjects work in isolation, neither observing, nor being observed. To assess the importance of payoff externalities in the emergence of peer effects, we consider both a piece rate compensation scheme, where pay depends solely on own performance, and a team compensation scheme, where pay also depends on the performance of other team members. Overall, we find some evidence that subjects who are observed increase productivity at least initially when compensation is team based, while we find that subjects observing react to what they see when compensation is based only on own performance.

Hendricks, Savahl, & Florence, (2015) The aim in this study was to determine whether or not peer pressure and leisure boredom influenced substance use among

adolescents in low-income communities in Cape Town, South Africa. Nonprobability sampling was used to select 291 adolescents aged between 16 and 18 years who were attending schools in 2 low-income communities in Cape Town. The research instruments were the Drug Use Disorders Identification Test, the Resistance to Peer Influence measure, and the Leisure Boredom Scale. Multiple regression analysis showed that the combined influence of peer pressure and leisure boredom predicted substance use among the adolescents. Of the two factors, peer pressure was the stronger predictor of substance use.

Bursztyn and Jensen (2015) conducted a study to find how does peer pressure affect educational investments. When effort is observable to peers, students may try to avoid social penalties by conforming to prevailing norms. To test this hypothesis, we first consider a natural experiment that introduced a performance leaderboard into computer-based high school courses. The result was a 24 percent performance decline. The decline appears to be driven by a desire to avoid the leaderboard; top performing students prior to the change, those most at risk of appearing on the leaderboard, had a 40 percent performance decline, while poor performing students improved slightly. We next consider a field experiment that offered students complimentary access to an online SAT preparatory course. Sign-up forms differed randomly across students only in whether they said the decision would be kept private from classmates. In nonhonors classes, sign-up was 11 percentage points lower when decisions were public rather than private. Honors class sign-up was unaffected. For students taking honors and nonhonors classes, the response depended on which peers they were with at the time of the offer, and thus to whom their decision would be revealed. When offered the course in a nonhonors class (where peer sign-up rates are low), they were 15 percentage points less likely to sign up if the decision was public. But when offered the course in an honors class (where peer sign-up rates are high), they were 8 percentage points more likely to sign up if the decision was public. Thus, students are highly responsive to their peers are the prevailing norm when they make decisions.

Gheorghiu, Delhomme, and Felonneau, (2015) found many counter measures have been implemented in Europe, young drivers continue to have a high rate of involvement in car crashes. Their crash rate is higher in presence of peer passengers than when driving alone. Peer presence could contribute toward explaining this involvement, especially regarding speeding. Peers are known to often influence young drivers' risky behaviors through proximal (direct and indirect active pressures) and distal (passive pressure) forms of intervention (Allen & Brown, 2008). This present study examined the effect of peer pressure and peer risk taking on the estimated speeding behavior of a scenario driver (ESBSD) as well as on the estimated speeding intention of a scenario driver (ESISD). The scenario driver was the main character in an online-scenario based questionnaire regarding speeding. The main character is a fictional young male depicted driving with his best friends in all the experimental scenarios in which the variables type of pressure and peer risk taking were manipulated. One hundred and eighty young French drivers (18–25 years, 50% men) took part in the study. The key findings were that (1) only direct and indirect active pressure, but not passive pressure, increased the EBSD and that (2) high (vs. low) peer risk taking lead to a higher ESISD. However, no interaction between the pressure type and peer risk taking on EBSD and ESISD was found. Implications of the findings are discussed.

Heimer, (2016) conducted a study on peer pressure: Social interaction contributes to some traders' disposition effect. New data from an investment-specific social network linked to individual-level trading records builds evidence of this connection. To credibly estimate causal peer effects, I exploit the staggered entry of retail brokerages into partnerships with the social trading web platform and compare trader activity before and after exposure to these new social conditions. Access to the social network nearly doubles the magnitude of a trader's disposition effect. Traders connected in the network develop correlated levels of the disposition effect, a finding that can be replicated using workhorse data from a large discount brokerage.

Cao, Ma, Tucker, and Wan, (2018) they introduced a firm-specific measure of the technological aspect of competition—technological peer pressure—and examine firm-initiated product development-related press releases. They argued that empirical examinations of the theorized negative relation between competition and disclosure require the type of voluntary disclosure to be relevant to the dimension of competition under examination to ensure that firms incur significant proprietary costs of disclosure. In other words, many types of disclosure do not provide actionable information to competitors and, thus, should not be affected by that dimension of competition. They expect a negative relation between technological peer pressure and product disclosure because the latter reveals firms' strategies, allocations, and progress of technological investments in product development to competitors. In contrast, they do not expect a negative relation between technological peer pressure and management earnings forecasts—the most common type of voluntary disclosure used in accounting research. Our test results are consistent with these expectations.

2.5: STUDIES ON SELF-ESTEEM

Crocker and Major (1989) investigated a study on “Social stigma and self-esteem: The self-protective properties of stigma”. Although several psychological theories predict that members of stigmatized groups should have low global self-esteem, empirical research typically does not support this prediction. It is proposed here that this discrepancy may be explained by considering the ways in which membership in a stigmatized group may protect the self-concept. It is proposed that members of stigmatized groups may (a) attribute negative feedback to prejudice against their group, (b) compare their outcomes with those of the ingroup, rather than with the relatively advantaged outgroup, and (c) selectively devalue those dimensions on which their group fares poorly and value those dimensions on which their group excels. Evidence for each of these processes and their consequences for self-esteem

and motivation is reviewed. Factors that moderate the use of these strategies and implications of this analysis for treatment of stigmas are also discussed.

Leary and Baumeister(2000) conducted a study on self-esteem and provides an overview of existing perspectives on self-esteem. Self-esteem is a sociometer, essentially an internal monitor of the degree to which one is valued or devalued as a relational partner. The chapter evaluates a series of specific, testable hypotheses about self-esteem and examines laboratory and other findings in relevance to the sociometer theory and its specific hypotheses. This sociometer theory also reinterprets several interpersonal phenomena that have been explained previously in terms of the self-esteem motive. In specific, self-esteem refers to a person's appraisal of his or her value. Global self-esteem denotes a global value judgment about the self, whereas domain-specific self-esteem involves appraisals of one's value in a particular area. Self-esteem is an affectively laden self-evaluation. Self-evaluations are in turn assessments of one's behavior or attributes along evaluative dimensions. Some self-evaluations are dispassionate. Whereas others are affectively laden. Self-esteem focuses primarily on individual differences in dispositional or trait self-esteem.

Greenwald and Farnham (2000) conduct a study using the Implicit Association Test (IAT; A. G. Greenwald, D. E. McGhee, & J. L. K. Schwartz, 1998) to measure self-esteem by assessing automatic associations of self with positive or negative valence. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) showed that two IAT measures defined a factor that was distinct from, but weakly correlated with, a factor defined by standard explicit (self-report) measures of self-esteem. Experiment 2 tested known-groups validity of two IAT gender self-concept measures. Compared with well-established explicit measures, the IAT measures revealed triple the difference in measured masculinity–femininity between men and women. Again, CFA revealed construct divergence between implicit and explicit measures. Experiment 3 assessed the self-esteem IAT's validity in predicting cognitive reactions to success and failure.

High implicit self-esteem was associated in the predicted fashion with buffering against adverse effects of failure on two of four measures.

Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) conducted a study to distinguish Self-categorization, affective commitment and group self-esteem as distinct aspects of social identity in the organization and to show how the components instigate behaviours that benefit in-group members. A new scale for measuring cognitive organizational identification (i.e. self-categorization) is developed and compared to a leading scale. Internal consistency, convergent validity, predictive validity and generalizability of the two scales are established on a sample of Italian (N=409) and Korean (N=283) workers. Next, convergent and discriminant validity for measures of organizational identification, affective commitment and group self-esteem are demonstrated. Then, two antecedents of these components of social identity are examined: organization prestige and organization stereotypes. Finally, the mediating role of the components of social identity are investigated between the antecedents and five forms of citizenship behaviours. The last three analyses are performed on the Italian (N=409) workers. Among other findings, the results show that affective commitment and self-esteem are the primary motivators of citizenship behaviours. Moreover, cognitive identification performs as a central mediator between prestige and stereotypes on the one hand, and affective commitment and self-esteem on the other. Identification is thus an indirect determinant of citizenship behaviours.

Baumeister, Bushman, and Campbell (2000) conducted a study on “Self-Esteem, Narcissism, and Aggression to check whether Violence Result from Low Self-Esteem or From Threatened Egotism?” A traditional view holds that low self-esteem causes aggression, but recent work has not confirmed this. Although aggressive people typically have high self-esteem, there are also many nonaggressive people with high self-esteem, and so newer constructs such as narcissism and unstable self-esteem are most effective at predicting aggression. The link between self-regard

and aggression is best captured by the theory of threatened egotism, which depicts aggression as a means of defending a highly favorable view of self against someone who seeks to undermine or discredit that view.

Bosson, Swann, and Pennebaker (2000) examined the implicit self-esteem construct has led to the creation and use of several new assessment tools whose psychometric properties have not been fully explored. In this article, the authors investigated the reliability and validity of seven implicit self-esteem measures. The different implicit measures did not correlate with each other, and they correlated only weakly with measures of explicit self-esteem. Only some of the implicit measures demonstrated good test-retest reliabilities, and overall, the implicit measures were limited in their ability to predict our criterion variables. Finally, there was some evidence that implicit self-esteem measures are sensitive to context. The implications of these findings for the future of implicit self-esteem research are discussed.

Judge and Bono (2001) investigated the Meta analytic relationship of 4 traits—self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (low neuroticism)—with job satisfaction and job performance. With respect to job satisfaction, the estimated true score correlations were .26 for self-esteem, .45 for generalized self-efficacy, .32 for internal locus of control, and .24 for emotional stability. With respect to job performance, the correlations were .26 for self-esteem, .23 for generalized self-efficacy, .22 for internal locus of control, and .19 for emotional stability. In total, the results based on 274 correlations suggest that these traits are among the best dispositional predictors of job satisfaction and job performance. T. A. Judge, E. A. Locke, and C. C. Durham's (1997) theory of core self evaluations is used as a framework for discussing similarities between the 4 traits and their relationships to satisfaction and performance.

Robins, Hendin, and Trzesniewski (2001) examined the construct validity of two global self-esteem measures. In Studies 1 through 3, the Single-Item Self-Esteem Scale (SISE) and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE) showed strong convergent validity for men and women, for different ethnic groups, and for both college students and community members. The SISE and the RSE had nearly identical correlations with a wide range of criterion measures, including domain-specific self-evaluations, self-evaluative biases, social desirability, personality, psychological and physical health, peer ratings of group behavior, academic outcomes, and demographic variables. Study 4 showed that the SISE had only moderate convergent validity in a sample of children. Overall, the findings support the reliability and validity of the SISE and suggest it can provide a practical alternative to the RSE in adult samples. More generally, the findings contribute to the research literature by further elaborating the nomological network of global self-esteem.

Robins, Tracy, Trzesniewski, Potter, and Gosling (2001) examined the relation between self-esteem and the Big Five personality dimensions. Data were collected over the Internet from a large heterogeneous sample of individuals who ranged in age from 9 to 90 years ($N = 326,641$). Collectively, the Big Five accounted for 34% of the variance in self-esteem. High self-esteem individuals were emotionally stable, extraverted, and conscientious and were somewhat agreeable and open to experience. Despite an extensive search for potential mediators and moderators of this general pattern, the relations between self-esteem and the Big Five largely cut across age, sex, social class, ethnicity, and nationality (United States vs non-United States). High self-esteem individuals tended to ascribe socially desirable traits to themselves, and this tendency partially mediated relations between the Big Five and self-esteem. Discussion focuses on interpreting the social desirability effects, limitations of the study, and directions for future research.

Tafarodi and Swann, (2001) they found a clarified account of global self-esteem as consisting of self-competence and self-liking and describe a revised

instrument designed to measure the two correlated dimensions. In Study 1, four measurement models representing distinct conceptions of self-esteem are compared to confirm the a priori structure of the instrument. In Study 2, multiple reporters (self, mother, father) are used to provide evidence for convergent and discriminant validity in a multitrait–multimethod context. Advantages of the two-dimensional approach to measurement are discussed.

Twenge and Campbell, (2001) found that college students' self-esteem increased substantially between 1968 and 1994 when measured using the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE). Children's scores on the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) show a curvilinear pattern over time, decreasing from 1965 to 1979 and increasing from 1980 to 1993. Children's SEI scores are directly correlated with social statistics (e.g., divorce rate, unemployment) for the corresponding years. Analyses for age differences find that SEI scores decrease slightly during the transition from elementary school to junior high and then rise progressively through high school and college. RSE scores increase steadily with age. Results are discussed in terms of the antecedents of self-esteem, including social acceptance, competencies, and the culture of self-worth.

O'Moore and Kirkham, (2001) found that peer relationship problems as manifested in being bullied are associated with low self-esteem. However, the literature on self-esteem in relation to children who bully others is controversial. The objective of this paper is to elucidate further our understanding of the relationship between self-concept and bullying behaviour. Data from a nationwide study of bullying behaviour carried out in Ireland during 1993-1994 have been reviewed. The relevant results from 8,249 school children aged 8 to 18 years are presented. The paper examines the global and dimensional nature of self-esteem and how it relates to children and adolescents who either have been victimised or bullied others. A distinction is made between “pure victims,” “pure bullies,” and children and adolescents who were both bullied and who bullied others. In other words, pure

victims were those who had not bullied others, and pure bullies had not themselves been bullied. Those who were both bullied and bullied others were subdivided further into victims who bully occasionally, sometimes, and frequently and bullies who are victimised, occasionally, sometimes, and frequently. The results show that children of both primary and post-primary age who were involved in bullying as victims, bullies, or both had significantly lower global self-esteem than did children who had neither bullied nor been bullied. However, the pure bullies, in contrast to the pure victims, placed the same value on their physical attractiveness and attributes and on their popularity as did their peers who had not bullied others or been bullied. The bully-victims of all ages had the lowest self-esteem of the subgroups in the study. Also, the more frequently children were victimised or bullied others, the lower was their global self-esteem. The typology and frequency of bullying and the age of the children when they were involved in bullying influenced the status of the specific domains of self-esteem. There were, e.g., significant differences in anxiety between the pure bullies of post-primary age and their peers who had not bullied others or been bullied. The post-primary children who bullied most frequently were the least anxious. The results indicate that high self-esteem protects children and adolescents from involvement in bullying. Thus, in view of the strong relationship between self-esteem and bullying that has been found in the present paper, it is recommended that top priority be given by parents and teachers to preventing and reducing feelings of poor self-worth among children and adolescents.

Link, Struening, Neese-Todd, Asmussen, and Phelan, (2001) examined whether stigma affects the self-esteem of persons who have serious mental illnesses or whether stigma has few, if any, effects on self-esteem. Self-esteem and two aspects of stigma, namely, perceptions of devaluation-discrimination and social withdrawal because of perceived rejection, were assessed among 70 members of a clubhouse program for people with mental illness at baseline and at follow-up six and 24 months later. The two measures of perceptions of stigma strongly predicted self-esteem at

follow-up when baseline self-esteem, depressive symptoms, demographic characteristics, and diagnosis were controlled for. Participants whose scores on the measures of stigma were at the 90th percentile were seven to nine times as likely as those with scores at the 10th percentile to have low self-esteem at follow-up. The stigma associated with mental illness harms the self-esteem of many people who have serious mental illnesses. An important consequence of reducing stigma would be to improve the self-esteem of people who have mental illnesses.

King, Vidourek, Davis, and McClellan, (2002) conducted a study on “High levels of self-esteem and positive school, peer, and family connections represent protective factors against youth involvement in risky behavior”. This paper reports findings from year one of the Healthy Kids Mentoring Program, a multidisciplinary mentoring program for fourth-grade students in a Midwestern public school. In October 2000, 28 fourth-grade students were admitted into the program, based on findings from a 55-item survey distributed to all fourth-grade students (N = 283) regarding overall self-esteem, school, peer, and family connectedness and involvement in risky behavior. The program, which ran from January 2000 to May 2000, consisted of four components: 1) relationship building, 2) self-esteem enhancement, 3) goal setting, 4) academic assistance. Pretest-Posttest data showed significant improvements at posttest in mentored students' self-esteem levels and positive connections to school, peers, and family. Mentored students also were significantly less likely to be depressed or involved in bullying and fighting at posttest than at pretest. Compared to nonmentored students, mentored students reported significantly higher school and family connectedness scores at posttest. Recommendations for effective mentoring program design are offered.

Robins, Trzesniewski, Tracy, Gosling, and Potter (2002,) examined the comprehensive picture of age differences in self-esteem from age 9 to 90 years using cross-sectional data collected from 326,641 individuals over the Internet. Self-esteem

levels were high in childhood, dropped during adolescence, rose gradually throughout adulthood, and declined sharply in old age. This trajectory generally held across gender, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, and nationality (U.S. citizens vs. non-U.S. citizens). Overall, these findings support previous research, help clarify inconsistencies in the literature, and document new trends that require further investigation.

Furnham, Badmin, and Sneade, (2002) examined two hundred and thirty-five adolescents who completed a questionnaire on the subject of eating attitudes, self-esteem, reasons for exercise, and their ideal versus current body size and shape. As predicted, boys were as likely to want to be heavier as lighter, whereas very few girls desired to be heavier. Only girls associated body dissatisfaction with the concept of self-esteem. Male self-esteem was not affected by body dissatisfaction. Specific reasons for exercise were found to correlate with low self-esteem and disordered eating, regardless of sex. The results are discussed in relation to burgeoning published research in this area

Shaw and Gant (2002) conducted a study on “In Defense of the Internet: The Relationship between Internet Communication and Depression, Loneliness, Self-Esteem, and Perceived Social Support” As more people connect to the Internet, researchers are beginning to examine the effects of Internet use on users' psychological health. Due in part to a study released by Kraut and colleagues in 1998, which concluded that Internet use is positively correlated with depression, loneliness, and stress, public opinion about the Internet has been decidedly negative. In contrast, the present study was designed to test the hypothesis that Internet usage can affect users beneficially. Participants engaged in five chat sessions with an anonymous partner. At three different intervals they were administered scales measuring depression, loneliness, self-esteem, and social support. Changes in their scores were

tracked over time. Internet use was found to decrease loneliness and depression significantly, while perceived social support and self-esteem increased significantly.

Rudich and Sedikides, (2002) hypothesized that both narcissism and high self-esteem are associated with positive self-views but each is associated with positivity in different domains of the self. Narcissists perceive themselves as better than average on traits reflecting an agentic orientation (e.g., intellectual skills, extraversion) but not on those reflecting a communal orientation (e.g., agreeableness, morality). In contrast, high-self-esteem individuals perceive themselves as better than average both on agentic and communal traits. Three studies confirmed the hypothesis. In Study 1, narcissists rated themselves as extraverted and open to experience but not as more agreeable or emotionally stable. High-self-esteem individuals rated themselves highly on all of these traits except openness. In Study 2, narcissists (but not high-self-esteem individuals) rated themselves as better than their romantic partners. In Study 3, narcissists rated themselves as more intelligent, but not more moral, than the average person. In contrast, high-self-esteem individuals viewed themselves as more moral and more intelligent.

Kernis, (2003) they present a theoretical perspective on the nature of “optimal self-esteem”. One of my major goals is to show that optimal and high self-esteem are different from each other. High self-esteem can be fragile or secure depending upon the extent to which it is defensive or genuine, contingent or true, unstable or stable, and discrepant or congruent with implicit (nonconscious) feelings of self-worth. Optimal self-esteem is characterized by qualities associated with genuine, true, stable, and congruent (with implicit self-esteem) high self-esteem. A second major goal is to present a conceptualization of the construct of authenticity. He propose that authenticity as an individual difference construct may be particularly important in delineating the adaptive features of optimal self-esteem. Authenticity can be characterized as the unobstructed operation of one's true, or core, self in one's daily

enterprise. He argue that authenticity has 4 components: awareness, unbiased processing, action, and relational. Initial data pertaining to these components are highly encouraging. Finally, he discuss some implications of the fragile versus secure high self-esteem distinction for narcissism, defensive processing models, and cross-cultural self-esteem perspectives.

Pierce and Gardner (2004) suggested that an individual's self-esteem, formed around work and organizational experiences, plays a significant role in determining employee motivation, work-related attitudes and behaviors. We review more than a decade of research on an organization-based conceptualization of self-esteem. It is observed that sources of organization structure, signals about worth from the organization, as well as, success-building role conditions predict organization-based self-esteem. In addition, organization-based self-esteem is related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, motivation, citizenship behavior, in-role performance, and turnover intentions, as well as, other important organization-related attitudes and behaviors. Explanations for these effects and directions for future research are discussed.

Crocker and Park, (2004) questioned the benefits associated with having high self-esteem. The authors propose that the importance of self-esteem lies more in how people strive for it rather than whether it is high or low. They argue that in domains in which their self-worth is invested, people adopt the goal to validate their abilities and qualities, and hence their self-worth. When people have self-validation goals, they react to threats in these domains in ways that undermine learning; relatedness; autonomy and self-regulation; and over time, mental and physical health. The short-term emotional benefits of pursuing self-esteem are often outweighed by long-term costs. Previous research on self-esteem is reinterpreted in terms of self-esteem

striving. Cultural roots of the pursuit of self-esteem are considered. Finally, the alternatives to pursuing self-esteem, and ways of avoiding its costs, are discussed.

Wild, Flisher, Bhana, & Lombard,(2004) This study investigated associations among adolescents' self-esteem in 6 domains (peers, school, family, sports/athletics, body image and global self-worth) and risk behaviours related to substance use, bullying, suicidality and sexuality. A multistage stratified sampling strategy was used to select a representative sample of 939 English-, Afrikaans- and Xhosa-speaking students in Grades 8 and 11 at public high schools in Cape Town, South Africa. Participants completed the multidimensional Self-Esteem Questionnaire (SEQ; DuBois, Felner, Brand, Phillips, & Lease, 1996) and a self-report questionnaire containing items about demographic characteristics and participation in a range of risk behaviours. It included questions about their use of tobacco, alcohol, cannabis, solvents and other substances, bullying, suicidal ideation and attempts, and risky sexual behaviour. Data was analysed using a series of logistic regression models, with the estimation of model parameters being done through generalised estimation equations. Scores on each self-esteem scale were significantly associated with at least one risk behaviour in male and female adolescents after controlling for the sampling strategy, grade and race. However, specific self-esteem domains were differentially related to particular risk behaviours. After taking the correlations between the self-esteem scales into account, low self-esteem in the family and school contexts and high self-esteem in the peer domain were significantly independently associated with multiple risk behaviours in adolescents of both sexes. Low body-image self-esteem and global self-worth were also uniquely associated with risk behaviours in girls, but not in boys. Overall, the findings suggest that interventions that aim to protect adolescents from engaging in risk behaviours by increasing their self-esteem are likely to be most effective and cost-efficient if they are aimed at the family and school domains.

Leary,(2005) Despite the amount of attention that researchers have devoted to the topic of self-esteem, many central questions remain unanswered. Sociometer theory addresses many such questions by suggesting that self-esteem is part of a psychological system (the sociometer) that monitors the social environment for cues indicating low or declining relational evaluation (e.g., lack of interest, disapproval, rejection) and warns the individual when such cues are detected. The theory suggests that people are not motivated to maintain their self-esteem per se as has been typically assumed, but rather seek to increase their relational value and social acceptance, using self-esteem as a gauge of their effectiveness. The present chapter describes sociometer theory's perspective on self-esteem, reviews evidence relevant to the theory, and describes how it explains phenomena in which self-esteem has been implicated, including interpersonal emotion, social identity effects, intergroup behaviour, and clinical disorders.

Niemz, Griffiths, and Banyard,(2005) made an attempt to replicate common findings in the literature and provide more evidence for the existence of Internet addiction among students—and correlation with self-esteem with a population considered to be especially vulnerable Over the last few years, there has been increased interest in the addictive potential of the Internet.. A total of 371 British students responded to the questionnaire, which included the Pathological Internet Use (PIU) scale, the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12), a self-esteem scale, and two measures of disinhibition. Results showed that 18.3% of the sample were considered to be pathological Internet users, whose excessive use of the Internet was causing academic, social, and interpersonal problems. Other results showed that pathological Internet users had lower self-esteem and were more socially disinhibited. However, there was no significant difference in GHQ scores. These results are discussed in relation to the methodological shortcomings of research in the area as a whole.

Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robins, Moffitt, and Caspi, (2005) they explored the controversial link between global self-esteem and externalizing problems such as aggression, antisocial behavior, and delinquency. In three studies, we found a robust relation between low self-esteem and externalizing problems. This relation held for measures of self-esteem and externalizing problems based on self-report, teachers' ratings, and parents' ratings, and for participants from different nationalities (United States and New Zealand) and age groups (adolescents and college students). Moreover, this relation held both cross-sectionally and longitudinally and after controlling for potential confounding variables such as supportive parenting, parent-child and peer relationships, achievement-test scores, socioeconomic status, and IQ. In addition, the effect of self-esteem on aggression was independent of narcissism, an important finding given recent claims that individuals who are narcissistic, not low in self-esteem, are aggressive. Discussion focuses on clarifying the relations among self-esteem, narcissism, and externalizing problems.

Corrigan, Watson, and Barr (2006) examined the relationships between elements of this model and self-esteem, self-efficacy, and depression. Self-stigma is distinguished from perceived stigma (stereotype awareness) and presented as a three-level model: stereotype agreement, self-concurrence, and self-esteem decrement. In Study 1, 54 people with psychiatric disabilities completed a draft version of the Self-Stigma of Mental Illness Scale (SSMIS) to determine internal consistency and test-retest reliability of composite scales. In Study 2, 60 people with psychiatric disabilities completed the revised SSMIS plus instruments that represent self-esteem, self-efficacy, and depression. Stereotype awareness was found to not be significantly associated with the three levels of self-stigma. The remaining three levels were significantly intercorrelated. Self-concurrence and self-esteem decrement were significantly associated with measures of self-esteem and self-efficacy. These associations remained significant after partialing out concurrent depression. Implications for better understanding self-stigma are discussed.

Valkenburg, Peter and Schouten (2006) investigated the consequences of friend networking sites for adolescents' self-esteem and well-being. We conducted a survey among 881 adolescents (10–19-year-olds) who had an online profile on a Dutch friend networking site. Using structural equation modeling, we found that the frequency with which adolescents used the site had an indirect effect on their social self-esteem and well-being. The use of the friend networking site stimulated the number of relationships formed on the site, the frequency with which adolescents received feedback on their profiles, and the tone (i.e., positive vs. negative) of this feedback. Positive feedback on the profiles enhanced adolescents' social self-esteem and well-being, whereas negative feedback decreased their self-esteem and well-being.

Smolak and Stein, (2006) examined the relationship of three sociocultural factors—media influence, peer teasing, and parent teasing/comments and three potential moderator variables—self-esteem, social comparison, and endorsement of male strength and athleticism—to drive for muscularity in middle school boys. There were 287 seventh and eighth grade boys who completed a questionnaire measuring these variables as well as body mass index (BMI) and pubertal status. Results indicated that media influence and male physical attributes endorsement were particularly important correlates of drive for muscularity. These findings have implications for programs designed to prevent body dissatisfaction among adolescent boys

Trzesniewski et al., (2006) found that adolescents with low self-esteem had poorer mental and physical health, worse economic prospects, and higher levels of criminal behavior during adulthood, compared with adolescents with high self-esteem. The long-term consequences of self-esteem could not be explained by adolescent depression, gender, or socioeconomic status. Moreover, the findings held when the outcome variables were assessed using objective measures and informant reports; therefore, the findings cannot be explained by shared method variance in self-report

data. The findings suggest that low self-esteem during adolescence predicts negative real-world consequences during adulthood. Neff & Vonk, (2009) This research examined self-compassion and self-esteem as they relate to various aspects of psychological functioning. Self-compassion entails treating oneself with kindness, recognizing one's shared humanity, and being mindful when considering negative aspects of oneself. Study 1 (N=2,187) compared self-compassion and global self-esteem as they relate to ego-focused reactivity. It was found that self-compassion predicted more stable feelings of self-worth than self-esteem and was less contingent on particular outcomes. Self-compassion also had a stronger negative association with social comparison, public self-consciousness, self-rumination, anger, and need for cognitive closure. Self-esteem (but not self-compassion) was positively associated with narcissism. Study 2 (N=165) compared global self-esteem and self-compassion with regard to positive mood states. It was found that the two constructs were statistically equivalent predictors of happiness, optimism, and positive affect. Results from these two studies suggest that self-compassion may be a useful alternative to global self-esteem when considering what constitutes a healthy self-stance.

McArdle and Hill, (2007) examined differences in body dissatisfaction among gay and heterosexual men. Specifically, media, peer influence, and self-esteem are explored as potential variables in understanding these differences. Fifty-four Caucasian heterosexual males and eighty-two Caucasian gay males between the ages of eighteen and seventy-three participated in this study. The main findings of the current study are (a) gay men reported significantly more body dissatisfaction than heterosexual men; (b) significantly more men report a desire to lose weight than to gain weight, with gay men reporting a significantly smaller ideal weight than heterosexual men; (c) the magnitude of the relationship between self-esteem and body dissatisfaction was not significantly different for gay and heterosexual men; (d) media influence was more strongly related to body dissatisfaction and self-esteem for gay men than for heterosexual men; and (e) the magnitude of the relationship between

weight-related peer teasing and self-esteem was stronger for gay males than for heterosexual males. Implications and directions for future research are explored.

Ferkany,(2008) found that some philosophers of education have recently argued that educators can more or less ignore children's global self-esteem without failing them educationally in any important way. This paper draws on an attachment theoretic account of self-esteem to argue that this view is mistaken. I argue that understanding self-esteem's origins in attachment supports two controversial claims. First, self-esteem is a crucial element of the confidence and motivation children need in order to engage in and achieve educational pursuits, especially in certain domains of instruction such as physical education. Second, self-esteem can be facilitated socially, through an appropriate arrangement of school institutions, thus without hindering the pursuit of other high priority aims such as a challenging academic curriculum. Consequently I maintain that educators who ignore self-esteem overlook something educationally important.

Orth, Robins, and Roberts,(2008) investigated that Low self-esteem and depression are strongly correlated in cross-sectional studies, yet little is known about their prospective effects on each other. The vulnerability model hypothesizes that low self-esteem serves as a risk factor for depression, whereas the scar model hypothesizes that low self-esteem is an outcome, not a cause, of depression. To test these models, the authors used 2 large longitudinal data sets, each with 4 repeated assessments between the ages of 15 and 21 years and 18 and 21 years, respectively. Cross-lagged regression analyses indicated that low self-esteem predicted subsequent levels of depression, but depression did not predict subsequent levels of self-esteem. These findings held for both men and women and after controlling for content overlap between the self-esteem and depression scales. Thus, the results supported the vulnerability model, but not the scar model, of self-esteem and depression.

“Barker (2009) conducted a study on ‘‘Older Adolescent Motivations for Social Network Site Use: The influence of Gender, Group Identity, and Collective Self-Esteem’’. This study assessed motives for social network site (SNS) use, group belonging, collective self-esteem, and gender effects among older adolescents. Communication with peer group members was the most important motivation for SNS use. Participants high in positive collective self-esteem were strongly motivated to communicate with peer group via SNS. Females were more likely to report high positive collective self-esteem, greater overall use, and SNS use to communicate with peers. Females also posted higher means for group-in-self, passing time, and entertainment. Negative collective self-esteem correlated with social compensation, suggesting that those who felt negatively about their social group used SNS as an alternative to communicating with other group members. Males were more likely than females to report negative collective self-esteem and SNS use for social compensation and social identity gratifications.

Diener and Diener, (2009) investigated the Cross-Cultural Correlates of Life Satisfaction and Self-Esteem. College students in 31 nations (N = 13,118) completed measures of self-esteem, life satisfaction, and satisfaction with specific domains (friends, family, and finances). The authors assessed whether cross-cultural variations in the strength of associations were related to societal dimensions including income and individualism. At the national level, individualism correlated -0.24 (ns) with heterogeneity and 0.71 ($p < 0.001$) with wealth. At the individual level, self-esteem and life satisfaction were correlated 0.47 for the entire sample. This relation, however, was moderated by the individualism of the society. The associations of financial, friend, and family satisfactions with life satisfaction and with self-esteem also varied across nations. Financial satisfaction was a stronger correlate of life satisfaction in poorer countries. It was found that life satisfaction and self-esteem were clearly discriminable constructs. Satisfaction ratings, except for financial satisfaction, varied between slightly positive and fairly positive.

Mehdizadeh, (2010) examined how narcissism and self-esteem are manifested on the social networking Web site Facebook.com. Online social networking sites have revealed an entirely new method of self-presentation. This cyber social tool provides a new site of analysis to examine personality and identity. Self-esteem and narcissistic personality self-reports were collected from 100 Facebook users at York University. Participant Web pages were also coded based on self-promotional content features. Correlation analyses revealed that individuals higher in narcissism and lower in self-esteem were related to greater online activity as well as some self-promotional content. Gender differences were found to influence the type of self-promotional content presented by individual Facebook users. Implications and future research directions of narcissism and self-esteem on social networking Web sites are discussed.

Moksnes, Moljord, Espnes, and Byrne, (2010) investigated gender differences on domains of stress, self-esteem and emotional states (depression and anxiety) as well as the association between stress, self-esteem and emotional states using a sample of Norwegian adolescents (N = 1508). The results showed that girls had significantly higher mean scores on all stress domains and on emotional states compared with boys. Conversely, boys scored significantly higher on self-esteem. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed a significant association between increasing stress related to peer pressure, home life, school performance and adult responsibility and higher levels of emotional states. Moreover, the associations between stress and emotional states were not moderated by gender. A strong, inverse association was found between self-esteem and emotional states. A weak moderation effect of self-esteem was found on the association between stress related to peer pressure, romantic relationships, school performance and emotional states. The identification of the potential protective role of self-esteem in relation to adolescents' emotional outcomes represents an important step toward developing preventive interventions for children and adolescents

Neff (2011) focused on the construct of self-compassion and how it differs from self-esteem. First, it discusses the fact that while self-esteem is related to psychological well-being, the pursuit of high self-esteem can be problematic. Next it presents another way to feel good about oneself: self-compassion. Self-compassion entails treating oneself with kindness, recognizing one's shared humanity, and being mindful when considering negative aspects of oneself. Finally, this article suggests that self-compassion may offer similar mental health benefits as self-esteem, but with fewer downsides. Research is presented which shows that self-compassion provides greater emotional resilience and stability than self-esteem, but involves less self-evaluation, ego-defensiveness, and self-enhancement than self-esteem. Whereas self-esteem entails evaluating oneself positively and often involves the need to be special and above average, self-compassion does not entail self-evaluation or comparisons with others. Rather, it is a kind, connected, and clear-sighted way of relating to ourselves even in instances of failure, perceived inadequacy, and imperfection.

2.4:STUDIES ON SELF-ESTEEM AND PEER PRESSURE

Dohnt and Tiggemann, (2006) studied the role of peer and media influences in the development of body satisfaction (incorporating the desire for thinness and satisfaction with appearance) in young girls, as well as the relationship between body satisfaction and self-esteem. A sample of 97 girls 5-8 years of age completed individual interviews at Time 1 and 1 year later at Time 2. Linear panel analyses found that Time 1 perception of peers' desire for thinness was temporally antecedent to girls' desire for thinness, appearance satisfaction, and self-esteem 1 year later. In addition, the watching of appearance-focused television programs was temporally antecedent to appearance satisfaction. Finally, girls' desire for thinness was found to temporally precede low self-esteem. Thus, as early as school entry, girls appear to already live in a culture in which peers and the media transmit the thin ideal in a way that negatively influences the development of body image and self-esteem.

Yang, Schaninger, and Laroche, (2013) found that Tobacco and alcohol companies face increasing pressure to prevent smoking and drinking among underage consumers, reinforcing public policy initiatives designed to reduce youth substance use. One approach targets parents to influence their child's behavior. However, the extant literature remains unclear about whether childhood parenting strategies affect children's behavior beyond early adolescence. To fill this void, this research develops an integrative model of parental influence, specifying parenting strategies as antecedents, self-esteem as mediator, and susceptibility to negative peer influence (SPI) and substance use (smoking, and drinking) as socialization outcomes. The findings indicate that childhood parenting strategies impact smoking and drinking in the late teens, by reducing susceptibility to negative peer influence, with self-esteem playing a critical mediating role. These findings not only offer guidelines to social marketers and public policy makers, but also provide new avenues for tobacco and alcohol marketers to be responsive to recent federal laws and regulations, and enhance their corporate social responsibility.

Yavuzer, Karataş, Civilidağ, and Gündoğdu, (2014) defined as any kind of behavior intended to hurt others. Aggression generally arises due to the interaction between individual (e.g., social and emotional difficulties, low self-esteem, peer rejection, academic failure) and environmental (e.g., poverty, lack of family supervision, limited social support, conflicts within the family) characteristics. Identifying the factors which cause aggressiveness in adolescents is vital to finding precautions against it. Purpose of Study: The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of peer pressure, automatic thoughts and self-esteem variables on the aggression levels of male and female adolescents. Methods: This is a relational and quantitative research aimed to examine the effects of peer pressure, automatic thoughts and self-esteem variables on the prediction of adolescents' aggression levels. The study sample consisted of 411 volunteer students who were chosen through random sampling from a total of 720 9th grade students from various high schools in

Antalya, Turkey. Participants completed the Aggression Questionnaire, Peer Pressure Scale, Automatic Thoughts Scale and Self-Esteem Scale in their classrooms during counseling sessions. Data were analyzed using hierarchical multiple regression analysis. Findings and Results: In the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for female and male adolescents, it was found that peer pressure and automatic thoughts were effective predictors in explaining adolescents' aggression levels. Furthermore, it was found that automatic thoughts fully mediated the relationship between self-esteem and aggression for both male and the female adolescents. Conclusions and Recommendations: It was found that peer pressure and automatic thoughts have a significant effect on adolescent aggression. In works related to the prevention of aggression, it is vital to teach adolescents how to cope with peer pressure and how to say "no". On the basis of these results, we recommend that schools implement workshops to educate adolescents in aggression and violence prevention. In addition, we recommend using cognitive-behavioral techniques to raise adolescents' awareness of nonfunctioning and aggression-triggering automatic thoughts in order that they may modify these thought patterns.

Van Zalk & Van Zalk, (2015) investigated the evidence for the risks of psychopathic personality traits for adolescent antisocial behavior are well documented in the literature. Little is known, however, about who the peers of adolescents with these traits are and to what extent they influence one another. In the current study, three dimensions of psychopathic traits were distinguished: grandiose–manipulative traits, callous–unemotional traits, and impulsive–irresponsible traits. A dynamic social network approach was used with three waves of longitudinal data from 1,772 adolescents (51.1% girls, M age = 13.03 at first measurement). Results showed that adolescents with grandiose–manipulative and callous–unemotional traits formed peer relationships with adolescents who had low self-esteem. Furthermore, peers' violence predicted stronger increases in violence for adolescents with low self-esteem than for other adolescents, and peers' violence predicted stronger increases in

adolescent violence for peers with high psychopathic traits than for other peers. Thus, findings indicate that adolescents with low self-esteem are vulnerable to deviant peer influence from peers with psychopathic traits.

2.6: OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To assess the self-esteem, peer pressure and achievement motive of the participant.
- To assess the relationship between self-esteem, peer pressure and achievement motive.
- To assess the mean difference on self-esteem and peer pressure in relation to achievement motive of the participants.

2.7: HYPOTHESIS

- There will be significant relationship between self-esteem, peer pressure and achievement motive of the participants.
- The participant will show a significant difference on self-esteem in relation to their achievement motive.
- Participant will show a significant difference on peer pressure in relation to their achievement motive.

Methodology is the systematic, theoretical analysis of the methods applied to a field of study. The method used for the study is briefly described as follows.

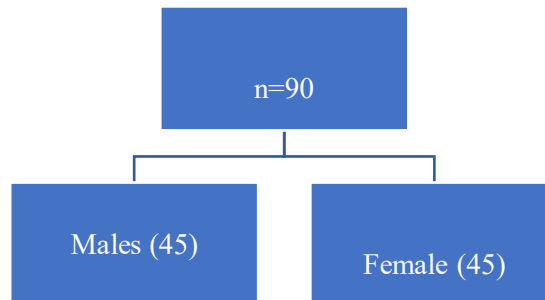
3.1: RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is the set of methods and procedures used in collecting and analyzing measures of the variables specified in the problem research. The present study was conducted using descriptive research design.

3.2: PARTICIPANTS

A sample is the representative part of the total population. Sampling means selection of individuals from the population in such a way that every individual has the equal chance to be taken into the sample population.

The sample of the present study was consisting of 90 college students drawn by means of stratified random sampling from different colleges in Kollam, a district in Kerala. The age of the participants ranged from 17 to 24 years.



3.3: VARIABLES

DEPENDENT VARIABLE : Self-Esteem
Peer Pressure

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE : Achievement motive

3.4: MEASURES

The data were collected mainly using three psychological measures.

1. Achievement Motive Test (Bhargava, 1994)
2. Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965)
3. Peer pressure scale developed (Singh & Saini, 2010)

3.4.1 ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVE TEST (ACMT)

The Achievement Motive Test (ACMT) developed by Bhargava (1994) was used to assess the achievement motive of the participants. The test is intended to measure the achievement score of the person. It is based on the lines following pattern of Bishwanath Mukerji and the method of sentence completion test. The tests consist of 50 items on incomplete sentence/ items with 3 alternatives. The subjects are instructed about what they have to do and are required to complete the statement (item) by the choosing one of the alternative responses which are indicated. In this way all the items are to be checked indicating his responses on the whole test. Another special feature of the test is that items are repeated more than once in ordered to know the level of consistency with which the subject is answered in the test. There is no specific time limit however; the usual time which is needed for administrating the test is 30 minutes including the time needed for giving the instructions to the subjects and that to the responding. Scoring can be done with the help of scoring key. Each item indicating N Ach is given a score of 1 and the total score earned on all the items is the N-Ach score. The index of reliability of this scale is 0.78.

3.4.2: ROSENBERG SELF-ESTEEM SCALE

Rosenberg self-esteem scale was developed by Rosenberg (1965). The scale consists of 10 items were answered on a four-point Likert scale ranging from strongly

agree to strongly disagree. The points strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree are rated as 4, 3, 2 and 1.

3.4.3: PEER PRESSURE SCALE

The peer pressure scale is a self-report five-point Likert scale developed by Singh and Saini (2010). This Scale consists of 25 items for measuring the peer pressure in students. It is a self report five-point scale measured on five categories. The. Points strongly agree, agree, can't say, disagree and strongly disagree are rated as 5,4,3,2,1 respectively. The minimum and maximum score range in 25-125. High score is interpreted as high peer pressure and low score is interpreted as low score. The test is highly reliable as test-retest reliability is 0.33 and internal consistency is 0.77.

Sociodemographic of the data were collected using socio-demographic data sheet prepared by the researcher.

3.5: DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

STEP 1: Collection of socio-demographic data

Socio-demographic data which contains age, gender, type of college, stream etc. of participants were collected using socio-demographic sheet.

STEP 2: Assessment of achievement motive

The achievement motive of the participants was assessed using achievement motive test.

STEP 3: Assessment of self-esteem

Self-esteem of the participants was assessed using Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale.

STEP 4: Assessment of peer pressure

Peer pressure was assessed using Peer Pressure Scale.

3.6: STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Data analysis were carried out using SPSS. Karl Pearson's product moment correlation analysis was used to assess the interrelationship between the study variables. One-way analysis of variance and Duncan's multiple range post hoc analysis were used to assess the mean difference on self-esteem and peer pressure of the participants in relation to their achievement motive.

The present study was conducted to assess, examine and compare the mean difference among college students on self-esteem and peer pressure in relation to achieve motive. A total of 90 participants were drawn from the population of college students by means of stratified random sampling method from different colleges located at Kollam, in Kerala. The sample consists of 45 females and 45 males of the age range 17-24.

The self-esteem of the participants with low achievement motive was ranged from 21 to 36 ($M = 30.19$, $SD = 3.57$), participants with moderate achievement motive was ranged from 23 to 35 ($M = 28.23$, $SD = 3.31$) and that of participants with high achievement motive was ranged from 21 to 33 ($M = 26.57$, $SD = 3.51$).

Figure 4.1: Graphic representation of the mean scores obtained by the participants on self-esteem in relation to their achievement motive.



The peer pressure of the participants with low achievement motive was ranged from 28 to 74 ($M = 54.07$, $SD = 10.85$), participants with moderate achievement

motive was ranged from 25 to 81 (M = 56.13, SD = 15.31) and that of participants with high achievement motive was ranged from 29 to 88 (M = 59, SD = 17.67).

Figure 4.2: Graphic representation of the mean scores obtained by the participants on peer pressure in relation to their achievement motive.



Table 4.1: Summary of relationship between participant’s self-esteem, peer pressure and achievement motive

	Self-esteem	Peer pressure	Achievement Motive
Self-esteem	1	-.275**	-.328**
Peer pressure		1	.133
Achievement Motive			1

(**Correlation is significant at 0.01 level)

The first hypothesis stated that there will be significant relationship between self-esteem, peer pressure and achievement motive of the participants. The Pearson product moment correlational analysis reveals the existence of a statistically significant negative relationship between achievement motive and self-esteem with r value $-.328$, which is significant at 0.01 level. Which indicates the self-esteem of the participants will decrease with an increase on their achievement motive.

The test also reveals a statistically significant negative relationship between self-esteem and peer pressure, with r value -0.275 , which is significant at 0.01 level. Which indicates the self-esteem of the participant will decrease with an increase on their peer pressure.

The r value obtained for peer pressure on achievement motive is $.133$, which is not found to be significant, which indicates there is no significant relationship between peer pressure and achievement motive.

Table 4.2: Summary of ANOVA of participant’s self-esteem and peer pressure score with respect their achievement motive.

Variables	Source of variation	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F Value
Self esteem	Between groups	154.93	2	77.46	6.55**
	Within groups	1028.85	87	11.82	
	Total	1183.78	89		
Peer Pressure	Between groups	281.98	2	140.99	.644
	Within groups	19041.09	87	218.86	
	Total	19322.98	89		

(significant at 0.01 level)

Table 4.3: Duncan multiple range post hoc post hoc analysis results of self-esteem across the groups based on achievement motive.

No	Group	N	M	Group		
				1	2	3
1	High	21	26.57	()	-	*
2	Medium	43	28.23		()	*
3	Low	26	30.19			()

(* significant difference between groups)

The second hypothesis examined the mean difference among participants on their self-esteem in relation to their achievement motive level. It was stated that “There will be significant difference on self-esteem in relation to achievement motive of the participants”. Table 4.1 reveals the existence of a significant mean difference on self-esteem in relation to the achievement motive of the participants ($F = 6.55$). The Duncan multiple range post hoc analysis revealed that there exists a significant difference between participants having high achievement motive and low achievement motive and between participants having moderate achievement motive and low achievement motive on their self-esteem. There is no significant difference exists between participants having high and moderate achievement motive. The participants having low achievement motive possess high self-esteem as compared to other groups. This is not in line with the study conducted by Barnabas and Tobias (2013) on “Relationship between Self-Esteem and Achievement Motivation among Undergraduates in South Eastern Nigeria”. The result shows a positive relationship between self-esteem and achievement motivation.

The third hypothesis examined the mean difference among participants on their peer pressure in relation to their achievement motivation level. The result from the emerged study revealed that there doesn't exist statistically any significant difference among college students on their peer pressure in relation to their achievement motive level, with F value 0.644. Thus the hypothesis is rejected. This is not in congruent with the study conducted by Michael and Backer (2008) on "Achievement motivation in adolescents: The role of peer climate and best friends." The result revealed a report of academic achievement motivation were also related to having a good quality friendship and a best friend who values academics. Having a poor quality friendship and perceiving classmates to be resistant to school norms were related to reports of maladaptive achievement motivation.

5.1: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The study is entitled as “Self-esteem and Peer pressure in relation to Achievement Motive among college students”.

5.2: VARIABLES

DEPENDENT VARIABLES: Self-Esteem

Peer Pressure

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE: Achievement motive

5.3: PARTICIPANTS

The sample of the present study was consisting of 90 college students drawn by means of stratified random sampling from different colleges in Kollam, a district in Kerala. The age of the participants ranged from 17 to 24 years.

5.4: MEASURES

The data were collected mainly using three psychological measures.

- 1 Achievement Motive Test (Bhargava, 1994)
2. Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965)
3. Peer pressure scale developed (Singh & Saini, 2010)

5.5: STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED

Data analysis were carried out using SPSS. Karl Pearson’s product moment correlation analysis was used to assess the interrelationship between the study variables. One-way analysis of variance and Duncan’s multiple range post hoc analysis were used to

assess the mean difference on self-esteem and peer pressure of the participants in relation to their achievement motive.

5.6: TEST OF TENABILITY OF THE HYPOYHESIS

Three main hypotheses were formulated for the study. In the light of the results of the study. The tenability of these hypotheses is tested.

- The first hypothesis states: There will be significant relationship between self-esteem, peer pressure and achievement motive of the participant.

The Pearson product moment correlational analysis reveals the existence of a statistically significant negative relationship between achievement motive and self-esteem, the test also reveals a statistically significant negative relationship between self-esteem and peer pressure and also is no significant relationship between peer pressure and achievement motive was found.

- The second hypothesis states: The participant will show a significant difference on self-esteem in relation to their achievement motive.

The One-way analysis of variance and Duncan multiple range post hoc analysis revealed that there exists a significant difference between participants having high achievement motive and low achievement motive and between participants having moderate achievement motive and low achievement motive on their self-esteem. There is no significant difference exists between participants having high and medium achievement motive. Thus the hypothesis is accepted.

- The third hypothesis states: The Participant will show a significant difference on peer pressure in relation to their achievement motive.

The result revealed that there doesn't exist a statistically significant difference among college students on their peer pressure in relation to their achievement motive level. Thus, the hypothesis is rejected

5.7: MAJOR FINDINGS

- There is a significant negative relationship between achievement motive and self-esteem.
- There is a significant negative relationship between self-esteem and peer pressure.
- There is no significant relationship between achievement motive and peer pressure.
- There is a significant difference on self-esteem in relation to achievement motive.
- There is no significant difference on peer pressure in relation to achievement motive.

5.8: IMPLICATONS OF THE STUDY

The present study aimed to assess the self-esteem and peer pressure in relation to achievement motive among college students. There had been significant negative relationship between achievement motive and self-esteem and also there had been significant negative relationship between self-esteem and peer pressure and there had not been any significant relationship between achievement motive and peer pressure. There had been a significant difference on self-esteem in relation to achievement motive. There had not been any significant difference on peer pressure in relation to achievement motive.

It has been seen in the current scenario that the college and education sectors are highly competitive, as the students need to achieve their goals, targets of the education system with in a stipulated time. From this study we can find that they are no longer intrinsically motivated but they are trying to win the competition and please the teachers and of course their parents.

Students who are intrinsically motivated are curious and focused on the task, on the other hand, students who are extrinsically motivated are interested in the prizes, grades and so on, more than task.

Generally those who rely on extrinsic motivation are less successful and often are performing the task for reward rather than those who are driven by their own motivation. Intrinsic motivation has been shown to be positively correlated to gifted student's academic

achievement. Highly intrinsically motivated gifted students tend to have higher achievement, less anxiety and need less extrinsic motivation, the present finding may help the educators to improve the self-esteem among students by enhancing their intrinsic motivation.

Peer pressure snatches internal motivation, it makes them rely on external factors (other students) and makes them work hard not to be successful, but to defeat or crush others.

5.9: LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- Due to increased number of questions, the researcher faced some amount of difficulty to sustain the motivation of the participants.
- The researcher was not able to control the extraneous variable like family and environmental factors and the current situations of the participant while filling the questionnaire as it might have influenced the results of the study.

5.10: SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

- The academic performance of the participant could be considered for the study.
- A comparison between school students and college students could be considered for the study.

5.11: CONCLUSION

- There is a significant negative relationship between achievement motive and self-esteem.
- There is a significant negative relationship between self-esteem and peer pressure.
- There is no significant relationship between achievement motive and peer pressure.
- There is a significant difference on self-esteem in relation to achievement motive.
- There is no significant difference on peer pressure in relation to achievement motive.

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SOCIO- DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Name :

Age :

Sex:

Course:

Stream:

Area : Urban Rural

SES

Dear Participant,

Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement.

No	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.				
2	At times I think I am no good at all.				
3	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.				
4	I am able to do things as well as most other people.				
5	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.				
6	I certainly feel useless at times				
7	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.				
8	I wish I could have more respect for myself				
9	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.				
10	I take a positive attitude toward myself				

PPS

Dear Participant,

Read the statements carefully and mark the option that comes into your mind by a tick (✓) in any one of the five alternatives for each statement. Please don't leave any statement unanswered. Kindly provide your response in the respective column based on the alternatives given below.

Sl.No	STATEMENTS	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Can't say	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Sometimes I miss classes because my friends urge me to do so					
2	I cannot resist going for a late night party with friends					
3	I go for a date with my friends despite parental warnings					
4	Sometimes I do things because my friends want me to do so					
5	I feel peer pressure to chat long hour on internet					
6	Sometimes I do something wrong just to be good on friends view					
7	I cannot say "NO" to my friends even if my parents do not agree					
8	There is always a peer pressure for dating					
9	At times I feel peer pressure to smoke					
10	Sometimes I do violent acts to keep up with peers					
11	In close relationships, we have to approve pressure of peers					
12	I know my limits when with friends					
13	I find it difficult to escape from peer pressure					
14	Sometimes I have to undergo peer pressure to be liked in a group					
15	Many times I put off my homework and other important assignments for friends					
16	Sometimes I have to appease my peers by doing things that I don't want to do					
17	To maintain a status in a peer group, sometimes pressurize my parents to buy an expensive item					
18	I do not take advice from my parents about peer group activities					
19	It is difficult to think about the negative consequences of what we do with peers					
20	There is no harm in doing one wrong with friends when we do a number of good things with them					

21	It is very difficult for me to deny friend's request to drink in a party or on other occasions					
22	Sometimes I do risky and harmful acts to get acceptance in the peer group					
23	When I feel uncomfortable in a group I do not know how to say 'NO'					
24	I usually compromised with peer's request for a movie, party etc..					
25	At times I feel peer pressure to watch pornography					

AMT

Dear Participant,

There are given some incomplete sentences which can be completed meaningfully by linking up any of the three alternatives given against them. Please read all the items. Read the statements carefully and mark the option that comes into your mind by a tick (✓) in any one of the five alternatives for each statement. Please don't leave any statement unanswered.

No	Statements	
1	What I want most in my life is:	
	A	To get an ideal home life
	B	To be a popular man in the society
	C	To do something requiring efforts
2	I would like to solve:	
	A	Those problems which will give new experiences
	B	The socio economic problems of my country
	C	Very difficult puzzles and quizzes
3	I'm happiest when:	
	A	Making others happy
	B	I become the centre of others attention
	C	Successful in my work
4	I often strongly think of:	
	A	Being one respected political leader
	B	Being a famous social leader
	C	Accomplishing something great
5	My aim of life is:	
	A	To make a long record of successful achievements
	B	To attain high status in society
	C	To serve the nation

6	I like to praise those who:	
	A	Have earned a name of repute in their own field.
	B	Have some principles in life
	C	Have devoted themselves in the service of mankind
7	I want to know:	
	A	How I can be successful to whatever I undertake
	B	The honest means of accumulating wealth
	C	The easiest way of achieving the world peace
8	Before starting a difficult task:	
	A	I would plan to work out its details
	B	I would think about the difficulties that may coming the way
	C	I would invite suggestions from others
9	It is my nature to:	
	A	Do things for my kids
	B	Undertake tasks which require great skills
	C	Keep things neat and clean
10	I wish I could always be:	
	A	Eager in successfully doing difficult jobs
	B	Eager to be sympathetic to sick and poor people
	C	Eager to visit new places, see new persons and get new things
11	I feel upset when:	
	A	I am blamed by my own people
	B	I am neglected
	C	I fail to reach my desired goal
12	I want to accomplish the task:	
	A	In a neat and clean fashion
	B	To do it more better than others
	C	To finish it before the time fixed
13	I like to:	
	A	Read fictions and do courageous works
	B	Think of my nature
	C	Visit different places in the world
14	I usually think:	
	A	That I should get honour and respect like a leader
	B	That I should perform something great and unique
	C	That I should help and look after the sick and injured
15	I like to be:	
	A	Very systematic and orderly in the work I undertake
	B	Very faithful and sincere to my friends and colleagues
	C	Best in my performances and assignments

16	I like that:	
	A	I may earn money
	B	I may do most important work
	C	I may become the master of myself
17	I am always:	
	A	Ready to fight for the noble and reasonable cause
	B	Ready to enhance and develop my ability
	C	Prepared to remove casteism and other social events
18	I am sure that during next five years:	
	A	I will be earning lot of monies
	B	I will be an expert in my field
	C	I will be independent
19		
	A	My institution may be more democratic
	B	The environment of my town be more peaceful and healthy
	C	The environment of house may allow me to study more and more
20	I like things which:	
	A	May make rich and more possessing
	B	Make me to get respect that of a leader
	C	May be achieved by others with great difficulty
21	I get satisfaction most in :	
	A	Remaining in the company of famous and popular persons
	B	Doing the most difficult tasks
	C	Testing others and to give guidance to them
22	I give preference to:	
	A	Difficult task over simple and easy task
	B	Remain in the company of elderly and experienced persons
	C	Get encouragement from my friends and others
23	I genuinely believe that for me:	
	A	It is possible to attain high social status
	B	It is possible to get enough power
	C	It is possible to get desired maximum achievements
24	I wish that I may be:	
	A	Liberal and kind to my friends at all times
	B	Sympathetic to sick and poor people
	C	Successful in doing difficult works
25	I am most happy when I :	
	A	Get a chance to enjoy with others by wits and humour
	B	Get honour and respect after performing difficult tasks successfully
	C	Get the chance to get a high position

26	I feel:	
	A	Upset when I am not getting success in the examinations despite of hardwork
	B	Sad at the death of somebody near and dear to me
	C	Enraged when some of my friends do not get justice
27	In general I may be described as a:	
	A	Tolerable person
	B	Humble and polite person
	C	Optimistic person
28	I sincerely wish :	
	A	To be a most wealthy person
	B	To be a happy and most fortunate person
	C	That I may attain the high achievements in a surprising manner
29	While working in group I wish that:	
	A	I may perform the best work than others
	B	I may be the leader of the group
	C	I may do the work in the most systematic way
30	I consider myself better than others who:	
	A	Are social by nature
	B	Do not feel the responsibility
	C	Do not fix any aim of life and do not work to get it
31	I get pleasure in:	
	A	The company of children
	B	Solving difficult problems
	C	Living with jovial people
32	I believe:	
	A	Love is more better than justice
	B	My future depends on some special achievements
	C	It is better to be sincere and faithful than to be popular
33	Generally, I:	
	A	Critically analyse others decisions
	B	Am polite in behaviour
	C	Do the work till it is completed successfully
34	In most of the social situations, I:	
	A	try to be traditional
	B	Try to become a bit able to do work in accordance with the social traditions.
	C	Try to attract and get other's attention by my work
35	I like to:	
	A	Become a big authority in some business or work
	B	Do my activities in a systematic way
	C	Make friendly sympathetic behaviour with sad people

36	My real wish:	
	A	Is to get the highly paid work
	B	Is to enjoy the bliss of happy married life
	C	Is to attain reputable attainments
37	I want that I should become so able that:	
	A	I may use such words the meaning of which nobody should be able to understand
	B	I may be able to do better work than others
	C	I may forgive him who wants to harm me
38	I:	
	A	May try my level best to become a big person in my field
	B	May try to remind firm in following the truth
	C	May try to help the helpless people to the best of my capacity
39	Generally, I wish that:	
	A	I may be a worshipper of god
	B	I may serve the poor without caring for any return
	C	I may get additional success in some work
40	I avoid:	
	A	Such persons who are pleasure-seekers only and are without responsibility
	B	Those situations which are not competitive
	C	Those persons who are mentally illusioned and unsystematic
41	I want that others may think about me as :	
	A	Laborious person
	B	Very good natured person
	C	Very intelligent and capable person
42	I feel very good when:	
	A	I relate my personal experiences to others
	B	I am told to make others to understand something
	C	I have to do any difficult work
43	I always :	
	A	Do the activities in my own systematic way
	B	Try to please everybody with my behaviour
	C	Try to do my work in the best possible way
44	I evaluate my ability by saying:	
	A	My teachers are partial and side others
	B	Whatever the grade has been given to me is related with labour I have put in
	C	The grade given to me is less than the labour I have put in
45	I am;	
	A	Morally a correct person
	B	Determined to get my high goal in life
	C	Tolerable to those persons who try to hit me

46	I am full of anxiety for:	
	A	Knowing my deficiencies so that I may remove them
	B	Doing more important work
	C	Becoming the centre of attraction in the group
47	I bear out the pain because :	
	A	Nobody should feel painful feelings given by me
	B	I may escape from others allegations
	C	I may remove difficulties and get first class success
48	I am;	
	A	Courageous, but would avoid unnecessary dangers and risk
	B	Quiet punctual and never late for work, school and appointments
	C	Quiet neat and organized in what I do
49	I am the opinion that for pleasure and happiness one must :	
	A	Get the basic amenities of life
	B	Enrich the records one's achievements
	C	Support charities
50	In whatever work I undertake :	
	A	I like to do very best
	B	I like to assume full responsibility for it
	C	I like to make advance plans

**PREJUDICE AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS IN RELATION
TO SOCIAL PHOBIA**

*Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment for the requirement
of Masters of Science in Psychology*

MICHELLE RAJAN

Candidate Code: P1716006



**FATIMA MATA NATIONAL COLLEGE (AUTONOMOUS),
KOLLAM**
(Affiliated to the University of Kerala)

2019

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that Mrs MICHELLE RAJAN, the student of fourth semester MSc Psychology has satisfactorily completed the project on the paper entitled “**PREJUDICE AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS BASED ON SOCIAL PHOBIA**” under my guidance in partial fulfilment of the requirement for MSc degree in Psychology, at Fatima Matha National College (Autonomous), affiliated to the University of Kerala.

Place: Kollam

Date:28/06/2019

Counter signed by,

Supervisor

Dr. Anil Jose P. S

Mr. Sijin K S

Head of the department

Lecturer

Department of Psychology

Department of Psychology

FMN College

FMN College

Kollam

Kollam

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this research entitled “**PREJUDICE AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS BASED ON SOCIAL PHOBIA**” is prepared under the guidance and supervision of Mr. SIJIN K S, Faculty of Psychology, Fatima Mata National College, Kollam. This study has not been submitted to any other university or institution for any other purpose.

Michelle Rajan

Place: Kollam

Date: 28-06-2019

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F.M.N.College

Kollam

MICHELLE RAJAN

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ABSTRACT

The present study was conducted to assess the prejudice among college students in relation to social phobia. A total of 120 samples were drawn for this study by different college in Kollam districts in Kerala by means of purposive sampling method. The age of the participants was ranged from 17 to 24 years. The sample were further divided into 3 equal groups consisting of 40 participants each based on low, moderate and high social phobia level. Again, each group were sub- divided on the basis of stream i.e. 60 arts students and 60 science students. The level of social phobia was assessed using Social phobia scale, Prejudice was assessed using Prejudice Scale.

Karl Pearson Product Moment Correlational analysis, independent sample t-test, and one-way ANOVA were performed to test the significance of the hypotheses. Results revealed the existence of a significant difference between science and arts stream students on social phobia and prejudice.

KEY WORDS: Social phobia, Prejudice, College students.

“Finish each day and be done with it. You have done what you could; some blunders and absurdities have crept in; forget them as soon as you can. Tomorrow is a new day; you shall begin it serenely and with too high a spirit to be encumbered with your old nonsense.”

~Ralph Waldo Emerson

It's natural to feel self-conscious, nervous, or shy in front of others at times. Most people get through these moments when they need to. But for some, the anxiety that goes with feeling shy or self-conscious can be extreme. Extreme feelings of shyness and self-consciousness build into a powerful fear. As a result, a person feels uncomfortable participating in everyday social situations. People with social phobia can usually interact easily with family and a few close friends. But meeting new people, talking in a group, or speaking in public can cause their extreme shyness to kick in. With social phobia, a person's extreme shyness, self-consciousness, and fears of embarrassment get in the way of life. Instead of enjoying social activities, people with social phobia might dread them and avoid some of them altogether.

Like other phobias, social phobia is a fear reaction to something that isn't actually dangerous — although the body and mind react as if the danger is real. This means that someone feels physical sensations of fear, like a faster heartbeat and breathing. These are part of the body's **fight–flight response**. They're caused by a rush of adrenaline and other chemicals that prepare the body to either fight or make a quick getaway. This biological mechanism kicks in we feel afraid. It's a built-in nervous system response that alerts us to danger so we can protect ourselves. With social phobia, this response gets activated too often, too strongly, and in situations where it's out of place. Because the physical sensations that go with the response are real — and sometimes quite strong — the danger seems real too. So the person will react by freezing up, and will feel unable to interact. As the

body experiences these physical sensations, the mind goes through emotions like feeling afraid or nervous.

People with social phobia tend to interpret these sensations and emotions in a way that leads them to avoid the situation ("Uh-oh, my heart's pounding, this must be dangerous — I'd better not do it!"). Since people with social phobia mostly avoids the social situations and settings they have high probability to have prejudice. Social phobia is the most common anxiety disorder seen today and Prejudice is an unfair, intolerant, or unfavourable attitude toward a group of people. It is an attitude which exists even today.

1.1 SOCIAL PHOBIA

Anxiety is a normal reaction to stress and can be beneficial in some situations. It can alert us to dangers and help us prepare and pay attention. Anxiety disorders differ from normal feelings of nervousness or anxiousness, and involve excessive fear or anxiety. Anxiety disorders are the most common of mental disorders and affect nearly 30 percent of adults at some point in their lives. . But anxiety disorders are treatable and a number of effective treatments are available. Treatment helps most people lead normal productive lives. Anxiety refers to anticipation of a future concern and is more associated with muscle tension and avoidance behaviour. Fear is an emotional response to an immediate threat and is more associated with a fight or flight reaction – either staying to fight or leaving to escape danger. Anxiety disorders can cause people into try to avoid situations that trigger or worsen their symptoms. Job performance, school work and personal relationships can be affected.

In general, for a person to be diagnosed with an anxiety disorder, the fear or anxiety must:

- Be out of proportion to the situation or age inappropriate
- Hinder your ability to function normally

There are several types of anxiety disorders, including generalized anxiety disorder, panic disorder, specific phobias, agoraphobia, social anxiety disorder and separation anxiety disorder.

A phobia is a persistent, excessive, unrealistic fear of an object, person, animal, activity or situation. It is a type of anxiety disorder. A person with a phobia either tries to avoid the thing that triggers the fear, or endures it with great anxiety and distress.

If you have a phobia, you probably realize that your fear is irrational, yet you still can't control your feelings. Just thinking about the feared object or situation may make you anxious. And when you're actually exposed to the thing you fear, the terror is automatic and overwhelming. The experience is so nerve-racking that you may go to great lengths to avoid it—inconveniencing yourself or even changing your lifestyle. If you have claustrophobia, for example, you might turn down a lucrative job offer if you have to ride the elevator to get to the office. If you have a fear of heights, you might drive an extra 20 miles in order to avoid a tall bridge. Understanding your phobia is the first step to overcoming it. It's important to know that phobias are common. (Having a phobia doesn't mean you're crazy!) It also helps to know that phobias are highly treatable. No matter how out of control it feels right now, you can overcome your anxiety and fear and start living the life you want.

1.1.1 Major Types of Phobia:

- Specific phobia (simple phobia). With this most common form of phobia, people may fear specific animals (such as dogs, cats, spiders, and snakes), people (such as clowns, dentists, and doctors), environments (such as dark places, thunderstorms, high places) or situations (such as flying in a plane, riding on a train, being in a confined space). These conditions are at least partly genetic (inherited) and seem to run in families.

- Social anxiety disorder (formerly called "social phobia"). People with social anxiety disorder fear social situations where they may be humiliated, embarrassed or judged by others. They become particularly anxious when unfamiliar people are involved. The fear may be limited to performance, such as giving a lecture, concert or business presentation. Or it may be more generalized, so that the phobic person avoids many social situations, such as eating in public or using a public restroom. Social phobia seems to run in families. People who have been shy or solitary as children, or who have a history of unhappy or negative social experiences in childhood, seem more likely to develop this disorder.
- Agoraphobia. Agoraphobia is a fear of being in public places where it would be difficult or embarrassing to make a sudden exit. A person with agoraphobia may avoid going to a movie or a concert, or travelling on a bus or a train. Many people with agoraphobia also have panic symptoms or panic disorder (which involves intense fear plus uncomfortable physical symptoms, such as trembling, heart palpitations and sweating).

1.1.2 Signs and Symptoms of Phobia

The symptoms of a phobia can range from mild feelings of apprehension and anxiety to a full-blown panic attack. Typically, the closer you are to the thing you're afraid of, the greater your fear will be. Your fear will also be higher if getting away is difficult.

Physical symptoms of a phobia include:

- Difficulty breathing
- Racing or pounding heart
- Chest pain or tightness
- Trembling or shaking
- Feeling dizzy or light-headed
- A churning stomach
- Hot or cold flashes; tingling sensations
- Sweating

Emotional symptoms of a phobia include:

- Feeling overwhelming anxiety or panic
- Feeling intense need to escape
- Feeling “unreal” or detached from yourself
- Fear of losing control or going crazy
- Feeling like you’re going to die or pass out
- Knowing that you’re overreacting, but feeling powerless to control fear

Social phobia is a type of anxiety disorder. People who have social phobia experience extreme and persistent anxiety associated with social or performance situations. A person with social phobia experiences anxiety in situations where they are likely to be scrutinised and observed by others. They may have persistent fears about being judged, criticised, ridiculed or humiliated. Most people feel shy or nervous in certain social situations. Public speaking or entering a roomful of strangers can cause anxiety in many people. However, this kind of common apprehension doesn’t indicate a social phobia. For people with social phobia, social situations provoke feelings that extend beyond simple anxiety or nervousness.

A social phobia occurs for a person when:

- There is a persistent fear of one or more social or performance situations where they are exposed to unfamiliar people or to possible scrutiny by others. The person fears that they will act in a way that will be embarrassing and humiliating
- Feared situations are avoided or endured with intense anxiety and distress
- A person realises that the social anxiety is excessive and unreasonable, but feels they are unable to change or control the feelings or behaviour
- It interferes significantly with their daily life including work, education, family and social life

- Fear or avoidance isn't due to a general medical condition or the physiological effects of a substance (such as drugs or medications).

It is estimated that around three per cent of the Australian population experience social phobia in any one year. Up to 13 per cent of the population may develop social phobia during their lifetime. Men and women are equally affected, though a higher number of men seek treatment. In many cases, social phobia begins with shyness in childhood and progresses during adolescence. The onset of social phobia generally occurs around ages 11 to 15. Social phobia is also known as social anxiety disorder.

1.1.3 Symptoms of social phobia

When exposed to a feared social situation, a person with social phobia may experience symptoms of extreme anxiety, including:

- Blushing
- Trembling
- Feeling as if you have nothing to say
- Accelerated heart rate
- Shallow, fast breathing
- Sweaty palms
- Nausea
- Tense muscles
- Dry throat
- Stomach pain
- Feeling faint or light-headed
- Feelings of self-doubt and uncertainty
- Negative thoughts such as 'I'm making a fool of myself'
- Difficulty concentrating on anything other than physical sensations of anxiety, negative feedback from others and negative thoughts
- An overwhelming urge to flee the situation

1.1.4: Social phobia – feared social situations

Some people with social phobia fear and avoid specific situations (such as public speaking), while others may feel generalised anxiety about several social situations (generalised social phobia). A person with social phobia can fear (and try to avoid) a range of situations, including:

- Crowds and parties
- Public speaking
- Starting or having a conversation
- Talking to a large group
- Voicing opinions
- Meeting someone new, shaking hands
- Dating
- Using public toilets
- Shopping
- Talking with someone who is in a position of seniority or authority
- Being watched while doing something, such as eating, signing papers or talking on the telephone
- Situations that put them in the spotlight, such as parties to celebrate their own birthday.

1.1.5: Social Phobia – Underlying Fears

Some of the fears commonly aroused by social situations can include:

- Worry that others will notice their physical symptoms of anxiety, such as blushing, sweating, and stammering
- Fear of looking stupid, silly, or ridiculous
- Fear of appearing quiet, boring and uninteresting to others
- Fear of being judged as socially inadequate.

1.1.6: Social phobia can extend beyond the social event

A person with social phobia can feel anxious while simply anticipating an upcoming social event. After the event, the person may replay the conversations they had and rate their performance. Brooding on these feelings of social failure can make the person feel even worse, and reinforce the desire to avoid social situations in the future.

1.1.7: Common complications of social phobia

If left untreated, social phobia can severely affect quality of life. Some of the common complications may include:

- Using alcohol to cope with anxiety during social events
- Alcohol abuse
- Misuse of prescription and non-prescription drugs
- Difficulty forming and maintaining relationships
- Curtailed education or employment opportunities
- Depression
- Suicidal thoughts
- Isolation from family, peers and community
- Reluctance to leave the house.

1.1.8 Treatment options for social phobia

Recovery from social phobia is possible with appropriate treatment. Depending on the individual, treatment options may include:

- Cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT)
- Anxiety management techniques
- Social skills training
- Medication.

➤ Cognitive Behaviour Therapy (CBT)

Cognitive behaviour therapy aims to help people change the way they think, feel and behave in social situations. These techniques may help people to confront their fears. In time, people come to realise that others are unlikely to judge them harshly – and even if it does happen, they realise it's not a major tragedy. They will also learn that they can exert some control and choice over their thoughts and feelings.

Treatment using CBT may include:

- Education about the nature of social anxiety
- Challenging and changing false or distorted thoughts and beliefs
- Gradual exposure to feared situations
- Attention training.

➤ Anxiety Management Techniques

Relaxation training and breathing techniques may help a person manage their anxiety symptoms. Some physical anxiety symptoms may be triggered by hyperventilation (over breathing). Taking slow, deep breaths from the abdomen – rather than fast, shallow breaths from the chest can reduce anxious feelings

Relaxation techniques include:

- progressive muscle relaxation
- mindfulness
- meditation
- visualisation
- Isometric relaxation exercises.

➤ Social Skills Training

Some people who have suffered with social phobia for many years may develop habits that make it difficult for them to take steps towards recovery. For example, they may:

- Find it difficult to make or maintain eye contact
- Use soft or hesitant speech
- Display closed body language
- Have rigid facial expressions
- Need a large personal space
- Have difficulty listening or keeping a conversation going.

Social skills training methods include modelling the appropriate behaviour, role-playing and then practising in real-life situations.

➤ Medication

Some medications, such as selective serotonin re-uptake inhibitors (SSRIs), can help if the person is also suffering from depression. In the short term, drugs such as beta-blockers may be used to help manage some of the symptoms of anxiety.

1.2 PREJUDICE

Prejudice is defined as an unjustified or incorrect belief system or attitude (usually negative) that one has towards an individual based exclusively on his/her affiliation with a group.

Prejudice is an unfair, intolerant, or unfavourable attitude toward a group of people. Prejudicial beliefs are virtually negative stereotypes. Social scientists view prejudice as the possession of negative attitudes targeted against members of a particular religious, racial, ethnic, social, and/or political group. These attitudes give rise to negative or unfavourable evaluations of individuals

seen as belonging to that group. The perception that one belongs to a certain group is the precipitating factor in prejudicial feelings—not the actual attributes or behaviours of the person being judged. Like attitudes in general, prejudice has three components: beliefs, feelings, and "behavioural tendencies."

Sociologists have termed prejudice an adaptive behaviour. Biased views might be considered necessary at times for human survival: we do not always have time to form a legitimate view about a potential foe before adopting a defensive stance that could save our lives. Conversely, prejudice is non-adaptive when it interferes with survival or well-being.

Prejudices are usually based on general stereotypical conceptions of our everyday reality, including ourselves, other persons, objects processes, facts, value-norms, rules. However, they need to be converted into attitudes, in order to be considered as prejudice. And they usually carry a negative connotation.

Prejudices form the breeding grounds for all kinds of discrimination that play out in real life. It fuels ignorance, xenophobia and insensitivity towards the groups and communities that we are prejudiced against. Throughout history prejudice spawned some of humankind's worst atrocities against one another- war, genocide, torture, starvation, murder, human rights violation and despotism. Prejudice can be about any group of people. We may have something against people who support a particular political party (democrats) or those who follow certain diet (vegans) or live in a certain part of your town or who accessorize a certain way.

Prejudice can have a strong influence on how people behave and interact with others, particularly with those who are different from them. Common features of prejudice include negative feelings, stereotyped beliefs, and a tendency to discriminate against members of the group. While specific definitions of prejudice given by social scientists often differ, most agree that it involves prejudgments that are usually negative about members of a group. When people hold prejudicial attitudes toward others, they tend to view everyone who fits into a certain group as being "all the same." They paint every individual who holds particular

characteristics or beliefs with a very broad brush and fail to really look at each person as a unique individual.

It's important to know that we aren't born with any preconceived notions about anyone in the world – all our prejudices are something that we've learned over time. The human mind likes to simplify things, including the behaviour of the people around us, especially when we lack sufficient data. When we have inadequate information about a certain person individually, we're inclined to form an opinion about them based on our schemas and the experiences we've had with the group that they belong to. It's our mind's way of taking shortcuts to be more efficient with our brain's energy.

We're instinctually driven to form preconceived notions about others, no matter how skewed or irrational our thoughts may appear to us. An "us versus them" mentality is a survival mechanism to guard ourselves against danger and we learn who to guard ourselves against, based on what we're taught as kids, our cultural experiences (or lack thereof), and what we've seen in the media. All the evaluations that we make about others happens on a deep subconscious level and the only way to avoid being run by our old programming is to become aware of when it happens. We also have to recognize that our prejudice has everything to do with us and not with the other person or group. It clearly exposes the nature of our shadow and all the neglected parts of us that need to come to light.

When we look closer, we'll see that our biases are simply a by-product of fear and ego-based thoughts, and the solution is to gain knowledge that counteracts these thoughts so that we can move towards a perspective based on love, openness and compassion for our fellow beings. If we want a positive change in the world, we have to start with ourselves by observing how and why we block certain people out.

1.2.1 Types

Prejudice can be based on a number of factors including sex, race, age, sexual orientation, nationality, socioeconomic status, and religion. Some of the most well-known types of prejudice include:

- **Racism:** It involves a belief that all members of an ethnic group or nationality have characteristics or abilities specific to that ethnicity or nationality. Furthermore, it also involves a belief that different ethnicities have different traits due to genetic differences. In other words, racism is a belief system claiming that there are inferior and superior groups within a human population based on ethnic background.
- **Sexism:** The sex or gender of a person might also be a source of or basis for prejudice. This is called sexism. It generally involves a belief that a particular sex or gender is naturally superior to another. Although sexism can affect all sexes and genders, it is often observed to affect women and members of the LGBT community. Note that this type of prejudice is also linked to gender roles and stereotypes, as well as homophobia
- **Classism:** Classism or class discrimination is a type of prejudice based on social class or the socioeconomic status of an individual. An example would be negative opinions about an impoverished person by someone who comes from privilege. To be specific, these negative opinions might involve associating instances of crime and violence in poor communities with the subject of prejudice. However, it is important to note that classism negatively affects members of the upper classes.
- **Homophobia:** it is a type of prejudice toward homosexuality or people who are identified or perceived as being lesbian, gay, bisexual or transgender.
- **Nationalism:** it is a type of prejudice towards the promotion of the interests of a particular nation. It is a type of discrimination that is similar to racism. A notable example was the anti-Semitism movement that became prevalent in Germany during World War II under the reign of Adolf Hitler and the Nazi regime.

- Religious prejudice: it is the negative attitudes or behaviour between people of different religious groups because of their differing religious beliefs
- Ageism: it is the stereotyping and discrimination against individuals or groups on the basis of their age.
- Xenophobia: it is the fear or hatred of that which is perceived to be foreign or strange.

Sociologists and psychologists hold that some of the emotionality in prejudice stems from subconscious attitudes that cause a person to ward off feelings of inadequacy by projecting them onto a target group. By using certain people as **scapegoats**—those without power who are unfairly blamed—anxiety and uncertainty are reduced by attributing complex problems to a simple cause: “Those people are the source of all my problems.” Social research across the globe has shown that prejudice is fundamentally related to low self-esteem. By hating certain groups (in this case, minorities), people are able to enhance their sense of self-worth and importance.

1.2.2 Sources of prejudice

- *Socialization*: Many prejudices seem to be passed along from parents to children. The media—including television, movies, and advertising—also perpetuate demeaning images and stereotypes about assorted groups, such as ethnic minorities, women, gays and lesbians, the disabled, and the elderly.
- *Conforming behaviours*: Prejudices may bring support from significant others, so rejecting prejudices may lead to losing social support. The pressures to conform to the views of families, friends, and associates can be formidable.
- *Economic benefits*: . Social studies have confirmed that prejudice especially rises when groups are in direct competition for jobs. This may help to explain why prejudice increases dramatically during times of economic and social stress.

- *Authoritarian personality*: In response to early socialization, some people are especially prone to stereotypical thinking and projection based on unconscious fears. People with an **authoritarian personality** rigidly conform, submit without question to their superiors, reject those they consider to be inferiors, and express intolerant sexual and religious opinions. The authoritarian personality may have its roots in parents who are unloving and aloof disciplinarians. The child then learns to control his or her anxieties via rigid attitudes.
- **Ethnocentrism**: Ethnocentrism is the tendency to evaluate others' cultures by one's own cultural norms and values. It also includes a suspicion of outsiders. Most cultures have their ethnocentric tendencies, which usually involve stereotypical thinking.
- *Group closure*: **Group closure** is the process whereby groups keep clear boundaries between themselves and others. Refusing to marry outside an ethnic group is an example of how group closure is accomplished.
- **Conflict theory**: Under conflict theory, in order to hold onto their distinctive social status, power, and possessions, privileged groups are invested in seeing that no competition for resources arises from minority groups. The powerful may even be ready to resort to extreme acts of violence against others to protect their interests. As a result, members of underprivileged groups may retaliate with violence in an attempt to improve their circumstances.

1.2.3 Solutions for overcoming any form of prejudice:

- **Become aware of your prejudices**

The first step to combat your own biases is to find out what they are. There are tests that you can take to assess your beliefs about various individuals and measure the level of inherent bias you have towards certain groups, such as the Implicit Association Tests (IAT). In addition to doing the test, you should take a closer look at the interactions that you have in your everyday life and observe your patterns. Once you're clear on the kind of prejudices you have, you

can proceed to finding out what is causing you to feel this way. Was it something that you were taught by the people around you? Did you have a bad past experience with an individual belonging to a certain group? When and how did these prejudices take root and what is happening to reinforce these beliefs in your life?

Once you've understood the origins of your prejudices and unfair judgments about others, you've won half the battle against prejudice. Remember that as you go through this process, do not beat yourself up and engage in self-blame for having unpleasant thoughts about others. Treat yourself with compassion and applaud yourself for each step that you take towards creating a positive shift in your behaviour so that you can become a better person.

- **Stay mindful and be accountable**

Once you acknowledge your own prejudices, you'll find easier to be mindful of any irrational beliefs and self-talk that causes you to feel biased. In other words, you start becoming conscious of what is normally an unconscious mental process. You'll be able to connect with deeper values that stem from your higher mind and avoid acting on instinctual assumptions and fears. Being aware of your prejudices will make it easier for you to step back and choose differently, and behave in line with your higher ideals. During this typically uncomfortable transition phase, you'll have to hold yourself accountable by managing your thoughts and challenging your current beliefs around your prejudices. For example, if you've believed all your life that all old people are boring and grumpy, remind yourself that you've made an over-generalization every time you meet an elderly person.

- **Eliminate or spend less time with prejudiced people and media**

We are heavily influenced by the people that we spend the most time with and we tend to inherit their beliefs as well. So if you've been hanging out with ignorant folks whose values are centred on hate and fear, you might want to distance yourself and spend less time with them. The media is also a big culprit for fuelling feelings of prejudice and discrimination, so you need to have your

antennae up whenever you come across one-sided media personalities and celebrities spewing fearful rhetoric, and be willing to toss out that newspaper or magazine and switch off that TV or radio whenever you sense it. In this way, you'll shield yourself against partisan sources of information that could influence your opinion of others in a negative way

- **Broaden your horizons**

Bigoted beliefs about others are usually formed due to incomplete or skewed knowledge that you've taken in and so the most effective way to combat it is by inundating yourself with contradictory information that can balance out your current perspective. You can start out by befriending members of the group that you're prejudiced against. Keep an open mind and heart as you speak with them and really try to see what the world looks through their eyes. Connect with them deep enough so that you get a sense of the challenges that they face and you can embrace their humanity. You could also broaden your outlook on the wonderful diversity that exists in our world by travelling, reading books, visiting museums, taking language or cultural courses, and engaging in the arts. These heart-opening experiences will reveal hidden worlds that will make you more accepting of differences.

- **Become a spokesperson for them**

The groups that are targets of prejudice usually experience a lot of hardships because they're misunderstood by a significant segment of the population. If you feel strongly about certain groups, you can take the initiative to support them by lending your voice and energy towards eradicating any injustices that they may be facing. For example, actor Richard Gere was deeply touched during his visit to the tiny kingdom of Tibet, and not only did he convert to their religion of Buddhism, but he also became a strong advocate for the Tibetan people's fight for freedom and for their safety in the face of the repression imposed upon them. Former US first lady, Eleanor Roosevelt, was a passionate supporter of the civil

rights of African Americans from the 1930s until her last days. She was zealous about promoting equal rights for them and moved their cause ahead by decades.

1.3 NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study is focused on to examine the prejudice of college students in relation to their social phobia. It's natural to feel self-conscious, nervous, or shy in front of others at times. Most people get through these moments when they need to. But for some, the anxiety that goes with feeling shy or self-conscious can be extreme. Extreme feelings of shyness and self-consciousness build into a powerful fear. As a result, a person feels uncomfortable participating in everyday social situations. People with social phobia can usually interact easily with family and a few close friends. But meeting new people, talking in a group, or speaking in public can cause their extreme shyness to kick in. With social phobia, a person's extreme shyness, self-consciousness, and fears of embarrassment get in the way of life. Instead of enjoying social activities, people with social phobia might dread them and avoid some of them altogether.

Like other phobias, social phobia is a fear reaction to something that isn't actually dangerous — although the body and mind react as if the danger is real. This means that someone feels physical sensations of fear, like a faster heartbeat and breathing. These are part of the body's **fight–flight response**. They're caused by a rush of adrenaline and other chemicals that prepare the body to either fight or make a quick getaway. This biological mechanism kicks in we feel afraid. It's a built-in nervous system response that alerts us to danger so we can protect ourselves. With social phobia, this response gets activated too often, too strongly, and in situations where it's out of place. Because the physical sensations that go with the response are real — and sometimes quite strong — the danger seems real too. So the person will react by freezing up, and will feel unable to interact. As the body experiences these physical sensations, the mind goes through emotions like feeling afraid or nervous. They tend to interpret these sensations and emotions in a way that leads them to avoid the situation ("Uh-oh, my heart's pounding; this

must be dangerous — I'd better not do it!"). Since people with social phobia usually avoid the social situations and settings they have high probability to have prejudice. Social phobia is the most common anxiety disorder seen today and Prejudice is an unfair, intolerant, or unfavourable attitude toward a group of people. It is an attitude which exists even today. Not many studies have come out in this area. Therefore the study tries to add to the existing literature.

1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The title of the study is stated as “Prejudice among college students in relation to social phobia”

1.5 VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

The variables of prime importance in the study are social phobia (independent variable) and prejudice (dependent variable)

1.6 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Social phobia: The fear and anxiety of being negatively judged and evaluated by other people.

Prejudice: It is an attitude that people carry about in their minds and that disposes them to act in ways consistent with that mindset.

1.7 ORGANIZATION OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 1 has presented General introduction, introduction, and Need and significance statement of the problem, Variables of the study and operational definition of key terms. Chapter 2 contains the theories related to variables, studies related to variable, objectives of the study and hypotheses. Chapter 3 contains the method and procedures used to gather data for the present study. Chapter 4 contains the result and analyses and findings to emerge from the study. Chapter 5 contains the summary of the study and findings, conclusion drawn from the findings, a discussion and recommendations for further study.

A literature review identifies, evaluates and synthesizes the relevant literature within a particular field of research. It illuminates how knowledge has evolved within the field, highlighting what has already been done, what is generally accepted, what is emerging and what is the current state of thinking on the topic. A literature review shows your readers that you have an in-depth grasp of your subject; and that you understand where your own research fits into and adds to an existing body of agreed knowledge. A literature review has four main objectives, it surveys the literature in your chosen area of study, it synthesises the information in that literature into a summary, it critically analyses the information gathered by identifying gaps in current knowledge; by showing limitations of theories and points of view; and by formulating areas for further research and reviewing areas of controversy, it presents the literature in an organized way.

2.1 STUDIES RELATED TO SOCIAL PHOBIA

Stopa and Clark (2000) conducted a study on Social phobia and interpretation of social events. It has been suggested that social phobia may be characterized by two interpretation biases. First, a tendency to interpret ambiguous social events in a negative fashion. Second, a tendency to interpret unambiguous but mildly negative social events in a catastrophic fashion. To assess this possibility, patients with generalized social phobia, equally anxious patients with another anxiety disorder, and non-patient controls were presented with ambiguous scenarios depicting social and non-social events, and with unambiguous scenarios depicting mildly negative social events. Interpretations were assessed by participants' answers to open-ended questions and by their rankings and belief ratings for experimenter-provided, alternative explanations. Results shows that when compared to both control groups, patients with generalized social phobia were more likely to interpret ambiguous social events in a negative fashion and to catastrophize in response to unambiguous, mildly negative social events.

Stein et al (2000) conducted a study on Social phobia symptoms, subtypes and severity. Our goals were (1) to ascertain the range of functional impairment attributable to social phobia in a community sample, and (2) to verify the existence of social phobia subtypes in the community, and report on their relative prevalence, severity, and levels of impairment. Community surveys were conducted contemporaneously in Winnipeg, Manitoba, and in Alberta, with a total of 1956 respondents. Instruments included the Comprehensive International Diagnostic Interview–Version 2.1 module for *DSM-IV* social phobia, enhanced with 6 additional (for a total of 12) social phobic situational probes to provide a more comprehensive assessment of possible subtypes, and additional questions about specific functional impairment due to social phobia. Results shows that Of those persons in the community surveyed, most had no (60.4%) or few (ie, 1-3) (27.8%) social fears; few persons (3.4%) had many (ie, ≥ 7). Among those with *DSM-IV* social phobia (7.2%), classification based on number (normally distributed with median of 3, mode of 5) or content (e.g., speaking-only vs. other fears; performance-only vs interactional fears) of social fears failed to yield a defensible sub typing solution. Impairment increased linearly as the number of social fears was increased, with no clear threshold evident.

Hirsch and Mathews (2000) conducted a study on Impaired positive inferential bias in social phobia. People with social phobia report anticipatory and retrospective judgments about social situations that appear consistent with a negative interpretative bias. However, it is not at all clear that biased interpretative inferences are made "on-line;" that is, at the time that ambiguous information is first encountered. In a previous study, volunteers who were anxious about interviews were found to lack the positive on-line inferential bias that was characteristic of no anxious controls but also failed to show a bias favoring threatening inferences (C. R. Hirsch & A. Mathews, 1997). This finding was confirmed in the present study, in which social phobic patients showed no evidence of making on-line emotional inferences, in contrast with socially no anxious controls who were again clearly biased in favor of positive inferences. The

authors concluded that no anxious individuals are characterized by a benign on-line inferential bias, but that this is impaired in people with social phobia.

Hayward et al (2000) conducted a study Cognitive behavioral group therapy for social phobia in female adolescents. The aim of the study was to examine the efficacy of cognitive-behavioral group therapy for adolescents (CBGT-A) in females with social phobia and the effect of this treatment on the risk for major depression. For that female adolescents with social phobia ($N = 35$) were randomly assigned to treatment ($n = 12$) or no treatment ($n = 23$) groups. Assessments were conducted at baseline, after treatment, and at a 1-year follow-up. Result shows that Eleven subjects completed treatment. Sixteen weeks of treatment produced a significant improvement in interference and reduction in symptoms of social anxiety. There was a significant reduction in the number of subjects meeting *DSM-IV* criteria for social phobia in the CBGT-A versus the untreated group; however, at the 1-year follow-up there were no significant differences by treatment condition. There was also suggestive evidence that treatment of social phobia lowers the risk for relapse of major depression among those with a history of major depression. Combining social phobia and major depression as the outcome produced more robust treatment effects in the 1-year follow-up. This pilot study provides evidence for a moderate short-term effect of CBGT-A for treating female adolescents suffering from social phobia and indicates that treatment of social phobia may result in a reduction of major depression.

Lieb(2000) conducted a study on Parental psychopathology, parenting styles and risk of social phobia in offspring. This article examines the associations between *DSM-IV* social phobia and parental psychopathology, parenting style, and characteristics of family functioning in a representative community sample of adolescents. Findings are based on baseline and first follow-up data of 1047 adolescents aged 14 to 17 years at baseline (response rate, 74.3%), and independent diagnostic interviews with one of their parents. Diagnostic assessments in parents and adolescents were based on the *DSM-IV* algorithms of the Munich-Composite International Diagnostic Interview. Parenting style

(rejection, emotional warmth, and overprotection) was assessed by the Questionnaire of Recalled Parental Rearing Behavior, and family functioning (problem solving, communication, roles, affective responsiveness, affective involvement, and behavioral control) was assessed by the McMaster Family Assessment Device. Results indicates that there was a strong association between parental social phobia and social phobia among offspring (odds ratio [OR], 4.7; 95% confidence interval [CI], 1.6-13.5). Other forms of parental psychopathology also were associated with social phobia in adolescents (depression: OR, 3.6; 95% CI, 1.4-9.1; any anxiety disorder other than social phobia: OR, 3.5; 95% CI, 1.4-8.8; and any alcohol use disorder: OR, 3.0; 95% CI, 1.1-7.8). Parenting style, specifically parental overprotection (OR, 1.4; 95% CI, 1.0-1.9) and rejection (OR, 1.4; 95% CI, 1.1-1.9), was found to be associated with social phobia in respondents. Family functioning was not associated with respondents' social phobia. Data suggest that parental psychopathology, particularly social phobia and depression, and perceived parenting style (overprotection and rejection) are both associated with the development of social phobia in youth.

Schneier et al (2000) conducted a study on Dopamine D₂ receptor binding potential in social phobia. This study compared dopamine D₂ receptor binding potential in patients with social phobia and healthy comparison subjects. Dopamine D₂ receptor binding potential was assessed in 10 unmediated subjects with generalized social phobia and no significant lifetime psychiatric comorbidity and 10 healthy comparison subjects matched for age and sex. Binding potential was measured in the striatum by using single photon emission computerized tomography and constant infusion of the D₂ receptor radiotracer iodobenzamide (IBZM). Results shows that Mean D₂ receptor binding potential was significantly lower in the subjects with social phobia than in the comparison subjects. Within the social phobia group, there was a no significant correlation of binding potential with the Liebowitz Social Anxiety Scale score. Generalized social phobia may be associated with low binding of ¹²⁵IIBZM to D₂ receptors in the striatum.

Faravelli et al (2000) conducted a study on Epidemiology of social phobia. The recent epidemiologic studies report extremely varied rates for social phobia (SP). One of the reasons for this may be the difficulty in diagnosing SP, the boundaries of which are uncertain. A community survey was carried out using doctors with experience in clinical psychiatry as interviewers, and a clinical diagnostic instrument. Two thousand three hundred and fifty-five people (out of the 2,500 randomly selected from the population) living in Sesto Fiorentino, a suburb of Florence, Italy, were interviewed by their own general practitioner, using the MINI plus six additional questions. Six hundred and ten of the 623 subjects that were found positive for any form of psychopathology at the screening interview, and 57 negative subjects, were re-interviewed by residents in psychiatry using the Florence Psychiatric Interview (FPI). The FPI is a validated composite instrument that has the format of a structured clinical research record. It was found that 6.58% of subjects showed social anxiety not attributable to other psychiatric or medical conditions during their life. Social or occupational impairments meeting DSM-IV diagnostic requirements for SP was detected in 76 subjects (lifetime prevalence = 3.27%). Correction for age raises the lifetime expected prevalence to 4%. Sex ratio was approximately (F:M) 2:1. The most common fear was speaking in public (89.4%), followed by entering a room occupied by others (63.1%) and meeting with strangers (47.3%). Eighty-six-point nine percent of subjects with SP complained of more than one fear. The mean age of onset (when the subjects first fully met DSM-IV criteria for SP) was 28.8 years, but the first symptoms of SP usually occurred much earlier, with a mean age of onset at 15.5 years. Ninety-two percent of cases with SP also showed at least one other co-morbid psychiatric disorder during their life. Lifetime prevalence of avoidant personality disorder (APD) was 3.6%. Forty-two-point nine percent of cases with SP also had APD, whereas 37.9% of cases with APD developed SP.

Spence et al (2000) conducted a study on. The treatment of childhood social phobia. Fifty children aged 7–14 years with a principal diagnosis of social phobia were randomly assigned to either child-focused cognitive-behavior therapy

(CBT), CBT plus parent involvement, or a wait list control (WLC). The integrated CBT program involved intensive social skills training combined with graded exposure and cognitive challenging. At post-treatment, significantly fewer children in the treatment conditions retained a clinical diagnosis of social phobia compared to the WLC condition. In comparison to the WLC, children in both CBT interventions showed significantly greater reductions in children's social and general anxiety and a significant increase in parental ratings of child social skills performance. At 12-month follow-up, both treatment groups retained their improvement. There was a trend towards superior results when parents were involved in treatment, but this effect was not statistically significant.

Hofmann (2000) conducted a study on Self focused attention before and after treatment of social phobia. It has been hypothesized that effective psychological treatment for social phobia changes the person's representation of the self in a more positive direction. In order to test this hypothesis, we analyzed 506 thoughts that were endorsed by 23 social phobic individuals while anticipating socially stressful situations before and after exposure therapy. Treatment efficacy was assessed with the Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory (SPAI) [Turner, S. M., Beidel, D. C., Dancu, C. V., & Stanley M. A. (1989) An empirically derived inventory to measure social fears and anxiety: the Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory. *Psychological Assessment*, 1, 35–40)]. Subjects endorsed significantly fewer negative self-focused thoughts after treatment (on average 8.7% of the thoughts) than before treatment (26.5%, $p < 0.005$). These changes were highly correlated with pre–post difference scores in the social phobia subscale of the SPAI ($r = 0.74$, $p < 0.0001$). Implications of the results for the cognitive model of social phobia will be discussed.

Tillfors et al (2001) conducted a study on Cerebral blood flow in subjects with social phobia during stressful speaking tasks. The central nervous system representation of social phobia (social anxiety disorder) is largely unknown. The aim of this study was to examine brain activity during symptom provocation in social phobics. Positron emission tomography with the use of ^{15}O water was used

to measure regional cerebral blood flow (rCBF) in 18 subjects with DSM-IV-defined social phobia and a nonphobic comparison group while they were speaking in front of an audience and in private. Heart rate and subjective anxiety were also recorded. During public versus private speaking, subjective anxiety increased more in the social phobics than in the comparison group. Increased anxiety was accompanied by enhanced rCBF in the amygdaloid complex in the social phobics relative to the comparison subjects. Cortically, brain blood flow decreased in the social phobics and increased in the comparison subjects more during public than private speaking in the orbitofrontal and insular cortices as well as in the temporal pole and increased less in the social phobics than in the comparison group in the parietal and secondary visual cortices. Furthermore, rCBF increased in the comparison group, but not in the social phobics, in the perirhinal and retrosplenial cortices. An rCBF pattern of relatively increased cortical rather than subcortical perfusion was observed in the nonphobic subjects, indicating that cortical evaluative processes were taxed by public performance. In contrast, the social phobia symptom profile was associated with increased subcortical activity. Thus, the functional neuroanatomy of social phobia involves the activation of a phylogenetically older danger-recognition system.

Schneier et al (2001) conducted a study on Characteristics of Social phobia among persons with essential tremor. Social phobia symptoms have been reported to be common among patients with essential tremor, but characteristics of this comorbidity have not been systematically described. Cases with essential tremor (N = 94) and controls without essential tremor (N = 85), ascertained from movement disorder clinic and community samples, were evaluated for social phobia symptoms (using the social phobia module of the Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV Axis I Disorders and the Liebowitz Social Anxiety Scale), characteristics of tremor, and associated disability (via videotaped examination, performance test, and disability questionnaire). RESULTS: Lifetime combined prevalence of primary social phobia and clinically significant social phobia symptoms occurring secondary to essential tremor was 32.7% (16/49) among

essential tremor patients in the clinic sample. Essential tremor cases with secondary social phobia symptoms reported a markedly later age at onset of clinically significant social phobia symptoms than essential tremor cases with primary social phobia (51.0 vs. 8.8 years). Cases with secondary social phobia also reported greater fear and avoidance of eating, drinking, and writing in public than essential tremor cases with primary social phobia and control subjects with social phobia. Essential tremor cases with secondary social phobia symptoms also demonstrated more severe tremor and tremor-related disability than essential tremor cases with primary social phobia and essential tremor cases without social phobia. Among all essential tremor cases, severity of social phobia symptoms and tremor independently contributed to disability. Social phobia appears to occur in a substantial minority of essential tremor patients, and severity of social phobia symptoms is associated with disability, independent of tremor severity. Persons with social phobia symptoms secondary to essential tremor evidence clinical characteristics that differ from those of persons with primary social phobia. Further research is needed to determine the efficacy of treatment of social phobia in essential tremor patients with significant social phobia symptoms.

Patel et al (2002) conducted a study on the Economic consequences of social Phobia. Secondary analysis of 1993–1994 Psychiatric Morbidity Survey data compared 63 people with social phobia and 8501 people without psychiatric morbidity. People with social phobia were less likely to be in the highest socio-economic group and had lower employment rates and household income compared to those with no psychiatric morbidity. They also had higher levels of drug dependency and use of prescribed oral medications. Although there were no differences in total health care costs, costs of GP contacts were significantly higher. Individuals with a comorbid psychiatric disorder made higher use of some health services than those without a comorbidity. . Analyses were performed post hoc on data collected for other purposes. The defining questions for social phobia have not been studied much before. The number of identified subjects is small and thus raises the possibility of type II errors. Larger numbers may have revealed even more differences from the psychiatrically well population. Data on treatment

patterns of the psychiatrically well population were limited because the surveys focused on subjects with psychiatric morbidity. . The burden of social phobia on individuals, health services and the wider society could be reduced through improved rates of detection and appropriate treatment.

Chen et al (2002) conducted a study on Patients with generalized social phobia direct their attention away from faces. The experiment tested whether patients with social phobia direct their attention to or away from faces with a range of emotional expressions. A modified dot probe paradigm (J. Abnorm. Psychol. 95 (1986) 15) measured whether participants attended more to faces or to household objects. Twenty patients with social phobia were faster in identifying the probe when it occurred in the location of the household objects, regardless of whether the facial expressions were positive, neutral, or negative. In contrast, controls did not exhibit an attentional preference. The results are in line with recent theories of social phobia that emphasize the role of reduced processing of external social cues in maintaining social anxiety.

Bodinger et al (2002) conducted a study on Sexual function and behavior in social phobia. Evaluated sexual function and behavior in patients with social phobia compared with mentally healthy subjects. Eighty subjects participated in the study: 40 consecutive, drug-free outpatients with social phobia attending an anxiety disorders clinic between November 1997 and April 1999 and 40 mentally normal controls. The Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV Axis I Disorders and the Liebowitz Social Anxiety Scale were used to quantitatively and qualitatively assess sexual function and behavior. Men with social phobia reported mainly moderate impairment in arousal, orgasm, sexual enjoyment, and subjective satisfaction domains. Women with social phobia reported severe impairment in desire, arousal, sexual activity, and subjective satisfaction. In addition, compared with controls, men with social phobia reported significantly more frequent paid sex, and women with social phobia reported a significant paucity of sexual partners. Patients with social phobia exhibit a wide range of sexual dysfunctions. Men have mainly performance problems, and women have a more pervasive

disorder. Patients of both genders show difficulties in sexual interaction. It is important that clinicians be aware of this aspect of social phobia and initiate open discussions of sexual problems with patients.

Tillfors et al (2002) conducted a study on the Cerebral blood flow during anticipation of public speaking in social phobia. The aim was to examine the neural correlates of anxiety elicited by the anticipation of public speaking in individuals with social phobia. Positron emission tomography and ¹⁵O-water was used to measure regional cerebral blood flow in subjects with DSM-IV defined social phobia during anxiety anticipation. Heart rate and subjective anxiety were also recorded. While being scanned, subjects were speaking alone either before or after speaking in public. To evaluate anticipatory anxiety we compared individuals speaking alone before they were speaking in front of an audience with those who did the reverse. Heart rate and subjective anxiety measures confirmed anticipatory anxiety in social phobics who performed their private speech before their public. This was accompanied by enhanced cerebral blood flow in the right dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, left inferior temporal cortex, and in the left amygdaloid-hippocampal region. Brain blood flow was lower in the left temporal pole and bilaterally in the cerebellum in the anticipation group. Brain regions with altered perfusion presumably reflect changes in neural activity associated with worry about anticipated public performance. We speculate that anticipatory anxiety in social phobics originates in an affect sensitive fear network encompassing the amygdaloid-hippocampal region, prefrontal, and temporal areas.

Spurr and Stopa (2002) conducted a study on Self focused attention in social phobia and social anxiety. This review concentrates on the role of self-focused attention in social anxiety with particular reference to the Clark and Wells [Clark, D. M., & Wells, A. (1995). A cognitive model of social phobia. In R. R. G. Heimberg, M. Liebowitz, D. A. Hope, & S. Scheier (Eds.), *Social phobia: diagnosis, assessment and treatment*. New York: Guilford.] Model of social phobia. According to Clark and Wells, self-focused attention is an important

maintaining factor in the disorder because it increases access to negative thoughts and feelings, can interfere with performance, and prevents the individual from observing external information that might disconfirm his or her fears. Clark and Wells also propose that socially phobic individuals construct a distorted impression of themselves, based on internally generated information, that takes the form of a visual image (often seen from the perspective of an observer) or felt sense. This paper describes the model and then reviews other theories of self-focused attention, and empirical evidence on self-focused attention. Two types of evidence are reviewed: one, studies that have been conducted from a variety of theoretical perspectives that have relevance either to social anxiety in general or to the Clark and Wells model in particular; two, studies that were designed as a direct test of Clark and Wells' predictions. The final section of the review summarizes the conclusions and suggests areas for future examination.

Furmark et al (2002) conducted a study on the common changes in cerebral bloodflow in patients with social phobia treated with citalopram or cognitive behaviour therapy. Neurofunctional changes underlying effective antianxiety treatments are incompletely characterized. This study explored the effects of citalopram and cognitive-behavioral therapy on regional cerebral blood flow (rCBF) in social phobia. By means of positron emission tomography with oxygen 15-labeled water, rCBF was assessed in 18 previously untreated patients with social phobia during an anxiogenic public speaking task. Patients were matched for sex, age, and phobia severity, based on social anxiety questionnaire data, and randomized to citalopram medication, cognitive-behavioral group therapy, or a waiting-list control group. Scans were repeated after 9 weeks of treatment or waiting time. Outcome was assessed by subjective and psycho physiological state anxiety measures and self-report questionnaires. Questions were readministered after 1 year. Results show that Symptoms improved significantly and roughly equally with citalopram and cognitive-behavioral therapy, whereas the waiting-list group remained unchanged. Four patients in each treated group and 1 waiting-list patient were classified as responders. Within both treated groups, and in

responders regardless of treatment approach, improvement was accompanied by a decreased rCBF-response to public speaking bilaterally in the amygdala, hippocampus, and the periamygdaloid, rhinal, and parahippocampal cortices. Between-group comparisons confirmed that rCBF in these regions decreased significantly more in treated groups than control subjects, and in responders than no responders, particularly in the right hemisphere. The degree of amygdalar- limbic attenuation was associated with clinical improvement a year later. Common sites of action for citalopram and cognitive-behavioral treatment of social anxiety were observed in the amygdala, hippocampus, and neighboring cortical areas, ie, brain regions subservient bodily defense reactions to threat.

Ralf et al (2002) conducted a study on the brain circuits involved in emotional learning in antisocial behavior and social phobia in humans. While psychopaths (PP) lack anticipatory fear, social phobic's (SP) are characterized by excessive fear. Criminal PP, SP and healthy controls (HC) participated in differential aversive delay conditioning with neutral faces as conditioned (CS) and painful pressure as unconditioned stimuli. Functional magnetic resonance imaging revealed differential activation in the limbic–prefrontal circuit (orbit frontal cortex, insula, anterior cingulate, amygdala) in the HC. By contrast, the PP displayed brief amygdala, but no further brain activation. The SP showed increased activity to the faces in the amygdala and orbit frontal cortex already during habituation. Thus, a hypoactive front limbic circuit may represent the neural correlate of psychopathic behavior, whereas an overactive front limbic system may underly social fear.

Chartier et al (2003) conducted a study on Considering comorbidity in social phobia. This study evaluated lifetime social phobia comorbidity with other common mental disorders as well as comorbidity in subtypes of social phobia. We also considered whether social fears, reported by respondents with social phobia, had an earlier or later age of onset than other disorders. Data came from the Mental Health Supplement to the Ontario Health Survey, a survey of 8,116 Canadian respondents, ages 15–64. Psychiatric diagnoses were determined using

the CIDI. This instrument is considered more sensitive than earlier instruments for diagnosing social phobia. Fifty-two percent of respondents with lifetime social phobia reported at least one other lifetime mental disorder and 27% reported three or more lifetime mental disorders. Social phobia, in this sample, is strongly comorbid with anxiety and affective disorders, and moderately comorbid with substance abuse disorders. When two social phobia subgroups were considered, the largest odds ratios were found among the not-exclusively-speaking social phobia group. This subgroup would include most of the respondents with a generalized form of social phobia. Age of onset of social fears, in respondents with social phobia, preceded age of onset of the comorbid disorder in 32% of cases with comorbid anxiety disorder, 71% of cases with comorbid affective disorder and 80% of cases with comorbid substance dependence/abuse disorder.

Amir et al (2003) conducted a study on Attentional bias to threat in social phobia: facilitated processing of threat or difficulty disengaging attention from threat. In the current paper, we report a direct test of this hypothesis in individuals with social phobia. Participants performed a variation of the Posner paradigm. Social threat, neutral, or positive words cued one of two locations on the computer screen. After the cue disappeared, participants had to detect a probe that appeared in one of the two locations. On some trials the cue was valid (i.e., the probe appeared in the same location as the cue). On other trials the cue was invalid (the probe appeared in a different location than the cue). Yet, on other trials, no cue was presented. All participants were slower in detecting probes following invalid cues than probes following valid cues. Furthermore, individuals with social phobia showed significantly longer response latencies when detecting invalidly cued targets than did controls, but only when the probe followed a social threat word. These results suggest that individuals with social phobia may have difficulty disengaging their attention from socially threatening material.

Hirsch et al (2003) conducted a study on Self-images play a causal role in social phobia. Patients with social phobia often experience negative self-images in

social situations. The current study investigated whether negative self-images have a causal role in maintaining social phobia. Patients with social phobia participated twice in a conversation with a stranger, once whilst holding their usual negative self-image in mind and once whilst holding a less negative (control) self-image in mind, with order counterbalanced across participants. Compared to the control image condition, when participants held the negative image in mind they experienced greater anxiety, rated their anxiety symptoms as being more visible, and rated their performance as poorer. An assessor who did not know which image was being held also rated participants' anxiety as more evident and their behaviour as less positive when the negative image was being held in mind. Finally, when participant and assessor ratings were compared, participants underestimated their performance and overestimated the visibility of their anxiety to a significantly greater extent in the negative imagery condition. Taken together, these results support the hypothesis that negative self-imagery has a causal role in maintaining social phobia.

Hieser et al (2003) conducted a study on Shyness: relationship to social phobia and psychiatric disorders. The relationship between shyness, social phobia and other psychiatric disorders was examined. The prevalence of social phobia was significantly higher among shy persons (18%) compared with non-shy persons (3%). However, the majority of shy individuals (82%) were not socially phobic. A significant and positive correlation was found between the severity of shyness and the presence of social phobia, but the data suggest that social phobia is not merely severe shyness. Social phobia was also positively and moderately correlated with introversion and neuroticism. Thus, shy persons with social phobia were shyer, more introverted, and more neurotic than other shy people, but none of these factors was sufficient to distinguish shy persons with social phobia from those without social phobia. The proportion of the shy group with psychiatric diagnoses other than social phobia was significantly higher than among the non-shy group, indicating that various diagnostic categories are prominent among the shy. The results are discussed in terms of the overlap in shyness and social phobia

and the relationship of shyness to other psychiatric diagnoses and personality dimensions.

Carrigan and Randall (2003) conducted a study on Self medication in social phobia. It is well documented that many individuals endorse the belief that alcohol reduces social anxiety. Individuals with social phobia, therefore, might be expected to use alcohol as a coping strategy in an attempt at self-medication. The purpose of the present paper was to review the published literature on the relationship between alcohol use and social phobia to test the self-medication hypothesis (SMH). Support for one aspect of the SMH was found; individuals with social phobia use alcohol to reduce anxiety. Support for the second premise, that alcohol actually reduces social anxiety, was less conclusive.

Voncken et al (2003) conducted a study on Interpretation and judgemental biases in social phobia. Previous research demonstrated that social phobia is characterized by content-specific interpretation and judgmental biases. The present study investigated whether this interpretation bias occurs not only in ambiguous, but also in positive and negative social events, and whether social phobic patients (SPs) are more characterized by a judgmental bias in costs than in probability. Besides, we argued that the judgmental bias observed in former studies could also be attributed to accurate estimations of SPs (of, for example, stuttering). Therefore, we assessed judgmental bias by the ratings of probability and costs of a negative evaluation (e.g. 'people dislike me') and not, as in previous studies, of negative social events (e.g. 'stuttering'). SPs ($n=228$) and normal controls ($n=33$) were presented social and non-social events ranging from positive to profoundly negative. They ranked four different interpretations on likelihood to assess interpretation bias, and rated the profoundly negative interpretation on probability and cost to assess judgmental bias. SPs demonstrated content-specific interpretation and judgmental biases that also occurred in positive and negative social events. In contrast with expectations, SPs were characterized by a judgmental bias in both costs and probability.

Stangier et al (2003) conducted a study on Cognitive therapy of social phobia: individual versus group treatment. Cognitive-behavioral group treatment is the treatment of choice for social phobia. However, as not all patients benefit, an additional empirically validated psychological treatment would be of value. In addition, few studies have examined whether a group treatment format is more effective than an individual treatment format. A randomized controlled trial addressed these issues by comparing individual cognitive therapy, along the lines advocated by Clark and Wells (Clark, D.M. and Wells, A., 1995. A cognitive model of social phobia. In: R. G. Heimberg, M. Liebowitz, D. Hope and F. Schneier (Eds.), *Social Phobia: Diagnosis, assessment, and treatment* (pp. 69–93). New York: Guilford.), with a group version of the treatment and a wait-list control condition. 71 patients meeting DSM-IV criteria for social phobia participated in the trial, 65 completed the posttreatment assessment and 59 completed a six-month follow-up. Social phobia measures indicated significant pretreatment to post treatment improvement in both individual and group cognitive therapy. Individual cognitive therapy was superior to group cognitive therapy on several measures at both post treatment and follow-up. The effects of treatment on general measures of mood and psychopathology were less substantial than the effects on social phobia. The results suggest that individual cognitive therapy is a specific treatment for social phobia and that its effectiveness may be diminished by delivery in a group format.

Izic et al (2004) conducted a study on Social phobia among university students and its relation to self esteem and body image. To demonstrate the prevalence of social phobia and its relation to body image and self-esteem. Study participants were 1003 students recruited from Cumhuriyet University as a randomized sample. Subjects were administered the Diagnostic Interview Schedule-III-Revised (DIS-III-R) Social Phobia Scale, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, and the Multidimensional Body–Self Relations Questionnaire (MBSRQ). We analyzed the data, using Fisher's exact chi-square test. Lifetime prevalence of social phobia among university students was 9.6% and past-year prevalence was

7.9%. Self-esteem was lower ($P < 0.05$) among those with social phobia than among those without social phobia. Students with social phobia had lower scores on the MBSRQ than did those without social phobia ($P < 0.0001$). The results show that persons with social phobia have lower self-esteem and more distorted body image than do those without social phobia.

Horley et al (2004) conducted a study on Face to face: visual scanpath evidence for abnormal processing of facial expressions in social phobia. Cognitive models of social phobia propose that cognitive biases and fears regarding negative evaluation by others result in preferential attention to interpersonal sources of threat. These fears may account for the hyper vigilance and avoidance of eye contact commonly reported by clinicians. This study provides the first objective examination of threat-related processing in social phobia. It was predicted that hyper scanning (hyper vigilance) and eye avoidance would be most apparent in social phobia for overt expressions of threat. An infrared corneal reflection technique was used to record visual scan paths in response to angry, sad, and happy vs. neutral facial expressions. Twenty-two subjects with social phobia were compared with age- and sex-matched normal controls. As predicted, social phobia subjects displayed hyper scanning, (increased scan path length) and avoidance (reduced fovea fixations) of the eyes, particularly evident for angry faces. The results could not be explained by either medication or co-morbid depression. These findings are consistent with theories emphasizing the role of information processing biases in social phobia, and show promise in the application to treatment evaluation in this disorder.

Abbot, Maree and Ronald (2004) conducted a study on Post event rumination and negative self appraisal in social phobia before and after treatment. This study investigated the relationship between self-appraisals of performance, symptom severity and post-event rumination in social phobia, and evaluated the effect of treatment on these variables. A socially phobic group and a no anxious control group performed an impromptu speech and were told that their performance would be evaluated. Participants appraised their performance immediately after the speech and 1 week later, and the frequency of post-event

rumination during the week following the speech was assessed. The socially phobic group maintained the negative appraisals of their speech over the week, whereas the nonclinical group showed increased positivity about their performance. The socially phobic group also engaged in more negative rumination than controls. Treatment improved perceptions of performance and reduced negative rumination. These results are discussed in the light of cognitive models of social phobia.

Hirsch and Clark (2004) conducted a study on information processing bias in social phobia. Social phobia is a persistent disorder that is unlikely to be maintained by avoidance alone. One reason for the enduring nature of social phobia may be the way individuals with the disorder process social information. It is important for those involved in social phobia to have an understanding of information-processing biases, because it has the potential to guide psychological interventions. In this review of social phobia, probability and cost estimates of social situations are examined, interpretive biases are evaluated and findings relating to memory and negative imagery are also reviewed. The clinical implications of social-phobia-related information-processing biases are discussed and possible avenues for future research are outlined.

Gotlib et al (2004) conducted a study on coherence and specificity of information-processing biases in depression and social phobia. Research has not resolved whether depression is associated with a distinct information-processing bias, whether the content of the information-processing bias in depression is specific to themes of loss and sadness, or whether biases are consistent across the tasks most commonly used to assess attention and memory processing. In the present study, participants diagnosed with major depression, social phobia, or no Axis I disorder, completed several information-processing tasks assessing attention and memory for sad, socially threatening, physically threatening, and positive stimuli. As predicted, depressed participants exhibited specific biases for stimuli connoting sadness; social phobic participants did not evidence such specificity for threat stimuli. It is important to note that the different measures of

bias in memory and attention were not systematically intercorrelated. Implications for the study of cognitive bias in depression, and for cognitive theory more broadly, are discussed.

Bogles and Mansell (2004) conducted a study on Attention processes in the maintenance and treatment of social phobia: hyper vigilance, avoidance and self focused attention. Four domains of evidence regarding the relationship between attention and social phobia are reviewed: (1) possible maintaining factor, (2) causal relationship, (3) specific relationship and (4) mediator of change during treatment. Two areas of research are covered and integrated: vigilance-avoidance of social threat stimuli and self-focused attention. There is empirical support for these processes as possible maintaining factors that are specific to patients and non-clinical samples with high levels of social anxiety. There is reasonable evidence to promote the use of attentional strategies in the treatment of social phobia, although better controlled studies are required. We propose six overlapping mechanisms that could be responsible for change: reduced vigilance; reduced avoidance; reduced self-focused attention; mindfulness; increased attentional control; increased self-esteem.

Hoffman and Stefan (2004) conducted a study on Cognitive meditation of treatment change in social phobia. Ninety individuals with social phobia (social anxiety disorder) participated in a randomized controlled trial and completed cognitive-behavioural group therapy, exposure group therapy without explicit cognitive interventions, or a wait-list control condition. Both treatments were superior to the wait-list group in reducing social anxiety but did not differ from one another at post-test. Changes in estimated social cost mediated treatment changes in both treatment conditions from pre- to post-test. However, only participants who received cognitive-behavioural therapy showed continued improvement from post-test to 6-month follow-up, which was associated with a reduction of estimated social cost from pre-test to post-test. These results suggest that cognitive intervention leads to better maintenance of treatment gains, which is mediated through changes in estimated social cost.

Karin, Pierre and Brendan (2004) conducted a study on Selective attention to angry faces in clinical social phobia. This study investigated the time course of attentional responses to emotional facial expressions in a clinical sample with social phobia. With a visual probe task, photographs of angry, happy, and neutral faces were presented at 2 exposure durations: 500 and 1,250 ms. At 500 ms, the social phobia group showed enhanced vigilance for angry faces, relative to happy and neutral faces, in comparison with normal controls. In the 1,250-ms condition, there were no significant attentional biases in the social phobia group. Results are consistent with a bias in initial orienting to threat cues in social anxiety.

Bruce et al (2005) conducted a study on Influence of psychiatric co morbidity on recovery and recurrence in generalized anxiety disorder, social phobia and panic disorder. The authors sought to observe the long-term clinical course of anxiety disorders over 12 years and to examine the influence of comorbid psychiatric disorders on recovery from or recurrence of panic disorder, generalized anxiety disorder, and social phobia. Data were drawn from the Harvard/Brown Anxiety Disorders Research Program, a prospective, naturalistic, longitudinal, multicentre study of adults with a current or past history of anxiety disorders. Probabilities of recovery and recurrence were calculated by using standard survival analysis methods. Proportional hazards regression analyses with time-varying covariates were conducted to determine risk ratios for possible comorbid psychiatric predictors of recovery and recurrence. Survival analyses revealed an overall chronic course for the majority of the anxiety disorders. Social phobia had the smallest probability of recovery after 12 years of follow-up. Moreover, patients who had prospectively observed recovery from their intake anxiety disorder had a high probability of recurrence over the follow-up period. The overall clinical course was worsened by several comorbid psychiatric conditions, including major depression and alcohol and other substance use disorders, and by comorbidity of generalized anxiety disorder and panic disorder with agoraphobia. These data depict the anxiety disorders as insidious, with a chronic clinical course, low rates of recovery, and relatively high probabilities of recurrence. The presence of

particular comorbid psychiatric disorders significantly lowered the likelihood of recovery from anxiety disorders and increased the likelihood of their recurrence. The findings add to the understanding of the nosology and treatment of these disorders.

Lydia et al (2005) conducted a study on the size of burden of social phobia in Europe. This paper provides a critical review of the prevalence of social phobia in European countries, a description of associated disability and burden and of clinical correlates and risk factors associated with social phobia. On the basis of a comprehensive literature search we identified 21 community studies and two primary care studies. The median lifetime and 12-month prevalence rates of social phobia in community samples referring to DSM-III-R and I criteria were 6.65% and 2.0%, respectively. Younger individuals showed the highest rates, and women were more frequently affected than men. Social phobia was shown to be a persistent condition with a remarkably high degree of co morbid conditions, associated impairment and disability. Research deficits lie in a lack of data for most EU countries and in a lack of studies in children and the elderly. No data are available addressing met and unmet needs for intervention and costs, and data for vulnerability and risk factors of malignant course are scarce.

Alfno et al (2006) conducted a study on Cognitive correlates of social phobia among children and adolescents. We examined different cognitive phenomena in relation to social phobia among children (aged 7 to 11) and adolescents (aged 12–16) separately. Fifty socially phobic youths were compared to 30 normal control children on measures of social anxiety, social expectation as well as self- and observer-rated performance during two social tasks involving a same-aged peer. Additionally, a video-mediated recall procedure was conducted immediately following the two behavioral tasks to examine specific types of self-talk. Results indicated that socially phobic youths had lower expectations of their performance and rated their actual performance worse than controls during a social interaction task, but not a read-aloud task. Self-ratings of decreased performance among socially phobic youths were corroborated by blind observers. Although

differences in specific types of self-talk were found between the two groups, these findings were generally moderated by age. Furthermore, certain cognitive symptoms associated with the disorder were more commonly found among older socially phobic youths. The current findings highlight the importance of considering developmental factors in the presentation and treatment of social phobia in youths.

Hirsch, Clark and Mathews (2006) conducted a study on Imagery and interpretations in social phobia: Support for the combined cognitive biases hypothesis. Cognitive-behavioral models of clinical problems typically postulate a role for the combined effects of different cognitive biases in the maintenance of a given disorder. It is striking therefore that research has tended to examine cognitive biases in isolation rather than assessing how they work together to maintain psychological dysfunction. The combined cognitive biases hypothesis presented here suggests that cognitive biases influence each another and can interact to maintain a given disorder. Furthermore, it is proposed that the combined effects of cognitive biases may have a greater impact on sustaining a given disorder than if the biases operated in isolation. The combined cognitive biases hypothesis is examined in relation to imagery and interpretation in social phobia. Individuals with social phobia experience negative images of themselves performing poorly in social situations, and they also interpret external social information in a less positive way than those without social anxiety. Evidence of a reciprocal relationship between imagery and interpretations is presented, and the mechanisms underlying the combined effects are discussed. Clinical implications and the potential utility of examining the combined influence of other cognitive biases are highlighted.

Kolassa and Miltner (2006) conducted a study on the Psychophysiological correlates of face processing in social phobia. Social phobia has been associated with abnormal processing of angry faces, which directly signal disapproval—a situation that social phobics fear. This study investigated the electrophysiological correlates of emotional face processing in socially phobic and non-phobic

individuals. Subjects identified either the gender (modified emotional Stroop task) or the expression of angry, happy, or neutral faces. Social phobics showed no deviations from controls in reaction times, heart rates, P1, or P2 amplitudes in response to angry faces, although elevated FSS scores were associated with higher P1 amplitudes in social phobic persons. In addition, social phobic persons showed enhanced right temporo-parietal N170 amplitudes in response to angry faces in the emotion identification task. Furthermore, higher scores on the Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory (SPAI) were associated as a trend with larger N170 amplitudes in response to angry faces in the emotion identification task. Thus, the present results suggest that social phobics show abnormalities in the early visual processing of angry faces, as reflected by the enhanced right-hemispheric N170 when the emotion of the angry face was the focus of attention, while behavioral responses and heart rates showed no evidence for preferred processing of angry facial expressions.

Castilho, Galhardo and Cuncha (2006) conducted a study on Early adaptive schemas and social phobia. The present study compares core beliefs between a group of patients with social phobia ($n = 62$), other anxiety disorders ($n = 41$) and a group of non-psychiatric controls ($n = 55$). Participants completed measures to assess social anxiety and the Young's Schema Questionnaire (123-items version) that is designed to assess 15 early maladaptive schemas (EMSs). Results suggest that the schematic structure of patients with social phobia differs from the one of patients with other anxiety disorders and from normal controls'. Patients with social phobia show higher levels of EMSs particularly in the area of disconnection/rejection than patients with other anxiety disorders. Regression analysis identified the EMSs of mistrust/abuse, social undesirability/defectiveness, entitlement, emotional deprivation, unrelenting standards and shame, as the ones that explain most of the variance in our sample subject's anxiety that they felt in social situations and on fear of negative evaluation.

Clark et al (2006) conducted a study on Cognitive therapy versus exposure and applied relaxation in social phobia: A randomized controlled trial. A new cognitive therapy (CT) program was compared with an established behavioral treatment. Sixty-two patients meeting Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (4th ed.; American Psychiatric Association, 1994) criteria for social phobia were randomly assigned to CT, exposure plus applied relaxation (EXP = AR), or wait-list (WAIT). CT and EXP = AR were superior to WAIT on all measures. On measures of social phobia, CT led to greater improvement than did EXP = AR. Percentages of patients who no longer met diagnostic criteria for social phobia at post treatment-wait were as follows: 84% in CT, 42% in EXP = AR, and 0% in WAIT. At the 1-year follow-up, differences in outcome persisted. In addition, patients in EXP = AR were more likely to have sought additional treatment. Therapist effects were small and no significant. CT appears to be superior to EXP = AR in the treatment of social phobia.

Biedel et al (2007) conducted a study on Set-C versus fluoxetine in the treatment of childhood social phobia. To determine the efficacy of fluoxetine, pill placebo, and Social Effectiveness Therapy for Children (SET-C) for children and adolescents with social phobia. Youths ages 7 to 17 were randomly assigned to one of the treatment conditions. Outcome was evaluated using self-reports, parent ratings, independent evaluator ratings, and behavioral assessment. Both fluoxetine and SET-C were more efficacious than placebo in reducing social distress and behavioral avoidance and increasing general functioning. SET-C was superior to fluoxetine on each of these measures and was the only treatment superior to placebo in terms of improving social skills, decreasing anxiety in specific social interactions, and enhancing ratings of social competence. Furthermore, whereas fluoxetine appears to exert maximum effect by 8 weeks, SET-C provides continued improvement through week 12. Both fluoxetine and SET-C are efficacious for social phobia, although SET-C appears to provide added benefit by enhancing social skills.

Murray et al (2007) conducted a study on The effects of maternal social phobia on mother-infant interactions and infant responsiveness. Social phobia aggregates in families. The genetic contribution to intergenerational transmission is modest, and parenting is considered important. Research on the effects of social phobia on parenting has been subject to problems of small sample size, heterogeneity of samples and lack of specificity of observational frameworks. We addressed these problems in the current study. We assessed mothers with social phobia ($N=84$) and control mothers ($N=89$) in face-to-face interactions with their infants, and during a social challenge, namely, engaging with a stranger. We also assessed mothers with generalised anxiety disorder (GAD) ($N=89$) at 10 weeks ($N=50$). We examined the contribution to infant social responsiveness of early infant characteristics (neonatal irritability), as well as maternal behaviour. Mothers with social phobia were no less sensitive to their infants during face-to-face interactions than control mothers, but when interacting with the stranger they appeared more anxious, engaged less with the stranger themselves, and were less encouraging of the infant's interaction with the stranger; infants of index mothers also showed reduced social responsiveness to the stranger. These differences did not apply to mothers with GAD and their infants. Regression analyses showed that the reduction in social responsiveness in infants of mothers with social phobia was predicted by neonatal irritability and the degree to which the mother encouraged the infant to interact with the stranger. Mothers with social phobia show specific parenting difficulties, and their infants show early signs of reduced social responsiveness that are related to both individual infant differences and a lack of maternal encouragement to engage in social interactions.

Gren-Landell et al (2008) conducted a study on Social phobia in Swedish adolescents. The aim of this study was to investigate the prevalence of self-reported social phobia in a community sample of Swedish adolescents in junior high school, at the risk-period for developing social phobia. Of particular interest was to investigate gender differences in prevalence across ages. Prevalence of sub-threshold social phobia was also studied. Students in grades 6–8 (aged 12–

14) from seventeen schools in five Swedish municipalities were screened by means of a self-report questionnaire, the social phobia screening questionnaire for children (SPSQ-C). Data from a sample of 2,128 students were analysed and showed a point-prevalence rate of 4.4% (95%CI 3.5–5.2) and a significant gender difference (6.6% girls vs. 1.8% boys, $P < 0.001$). No significant differences in prevalence of probable cases emerged across the ages. At sub-threshold level, marked social fear of at least one social situation was reported by 13.8% of the total group. “Speaking in front of class” and “calling someone unfamiliar on the phone” were the most feared social situations. In the social phobia group, 91.4% reported impairment in the school-domain due to their social fear. Social phobia is a common psychiatric condition in Swedish adolescents, especially in girls. As impairment in the school-domain is reported to a high degree, professionals and teachers need to recognize social phobia in adolescents so that help in overcoming the difficulties can be offered.

Heiser et al (2009) conducted a study on Differentiating social phobia from shyness. To clarify the relationship between social phobia and shyness, this study examined the characteristics of highly shy persons with social phobia, highly shy persons without social phobia, and non-shy persons. Those with social phobia reported more symptomatology, more functional impairment, and a lower quality of life than those without social phobia. About one-third of the highly shy without social phobia reported no social fears, highlighting heterogeneity of the shy. The social phobia group reported similar levels of anxiety as the shy without social phobia during analogue conversation tasks, but they reported more anxiety during a speech task. The social phobia group performed less effectively across tasks than those without social phobia. All groups’ perceptions of anxiety and effectiveness during behavioral tasks were consistent with ratings of independent observers. None of the groups differed on psycho physiological measures. Results are discussed in the context of theoretical models of social phobia.

Berger, Hohl and Casper (2009) conducted a study on Internet based treatment for social phobia. In this study conducted in the French-speaking part of

Switzerland, 52 individuals with social phobia were randomly assigned either to an Internet-based cognitive-behavioral treatment with minimal contact with therapists via e-mail or to a waiting-list control group. Significant differences between the two groups were found at posttreatment on all primary outcome measures (social anxiety measures) and on two of the secondary outcome measures (general symptomatology, therapy goal attainment). On average, within-groups effect sizes were large for the primary outcomes (Cohen's $d=0.82$) and for secondary outcomes (Cohen's $d=1.04$). Moreover, subjects in the treatment group fulfilled the criteria of clinically significant improvement significantly more often than subjects in the control group on all measured dimensions (58% vs. 20%). Users' acceptance of the program was high. The results from the present study lend further support to the hypothesis that Internet-delivered interventions with minimal therapist contact are a promising treatment approach to social phobia.

Amir et al (2009) conducted a study on attention training in individuals with generalized social phobia. The authors conducted a randomized, double-blind placebo-controlled trial to examine the efficacy of an attention training procedure in reducing symptoms of social anxiety in 44 individuals diagnosed with generalized social phobia (GSP). Attention training comprised a probe detection task in which pictures of faces with either a threatening or neutral emotional expression cued different locations on the computer screen. In the attention modification program (AMP), participants responded to a probe that always followed neutral faces when paired with a threatening face, thereby directing attention away from threat. In the attention control condition (ACC), the probe appeared with equal frequency in the position of the threatening and neutral faces. Results revealed that the AMP facilitated attention disengagement from threat from pre- to post assessment and reduced clinician- and self-reported symptoms of social anxiety relative to the ACC. The percentage of participants no longer meeting Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (4th ed.) criteria for GSP at post assessment was 50% in the AMP and 14% in the ACC. Symptom reduction in the AMP group was maintained during 4-month follow-up assessment. These results

suggest that computerized attention training procedures may be beneficial for treating social phobia.

Baptista et al (2012) conducted a study on Social phobia in Brazilian university students: prevalence, under-recognition and academic impairment in women. The aim of this study was to evaluate the prevalence of social phobia in a large sample of Brazilian college students and to examine the academic impact of this disorder. The Social Phobia Inventory (SPIN) and the MINI-SPIN, used as the indicator of social phobia in the screening phase, were applied to 2319 randomly selected students from two Brazilian universities. For the second phase (diagnostic confirmation), four psychiatrists and one clinical psychologist administered the SCID-IV to subjects with MINI-SPIN scores of 6 or higher. Result shows that the prevalence of social phobia among the university students was 11.6%. Women with social phobia had significantly lower grades than those without the disorder. Fear of public speaking was the most common social fear. Only two of the 237 students with social phobia (0.8%) had previously received a diagnosis of social phobia and were under treatment.

King et al (2013) conducted a study on Nomophobia: dependency on virtual environments or social phobia. To study nomophobia as a manifest behavior that might serve as an indication of a possible anxiety disorder. The treatment consisted of the use of medication, cognitive-behavioral therapy (CBT) and the application of evaluation tools (interviews, scales, inventories and questionnaires). The individual responded satisfactorily to medication and CBT treatment, which reduced his time using the PC and increased his exposure to real-life situations. Nomophobic behavior produces changes in daily habits and can reveal other aspects to be investigated, such as the presence of comorbid mental disorders.

Low perceived social support predicts later depression but not social phobia in middle adolescence was a study conducted by Väänänen et al(2014). The current study examined if low social support is a shared risk factor for both disorders among adolescent girls and boys. The study sample consisted of 2070 15-year-old adolescents at baseline. Depression was measured by the 13-item

Beck Depression Inventory, social phobia by the Social Phobia Inventory (SPIN), and perceived social support by the Perceived Social Support Scale-Revised (PSSS-R). Results state that Girls reported higher scores on the PSSS-R than boys in total scores and in friend and significant other subscales. Cross-sectional PSSS-R scores were lower among adolescents with social phobia, depression, and co morbid disorder than among those without these disorders. Low PSSS-R total score and significant other subscale were risk factors for depression among both genders, and low support from friends among girls only. Low perceived social support from any source was not a risk factor for social phobia or co morbid social phobia and depression. As conclusion of the study, low perceived social support was a risk factor for depression, but not a shared risk factor for depression and social phobia. Interventions enhancing perceived social support should be an important issue in treatment of depression.

Developmental Differences in Functioning in Youth With Social Phobia is a study conducted by Hoff et al (2015) This cross-sectional study investigated whether self-reported and parent-reported functioning in youth with SoP changes with age in social, academic, and home/family domains. Baseline anxiety impairment data from 488 treatment-seeking anxiety-disordered youth (ages 7-17, N = 400 with a SoP diagnosis) and their parents were gathered using the Child Anxiety Impact Scale and were analyzed using generalized estimating equations. Results shows that there was a significant association between age and SoP composite CSR for youth with a SoP diagnosis

Ranta et al (.2015) conducted a study on Social Phobia and Educational and Interpersonal Impairments in Adolescence: A Prospective Study. They examined longitudinal associations between social phobia (SP) and educational and interpersonal impairments among Finnish adolescents. Participants were 3278 adolescents (9th grade; M age = 15.5 years) who completed measures of SP and depressive symptoms; 2070 participated in follow-up two years later. Indicators for educational and interpersonal functioning were assessed for each sex separately. Multivariate analyses, controlling for depression and relevant

socioeconomic covariates, indicated that for boys, age 15 SP predicted slow academic progression, being without a close friend or not having a romantic relationship, and poor support from friends and significant others at age 17. However, for girls, age 15 SP only predicted not having been involved in a romantic relationship by age 17. Result reveals striking sex differences for adolescent SP as a predictor for subsequent educational and interpersonal impairments in late adolescence. SP may have a more devastating effect on boys' social and academic functioning relative to that of girls.

Attentional mechanisms of social perception are biased in social phobia is a study conducted by Boll et al (2016) The primary aim of this study was to examine attentional mechanisms relevant for perceiving social cues by means of abnormalities in scanning of facial features in patients with social phobia. In two novel experimental paradigms, patients with social phobia and healthy controls matched on age, gender and education were compared regarding their gazing behavior towards facial cues. The first experiment was an emotion classification paradigm which allowed for differentiating reflexive attentional shifts from sustained attention towards diagnostically relevant facial features. In the second experiment, attentional orienting by gaze direction was assessed in a gaze-cueing paradigm in which non-predictive gaze cues shifted attention towards or away from subsequently presented targets. We found that patients as compared to controls reflexively oriented their attention more frequently towards the eyes of emotional faces in the emotion classification paradigm. This initial hyper vigilance for the eye region was observed at very early attentional stages when faces were presented for 150ms, and persisted when facial stimuli were shown for 3s. Moreover, a delayed attentional orienting into the direction of eye gaze was observed in individuals with social phobia suggesting a differential time course of eye gaze processing in patients and controls. Our findings suggest that basic mechanisms of early attentional exploration of social cues are biased in social phobia and might contribute to the development and maintenance of the disorder.

Relationships Between Social Anxiety and Smoking-Specific Experiential Avoidance was a study conducted by Eikenaes, Pedersen and Wilberg(2016). The aim of the study was to compare self-reported attachment styles in patients with AvPD and SP. We expected that patients with AvPD would have more attachment anxiety and avoidance and more often a Fearful attachment style, compared with SP. This is a cross-sectional multisite study of 90 adult patients with AvPD and SP. Patients with AvPD with and without SP (AvPD group) were compared with patients with SP without AvPD (SP group). Patients were assessed using structured diagnostic interviews and self-reporting questionnaires, including Experiences in Close Relationships (ECR). The ECR dimensions, Anxiety and Avoidance, and the new described five factors of the ECR were used. Results shows that the AvPD group had higher levels of attachment anxiety than the SP group, especially for the sub-factors Anxiety for abandonment and Separation frustration. The diagnostic groups did not differ in levels of avoidance. Anxiety for abandonment was still associated with AvPD after controlling for symptom disorders and the criteria of other personality disorders. A Fearful attachment style was more frequent among patients with AvPD.

Attachment styles in patients with avoidant personality disorder compared with social phobia. Was a study conducted by Eikenaes, Pedersen and Wilberg(2016) The aim of the study was to compare self-reported attachment styles in patients with AvPD and SP. They expected that patients with AvPD would have more attachment anxiety and avoidance and more often a Fearful attachment style, compared with SP. This was a cross-sectional multisite study of 90 adult patients with AvPD and SP. Patients with AvPD with and without SP (AvPD group) were compared with patients with SP without AvPD (SP group) Patients were assessed using structured diagnostic interviews and self-reporting questionnaires, including Experiences in Close Relationships (ECR). The ECR dimensions, Anxiety and Avoidance, and the new described five factors of the ECR were used. Results shows that the AvPD group had higher levels of attachment anxiety than the SP group, especially for the sub-factors Anxiety for abandonment and Separation frustration. The diagnostic groups did not differ in

levels of avoidance. Anxiety for abandonment was still associated with AvPD after controlling for symptom disorders and the criteria of other personality disorders. A Fearful attachment style was more frequent among patients with AvPD. The results indicate AvPD is associated with more attachment anxiety than SP. Fear of abandonment may play a significant role in the AvPD pathology.

Discomfort and avoidance of touch: new insights on the emotional deficits of social anxiety was a study conducted by Kashdan et al (2016) . In this study of 256 adults (128 heterosexual couples, mean relationship length = 20.5 months), they examined whether individual differences in social anxiety influenced comfort with and avoidance of physical touch. Because of prior work on sex difference in touch use, touch comfort, and social anxiety symptoms and impairment, we explored sex-specific findings. Results suggest that women with greater social anxiety were less comfortable with touch and more avoidant of touch in same-sex friendships. Additionally, a woman's social anxiety had a bigger effect on a man's comfort with touch and avoidance of touch in the romantic relationship than a man's social anxiety had on the woman's endorsement of touch-related problems. These effects were uninfluenced by the length of romantic relationships. Touch is a neglected emotional experience that offers new insights into the difficulties of individuals suffering from social anxiety problems, and their romantic partners.

Attentional mechanisms of social perception are biased in social phobia is a study conducted by Boll et al (2016) The primary aim of this study was to examine attentional mechanisms relevant for perceiving social cues by means of abnormalities in scanning of facial features in patients with social phobia. In two novel experimental paradigms, patients with social phobia and healthy controls matched on age, gender and education were compared regarding their gazing behavior towards facial cues. The first experiment was an emotion classification paradigm which allowed for differentiating reflexive attentional shifts from sustained attention towards diagnostically relevant facial features. In the second experiment, attentional orienting by gaze direction was assessed in a gaze-cueing

paradigm in which non-predictive gaze cues shifted attention towards or away from subsequently presented targets. We found that patients as compared to controls reflexively oriented their attention more frequently towards the eyes of emotional faces in the emotion classification paradigm. This initial hyper vigilance for the eye region was observed at very early attentional stages when faces were presented for 150ms, and persisted when facial stimuli were shown for 3s. Moreover, a delayed attentional orienting into the direction of eye gaze was observed in individuals with social phobia suggesting a differential time course of eye gaze processing in patients and controls. Our findings suggest that basic mechanisms of early attentional exploration of social cues are biased in social phobia and might contribute to the development and maintenance of the disorder.

Honnekeri et al (2017) conducted a study on Social anxiety and Internet socialization in Indian undergraduate students: An exploratory study. The objective of this study was to estimate the prevalence of SAD in urban Indian undergraduate students and to study their Face book (FB) usage patterns. In this exploratory cross-sectional study, 316 undergraduate students were screened for social anxiety using validated instruments, Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) and Social Phobia Scale (SPS), and divided into two groups based on scores obtained. The groups were then compared with regards to behaviors and attitudes toward Face book, obtained from a self-report questionnaire. Results show that SAD to be a significant, prevalent (7.8%) disorder in otherwise productive youth, and showed female preponderance. Higher specific social phobia scores were associated with the inability to reduce Face book use, urges toward increasing use, spending more time thinking about Face book, negative reactions to restricting use, and using it to forget one's problems.

Social phobia, depression and eating disorders during middle adolescence: longitudinal associations and treatment seeking was a study conducted by Ranta, et al (2017). They aimed to examine these associations in a large-scale follow-up study among middle adolescents. We surveyed 3278 Finnish adolescents with a mean age of 15 years for these disorders. Two years later, 2070

were reached and again surveyed for psychopathology and treatment seeking. Longitudinal associations between the self-reported disorders and treatment-seeking patterns for self-acknowledged ED symptoms were examined in multivariate analyses, controlling for SP/ depression co morbidity and relevant socioeconomic covariates. Result shows that Self-reported anorexia nervosa (AN) at age 15 years predicted self-reported depression at age 17 years. Furthermore, self-reported SP at age 15 years predicted not seeking treatment for bulimia nervosa (BN) symptoms, while self-reported depression at age 15 years predicted not seeking treatment for AN symptoms during the follow-up period.

Hofling and Weck(2017) conducted a study to find out whether Hypochondriasis Differs From Panic Disorder and Social Phobia: Specific Processes Identified Within Patient Groups. In this study, the contrast among hypochondriasis, panic disorder, and social phobia was investigated using specific processes drawing on cognitive-perceptual models of hypochondriasis. Affective, behavioral, cognitive, and perceptual processes specific to hypochondriasis were assessed with 130 diagnosed participants based on the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fourth Edition, criteria (66 with hypochondriasis, 32 with panic disorder, and 32 with social phobia). All processes specific to hypochondriasis were more intense for patients with hypochondriasis in contrast to those with panic disorder or social phobia ($0.61 < d < 2.67$). Results reveal that no differences were found between those with hypochondriasis with co morbid disorders and those without co morbid disorders. Perceptual processes were shown to best discriminate between patients with hypochondriasis and those with panic disorder.

Maintenance of Social Anxiety in Stuttering: A Cognitive-Behavioural Model was a study conducted by Ivercah,Rapee,Wong and Lowe(2017). The purpose of the present article is to apply these leading models to the experience of social anxiety for people who stutter. Components from existing models were applied to stuttering in order to determine cognitive-behavioural processes that occur before, during, and after social-evaluative situations, which may increase

the likelihood of stuttering-related social fears persisting. Results shows that maintenance of social anxiety in stuttering may be influenced by a host of interrelated factors, including fear of negative evaluation, negative social-evaluative cognitions, attentional biases, self-focused attention, safety behaviours, and anticipatory and post event processing.

The moderating role of avoidance behaviour on anxiety over time: Is there a difference between social anxiety disorder and specific phobia was a study conducted by Rudaz et al (2017). The study examined the extent to which avoidance behaviour moderates the relationship between general anxiety at baseline and 18 months later in women with a diagnosed social anxiety disorder (n = 91) and women with a diagnosed specific phobia (n = 130) at baseline. Circumscribed avoidance of social and specific situations were clinician-rated using the Anxiety Disorders Interview Schedule-Lifetime (ADIS-IV-L), and general anxiety was measured using the Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI). Results reveals that (a) general anxiety at baseline predicted general anxiety at follow-up in both women with a specific phobia and women with a social anxiety disorder and (b) avoidance behaviour moderated this relationship in women with a specific phobia but not in women with a social anxiety disorder. Specifically, high avoidance behaviour was found to amplify the effect between general anxiety at baseline and follow-up in specific phobia

Prefrontal mediation of emotion regulation in social anxiety disorder during laughter perception was a study conducted by Kreifelts et al (2017) Here laughter was used as a social threat in a functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) study to identify cerebral mediators linking SAD with attention and interpretation biases and their modification through cognitive emotion regulation in the form of reappraisal. They found that reappraisal abolished the negative laughter interpretation bias in SAD and that this process was directly mediated through activation patterns of the left dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC) serving as a cerebral pivot between biased social perception and its normalization through reappraisal. Connectivity analyses revealed reduced prefrontal control

over threat-processing sensory cortices (here: the temporal voice area) during cognitive emotion regulation in SAD. Results indicate a central role for the left DLPFC in SAD which might represent a valuable target for future research on interventions either aiming to directly modulate cognitive emotion regulation in SAD or to evaluate its potential as physiological marker for psychotherapeutic interventions relying on emotion regulation.

Porter, Chambless and Keefe(2017)conducted a study on Criticism in the Romantic Relationships of Individuals With Social Anxiety. In the present study, they examine associations between social anxiety and perceived, observed, and expressed criticism in interactions with romantic partners. In Study 1, they collected self-report data from 343 undergraduates and their romantic partners on social anxiety symptoms, perceived and expressed criticism, and upset due to criticism. One year later couples reported whether they were still in this relationship. Results showed that social anxiety was associated with being more critical of one's partner, and among women, being more upset by criticism from a partner. Social anxiety was not related to perceived criticism, nor did criticism variables predict relationship status at Time 2. In Study 2, undergraduate couples with a partner high ($n = 26$) or low ($n = 26$) in social anxiety completed a 10-minute, video-recorded problem-solving task. Both partners rated their perceived and expressed criticism and upset due to criticism following the interaction, and observers coded interactions for criticism. Results indicated that social anxiety was not significantly related to any of the criticism variables, but post hoc analyses cast doubts upon the external validity of the problem-solving task. Results are discussed in light of known difficulties with intimacy among individuals with social anxiety.

Harbort et al (2017) conducted a study on The effects of social pressure and emotional expression on the cone of gaze in patients with social anxiety disorder. Patients with social anxiety disorder suffer from pronounced fears in social situations. As gaze perception is crucial in these situations, we examined which factors influence the range of gaze directions where mutual gaze is

experienced (the cone of gaze). The social stimulus was modified by changing the number of people (heads) present and the emotional expression of their faces. Participants completed a psychophysical task, in which they had to adjust the eyes of a virtual head to gaze at the edge of the range where mutual eye-contact was experienced. Results indicate that the number of heads affected the width of the gaze cone: the more heads, the wider the gaze cone. The emotional expression of the virtual head had no consistent effect on the width of the gaze cone; it did however affect the emotional state of the participants. Angry expressions produced the highest arousal values. Highest valence emerged from happy faces, lowest valence from angry faces.

Arnone, Rizzolo and Conti (2018) conducted a study on Examination of Executive Function and Social Phobia Among Female College-Aged Students with Celiac Disease. This descriptive study compared traditional age female college students with CD to age- and sex-matched college students without CD on measures of EF and SP. Participants completed the Behavior Rating Inventory of Executive Function-Adult version (BRIEF-A), the Social Anxiety Questionnaire for Adults-Short Form (SAQ-A30), and a demographic questionnaire. Results indicated that participants with CD reported lower grade point averages; scored lower on BRIEF-A measures of working memory, planning/organization, and organization of materials; and scored higher on SAQ-A30 measures involving interactions with the opposite sex and strangers.

2.2 STUDIES RELATED TO PREJUDICE

The stigma of AIDS: fear of disease and prejudice toward gay men was a study conducted by St Lawrence et al (1990). Here three hundred college students were presented with vignettes describing an ill person; the vignettes were identical except the illness was identified as either AIDS or leukemia and the individual was described as either homosexual or heterosexual. After reading one vignette, each subject completed a set of measures sensitive to interpersonal evaluation, prejudicial attitudes, and willingness to interact casually with the portrayed individual. The findings indicate the presence of highly stigmatizing attitudes

towards AIDS patients and suggest that the public views AIDS patients and gay persons with similar attitudinal prejudice. The need for greater attention to AIDS by social and behavioral researchers is discussed.

Beyond prejudice as simple antipathy: Hostile and Benevolent sexism across cultures. is a study conducted by Glick et al (2000) The authors argue that complementary hostile and benevolent components of sexism exist across cultures. Male dominance creates hostile sexism (HS), but men's dependence on women fosters benevolent sexism (BSx)—subjectively positive attitudes that put women on a pedestal but reinforce their subordination. Research with 15,000 men and women in 19 nations showed that (1) HS and BSx are coherent constructs that correlate positively across nations, but (2) HS predicts the ascription of negative and BSx the ascription of positive traits to women, (3) relative to men, women are more likely to reject HS than BSx, especially when overall levels of sexism in a culture are high, and (4) national averages on BSx and HS predict gender inequality across nations. These results challenge prevailing notions of prejudice as an antipathy in that BSx (an affectionate, patronizing ideology) reflects inequality and is a cross-culturally pervasive complement to HS.

Leyens et al (2000) conducted a study on *The Emotional Side of Prejudice: The Attribution of Secondary Emotions to Ingroups and Outgroups*. If people favor their ingroup, are especially concerned with their own group, and attribute different essences to different groups, it follows that their essence must be superior to the essence of other groups. Intelligence, language, and certain emotions are all considered to be distinctive elements of human nature or essence. The role of intelligence and language in discrimination, prejudice, and racism has already been largely investigated, and this article focuses on attributed emotions. Specifically, we investigate the idea that secondary emotions are typically human characteristics, and as such, they should be especially associated with and attributed to the in-group. Secondary emotions may even be denied to out groups. These differential associations and attributions of specifically human emotions to in-groups versus out groups should affect intergroup relations. Results from

several initial experiments are summarized that support our reasoning. This emotional approach to prejudice and racism is contrasted with more classic, cognitive perspectives.

Wittenbrink et al (2001) the goal of the research reported in this article was to examine whether automatic group attitudes and stereotypes, commonly thought to be fixed responses to a social category cue, are sensitive to change in the situational context. Two experiments demonstrated such variability of automatic responses due to changes in the stimulus context. In Study 1 White participants' implicit attitudes toward Blacks varied as a result of exposure to either a positive (a family barbecue) or a negative (a gang incident) stereotypic situation. Study 2 demonstrated similar context effects under clearly automatic processing conditions. Here, the use of different background pictures (church interior vs. street corner) for Black and White face primes affected participants' racial attitudes as measured by a sequential priming task. Implications for the concept of automaticity in social cognition are discussed.

Brown (2001) conducted a study on Prion and Prejudice: normal protein and the synapse. The word prion has become synonymous with unusual diseases, such as bovine spongiform encephalopathy and Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease. However, there is also a normal prion protein that does not cause disease. Until recently this highly conserved and widely expressed glycoprotein has been overshadowed by its rogue isoform. Now it is emerging that not only is this protein important for understanding prion disease but it is also important for a healthy brain. The normal cellular isoform of the prion protein is expressed at high levels at synapses suggesting an important role in neuronal function. There is increasing evidence that the normal prion protein binds copper and the resulting complex possesses anti-oxidant activity, and that this, in turn, might have vital implications for synaptic homeostasis.

Payne (2001) conducted a study on Prejudice and perception: The role of automatic and controlled processes in misperceiving a weapon. Two experiments used a priming paradigm to investigate the influence of racial cues on the perceptual identification of weapons. In Experiment 1, participants identified guns faster when primed with Black faces compared with White faces. In Experiment 2, participants were required to respond quickly, causing the racial bias to shift from reaction time to accuracy. Participants misidentified tools as guns more often when primed with a Black face than with a White face. L. L. Jacoby's (1991) process dissociation procedure was applied to demonstrate that racial primes influenced automatic (A) processing, but not controlled (C) processing. The response deadline reduced the C estimate but not the A estimate. The motivation to control prejudice moderated the relationship between explicit prejudice and automatic bias. Implications are discussed on applied and theoretical levels.

Social influence effects on automatic racial prejudice is a study conducted by Lowery et al (2001). Although most research on the control of automatic prejudice has focused on the efficacy of deliberate attempts to suppress or correct for stereotyping, the reported experiments tested the hypothesis that automatic racial prejudice is subject to common social influence. In experiments involving actual interethnic contact, both tacit and expressed social influence reduced the expression of automatic prejudice, as assessed by two different measures of automatic attitudes. Moreover, the automatic social tuning effect depended on participant ethnicity. European Americans (but not Asian Americans) exhibited less automatic prejudice in the presence of a Black experimenter than a White experimenter (Experiments 2 and 4), although both groups exhibited reduced automatic prejudice when instructed to avoid prejudice (Experiment 3). Results are consistent with shared reality theory, which postulates that social regulation is central to social cognition.

Unlearning Automatic Biases: The Malleability of implicit prejudice and stereotypes is a study conducted by Rudman et al (2001) The present research suggests that automatic and controlled intergroup biases can be modified through

diversity education. In 2 experiments, students enrolled in a prejudice and conflict seminar showed significantly reduced implicit and explicit anti-Black biases, compared with control students. The authors explored correlates of prejudice and stereotype reduction. In each experiment, seminar students' implicit and explicit change scores positively covaried with factors suggestive of affective and cognitive processes, respectively. The findings show the malleability of implicit prejudice and stereotypes and suggest that these may effectively be changed through affective processes.

Crandall et al (2001) conducted a study on An attribution-value model of prejudice: Antifat attitudes in six nations. The authors propose an Attribution-Value model of prejudice, which hypothesizes that people are prejudiced against groups that they feel have some negative attribute for which they are held responsible. The structure of prejudice against fat people was compared in six nations: Australia, India, Poland, Turkey, the United States of America, and Venezuela. Both a negative cultural value for fatness and a tendency to hold people responsible predicts anti-fat prejudice. Most important, a multiplicative hypothesis was supported—people with both a negative value for fatness and a tendency to hold people responsible were more anti-fat than could be predicted from cultural value and attributions alone. These effects were more pronounced in individualist cultures. The authors develop the Attribution-Value model of prejudice that can apply to prejudice of many sorts across many cultures.

Dasgupta and Greenwald (2001) conducted a study On the malleability of automatic attitudes: Combating automatic prejudice with images of admired and disliked individuals. Two experiments examined whether exposure to pictures of admired and disliked exemplars can reduce automatic preference for White over Black Americans and younger over older people. In Experiment 1, participants were exposed to either admired Black and disliked White individuals, disliked Black and admired White individuals, or nonracial exemplars. Immediately after exemplar exposure and 24 hr later, they completed an Implicit Association Test that assessed automatic racial attitudes and 2 explicit attitude measures. Results

revealed that exposure to admired Black and disliked White exemplars significantly weakened automatic pro-White attitudes for 24 hr beyond the treatment but did not affect explicit racial attitudes. Experiment 2 provided a replication using automatic age-related attitudes. Together, these studies provide a strategy that attempts to change the social context and, through it, to reduce automatic prejudice and preference.

Operario et al (2001) conducted a study on Ethnic identity moderates perceptions of prejudice: Judgements of personal versus group discrimination and subtle versus blatant bias. Two studies investigate the association between ethnic identity and perceptions of prejudice. Study 1 examined the relationship between ethnic identity and the personal-group discrimination discrepancy (PGD) among ethnic minority and White respondents. High-identified minorities reported increased personal vulnerability to discrimination and less PGD, whereas less-identified minorities conformed more to the PGD phenomenon. Whites also reported more personal than group discrimination, but ethnic identity did not moderate this effect. Study 2 examined minorities' perceptions of prejudice in an interaction with a White confederate, who displayed either obvious or subtle prejudice. High-identified minorities showed stronger reactions to subtle prejudice than did low-identified minorities, who tended to overlook subtle prejudice. The authors relate findings to principles from stigma research, social identity, and self-categorization theory and suggest that ethnic identity can explain why some minorities perceive prejudice when others do not.

Zick et al (2001) conducted a Acculturation and Prejudice in Germany. This article explores the connections between prejudice and specific attitudes toward acculturation in Germany. Results of surveys confirm the hypothesis that prejudice is related to ideologies of assimilation and segregation among majority- group members. Moreover, experimental and correlational studies indicate that these attitudes are linked to discriminatory behavior. Further analyses of studies with ethnic minorities prove that prejudice and acculturation are linked within minority groups as well. Additionally it is shown that prejudice is functional in order for

minorities to acculturate. These studies confirm the impression that there is a close link between macrosocial and microsocial levels of coping with migration.

Are essentialist beliefs associated with prejudice is a study conducted by Haslam, Rothschild and Ernst (2002). We examined whether essentialist beliefs—beliefs that a social category has a fixed, inherent, identity-defining nature—are indeed associated in this fashion with prejudice towards black people, women and gay men. Allport's claim, which is mirrored by many contemporary social theorists, received partial support but had to be qualified in important respects. Essence-related beliefs were associated strongly with anti-gay attitudes but only weakly with sexism and racism, and they did not reflect a cognitive style that was consistent across stigmatized categories. When associations with prejudice were obtained, only a few specific beliefs were involved, and some *anti*-essentialist beliefs were associated with anti-gay attitudes. Nevertheless, the powerful association that essence-related beliefs had with anti-gay attitudes was independent of established prejudice-related traits, indicating that they have a significant role to play in the psychology of prejudice

[Laythe](#), Finkel and Kirkpatrick conducted a study on Predicting prejudice from religious fundamentalism and right wing authoritarianism. The study designed to investigate the respective roles of religious fundamentalism and right-wing authoritarianism as predictors of prejudice against racial minorities and homosexuals, participants (47 males, 91 females) responded to a series of questionnaire measures of these constructs. Data were analyzed using multiple regression. Consistent with previous research, authoritarianism was a significant and strong positive predictor of both forms of prejudice. With authoritarianism statistically controlled, however, fundamentalism emerged as a significant negative predictor of racial prejudice but a positive predictor of homosexual prejudice. In a second study, we conducted parallel multiple regressions using the correlations from two previously published studies. The Study 1 results were replicated exactly, except that fundamentalism was a nonsignificant predictor of homosexual prejudice. We interpret the results as evidence that Christian

fundamentalism consists of a second major component other than authoritarianism—related to Christian belief content—that is inversely related to some forms of prejudice (including racial prejudice) but not others (e.g., homosexual prejudice).

Dovidio et al (2002) conducted a study on Implicit and explicit prejudice and interracial interaction. It examined how implicit racial associations and explicit racial attitudes of Whites relate to behaviours and impressions in interracial interactions. Specifically, the authors examined how response latency and self-report measures predicted bias and perceptions of bias in verbal and nonverbal behaviour exhibited by Whites while they interacted with a Black partner. As predicted, Whites' self-reported racial attitudes significantly predicted bias in their verbal behaviour to Black relative to White confederates. Furthermore, these explicit attitudes predicted how much friendlier Whites felt that they behaved toward White than Black partners. In contrast, the response latency measure significantly predicted Whites' nonverbal friendliness and the extent to which the confederates and observers perceived bias in the participants' friendliness.

Crandall et al (2002) conducted a study on the Social norms and the expression and suppression of prejudice: The struggle for internalization. The authors studied social norms and prejudice using M. Sherif and C. W. Sherif's (1953) group norm theory of attitudes. In 7 studies ($N=1,504$), social norms were measured and manipulated to examine their effects on prejudice; both normatively proscribed and normatively prescribed forms of prejudice were included. The public expression of prejudice toward 105 social groups was very highly correlated with social approval of that expression. Participants closely adhere to social norms when expressing prejudice, evaluating scenarios of discrimination, and reacting to hostile jokes. The authors reconceptualized the source of motivation to suppress prejudice in terms of identifying with new reference groups and adapting oneself to fit new norms. Suppression scales seem to measure patterns of concern about group norms rather than personal commitments to reducing prejudice; high

suppressors are strong norm followers. Compared with low suppressors, high suppressors follow normative rules more closely and are more strongly influenced by shifts in local social norms. There is much value in continuing the study of normative influence and self-adaptation to social norms, particularly in terms of the group norm theory of attitudes.

Eagly et al (2002) conducted a study on Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. A role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders proposes that perceived incongruity between the female gender role and leadership roles leads to 2 forms of prejudice: (a) perceiving women less favorably than men as potential occupants of leadership roles and (b) evaluating behavior that fulfils the prescriptions of a leader role less favorably when it is enacted by a woman. One consequence is that attitudes are less positive toward female than male leaders and potential leaders. Other consequences are that it is more difficult for women to become leaders and to achieve success in leadership roles. Evidence from varied research paradigms substantiates that these consequences occur, especially in situations that heighten perceptions of incongruity between the female gender role and leadership roles.

The malleability of automatic stereotypes and prejudice is a study conducted by Irene and Blair(2002). The present article reviews evidence for the malleability of automatic stereotypes and prejudice. In contrast to assumptions that such responses are fixed and inescapable, it is shown that automatic stereotypes and prejudice are influenced by, (a) self- and social motives, (b) specific strategies, (c) the perceiver's focus of attention, and (d) the configuration of stimulus cues. In addition, group members' individual characteristics are shown to influence the extent to which (global) stereotypes and prejudice are automatically activated. This evidence has significant implications for conceptions of automaticity, models of stereotyping and prejudice, and attitude representation. The review concludes with the description of an initial model of early social information processing.

Duckitt et al (2002) conducted a study on The psychological bases of ideology and prejudice: Testing a dual process model. The issue of personality and

prejudice has been largely investigated in terms of authoritarianism and social dominance orientation. However, these seem more appropriately conceptualized as ideological attitudes than as personality dimensions. The authors describe a causal model linking dual dimensions of personality, social world view, ideological attitudes, and intergroup attitudes. Structural equation modeling with data from American and White Afrikaner students supported the model, suggesting that social conformity and belief in a dangerous world influence authoritarian attitudes, whereas tough-mindedness and belief in a competitive jungle world influence social dominance attitudes, and these two ideological attitude dimensions influence intergroup attitudes. The model implies that dual motivational and cognitive processes, which may be activated by different kinds of situational and intergroup dynamics, may underlie 2 distinct dimensions of prejudice.

The immigration dilemma: The role of perceived group competition, ethnic prejudice and national identity was a study conducted by Victoria et al (2002). In this article, we discuss the role of perceived competition for resources in determining negative attitudes toward immigrants and immigration in North America. We first provide background information on immigration policies and levels of immigration to Canada and the United States. Following an overview of our theoretical perspective, we then describe the research we have conducted in Canada and the United States indicating that perceived zero-sum competition between groups, whether situationally induced or a function of chronic belief in zero-sum relations among groups, is strongly implicated in negative immigration attitudes. In addition, we describe our recent attempts to improve attitudes toward immigrants and immigration through the targeting of zero-sum beliefs and through manipulations of the inclusiveness of national identity.

Devine et al (2002) conducted a study on The regulation of explicit and implicit race bias: The role of motivations to respond without prejudice. Three studies examined the moderating role of motivations to respond without prejudice (e.g., internal and external) in expressions of explicit and implicit race bias. In all

studies, participants reported their explicit attitudes toward Blacks. Implicit measures consisted of a sequential priming task (Study 1) and the Implicit Association Test (Studies 2 and 3). Study 3 used a cognitive busyness manipulation to preclude effects of controlled processing on implicit responses. In each study, explicit race bias was moderated by internal motivation to respond without prejudice, whereas implicit race bias was moderated by the interaction of internal and external motivation to respond without prejudice. Specifically, high internal, low external participants exhibited lower levels of implicit race bias than did all other participants. Implications for the development of effective self-regulation of race bias are discussed.

Laythe et al (2002) conducted a study on Religious fundamentalism as a predator of prejudice. The present study aims to determine whether the empirical relationship between religious fundamentalism and prejudice can be accounted for in terms of the mutually opposing effects of Christian orthodoxy and right-wing authoritarianism using multiple regression. Three separate samples (total $n = 320$) completed measures of religious fundamentalism, right-wing authoritarianism, Christian orthodoxy, ethnic prejudice, and homosexual prejudice. Consistent with previous research, fundamentalism (1) was essentially unrelated to ethnic prejudice when considered alone; (2) was positively related to ethnic prejudice when orthodoxy was statistically controlled; and (3) was negatively related to ethnic prejudice when authoritarianism was statistically controlled. Finally, when both authoritarianism and orthodoxy were controlled simultaneously, fundamentalism was again unrelated to prejudice, whereas orthodoxy was negatively related and authoritarianism positively related. In contrast, fundamentalism was a significant positive predictor of prejudice against gays and lesbians irrespective of whether authoritarianism and/or orthodoxy were statistically controlled.

Voci and Hewstone (2003) Intergroup contact and prejudice toward immigrants in Italy: The meditational role of anxiety and the moderational role of group salience. Two studies investigated intergroup contact with immigrants in

Italy. In Study 1 ($N = 310$ students) contact had direct positive effects on perceived out-group variability and out-group attitude, and a direct negative effect on subtle prejudice; the last two effects were mediated by intergroup anxiety. Contact also had a greater effect on reduced anxiety and improved out-group perception and evaluation when group salience was high. In Study 2 ($N = 94$ hospital workers) contact at work had direct effects on out-group attitudes and rights for immigrants, and an effect on attitudes toward ethnic coworkers that was mediated by intergroup anxiety at work. The effects of contact were again moderated by group salience. These findings show that the combination of positive contact with individuals from the out-group *and* group salience is effective in improving intergroup relations, and often does so via reduced anxiety.

Czopp and Monteith (2003) conducted a study on Confronting prejudice: Reactions to confrontations of racial and gender biases. Participants in two studies reported how they would feel, think, and behave after being confronted about either gender-biased or equivalent racial-biased responses. In Study 2, whether the confrontation was from a target group member (Black or female) or nontarget (White or male) group member was manipulated. Regardless of confronter status, allegations of racial bias elicited more guilt and apologetic-corrective responses and greater concern over having offended the confronter than similar confrontations of gender bias, which elicited more amusement. Target confrontations elicited less guilt but greater discomfort than nontarget confrontations and were associated with feelings of irritation and antagonism among more prejudiced participants. In addition, participants perceived a target's confrontation as more of an overreaction than the same confrontation from a nontarget. The implications of these findings for prejudice-reduction efforts are discussed.

McLaren (2003) conducted a study on the Anti-Immigrant Prejudice in Europe: Contact, Threat Perception, and Preferences for the Exclusion of Migrants. This article introduces the theoretical approaches of contact, group conflict, and symbolic prejudice to explain levels of exclusionary feelings toward a relatively

new minority in the West European context, the immigrant. The findings indicate that even after controls for perceived threat are included in the model, intimate contact with members of minority groups in the form of friendships can reduce levels of willingness to expel legal immigrants from the country. A contextual variable, level of immigration to the country, is also introduced into the model because it is likely that this variable affects both threat perception and exclusionary feelings. While context does not seem to directly affect levels of willingness to expel or include immigrants in the society, it does have a rather powerful impact on perceived threat. Perhaps even more importantly, the findings suggest that contact mediates the effect of the environment, helping to produce lower levels of threat perception in contexts of high immigration.

Vescio et al (2003) conducted a study on Perspective and prejudice reduction: the meditational role of empathy arousal and situational attributions. This research was designed to examine whether perspective taking promotes improved intergroup attitudes regardless of the extent that stereotypic perceptions of outgroups are endorsed, as well as examining the mechanisms (attributional or empathy related) by which perspective taking motivates improved intergroup attitudes. Participants were presented with an interview segment where an African American interviewee discussed the difficulties experienced as a result of his membership in a negatively stereotyped group. Materials were presented in a 2 (perspective taking: other focused or objective focused) \times 2 (target stereotypicality: confirming or disconfirming) between participants design. Findings revealed that the manipulation of target stereotypicality influenced subsequent stereotype endorsement; those exposed to a stereotype confirming target later endorsed more stereotypic perceptions of African Americans than did those exposed to a stereotype disconfirming target. However, perspective taking promoted improved intergroup attitudes irrespective of stereotypicality; those encouraged to adopt the perspective of the target later reported more favourable intergroup attitudes than did those who remained detached and objective listeners. Whereas empathy partially mediated the relation between perspective taking and

intergroup attitudes, situational attributions were a stronger and more reliable mediator.

[Hugenberg](#) and [Bodenhausen](#) (2003) conducted a study on Facing prejudice: Implicit prejudice and the fall of perception of facial threat. The study proposes that social attitudes and implicit prejudice, bias people's perceptions of the facial emotion displayed by others. To test this hypothesis, we employed a facial emotion change-detection task in which European American participants detected the offset (Study 1) or onset (Study 2) of facial anger in both Black and White targets. Higher implicit (but not explicit) prejudice was associated with a greater readiness to perceive anger in Black faces, but neither explicit nor implicit prejudice predicted anger perceptions regarding similar White faces. This pattern indicates that European Americans high in implicit racial prejudice are biased to perceive threatening affect in Black but not White faces, suggesting that the deleterious effects of stereotypes may take hold extremely early in social interaction.

[Richeson](#), [Shelton](#) and Jennifer, (2003) conducted a study on when prejudice does not pay: Effects of interracial contact on executive function. This study examined the influence of interracial interaction on the cognitive functioning of members of a dominant racial group. White participants had a brief interaction with either a White or a Black confederate, and then completed an ostensibly unrelated Stroop color-naming test. Prior to the interaction, participants' racial attitudes regarding Whites and Blacks were measured via the Implicit Association Test. Racial attitudes were predictive of impairment on the Stroop test for individuals who participated in interracial interactions, but not for those who participated in same-race interactions. The results are consistent with recently proposed resource models of self-regulation and executive control in that interracial interaction, a particularly taxing exercise of self-regulation for highly prejudiced individuals, negatively affected performance on a subsequent, yet unrelated, test of executive function.

Group identification moderates emotional responses to perceived prejudice is a study conducted by McCoy and Major(2003). Two studies tested the prediction that group identification (importance of the group in the self-concept) moderates the impact of perceived discrimination on self-evaluative emotions (depression and self-esteem). In Study 1, women low in gender identification experienced less depressed emotion and higher self-esteem if a negative evaluation was due to sexism than when it was not. The self-evaluative emotions of women high in gender identification were not buffered by attributions to sexism. In Study 2, ethnic identification and depressed emotions were positively related when Latino-Americans read about pervasive prejudice against the in-group but were negatively related when they read about prejudice against an out-group. Both studies demonstrated that for highly group identified individuals, prejudice against the in-group is a threat against the self. Thus, the self-protective strategy of attributing negative feedback to discrimination may be primarily effective for individuals who do not consider the group a central aspect of self.

Oliver and Wong (2003) conducted a study on intergroup prejudice in multiethnic settings This article examines how out-group perceptions among Asian Americans, blacks, Latinos, and whites vary with the racial composition of their surroundings. Previous research on the contextual determinants of racial attitudes offers mixed expectations: some studies indicate that larger percentages of proximate out-groups generate intergroup conflict and hostility while others suggest that such environments promote interracial contact and understanding. As most of this research has been directed at black-white relations, the applicability of these theories to a multiethnic context remains unclear. Using data that merge the 1992–1994 Multi-City Study of Urban Inequality and 1990 Census, we find that in neighborhood contexts, interethnic propinquity corresponds with lower levels of out-group prejudice and competition, although intergroup hostility is higher in metropolitan areas with greater minority populations. Further tests suggest that these results do not occur from individual self-selection; rather ethnic

spatial and social isolation bolster negative out-group perceptions. These findings suggest the value of residential integration for alleviating ethnic antagonism.

Morrison et al (2003) conducted a study on Development and Validation of a scale of a scale measuring modern prejudice towards gay men and lesbian women. This paper describes the psychometric properties of the Modern Homonegativity Scale (MHS), which measures contemporary negative attitudes toward gay men and lesbians (i.e., attitudes not based on traditional or moral objections to homosexuality). In Study 1 ($N = 353$), a preliminary version of the MHS was developed, and its psychometric properties were examined. Participants in Studies 2 and 3 ($Ns = 308$ and 233 , respectively) completed the MHS and other attitudinal measures. The relationships among these variables were investigated to provide a more comprehensive assessment of the scale's construct validity. In Study 4 ($N = 36$), a behavioural expression of modern homonegativity was examined using the attributional ambiguity paradigm. The results of these studies indicate that the MHS is unidimensional, possesses a high degree of internal consistency, and is factorially distinct from a measure of old-fashioned homonegativity. As hypothesized, scores on the MHS correlated positively with political conservatism, religious behaviour, religious self-schema and modern sexism, but did not correlate significantly with social desirability bias. In addition, the MHS appears to be less susceptible to floor effects than a commonly used measure of old-fashioned homonegativity. Finally, the experimental study revealed that participants obtaining high scores on the MHS were less likely to sit beside individuals wearing T-shirts with pro-gay or pro-lesbian slogans when they could justify their seating choice on nonprejudicial grounds.

Olson and Fazio(2003) conducted a study on Reducing automatically activated racial prejudice through implicit evaluative conditioning. The authors report a set of experiments that use an implicit evaluative conditioning procedure to reduce automatically activated racial prejudice in White participants in a short period and with relatively few trials. Experiment 1 demonstrated that participants were unaware of the repeated conditioned stimulus–unconditioned stimulus (CS-

US) pairings of Black-good and White-bad. In Experiment 2, the procedure was found to be effective in reducing prejudice as indicated by an evaluative priming measure of automatically activated racial attitudes. In Experiment 3, this reduction in prejudice was found to persist throughout a 2-day separation between the conditioning procedure and the administration of the dependent measure. The implications of the present findings for the persistence of automatically activated racial prejudice are discussed.

Galinsky and Gillan (2004) conducted a study The effects of perspective taking on prejudice: The moderating role of self evaluation. Perspective-taking, by means of creating an overlap between self and other cognitive representations, has been found to effectively decrease stereotyping and ingroup favoritism. In the present investigation, the authors examined the potential moderating role of self-esteem on the effects of perspective-taking on prejudice. In two experiments, it was found that perspective-takers, but not control participants, with temporarily or chronically high self-esteem evaluated an outgroup more positively than perspective-takers with low self-esteem. This finding suggests an irony of perspective-taking: it builds off egocentric biases to improve outgroup evaluations. The discussion focuses on how debiasing intergroup thought is often best accomplished by working through the very processes that produced the bias in the first place.

DeSteno et al (2004) conducted a study on Prejudice from thin air : The effect of emotion on automatic intergroup attitudes. Two experiments provide initial evidence that specific emotional states are capable of creating automatic prejudice toward outgroups. Specifically, we propose that anger should influence automatic evaluations of outgroups because of its functional relevance to intergroup conflict and competition, whereas other negative emotions less relevant to intergroup relations (e.g., sadness) should not. In both experiments, after minimal ingroups and out groups were created, participants were induced to experience anger, sadness, or a neutral state. Automatic attitudes toward the in- and outgroups were then assessed using an evaluative priming measure

(Experiment 1) and the Implicit Association Test (Experiment 2). As predicted, results showed that anger created automatic prejudice toward the out-group, whereas sadness and neutrality resulted in no automatic intergroup bias. The implications of these findings for emotion-induced biases in implicit intergroup cognition in particular, and in social cognition in general, are considered.

Zarate et al (2004) conducted a study on Cultural threat and perceived realistic group conflict as dual predictors of prejudice. Recent research has focused on how perceived intergroup similarity influences [stereotyping](#) and prejudice. Very little is known, however, regarding how the quality or type of similarity influences [intergroup relations](#). Presented is a methodology that allows one to manipulate the quality of perceived intergroup similarity. This methodology is used to test contrasting predictions about how perceptions of intergroup similarity on self-stereotyped interpersonal and work-related traits predict [attitudes](#) towards [immigrants](#). Predictions were derived from cultural threat and perceived realistic group conflict theories. Some participants were asked to rate how similar they perceived their in-group was to Mexican immigrants, whereas others were asked to evaluate how the groups differed on the given traits. Control participants evaluated themselves on the given traits. Participants were presented with either interpersonal traits or work related traits as stimuli. The main dependent measures were a perceived realistic conflict scale, a prejudice scale, and a stereotyping scale. All three scales used Mexican immigrants as the target category. When interpersonal traits were made salient, contrast comparisons led to more negative attitudes towards immigrants, supporting a cultural threat hypothesis. When work-related traits were made salient, similarity comparisons led to more prejudice and more negative attitudes towards immigrants, supporting a perceived realistic conflict hypothesis. Thus, a perceived threat to either the cultural norm or economic well being led to more negative attitudes towards immigrants. Results are discussed for their relevance to models of intergroup relations.

Ekehammar et al (2004) conducted a study on What happens most to prejudice: Big five personality, Social dominance orientation or right wing authoritarianism. Whereas previous research has studied the relation of either (i) personality with prejudice, (ii) personality with social dominance orientation (SDO) and right-wing authoritarianism (RWA), or (iii) SDO and RWA with prejudice, the present research integrates all approaches within the same model. In our study ($N=183$), various causal models of the relationships among the Big Five, SDO, RWA, and Generalized Prejudice are proposed and tested. Generalized Prejudice scores were obtained from a factor analysis of the scores on various prejudice instruments (racism, sexism, prejudice toward homosexuals, and mentally disabled people), which yielded a one-factor solution. The best-fitting causal model, which was our suggested hypothetical model, showed that Big Five personality had no direct effect on Generalized Prejudice but an indirect effect transmitted through RWA and SDO, where RWA seems to capture personality aspects to a greater extent than SDO. Specifically, Generalized Prejudice was affected indirectly by Extraversion, Openness to Experience, and Conscientiousness through RWA, and by Agreeableness through SDO, whereas Neuroticism had no effect at all. The results are discussed against the background of previous research and the personality and social psychology approaches to the study of prejudice. Copyright © 2004 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Hugenberg and Bodenhausen(2004) conducted a study on Ambiguity in social categorization : the role of prejudice and facial affect in race categorization. Two studies tested the hypothesis that perceivers' prejudice and targets' facial expressions bias race categorization in stereotypic directions. Specifically, we hypothesized that racial prejudice would be more strongly associated with a tendency to categorize hostile (but not happy) racially ambiguous faces as African American. We obtained support for this hypothesis using both a speeded dichotomous categorization task (Studies 1 and 2) and a rating-scale task (Study 2). Implicit prejudice (but not explicit prejudice) was related to increased

sensitivity to the targets' facial expressions, regardless of whether prejudice was measured after (Study 1) or before (Study 2) the race categorizations were made.

William et al(2004) conducted a study on implicit and explicit egocentrism: revisiting the ideologies of prejudice. Two studies investigated relationships among individual differences in implicit and explicit prejudice, right-wing ideology, and rigidity in thinking. The first study examined these relationships focusing on White Americans' prejudice toward Black Americans. The second study provided the first test of implicit ethnocentrism and its relationship to explicit ethnocentrism by studying the relationship between attitudes toward five social groups. Factor analyses found support for both implicit and explicit ethnocentrism. In both studies, mean explicit attitudes toward out groups were positive, whereas implicit attitudes were negative, suggesting that implicit and explicit prejudices are distinct; however, in both studies, implicit and explicit attitudes were related ($r = .37, .47$). Latent variable modeling indicates a simple structure within this ethnocentric system, with variables organized in order of specificity. These results lead to the conclusion that (a) implicit ethnocentrism exists and (b) it is related to and distinct from explicit ethnocentrism.

Dovidio et al (2004) conducted a study on the Perspective and Prejudice: Antecedents and Mediating Mechanisms. The present work investigated mechanisms by which Whites' prejudice toward Blacks can be reduced (Study 1) and explored how creating a common in-group identity can reduce prejudice by promoting these processes (Study 2). In Study 1, White participants who viewed a videotape depicting examples of racial discrimination and who imagined the victim's feelings showed greater decreases in prejudice toward Blacks than did those in the objective and no instruction conditions. Among the potential mediating affective and cognitive variables examined, reductions in prejudice were mediated primarily by feelings associated with perceived injustice. In Study 2, an intervention designed to increase perceptions of a common group identity before viewing the videotape, reading that a terrorist threat was directed at all

Americans versus directed just at White Americans, also reduced prejudice toward Blacks through increases in feelings of injustice.

Wheeler and Fiske (2005) conducted a study on controlling racial prejudice. The malleability of stereotyping matters in social psychology and in society. Previous work indicates rapid amygdala and cognitive responses to racial out-groups, leading some researchers to view these responses as inevitable. In this study, the methods of social-cognitive neuroscience were used to investigate how social goals control prejudiced responses. Participants viewed photographs of unfamiliar Black and White faces, under each of three social goals: social categorization (by age), social individuation (vegetable preference), and simple visual inspection (detecting a dot). One study recorded brain activity in the amygdala using functional magnetic resonance imaging, and another measured cognitive activation of stereotypes by lexical priming. Neither response to photos of the racial out-group was inevitable; instead, both responses depended on perceivers' current social-cognitive goal.

Relationships between intergroup contact and prejudice among minority and majority status groups was a study conducted by Linda et al (2005) Considerable research has shown that greater intergroup contact corresponds with lower intergroup prejudice, yet little is known regarding how the relationships between contact and prejudice may vary for members of minority and majority status groups. The present research examined differences in contact-prejudice relationships among members of minority and majority status groups, using data from a larger meta-analytic study of the effects of intergroup contact. Results indicate that the relationships between contact and prejudice tend to be weaker among members of minority status groups than among members of majority status groups. Moreover, establishing Allport's (1954) proposed conditions for optimal intergroup contact significantly predicts stronger contact-prejudice relationships among members of majority status groups, but not among members of minority status groups. Implications of these findings for future research on contact between minority and majority status groups are discussed.

Tropp and Pettigrew (2005) conducted a study on Differential relationships between intergroup contact and affective and cognitive dimensions of prejudice. Research on affective dimensions of intergroup relationships suggests that positive effects of intergroup contact can generalize through establishing affective ties with outgroup members. However, research on cognitive dimensions emphasizes that it is often difficult to generalize positive contact outcomes. In this research, the authors examine whether affective and cognitive dimensions of prejudice bear different relationships to intergroup contact. Using data from a larger meta-analysis of contact effects, Study 1 demonstrates that affective indicators of prejudice typically yield stronger, inverse contact-prejudice relationships than such cognitive indicators as stereotypes. Study 2 replicates these trends in a survey study using multiple indicators of affective and cognitive dimensions of prejudice. Study 2 also shows significant, inverse relationships between contact and affective prejudice when contact is assessed either as number of outgroup friends or intergroup closeness. Together, these results suggest that affective dimensions of intergroup relationships are especially critical for understanding the nature of contact-prejudice effects.

Shelton et al (2005) conducted a study on Expecting to be target of prejudice: Implications for interethnic interactions. Two studies investigated the implications of ethnic minorities' prejudice expectations for their affective and behavioral outcomes during interethnic interactions. In both studies, the more ethnic minorities expected Whites to be prejudiced, the more negative experiences they had during interethnic interactions. This finding held true for chronic prejudice expectations in a diary study of college roommates (Study 1) and for situationally induced prejudice expectations in a laboratory interaction (Study 2). In Study 2, the authors extended this work to examine the relationship between ethnic minorities' prejudice expectancies and their White partners' psychological experience during interethnic interactions. Consistent with predictions, the more ethnic minorities expected Whites to be prejudiced, the more their White partners had positive experiences during interethnic interactions. These divergent

experiences of ethnic minorities and Whites have important implications for the psychological success of interactions between members of these groups.

Cottrell and Neuberg (2005) conducted a study on Different Emotional Reactions to Different Groups: A Sociofunctional Threat-Based Approach to "Prejudice". The authors suggest that the traditional conception of prejudice--as a general attitude or evaluation--can problematically obscure the rich texturing of emotions that people feel toward different groups. Derived from a sociofunctional approach, the authors predicted that groups believed to pose qualitatively distinct threats to in-group resources or processes would evoke qualitatively distinct and functionally relevant emotional reactions. Participants' reactions to a range of social groups provided a data set unique in the scope of emotional reactions and threat beliefs explored. As predicted, different groups elicited different profiles of emotion and threat reactions, and this diversity was often masked by general measures of prejudice and threat. Moreover, threat and emotion profiles were associated with one another in the manner predicted: Specific classes of threat were linked to specific, functionally relevant emotions, and groups similar in the threat profiles they elicited were also similar in the emotion profiles they elicited.

Gracia-Retamero and Lopez-Zafra (2006) conducted a study on Prejudice against women in Male-congenial environments: Perceptions of gender role congruity in leadership. Some authors assert that there is a feminine advantage in leadership, even though female leaders are often targets of prejudice. Our experiment tested how people's expectations affect this prejudice in different work environments. Participants evaluated a male or a female candidate for a leadership position in an industry that was congruent or incongruent with the candidate's gender role. Participants showed prejudice against the female candidate, especially when she worked in an industry incongruent with her gender role. Female and older participants showed more prejudice against the female leader than did male and younger participants. These results invoke role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders.

Cameron and Rutland (2006) conducted a study on Extended contact through story reading in school: Reducing childrens prejudice towards the disabled. The aim of this study was to develop and assess a prejudice-reduction intervention for young children based on a relatively recent psychological concept, extended contact. A number of extended contact interventions were tested based on different models of generalized intergroup contact. A 3 (type of extended contact: neutral, decategorization, and “intergroup”) × 2 (time of interview: pre- vs. post-extended contacts) mixed design was used, with the latter variable being within participants. Non-disabled children (N= 67) aged 5–10 years took part in a 6-week intervention involving reading stories featuring disabled and non-disabled children in friendship contexts. The main dependent variables were children's attitudes and intended behavior toward non-disabled and disabled people. Results showed that extended contact led to increased positivity toward the disabled, and this was most pronounced in the intergroup-extended contact condition. These findings suggest that extended contact can provide a prejudice-reduction intervention tool that can be used with young children in contexts in which the opportunity for direct contact is low. The findings also add to the psychological literature, providing support of the **Hewstone and Brown (1986)** “intergroup” model in the context of extended contact.

Bigler and Liben(2006)conducted a study A developmental intergroup theory of social stereotypes and prejudice. This chapter proposes a new theory of the formation of social stereotypes and prejudice among children: developmental intergroup theory (DIT). It defines the terms “stereotyping” and “prejudice” to specify the phenomena that the theory is designed to address and outlines the importance of considering the ontogenetic emergence of stereotyping and prejudice. The core characteristics and goals of the theory are described and the key components of intergroup and cognitive-developmental theories that provide foundations for the theoretical model are highlighted. The chapter deals with the mechanisms that hypothesize account for the formation of stereotypes and prejudice among children as a group, emphasizing how the theory differs from

other major theories of stereotyping and prejudice. It reviews the environmental, developmental, and individual differences that contribute to variations in stereotyping and prejudice across children. The chapter also discusses the implications of developmental intergroup theory both for research and social action to reduce stereotyping and prejudice.

Wagner et al (2006) conducted a study on the Prejudice and Minority Proportion: Contact Instead of Threat Effects. Research on the relationship between the percentage of an ethnic minority population in a geographically defined area and majority members' prejudice typically reveals a positive co variation. This result supports threat theory. Recent studies, however, have demonstrated significant exceptions. Based on intergroup contact theory, the present study demonstrates with a German probability sample that an increase in the percentage of ethnic minority members affords the majority greater opportunity for intergroup contact and thus reduces the majority's prejudice. These results also falsify frequent political claims that an increase in the minority population above a particular threshold necessarily worsens intergroup relations. The data are discussed in the context of the divergence of our results from those of other studies. Whether threat or contact effects occur may depend on an array of moderators that require further testing.

Haslam and Levy (2006) conducted a study on the Essentialist Beliefs About Homosexuality: Structure and Implications for Prejudice. The structure of beliefs about the nature of homosexuality, and their association with antigay attitudes, were examined in three studies (Ns = 309, 487, and 216). Contrary to previous research, three dimensions were obtained: the belief that homosexuality is biologically based, immutable, and fixed early in life; the belief that it is cross-culturally and historically universal; and the belief that it constitutes a discrete, estimative type with defining features. Study 1 supported a three-factor structure for essentialist beliefs about male homosexuality. Study 2 replicated this structure with confirmatory factor analysis, extended it to beliefs about lesbianism, showed that all three dimensions predicted antigay attitudes, and demonstrated that

essentialist beliefs mediate associations between prejudice and gender, ethnicity, and religiosity. Study 3 replicated the belief structure and mediation effects in a community sample and showed that essentialist beliefs predict antigay prejudice independently of right-wing authoritarianism, social dominance orientation, and political conservatism.

Inzlicht et al (2006) conducted a study on Stigma on ego depletion: How being the target of prejudice affects self control. This research examined whether stigma diminishes people's ability to control their behaviors. Because coping with stigma requires self-regulation, and self-regulation is a limited-capacity resource, we predicted that individuals belonging to stigmatized groups are less able to regulate their own behavior when they become conscious of their stigmatizing status or enter threatening environments. Study 1 uncovered a correlation between stigma sensitivity and self-regulation; the more Black college students were sensitive to prejudice, the less self-control they reported having. By experimentally activating stigma, Studies 2 and 3 provided causal evidence for stigma's ego-depleting qualities: When their stigma was activated, stigmatized participants (Black students and females) showed impaired self-control in two very different domains (attentional and physical self-regulation). These results suggest that (a) stigma is ego depleting and (b) coping with it can weaken the ability to control and regulate one's behaviors in domains unrelated to the stigma.

Read et al (2006) conducted a study on Prejudice and schizophrenia. Many anti-stigma programmes use the 'mental illness is an illness like any other' approach. This review evaluates the effectiveness of this approach in relation to schizophrenia. The academic literature was searched, via PsycINFO and MEDLINE, to identify peer-reviewed studies addressing whether public espousal of a biogenetic paradigm has increased over time, and whether biogenetic causal beliefs and diagnostic labelling are associated with less negative attitudes. The public, internationally, continues to prefer psychosocial to biogenetic explanations and treatments for schizophrenia. Biogenetic causal theories and diagnostic labelling as 'illness', are both positively related to perceptions of dangerousness

and unpredictability, and to fear and desire for social distance. An evidence-based approach to reducing discrimination would seek a range of alternatives to the ‘mental illness is an illness like any other’ approach, based on enhanced understanding, from multi-disciplinary research, of the causes of prejudice.

Turner et al (2007) conducted a study on Reducing explicit and implicit outgroup prejudice via direct and extended contact: The mediating role of self-disclosure and intergroup anxiety. In 4 studies, the authors investigated mediators of the effect of cross-group friendship. In Study 1, cross-group friendship among White elementary school children predicted more positive explicit outgroup attitude toward South Asians, mediated by self-disclosure and intergroup anxiety. In Study 2, cross-group friendship and extended contact among White and South Asian high school students positively predicted explicit outgroup attitude, mediated by self-disclosure and intergroup anxiety. Study 3 replicated these findings in a larger independent sample. In all 3 studies, exposure to the outgroup positively predicted implicit outgroup attitude. Study 4 further showed that self-disclosure improved explicit outgroup attitude via empathy, importance of contact, and intergroup trust. The authors discuss the theoretical and practical implications of these findings, which argue for the inclusion of self-disclosure as a key component of social interventions to reduce prejudice. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2016 APA, all rights reserved)

Bigler and liben(2007) conducted a study on developmental intergroup theory: explaining and reducing children’s social stereotyping and prejudice. Social stereotyping and prejudice are intriguing phenomena from the standpoint of theory and, in addition, constitute pressing societal problems. Because stereotyping and prejudice emerge in early childhood, developmental research on causal mechanisms is critical for understanding and controlling stereotyping and prejudice. Such work forms the basis of a new theoretical model, *developmental intergroup theory* (DIT), which addresses the causal ingredients of stereotyping and prejudice. The work suggests that biases may be largely under environmental control and thus might be shaped via educational, social, and legal policies.

Pettigrew et al (2007) conducted a study on Direct and indirect intergroup contact effects on prejudice. Intergroup contact theory and research have advanced rapidly in recent years. Among the advances is the surprising finding that indirect contact (having an ingroup friend who has an outgroup friend) reduces prejudice at levels comparable to those of direct contact (having an outgroup friend yourself). Using a large, probability survey of German adults, we explore the relationship between direct and indirect contact. We find they are highly interrelated, and both are negatively related to prejudices against foreigners and Muslims living in Germany. Direct and indirect contact together enhance the prediction of prejudice. Moreover, the two contact types are shaped by similar social and personality variables. Opportunity for contact is important, while authoritarians avoid contact. Their effects are mediated by threat, but here we find the one difference between the two types. Direct contact is negatively related to both individual and collective threat. Indirect contact is also negatively related to collective threat but only slightly related to individual threat. We interpret these relationships within a normative perspective.

Confronting sexual stigma and prejudice : Theory and Practice is a study conducted by Herek and Gregory (2007) .This article explores theoretical and applied questions that are relevant to social scientists' efforts to understand and confront sexual stigma. A framework is presented for conceptualizing such stigma as a cultural phenomenon with structural and individual manifestations. The latter include enacted stigma and felt stigma, as well as internalized stigma, which encompasses self-stigma among sexual minorities and sexual prejudice among heterosexuals. Insights suggested by the model for reducing sexual prejudice are discussed. At the structural level, the framework highlights processes whereby heterosexism legitimates and perpetuates sexual stigma and the power differentials that it creates. Social and behavioral scientists, roles in working to eliminate heterosexism are discussed, and psychologists' contributions to court cases challenging state sodomy laws are described. It is argued that confronting sexual

stigma will not only address an important social problem but will also enrich scientific understanding of human behavior

Strabac and Listhaug (2008) conducted a study on Anti-Muslim prejudice in Europe. There is widespread interest in understanding anti-Muslim prejudice in Europe, but there is little systematic evidence about the extent and patterns of the prejudice. Using data from the 1999–2000 wave of European Values Study this article examines the extent and determinants of anti-Muslim prejudice in both Western and Eastern Europe. We find that prejudice against Muslims was more widespread than prejudice against other immigrants, and that the effects of individual and country-level predictors of prejudice resemble those found in research on anti-minority prejudice in general. Fairly similar results were obtained for both Eastern and Western Europe, but the aggregate levels of prejudice are higher in the East. Our results imply that Muslims in Europe were particularly prone to becoming targets of prejudice, even before the attacks of September 11. The results give some support to group-conflict theory, mainly with regard to the effects of the unemployment. However, the size of Muslim population in a country does not seem to increase the level of anti-Muslim prejudice.

Prejudice and wages :An empirical assessment of Beckers the economics of discrimination was a study conducted by Charles and Guryan (2008). We test the predictions from Becker's (1957) seminal work on employer prejudice and find that relative black wages (a) vary negatively with the prejudice of the "marginal" white in a state, (b) vary negatively with the prejudice in the lower tail of the prejudice distribution but are unaffected by the prejudice of the most prejudiced persons in a state, and (c) vary negatively with the fraction of a state that is black. Our estimates suggest that one-quarter of the racial wage gap is due to prejudice, with nontrivial consequences for black lifetime earnings.

Phelan, Link and Dovidio (2008) conducted a study on stigma and prejudice. In light of increasing cross-communication and possible coalescence of conceptual models of stigma and prejudice, they reviewed 18 key models in order to explore commonalities and possible distinctions between prejudice and stigma. We arrive

at two conclusions. First, the two sets of models have much in common (representing “one animal”); most differences are a matter of focus and emphasis. Second, one important distinction is in the type of human characteristics that are the primary focus of models of prejudice (race) and stigma (deviant behavior and identities, and disease and disabilities). This led us to develop a typology of three functions of stigma and prejudice: exploitation and domination (keeping people down); norm enforcement (keeping people in); and disease avoidance (keeping people away). We argue that attention to these functions will enhance our understanding of stigma and prejudice and our ability to reduce them.

Charles and Guryan(2008) conducted a study on Prejudice and Wages: An Empirical Assessment of Becker’s The Economics of Discrimination. We test the predictions from Becker’s (1957) seminal work on employer prejudice and find that relative black wages (a) vary negatively with the prejudice of the “marginal” white in a state, (b) vary negatively with the prejudice in the lower tail of the prejudice distribution but are unaffected by the prejudice of the most prejudiced persons in a state, and (c) vary negatively with the fraction of a state that is black. Our estimates suggest that one-quarter of the racial wage gap is due to prejudice, with nontrivial consequences for black lifetime earnings.

Binder et al (2009) conducted a study Does contact reduce prejudice or does prejudice reduce contact? A longitudinal test of the contact hypothesis among majority and minority groups in three european countries. The authors conducted a longitudinal field survey in Germany, Belgium, and England with school students. The sample comprised members of both ethnic minorities (n = 512) and ethnic majorities (n = 1,143). Path analyses yielded both lagged contact effects and prejudice effects: Contact reduced prejudice, but prejudice also reduced contact. Furthermore, contact effects were negligible for minority members. These effects were obtained for 2 indicators of prejudice: negative intergroup emotions and desire for social distance. For both majority and minority members, contact effects on negative emotions were stronger when out-group contacts were perceived as being typical of their group. Contact effects were also mediated by

intergroup anxiety. This mediating mechanism was impaired for minority members because of a weakened effect of anxiety on desire for social distance. Theoretical and practical implications of these findings are discussed.

Dasgupta et al (2009) conducted a study on Fanning the flames of prejudice: the influence of specific incidental emotions on implicit prejudice. Three experiments examined the impact of incidental emotions on implicit intergroup evaluations. Experiment 1 demonstrated that for unknown social groups, two negative emotions that are broadly applicable to intergroup conflict (anger and disgust) both created implicit bias where none had existed before. However, for known groups about which perceivers had prior knowledge, emotions increased implicit prejudice only if the induced emotion was applicable to the outgroup stereotype. Disgust increased bias against disgust-relevant groups (e.g., homosexuals) but anger did not (Experiment 2); anger increased bias against anger-relevant groups (e.g., Arabs) but disgust did not (Experiment 3). Consistent with functional theories of emotion, these findings suggest that negative intergroup emotions signal specific types of threat. If the emotion-specific threat is applicable to prior expectations of a group, the emotion ratchets up implicit prejudice toward that group. However, if the emotion-specific threat is not applicable to the target group, evaluations remain unchanged.

Crisp and Turner (2009) conducted a study on Can imagined interactions produce positive perceptions?: Reducing prejudice through simulated social contact. The contact hypothesis states that, under the right conditions, contact between members of different groups leads to more positive intergroup relations. The authors track recent trends in contact theory to the emergence of extended, or indirect, forms of contact. These advances lead to an intriguing proposition: that simply imagining intergroup interactions can produce more positive perceptions of outgroups. The authors discuss empirical research supporting the imagined contact proposition and find it to be an approach that is at once deceptively simple and remarkably effective. Encouraging people to mentally simulate a positive intergroup encounter leads to improved outgroup attitudes and reduced stereotyping. It curtails intergroup anxiety and extends the attribution of

perceivers' positive traits to others. The authors describe the advantages and disadvantages of imagined contact compared to conventional strategies, outline an agenda for future research, and discuss applications for policymakers and educators in their efforts to encourage more positive intergroup relations.

Eisenegger et al (2009) conducted a study on Prejudice and truth about the effect of testosterone on human bargaining behavior. Both biosociological and psychological models, as well as animal research, suggest that testosterone has a key role in social interactions. Evidence from animal studies in rodents shows that testosterone causes aggressive behavior towards nonspecific's. Folk wisdom generalizes and adapts these findings to humans, suggesting that testosterone induces antisocial, egoistic, or even aggressive human behaviors. However, many researchers have questioned this folk hypothesis arguing that testosterone is primarily involved in status-related behaviors in challenging social interactions, but causal evidence that discriminates between these views is sparse. Here we show that the sublingual administration of a single dose of testosterone in women causes a substantial increase in fair bargaining behavior, thereby reducing bargaining conflicts and increasing the efficiency of social interactions. However, subjects who believed that they received testosterone—regardless of whether they actually received it or not—behaved much more unfairly than those who believed that they were treated with placebo. Thus, the folk hypothesis seems to generate a strong negative association between subjects' beliefs and the fairness of their offers, even though testosterone administration actually causes a substantial increase in the frequency of fair bargaining offers in our experiment.

Paluck (2009) conducted a study on Reducing intergroup prejudice and conflict using the media: A field experiment in Rwanda. A yearlong field experiment in Rwanda tested the impact of a radio soap opera featuring messages about reducing intergroup prejudice, violence, and trauma in 2 fictional Rwandan communities. Compared with a control group who listened to a health radio soap opera, listeners' perceptions of social norms and their behaviors changed with respect to intermarriage, open dissent, trust, empathy, cooperation, and trauma

healing. However, the radio program did little to change listeners' personal beliefs. Group discussion and emotion were implicated in the process of media influence. Taken together, the results point to an integrated model of behavioral prejudice and conflict reduction that prioritizes the communication of social norms over changes in personal beliefs.

Turner and Crisp (2010) conducted a study on Imagining intergroup contact reduces implicit prejudice. Recent research has demonstrated that imagining intergroup contact can be sufficient to reduce explicit prejudice directed towards out-groups. In this research, we examined the impact of contact-related mental imagery on implicit prejudice as measured by the implicit association test. We found that, relative to a control condition, young participants who imagined talking to an elderly stranger subsequently showed more positive implicit attitudes towards elderly people in general. In a second study, we demonstrated that, relative to a control condition, non-Muslim participants who imagined talking to a Muslim stranger subsequently showed more positive implicit attitudes towards Muslims in general. We discuss the implications of these findings for furthering the application of indirect contact strategies aimed at improving intergroup relations.

Ironic Effects of Anti prejudice Messages: How Motivational Interventions Can Reduce (but Also Increase) Prejudice was a study conducted by Leaguit, Gutsell and Inzlicht (2011). Although prejudice-reduction policies and interventions abound, is it possible that some of them result in the precise opposite of their intended effect—an increase in prejudice? We examined this question by exploring the impact of motivation based prejudice-reduction interventions and assessing whether certain popular practices might in fact increase prejudice. In two experiments, participants received detailed information on, or were primed with, the goal of prejudice reduction; the information and primes either encouraged autonomous motivation to regulate prejudice or emphasized the societal requirement to control prejudice. Ironically, motivating people to reduce prejudice by emphasizing external control produced more explicit and implicit prejudice

than did not intervening at all. Conversely, participants in whom autonomous motivation to regulate prejudice was induced displayed less explicit and implicit prejudice compared with no-treatment control participants. We outline strategies for effectively reducing prejudice and discuss the detrimental consequences of enforcing anti prejudice standards

Devine et al (2012) conducted a study on Long term reduction in implicit race bias: A prejudice habit breaking intervention. We developed a multi-faceted prejudice habit-breaking intervention to produce long-term reductions in implicit race bias. The intervention is based on the premise that implicit bias is like a habit that can be broken through a combination of awareness of implicit bias, concern about the effects of that bias, and the application of strategies to reduce bias. In a 12-week [longitudinal study](#), people who received the intervention showed dramatic reductions in implicit race bias. People who were concerned about discrimination or who reported using the strategies showed the greatest reductions. The intervention also led to increases in concern about discrimination and personal awareness of bias over the duration of the study. People in the control group showed none of the above effects. Our results raise the hope of reducing persistent and unintentional forms of discrimination that arise from implicit bias.

Barlow et al (2012) conducted a study on The Contact Caveat. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin. Contact researchers have largely overlooked the potential for negative intergroup contact to increase prejudice. In Study 1, we tested the interaction between contact quantity and valence on prejudice toward Black Australians (n = 1,476), Muslim Australians (n = 173), and asylum seekers (n = 293). In all cases, the association between contact quantity and prejudice was moderated by its valence, with negative contact emerging as a stronger and more consistent predictor than positive contact. In Study 2, White Americans (n = 441) indicated how much positive and negative contact they had with Black Americans on separate measures. Although both quantity of positive and negative contact predicted racism and avoidance, negative contact was the stronger predictor.

Furthermore, negative (but not positive) contact independently predicted suspicion about Barack Obama's birthplace. These results extend the contact hypothesis by issuing an important caveat: Negative contact may be more strongly associated with increased racism and discrimination than positive contact is with its reduction.

Rudman et al (2012) conducted a study on Status incongruity and backlash effects: Defending the gender hierarchy motivates prejudice against female leaders. Agentic female leaders risk social and economic penalties for behaving counter-stereotypically (i.e., *backlash*; [Rudman, 1998](#)), but what motivates prejudice against female leaders? The status incongruity hypothesis (SIH) proposes that agentic women are penalized for status violations because doing so defends the gender hierarchy. Consistent with this view, Study 1 found that women are proscribed from dominant, high status displays (which are reserved for leaders and men); Studies 2–3 revealed that prejudice against agentic female leaders was mediated by a dominance penalty; and in Study 3, participants' gender system-justifying beliefs moderated backlash effects. Study 4 found that backlash was exacerbated when perceivers were primed with a system threat. Study 5 showed that only female leaders who threatened the status quo suffered sabotage. In concert, support for the SIH suggests that backlash functions to preserve male dominance by reinforcing a double standard for power and control.

Chambers et al (2013) conducted a study on Ideology and prejudice: the role of value conflicts. In three studies, we tested whether prejudice derives from perceived similarities and dissimilarities in political ideologies (the value-conflict hypothesis). Across three diverse samples in Study 1, conservatives had less favorable impressions than liberals of groups that were identified as liberal (e.g., African Americans, homosexuals), but more favorable impressions than liberals of groups identified as conservative (e.g., Christian fundamentalists, businesspeople). In Studies 2 and 3, we independently manipulated a target's race (European American or African American) and political attitudes (liberal or conservative). Both studies found symmetrical preferences, with liberals and

conservatives each liking attitudinally similar targets more than dissimilar targets. The amount of prejudice was comparable for liberals and conservatives, and the race of the target had no effect. In all three studies, the same patterns were obtained even after controlling for individual differences on prejudice-related dimensions (e.g., system justification, social-dominance orientation, modern racism). The patterns strongly support the value-conflict hypothesis and indicate that prejudice exists on both sides of the political spectrum.

Sexual Orientation, Prejudice, and Segregation is a study conducted by Plug,Webbink and Martin(2014) This article examines whether gay and lesbian workers sort into tolerant occupations. With information on sexual orientation, prejudice, and occupational choice taken from Australian Twin Registers, we find that gays and lesbians shy away from prejudiced occupations. We show that our segregation results are largely driven by those gay and lesbian workers with disclosed identities and are robust to the inclusion of unobserved factors that are inherited and observed factors that strongly correlate with productive skills and vocational preferences. Our segregation estimates are consistent with prejudice-based theories of employer and employee discrimination against gay and lesbian workers.

Racial Prejudice, Partisanship, and White Turnout in Elections with Black Candidates is a study conducted by Krupnikov and Piston(2015) In this project, we examine a key condition under which partisanship and partisan strength moderate the effect of prejudice on electoral behavior. Specifically, we argue that when a prejudiced strong partisan shares the partisanship of a Black candidate, she is likely to experience a decision conflict—prejudice and partisanship point in opposing directions—increasing the likelihood that she stays home on Election Day. We test this argument through observational analyses of the 2008 presidential election. Our findings illuminate an additional barrier to Black electoral representation: racial prejudice undermines Black candidates' efforts to mobilize strong partisans.

2.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To assess the prejudice and social phobia of the participants.
- To determine the interrelationship between the study variables.
- To assess the stream wise differences among college students on prejudice and social phobia.
- To analyse the mean difference on prejudice in relation to the social phobia of the participants.

2.4 HYPOTHESES

Four hypotheses have been formulated to assess the prejudice of college students in relation to social phobia:

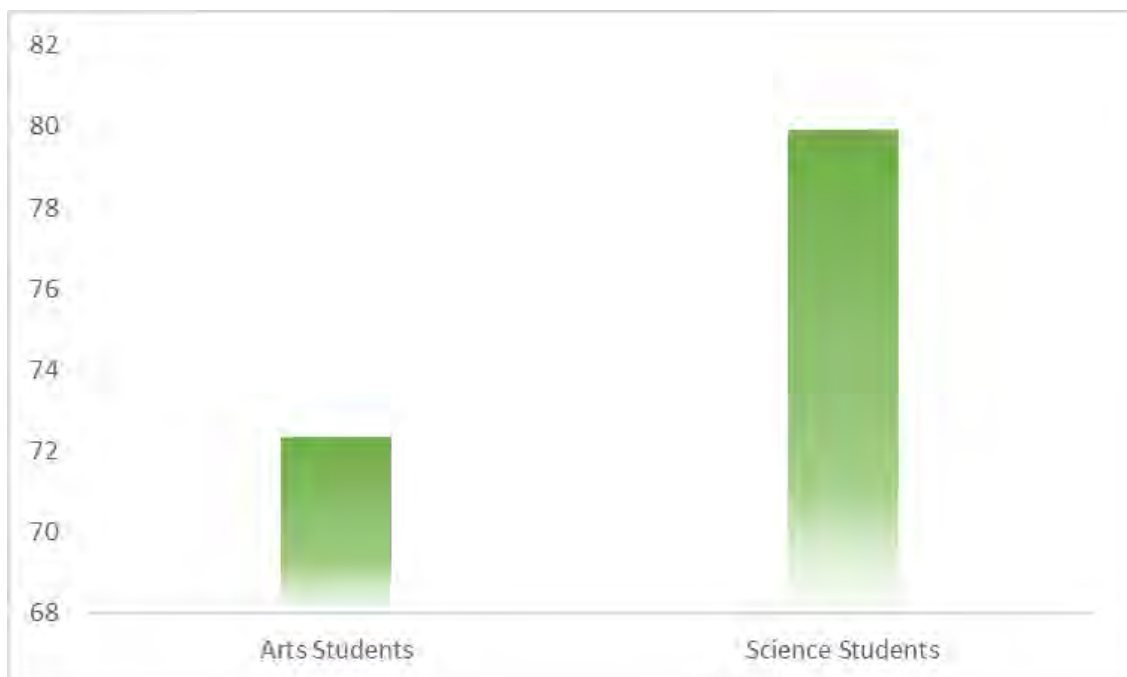
- There will be significant relationship between social phobia and prejudice among college students.
- There will be significant difference between arts and science students on social phobia
- There will be significant difference between arts and science students on prejudice.
- There will be significant mean difference on prejudice of the students in relation to social phobia.

The present study was conducted to assess, examine and compare the mean differences among college students on prejudice in relation to their social phobia level. A total of 120 participants were drawn from the population of college students by means of quota sampling method from different colleges located in kollam. A total of 120 participants were drawn for the study which further divided into 3 different groups of 40 participants based on their social phobia level.

The scores obtained by the participant for social phobia ranged from 36 to 123 ($M = 76.15$ and $SD = 21.67$). The scores obtained by the participant for prejudice ranged from 51 to 175 ($M = 88.53$ and $SD = 25.05$).

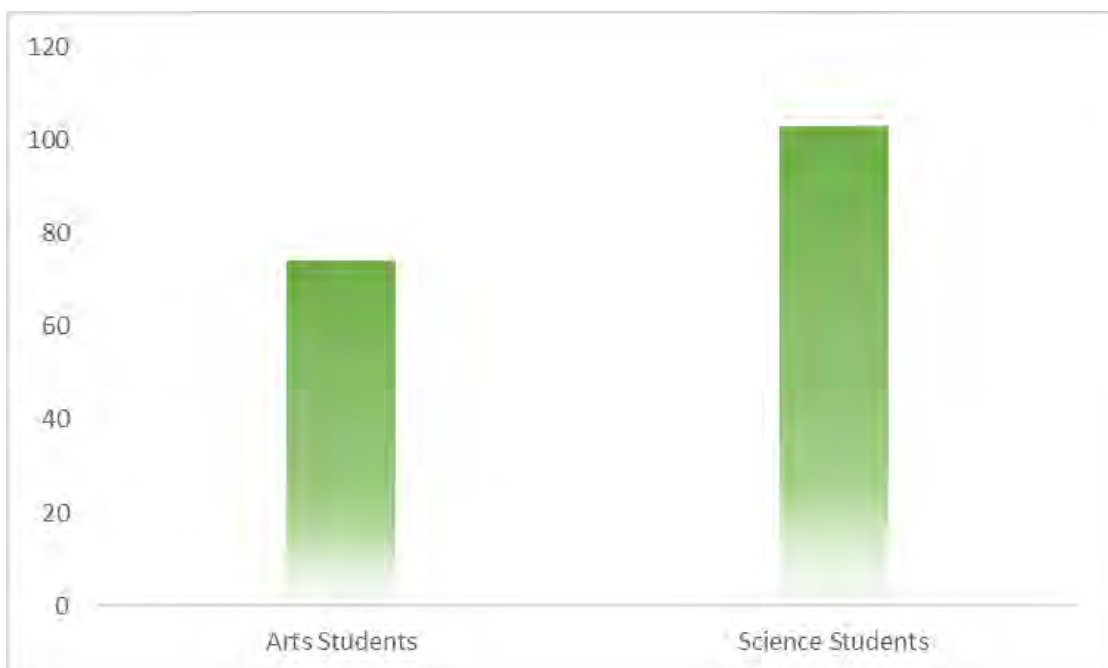
The score obtained by Arts students on social phobia was ranged from 36 to 100 ($M = 72.36$ and $SD = 20.67$) and that of Science students was ranged from 43 to 123 ($M = 79.93$ and $SD = 22.15$).

Figure 4.1: Graphical representation of the scores obtained by the participants on social phobia in relation to their stream of education.



The score obtained by Arts students on prejudice was ranged from 51 to 98 (M = 74.06 and SD = 10.86) and that of Science students was ranged from 61 to 175 (M = 103 and SD = 26.86).

Figure 4.2: Graphical representation of the scores obtained by the participants on prejudice in relation to their stream of education.



The prejudice scores obtained by participants having high social phobia was ranged from 51 to 171 (M = 87.95 and SD = 27.99), participants having moderate social was ranged from 54 to 175 (M = 89.25 and SD = 22.67) and that of participants having low social phobia ranged from 54 to 164 (M = 88.40 and SD = 24.79).

Figure 4.3: Graphical representation of the scores obtained by the participants on prejudice in relation to their social phobia level.

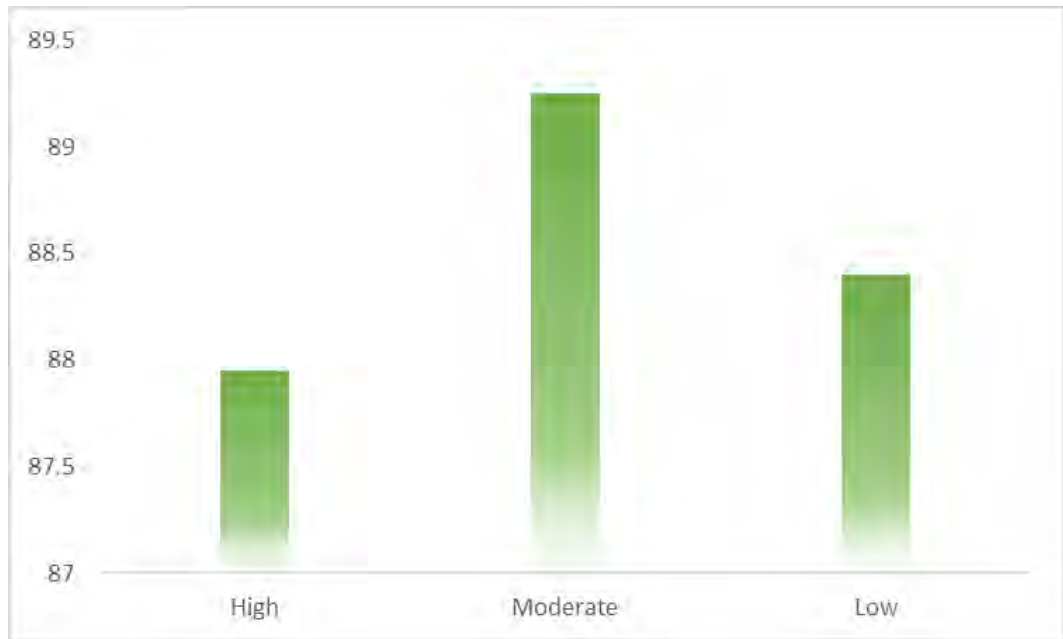


Table 4.1: Summary of relationship between participant’s social phobia and prejudice. (N=120)

	Social Phobia	Prejudice
Social Phobia	1	.31
Prejudice	.31	1

The first hypothesis examined the relationship between social phobia and prejudice, stated that “There will be significant relationship between social phobia and prejudice of the participants”. The Pearson product moment correlational analysis was done and it failed to reveal a statistically significant relationship between social phobia and prejudice with r-value .31. Thus hypothesis 1 is rejected. This suggests that a change in social phobia score will not be followed by a change in their prejudice level.

Table 4.2: Comparison of mean scores on Social Phobia between students of arts and science.

Variable	Comparison	M	SD	t value
Social Phobia	Arts	72.57	20.98	2.19*
	Science	81.32	22.87	

(*Significant at 0.05 level)

The second hypothesis examined the difference between arts and science students on social phobia, stated that “There will be significant difference between arts and science students on Social phobia”. The results given in the table indicate that there exists a significant difference between arts and science students on social phobia. The t value obtained was 2.19 which is found to be significant at 0.05 levels. 72.57 was the mean score obtained by arts students while 81.32 was the score that science students obtained, with corresponding deviations 20.98 and 22.87 respectively. This indicates the existence of a stream wise difference on social phobia with the science students showing a substantial higher level of social phobia than that of arts students. Thus hypothesis 3 was accepted. From this we can infer that there is a difference between arts and science students where science students possess higher social phobia than arts students.

Table 4.3: Summary of t test of arts and science students on Prejudice.

Variable	Comparison	M	SD	t value
Prejudice	Arts	74.07	10.86	7.74**
	Science	103.00	26.86	

(**Significant at 0.01 level)

The third hypothesis examined the difference between arts and science students on Prejudice, stated that “There will be significant difference between arts and science students on Prejudice”. The results given in the table indicate that there exists a significant difference between arts and science students on Prejudice. The

t value obtained was 7.74 which is found to be significant at 0.01 levels. 74.07 was the mean score obtained by arts students while 130.00 was the score that science students obtained, with corresponding deviations 10.86 and 26.86 respectively. This indicates that there is stream wise difference in Prejudice with the science students showing a substantial higher Prejudice than that of arts students. Thus hypothesis 3 was accepted. From this we can infer that there is a difference between arts and science students where science students have higher Prejudice than arts students.

Table 4.4: Summary of ANOVA of participants’ prejudice scores in relation to social phobia

Variable	Source of variation	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F ratio
Prejudice	Between Groups	34.86	2	17.43	0.027
	Within Groups	74609.00	117	637.68	
	Total	74643.86	119		

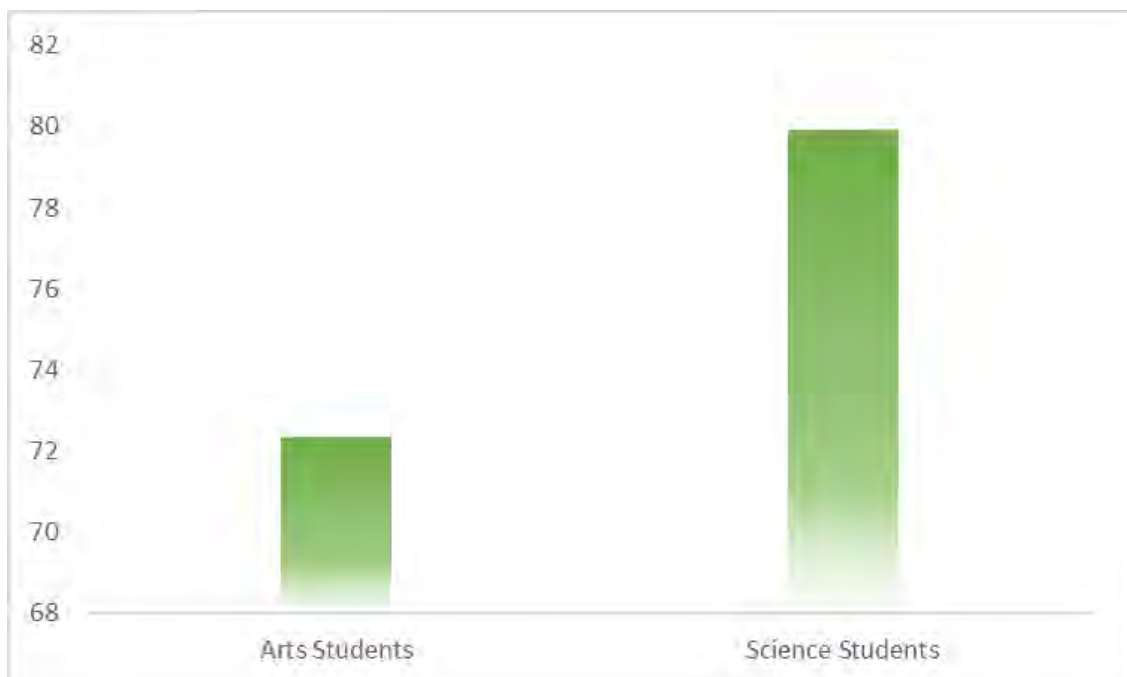
The fourth hypothesis examined the mean difference on prejudice in relation to social phobia, stated that “There will be significant mean difference on prejudice of the participants in relation to social phobia.” One way ANOVA was conducted and it failed to reveal a statistically significant difference on prejudice in relation to the social phobia of the participants with F value .027. Thus hypothesis 2 was rejected. This suggests that prejudice is not influenced by social phobia.

The present study was conducted to assess, examine and compare the mean differences among college students on prejudice in relation to their social phobia level. A total of 120 participants were drawn from the population of college students by means of quota sampling method from different colleges located in kollam. A total of 120 participants were drawn for the study which further divided into 3 different groups of 40 participants based on their social phobia level.

The scores obtained by the participant for social phobia ranged from 36 to 123 ($M = 76.15$ and $SD = 21.67$). The scores obtained by the participant for prejudice ranged from 51 to 175 ($M = 88.53$ and $SD = 25.05$).

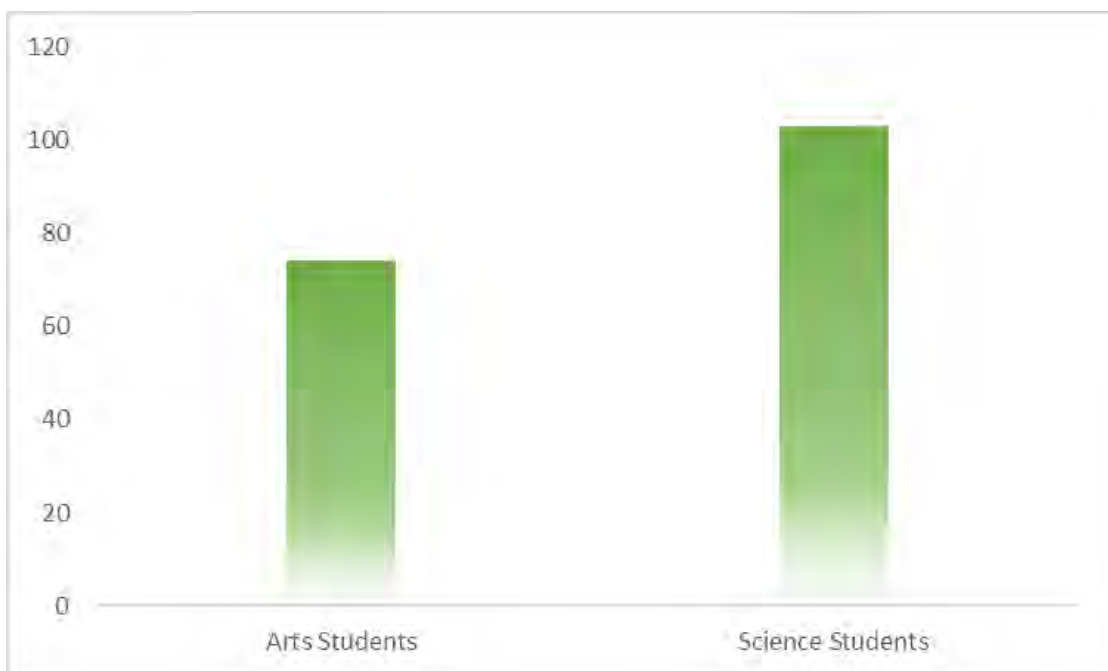
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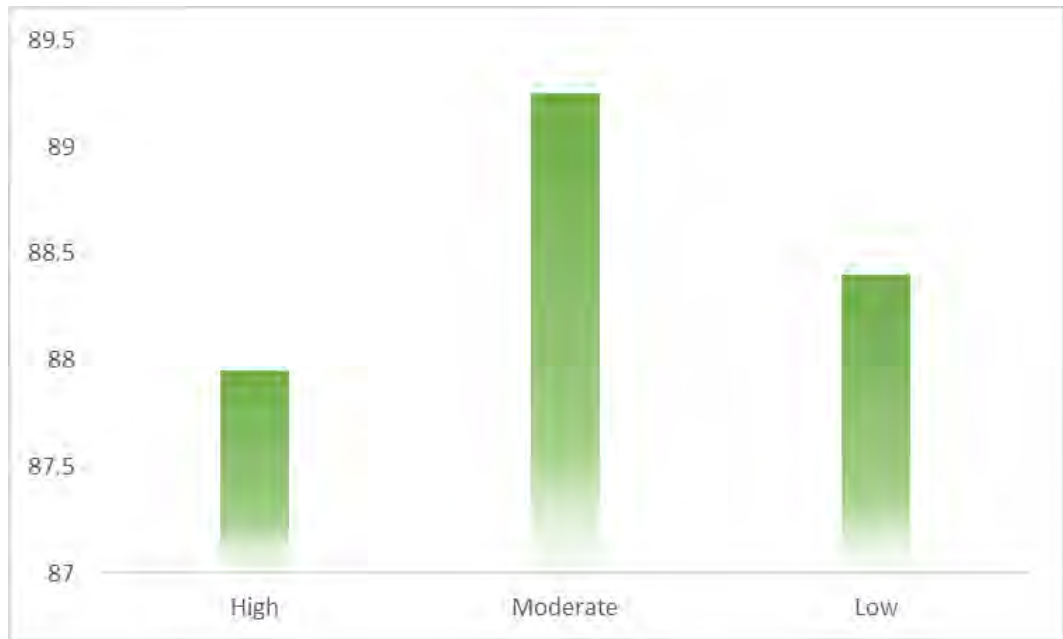


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(**Significant at 0.01 level)

The third hypothesis examined the difference between arts and science students on Prejudice, stated that “There will be significant difference between arts and science students on Prejudice”. The results given in the table indicate that there exists a significant difference between arts and science students on Prejudice. The

t value obtained was 7.74 which is found to be significant at 0.01 levels. 74.07 was the mean score obtained by arts students while 130.00 was the score that science students obtained, with corresponding deviations 10.86 and 26.86 respectively. This indicates that there is stream wise difference in Prejudice with the science students showing a substantial higher Prejudice than that of arts students. Thus hypothesis 3 was accepted. From this we can infer that there is a difference between arts and science students where science students have higher Prejudice than arts students.

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	Within Groups	74609.00	117	637.68	
	Total	74643.86	119		

The fourth hypothesis examined the mean difference on prejudice in relation to social phobia, stated that “There will be significant mean difference on prejudice of the participants in relation to social phobia.” One way ANOVA was conducted and it failed to reveal a statistically significant difference on prejudice in relation to the social phobia of the participants with F value .027. Thus hypothesis 2 was rejected. This suggests that prejudice is not influenced by social phobia.

5.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The aim of the study is to determine the prejudice of college students in relation to their social phobia. It's natural to feel self-conscious, nervous, or shy in front of others at times. Most people get through these moments when they need to. But for some, the anxiety that goes with feeling shy or self-conscious can be extreme. Extreme feelings of shyness and self-consciousness build into a powerful fear. As a result, a person feels uncomfortable participating in everyday social situations. People with social phobia can usually interact easily with family and a few close friends. But meeting new people, talking in a group, or speaking in public can cause their extreme shyness to kick in. With social phobia, a person's extreme shyness, self-consciousness, and fears of embarrassment get in the way of life. Instead of enjoying social activities, people with social phobia might dread them and avoid some of them altogether. Since people with social phobia mostly avoid the social situations and settings they have high probability to have prejudice. Social phobia is the most common anxiety disorder seen today and Prejudice is an unfair, intolerant, or unfavourable attitude toward a group of people. It is an attitude which exists even today.

Thus, the study is entitled “**Prejudice among college students in relation to social phobia**”.

5.2 VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

The variables used for the study is social phobia (independent variable) and prejudice (dependent variable).

Social phobia is a type of anxiety disorder. People who have social phobia experience extreme and persistent anxiety associated with social or performance situations. A person with social phobia experiences anxiety in situations where they are likely to be scrutinised and observed by others. They may have persistent fears about being judged, criticised, ridiculed or humiliated. Most people feel shy or nervous in certain social situations. Public speaking or entering a roomful of strangers can cause anxiety in many people. However, this kind of common apprehension doesn't indicate a social phobia. For people with social phobia, social situations provoke feelings that extend beyond simple anxiety or nervousness

Prejudice is an unfair, intolerant, or unfavourable attitude toward a group of people. Prejudicial beliefs are virtually negative stereotypes. Social scientists view prejudice as the possession of negative attitudes targeted against members of a particular religious, racial, ethnic, social, and/or political group. These attitudes give rise to negative or unfavourable evaluations of individuals seen as belonging to that group. The perception that one belongs to a certain group is the precipitating factor in prejudicial feelings—not the actual attributes or behaviours of the person being judged. Like attitudes in general, prejudice has three components: beliefs, feelings, and "behavioural tendencies."

5.3 PARTICIPANTS

In the present study, students from different colleges in Kollam district were taken by means of stratified random sampling. The sample consists of 120 students. The age of the participants ranged from 17-24. These 120 participants are divided into 3 different groups of 40 participants each based on low, moderate and high social phobia level. Again each group are further divided on the basis of sex and stream. ie 20 male arts and science stream students and 20 female arts and science stream students.

5.4 MEASURES USED FOR THE STUDY

Social phobia scale (Sisoda and Sharma 2003) and Prejudice scale (Bharadwaj & Sharma, 2006) are the instruments used in this study to identify prejudice among college students in relation to their social phobia.

Social Phobia Scale developed by Sisoda and Sharma (2003) was used in the study. The scale was developed by using Likert technique with a view to measure social phobia. Suggestions were invited from the experts from different fields such as psychology, sociology, medicine, human development and psychiatry. The final form of the scale was thus prepared comprising of 25 statements.

The reliability of the scale was determined by Test-Retest method and Internal consistency method. The Test-Retest reliability was 0.85 and internal consistency was 0.80 respectively. The scale has high content validity. The scale was validated against the external criteria and coefficient obtained was 0.75

Prejudice Scale developed by Bharadwaj and Sharma (2006) was used in the study. As the prejudices influence behaviour pattern directly or indirectly the scale has been developed to measure prejudices objectively between caste/religion/community. At the first stage of the test construction, 160 items were framed with clear notions of objectives and conceptions mainly concerned with feelings, thoughts, associations, politics, customs, mental states, tolerance, humanity, gain, values, dogmas, sports, education etc by doing a survey of different groups of people. These 160 items were given to 50 experts separately for their expert opinion on a range from most favourable to unfavourable. By screening the experts opinion only 52 items were found most favourable. With the help of these 52 items the preliminary form of scale was constructed.

The first form of the scale with all appropriate instructions was administered on a sample of 100 people for the responses against each item. After this each scale was scored separately to obtain the total scores of the test and scores for each item separately for further analysis. The statistical techniques of correlation and critical ratio for each item were applied for item analysis and at .01 level of significance were set for final selection of items. Out of these 52 items only 36 were selected finally on the basis of high correlation between each item score and total score of the test along with a high CR value for each item separately.

The coefficient of reliability has been determined using 2 methods:

1. The Test-Retest method (N=100) has been employed to determine the temporal stability of the scale. The product moment Correlation between test and retest scores have found to be .69.
2. By applying the split half method ,the reliability coefficient of the scale was found to be .94(n=100)

Thus, results obtained by both these methods ensure a very high reliability of the scale.

Validity of the scale has been also determined by 2 methods:

1. Theoretical validity of the scale, has been found to be .83 (under root of reliability coefficient)
2. Construct validity of the scale has been estimated with the prejudice scale of Jahan,Q et al,(1988) and that comes to .66.

5.5 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED

The data obtained from the respondents were analyzed using SPSS. The relationship between social phobia and prejudice was analyzed using Karl Pearson product moment correlation analysis. The difference of prejudice and social phobia based on their stream were analysed using independent samples t-test. The mean difference of prejudice in relation to social phobia was verified using one-way analysis of variance.

5.6 TEST OF TENABILITY OF THE HYPOTHESIS

1. There will be significant relationship between social phobia and prejudice among college students.

Analysis was done using Pearson product moment correlation and the results indicate that, there is no significant relationship on social phobia and prejudice exists among college students. Thus the hypothesis is rejected.

2. There will be significant difference between arts and science students on social phobia

Analysis was done using independent sample 't' test and the results indicate that there exists a significant mean difference between arts and science students on social phobia. Thus the hypothesis stands accepted.

3. There will be significant difference between arts and science students on prejudice.

Analysis was done using independent sample 't' test and the results indicate that there is a significant difference between arts and science students on Prejudice . Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted.

4. There will be significant mean difference on prejudice of the students in relation to social phobia.

Analysis was done using one-way ANOVA and the results obtained indicate that there is no significant difference exist on prejudice in relation to social phobia. Thus the hypothesis is rejected.

5.7 MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

- There is no significant relationship between social phobia and prejudice of the participants. This suggests that a change in social phobia level will not be associated by a change on their prejudice
- There exist a significant difference between arts and science students on prejudice. This suggests that there is a substantial increase in social phobia in science students than in arts students
- There exists a significant difference between arts and science students on social phobia. This suggests that there is a substantial increase in Prejudice in science students than in arts students.
- There is no significant mean difference on prejudice in relation to social phobia of the participants. This suggests that social phobia does not have any influence on prejudice of the participant.

5.8 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The present study was designed to examine the prejudice of college students in relation to social phobia. The results emerged from the study revealed that there is a substantial increase in social phobia and prejudice in science stream students than in arts stream students.

This study is an eye opener where we can clearly see a difference in the social phobia and prejudice among arts and science students. A science stream usually holds a greater draw for studious students. They are people who choose engineering, medicine, PharmD etc. They are people who are willing to knuckle down and memorize formulas. Science stream deals with facts, fictions and debates. Arts is about searching within. Arts stream students are people who choose to do accounts, literature, dance, music etc.. They have more socialization with people when compared to the science stream students. Science stream students have difficulty in socializing with people and so the level of social phobia is high for them. They are people who concentrate more on their books rather than interacting with people. While arts students more than studying facts they get the opportunity to interact and socialize with the society. Science stream students have a strong feeling of superiority. They see the other stream students as unmotivated who choose the arts stream because they do not do well to make it to science. Thus the results

of the study prove that science stream students have more social phobia and prejudice than arts stream students.

5.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- Participants faced difficulty with some terms in the tools.
- Because of increased no of questions, the researcher faced some amount of difficulty to sustain the motivation of the participants.
- The researcher was not able to control the extraneous variable like the influence of family and environmental factors and individual's coping skills etc and it might have influenced the results of the present study.
- The participants included were limited to college students

5.10 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- The study can be broadened by adding some more demographic variables such as culture, caste, family environment etc which may influence the variable under consideration.
- More variables such as personality types, stress coping skills may help to generate more relevant findings.
- The ecological validity can be increased by increasing the sample size and extending the geographical area for sample selection
- The scales can also be standardized for populations other than college students.
- It is recommended to increase the sample size
- For future study it is recommended to include participants from all walks of life.

5.11 CONCLUSION

- There is no significant relationship between social phobia and prejudice of the participants.
- There is no significant mean difference on prejudice in relation to social phobia of the participants.
- There is a significant difference between arts and science students on prejudice
- There is a significant difference between arts and science students on social phobia

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SOCIO DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Kindly provide the following information.

Name : _____ Age : _____
Sex : Male/Female Area : Urban/Rural
Religion : _____ Caste : _____
Education : PG/UG Stream : Arts/Science

PS

Dear Participant,

There are some statements in the test. Read each statement carefully and tick (✓) any option you find appropriate. You have to give your own consent to every statement after selection a particular religion/caste/ community. Thus mention the name of religion/caste/ community in the specified column given above. No answer is right or wrong. Do not spend too much time on any statement. Answer all statements. This information will be kept confidential and will be used only for research purpose.

Sl. No.	Statements	Very much	Much	Normal	Less	Least
1.	The persons of that religion/caste/community do not miss any opportunity to be benefited.					
2.	Howsoever open-minded the persons of that religion/ caste / community consider themselves but I think them very narrow-minded.					
3.	I am not in favour of giving jobs to the persons of that religion /caste/community in my business.					
4.	The odour of selfishness oozes out from the political thinking of those who are related to that religion/ caste/ community.					
5.	The traditions of that religion/caste/community are nothing than that of mine.					
6.	The persons of that religion/caste/community do not keep healthy mentality.					
7.	I do not like the way of living of the people of that religion/ caste/ community.					

Sl. No.	Statements	Very much	Much	Normal	Less	Least
8.	Regarding selflessness, it appears to me very difficult to find out even a single one out of the group of that religion / caste/community.					
9.	I cannot even tolerate this that the members of that religion/caste/community have been admired by mine.					
10.	I keep myself away from the persons of that religion / caste/community whenever the names come in my mind unknowingly.					
11.	Whatever may be the reactions of others about the members of that religion/caste/community, but I do not consider them as credible.					
12.	The persons of that religion/caste/community seem to have been devoid of honesty.					
13.	Generally, the persons of that religion/caste/community are not good.					
14.	I consider their religion/caste/community petty before mine.					
15.	As soon as the idea of benefit comes the persons of that religion/caste/community they leave aside all principles.					
16.	The persons of that religion/caste/community are not well-developed.					
17.	The persons of that religion/caste/community are infested with blind faith.					
18.	I consider the society of that religion/caste/community simply a group of valueless fellows.					
19.	The people of that religion/caste/community along with mine cannot live together.					
20.	Howsoever cheap and the best residence I get in the locality of those persons of that religion/caste/community, I cannot reside in them.					
21.	I do not find anything good in their religion /caste / community.					
22.	The persons of that religion/caste/community seem to be infested with corruption.					
23.	The persons of that religion/caste/community do not possess even a little spark of nationalism.					

Sl. No.	Statements	Very much	Much	Normal	Less	Least
24.	Howsoever honourable fellows there might be in that religion/caste/community, I do not keep faith in them.					
25.	When the people of that religion/caste/community come to attend our functions, I feel bad.					
26.	Due to their religion/caste/community, I do not like to maintain relation with them.					
27.	If they were not the members of that religion/ caste/ community they might have been quite good.					
28.	Howsoever the contribution of the people of that religion/caste/community might be, I do not accept it.					
29.	I feel bad when I saw my children playing with the children of that religion/caste/community.					
30.	I cannot educate my children in the educational institution of that religion/caste/community, despite the fact that they remained uneducated.					
31.	I do not even like to purchase things from the shops of those who belong to that religion/caste/community.					
32.	Regarding criminal tendency, first of all, the name that occurs in my mind, is, related to that religion/caste/ community.					
33.	The only persons involved in immoral activities are from that religion/caste/community.					
34.	The disputes that take place in the society are due to the active participation of the persons of that religion/caste/ community.					
35.	If it has been asked about the traitor, I would like to put the name of the persons of that religion/caste/community.					
36.	Although there are numerous short comings in my religion, I cannot tolerate the reaction of the persons of that religion/caste/community.					

Dear Participant,

There are some statements in the test. Read each statement carefully and tick (✓) any option you find appropriate. No answer is right or wrong. Do not spend too much time on any statement. Answer all statements. This information will be kept confidential and will be used only for research purpose.

Sl. No.	Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I often worry about what people think of me, even though I know it doesn't make any difference					
2	If I came to know people are forming a negative impression about me, it disturbs me					
3	I keep worrying that people are noticing short comings of me					
4	I often worry what kind of impression I make upon others					
5	I have an anxiety that others will not approve me					
6	I am afraid that other people find faults in me					
7	I bother about other people's opinion about me					
8	When I talk to someone, I worry what others think about me					
9	I am usually worried about what kind of impression I make upon others					
10	If I know that someone is judging me, it affects me					
11	Sometimes I feel that I am too concerned about what other people think about me					
12	I avoid social situations in which I might meet new people because of extreme discomfort					
13	I feel anxious when I am asked to perform or speak in front of a group of people					
14	I feel bothered to perform tasks such as eating, drinking or writing in front of other people					
15	I worry about social interaction because it interferes with my ability to maintain normal routine					

16	I regularly abuse alcohol or illicit substances such as marijuana, cocaine, or methamphetamine					
17	I feel like I am constantly being judged or “sized up” when in public					
18	I avoid social situations in which I might expected to perform					
19	I feel nervous, panic, or discomfort when I have to deal with my authority or superiors					
20	I understand that my fears are unreasonable but I feel I am to control them					
21	I fear that I do or say something wrong that will embarrass me in front of other people					
22	Fear of embarrassment or humiliation, keeps me away from doing things that I really want to do					
23	I am usually anxious to face interview					
24	I usually avoid use of public facilities					
25	I usually avoid entering in a room where others are already seated					

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. Personality type

B. Emotional intelligence

C. Self confidence

D. Significance of the study

E. Statement of the problem

F. Definition of Key Terms

G. Methodology in Brief

H. Organization of Report

Personality is a dynamic mechanism that plays a central role particularly in social interaction. In society every person has dissimilar traits for instance skin, color, height and weight. They have different types of personalities because individuals are not in a similar way. Emotional intelligence refers to the capability to recognize and deal with one's own emotions, as well as the emotions of others. Self-confidence is one's talent to judge his own social and personal position with respect to his surroundings and be able to gain satisfaction out of it. Emotional intelligence and self-confidence are changeable in relation to special personality style of an individual.

1.1 PERSONALITY

Personality can be defined as the dynamic organization of psychosocial systems within an individual that determine their characteristic behaviour and thought (Allport, 1961). Every individual in a society has this unique set of characters, traits and features, both mental and physical. It is developed through socialization and aids our actions, attitudes and relationships. The various factors

that influence the development of personality include genetic factors, early experiences, primary peer groups and family and cultural backgrounds of the individual. Personality also includes ones overt and covert behaviours, habits, interests, mentality and abilities. It further includes basic features of an individual such as their physical appearance, temperament, interests, sociability, emotionality, and consistency, physiological and psychological constructs. Based on these factors, we can determine certain characteristics of personality, such as: it is unique, specific and continuous; conceives goals and strives for them; includes everything about a person; it is the product of heredity, environment and learning; it is an integrated collection of traits; and it includes self-consciousness.

Personality of an individual is a dynamic phenomenon which keeps developing right from infancy to late adulthood. It helps us act consistently and predictably in different situations over long periods of time. An individual's ability to adjust and blend with their environment is greatly dependent on their personality. This is why the concept of personality has its importance in almost all sections of the society. It influences one's mental health and social adjustment skills. The adjustment concept of personality states that personality is moulded by one's efforts to meet daily life situations.

1.1.1 THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

Personality is the collection of various enduring and distinctive patterns of behaviour and thought that is characteristic of a particular person (Morgan, 1993). It determines one's unique adjustment patterns to their environment. Numerous theories have been put forth to explain and understand the origin, development and

relevance of personality. The groundwork for these theories began from the “Theory of Four Humors” proposed by Hippocrates and later developed by his successor Galen. In this theory, people were grouped into four temperament types based on the proportions of body humors. Later on various approaches have been proposed to explain personality. They can be broadly grouped into four: 1. Type and trait approaches; 2. Dynamic approaches; 3. Learning and behavioural approaches; Humanistic approaches.

1.1.2 TYPE AND TRAIT THEORIES

The type and trait approaches concentrate on an individual’s personal characteristics. Based on the characteristics of individuals they were categorized into groups having certain personality features.

1.1.2.1 TYPE THEORIES

Type theories classify people into ‘types’ or groups that share common collection of characteristics. William Sheldon (1940), classified individuals into various groups based on their body types in his Somatotype theory. Eysenck (1967) in his hierarchical type theory identified major personality dimensions based on which various personality types can be classified. Similarly, two cardiologists Rosenman and Friedman (1959) identified two distinct personality types: Type A and B, characterized by a set of behaviour patterns.

1.1.2.2 TRAIT THEORIES

Trait approaches predominantly include Gordon Allport's trait theory. In his theory, traits (-characteristics that cause people to behave consistently in different situations) are classified further into Cardinal traits, Central traits and Secondary traits; based on which personality can be analysed and grouped. Similarly, the trait theory proposed by Raymond Cattell (1965) suggested 16 pairs of source traits that represent the basic dimensions of personality.

1.1.3 PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORY

Another approach much older and distinct from the rest was the dynamic approach founded by Sigmund Freud in the early 1900s. This approach was greatly based on the concept that human motivation is greatly unconscious and these indirectly influence behaviour.

1.1.4 PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY

In his Psychoanalytic theory, Freud explained three levels of consciousness- unconscious, preconscious and the conscious. The theory lays great emphasis on the role of unconscious forces in determining an individual's personality. He structured the personality into 3 interlocking parts- id, ego and superego. According to this theory, id is the storehouse of unconscious drives and impulses, the superego acts as the conscience and ego is the executive force mediating between the pressures of id and superego. Freud also described five stages of psychosexual development that begin from birth and end by adolescence. Freud explains that unresolved conflicts

and early childhood experiences have a deep impact on our unconscious and thus influence the development of our personality.

1.1.5 ANALYTICAL THEORY

Freud's psychoanalytic theory was followed by an era of Neo-Freudian psychologists who, unlike Freud, placed more emphasis on the role of ego than on id or sexual desires of a person. Carl Jung, one of the most influential of them proposed the Analytical theory of personality in which he introduced the idea of collective unconscious, a set of influences we inherit from our ancestors that shape our behaviour. This collective unconscious further contains archetypes which are universal symbolic representations of a particular object, person or experience (Jung, 1961).

1.1.6 OTHER PSYCHODYNAMIC APPROACHES

Alfred Adler, another influential Neo-Freudian psychoanalyst proposed that primary human motivation is to attain superiority in terms of perfection and self-improvement. This is aided by early social relationships with parents and others around them who help them overcome the inferiority complex present during childhood. Other neo-Freudians, such as Erik Erikson, Anna Freud and Karen Horney (1937) also focused more on social and cultural factors of an individual rather than sexual and aggressive drives as determinants of an individual's personality.

1.1.7 LEARNING THEORY

Learning theories analyse personality as a sum total of learned responses to the external environment (Feldman, 2004). The earliest experiments in social learning theory was proposed by Neal Miller and John Dollard (1950) through which they suggested that most social behaviour can be explained by basic learning principles.

1.1.7.1 OPERANT CONDITIONING

According to the most influential behaviourist and learning theorist, B. F. Skinner, personality is a collection of learned behavioural patterns and similarities in these patterns are caused by similarities in patterns of reinforcement received in such past situations (Skinner, 1975).

1.1.7.2 OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING

Albert Bandura and Richard Walters (1963), focused on a new learning-theory perspective that focused on a highly efficient form of learning called the observational learning or imitation. In Bandura's Social cognitive approach, he emphasizes the influence of a person's thoughts, feelings, expectations and values in determining their personality.

1.1.8 HUMANISTIC THEORY

Humanistic approaches, unlike the rest, consider humans as innately good and self-motivated to attain higher levels of functioning. Humanistic theorist Carl Rogers suggests that with unconditional positive regard, people can develop more cognitively and emotionally realistic self-concepts (1971). Abraham Maslow,

another influential humanistic personality theorist proposed that every individual had an innate goal of ultimate personality growth, a state which he termed as self-actualization. To attain this state, the everyday experience and self-concept of an individual must closely match.

1.1.9 PERSONALITY TYPES: THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Among the Type theories of personality, the Type A/B theory proposed in 1950 (also known as the “Jacob Goldsmith theory”) divides individuals broadly into two categories classified on the basis of contrasting characters: Type A- highly ambitious and Type B- easy going. Type A behavior was first described as a potential risk for heart problems by cardiologist Meyer Friedman, Mike Jordan and Rosenman. The research was a breakthrough for psychologists in understanding how psychological factors affect physical health.

According to the theory, Type A individuals are ambitious, aggressive, business-like, controlling, impatient, preoccupied with their status, time-conscious and highly competitive. They are typical high achieving workaholics who work with strict deadlines and detest both ambiguity and delay. There are three major symptoms for Type A behavior: free-floating hostility, which can be triggered by even minor incidents; time urgency and impatience, which causes irritation and exasperation; and a competitive drive, which causes stress and an achievement-driven mentality (Friedman, 1996). They have a strong desire to control their environment and struggle to attain more in less time.

Unlike Type A, individuals with Type B personality are characterized as generally relaxed, patient, disengaged and sometimes apathetic individuals. They do not suffer from a sense of urgency and can relax without guilt. Although Type B individuals enjoy achievement and may take part in competitions like Type A, they are less likely to be stressed about it or less focused on winning it. They are also found to be less nervous and have lots of friends around to support them. It was due to these characteristics that Type B individuals turn out to be less prone to coronary disorders unlike the highly stressed Type A.

Like the other Type theories, Type A/B was also criticized for its simplicity and incapacity to strictly divide individuals into various types considering their differences. However, in order to overcome these limitations many studies have operationally defined types apart from A and B that account for individuals who have the characteristics of both types and neither. Using these broad classifications, we can easily categorize and analyze individuals based on their behavioral response patterns and overt temperaments.

1.2 SELF CONFIDENCE

Self-confidence beliefs, defined as people's judgments of their capability to perform specific tasks, are a product of a complex process of self-persuasion that relies on cognitive processing of diverse sources of confidence information (Bandura, 1990). These sources of information include performance

accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological states. Performance accomplishments are supposed to provide the most dependable confidence information because they are based on one's own mastery experiences. One's mastery experiences affect self-confidence beliefs through cognitive processing of such information. If one has repeatedly viewed these experiences as successes, self-confidence will increase; if these experiences were viewed as failures, self-confidence will decrease. Furthermore, the self-monitoring or focus on successes or failures should have differential effects on behaviour and self-confidence, depending on which is monitored (Bandura, 1986): focusing on one's successes should provide more encouragement and greater confidence than focusing on one's failures.

Self Confidence is learned; it is not inherited. If you lack confidence, it probably means that, as a child, you were criticized, undermined, or suffered an explicable tragic loss, for which you either blamed yourself or were blamed by others. A lack of confidence isn't necessarily permanent but it can be if it isn't addressed. Our religion, the influence of the culture which formed our perspectives, our gender, social class and our parents, in particular, are all factors which influence and contribute to our level of confidence. Confident people have deep faith in their future and can accurately assess their capabilities. They also have a general sense of control in their lives and believe that, within reason, they will be able to do what they desire, plan and expect, no matter what the foreseeable obstacle. But this faith is guided by more realistic expectation so that, even when some of their goals are not met, those with confidence continue to be positive, to believe in themselves and

to accept their current limitations with renewed energy. However, having high self-confidence does not mean they will be able to do everything they want. That view is unrealistic, one for the perfectionist. A desire to be good at everything we do, in order to impress others, stems from a competitive instinct and lack of personal reinforcement. Any truly successful life as both rewards and the ability to learn from any setbacks, which increase our resilience, self-belief and determination. Real confidence requires that we face the possibility of failure constantly and deal with it. However, if we consistently lose out on both achievement and validation, even our identity is called into question. Self Confidence is essentially an attitude which allows us to have a positive and realistic perception of ourselves and our abilities. It is characterized by personal attributes such as assertiveness, optimism, enthusiasm, affection, pride, independence, trust, the ability to handle criticism and emotional maturity. In the words of Basavanna (1975), "Self Confidence refers to an individual's perceived ability to act effectively in a situation to overcome obstacles and to get things go all right." Having self-confidence does not mean that individuals will be able to do everything. Self-confident people may have expectations that are not realistic. However, even when some of their expectations are not met, they continue to be positive and to accept themselves. People who are not self-confident tend to depend excessively on the approval of others in order to feel good about them. As a result, they tend to avoid taking risk because they fear failure. They generally do not expect to be successful. They often put themselves down and tend to discount or ignore complements paid to them. By contrast, Self-Confident people are willing to risk the disapproval of others because they generally trust their own

abilities. They tend to accept themselves; they don't feel they have to confirm in order to be accepted. Self Confidence is not necessarily a general characteristic which pervades all aspects of a person's life. Typically, individuals will have some areas of their lives where they feel quite confident, e.g. academics, athletics, while at the same time they do not feel at all confident in other areas, e.g. personal appearance, social relationships. Many factors affect the development of self-confidence. Parents' attitudes are crucial to children's feelings about themselves, particularly in children's early years. When parents provide acceptance, children receive a solid foundation for good feelings about themselves. If one or both parents are excessively critical or demanding, or if they are overprotective and discourage moves toward independence, children may come to believe they are incapable, inadequate or inferior. However, if parents encourage children's move toward self-reliance and accept and love their children when they make mistakes, children will learn to accept themselves and will be on their way to developing self-confidence. Surprisingly, lack of self-confidence is not necessarily related to lack of ability. Instead it is often the result of focusing too much on the unrealistic expectations or standards of others, especially parents and society. Friends' influences can be as powerful as of parents and society in shaping feelings about one's self. Students in their teens re-examine values and develop their own identities and thus are particularly vulnerable to the influence of their peer group.

1.2.1 "SELF-CONFIDENCE" AND RELATED CONCEPTS

Terms such as "self-confidence," "self-efficacy," "perceived ability," and "perceived competence" have been used to describe a person's perceived capability

to accomplish a certain level of performance. Bandura (1977) uses the term "self-efficacy" to describe the belief one has in being able to execute a specific task successfully (e.g., solving a math problem) in order to obtain a certain outcome (e.g., self-satisfaction or teacher recognition) and, thus, can be considered as situational specific self-confidence. Self-efficacy is not concerned with an individual's skills, but, rather, with the judgments of what an individual can accomplish with those skills (Bandura, 1986). Bandura (1986, 1990) distinguishes between "self-efficacy" and "self-confidence": self-confidence refers to firmness or strength of belief but does not specify its direction; self-efficacy implies that a goal has been set. We do not adopt Bandura's distinction, but use the term "self-confidence" because it is more familiar to most individuals. "Self-confidence," as the term is used here, is the belief that one can successfully execute a specific activity, rather than a global trait that accounts for overall performance optimism. For example, one may have a lot of self-confidence in one's ability at golf but very little self-confidence in one's tennis skills. "Perceived competence" and "perceived ability" are terms that have been used in the research literature on achievement and mastery motivation. They indicate the perception that one has the ability to master a task resulting from cumulative interactions with the environment (Harter, 1981; Nicholls, 1984).

1.3 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional Intelligence (EI) is currently a flourishing area in positive psychology and research has shown it is associated with academic achievement (Banchard in press, Bracket, Mayer & Warner, in press, Lam & Kirby, 2002), a

decreased likelihood of aggressive behaviour (Bracket & Mayer, 2003) and positively relating to others (Cote, Lopes, Salovey & Bears, 2003).

EI has potential use in education, human resource management including teamwork and building positive relationships with others, and in politics including the effect of emotion on decision making and behaviour and family dynamics. Thus, EI is an important subject to examine with many useful applications.

1.3.1 HISTORY OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The study of EI developed through the area of cognition and affect, looking at how emotion affected thought. Initially it was believed that emotion had a detrimental effect; however, in time it was considered that emotion could also be adaptive to thought (Mayer, 2000) and that they could complement each other (Mayer, Salovey, 1990, Mayer, Dipaolo& Salovey, 1990; 1990 as cited in Mayer, 2000) Mayer and Salovey (1990) developed their first theory of EI, which subsequently became popularized by Goleman (1996). Goleman proposed that EI was integral for life success. Since then, several theories have emerged with conflicting views, and subsequently, different measures (Matthews et al., 2004).

1.3.2 MAYER AND SALOVEY'S (1997) MODEL OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Mayer and Salovey (1997) proposed that EI was a cognitive ability which is separate but also associated to, general intelligence. This model consists of four different abilities (or branches) including; perception of emotion, emotional facilitation, understanding emotions, and management of emotions (Mayer &

Salovey, 1997). These branches are ordered from basic to higher-order abilities which develop as an individual matures (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Emotion perception is the ability to perceive emotions in yourself and others. It also includes perceiving non – verbal signals, and emotion in stimuli such as landscapes and art (Mayer & Salovey, 2003). Emotional facilitation is the ability of emotions to help thinking in three ways; by signalling important environmental changes, changing mood helping individuals to see a situation in several different ways. Thirdly facilitation assists different types of reasoning (Mayer & Salovey, 2003). Understanding emotions involves knowledge of emotions; emotional vocabulary; and how they blend to create other emotions which change overtime. Managing emotions involves the ability to manage your own emotions and those of people around you (Mayer & Salovey, 2003).

1.3.3 BAR-ON'S (2006) MODEL OF EMOTIONAL SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE (ESI)

Conversely, this mixed model of EI consists of certain emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators, divided into five different areas which interact with each other: intrapersonal (including emotional awareness, assertiveness, independence, self-regard and self-actualisation); interpersonal (including empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationships); stress management (including stress tolerance and impulse control); and lastly general mood (including happiness and optimism)

1.3.4 THE MAYER SALOVEY EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TEST (MSCEIT)

The MSCEIT is an ability measure of EI based on Mayer and Salovey's (1997) model consisting of 141 items. It measures the four branches giving a total EI score, two area scores (experimental; including perception and facilitation, and strategic; understanding and managing emotions) and separate task scores (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sitarenos, 2003).

Each branch is measured through two tasks. Emotion perception is measured with the use of a faces and a picture task. Whereas using emotions is measured through a sensations task and facilitation task. Understanding emotions is measured through an emotion changes task and a blend task, and managing emotions is measured through emotional management tasks for individuals and others; (Linely & Joseph, 2004).

Research has found that the MSCEIT has good reliability over time (Brackett & Mayer, 2003) and good internal consistency for overall scores on the measure and branch scores (Mayer et al., 2003). However, the internal consistency of task scores is varied (Mayer et al., 2003). An advantage of this the MSCEIT is that it has been found to be separate from other psychological constructs such as personality (Brackett & Mayer, 2003, Warwick & Nettlebeck, 2004) and psychological well-being (Brackett & Mayer, 2003) which is advantageous.

Although it does have disadvantages such as no young person's format and it doesn't seem to measure all the elements of Mayer and Salovey's (1997) ability model. McEnrue and Groves (2005) explained that although perception of emotions and understanding emotions are measured, recognising your emotions, and interpreting honest and dishonest expression are not. Additionally, it does not measure skills of emotional regulation (Lopes et al., 2003) which are important for practice (Matthews et al., 2004). This needs consideration in both research and applied settings.

1.3.5 THE EMOTIONAL QUOTIENT INVENTORY (EQ-i)

Another self-report measure of EI is the EQ-i (Baron, 2006). This consists of 133 items with fifteen different subscales, one for each of the competencies and abilities mentioned earlier. It gives a total ESI score and fifteen separate subscale scores. These are converted into standard scores similar to those of IQ (Bar-On, 2006).

Additionally, the scores are normed against over four thousand individuals (Bar-On, 2006). It is available in short format, and is suitable for people aged seventeen years and older. It also has a measure for children and adolescents (Bar-On, 2006). To compensate for social desirability bias, the EQ-i adjusts scores to give a more realistic result (Bar-On, 2006).

However, the EQ -i also has some disadvantages. Firstly, it's high correlations with traits of personality subsequently decreases its validity as a separate measure of emotional intelligence.

An additional area of concern for the EQ-i is its vulnerability 'faking' (Day & Carroll, 2007). They found that during a job application simulation, individuals were able to enhance scores, and individuals who faked their scores were more likely to be selected for a job. Additionally, they found that the social desirability scale seemed ineffective. This shows the serious implications of using this measure in applied settings such as job selection (Day & Carroll, 2000).

Additionally, both types of measures need more rigorous research before they can be evaluated as psychometrically sound. Nonetheless the development of the validity and reliability of these measures is sure to grow and help to develop the thriving area of emotional intelligence.

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Emotional intelligence is the capacity to understand and manage your emotions. A high EQ helps individual to communicate better, reduce their anxiety and stress, defuse conflicts, improve relationships, emphasise with others, and effectively overcome life's challenges. A high Emotional intelligence can help students to develop improved self-motivation and more effective communication skills-essential skills to helping students become more confident learner.

Self-confidence helps to take on the world with more energy and determination, resulting in better relationships, quality work and a feeling of being connected with your surroundings. Self-confident people usually can influence others more easily, as well as control their own emotions and behaviours more responsibly. Confidence level in students is a vital for his or her success. The amount of self-confidence a child possesses will affect his or her educational goal.

The present study intended to find out if there is any relation in emotional intelligence and self confidence in relation to personality type. This study will be helpful for managers and teachers to understand personality types of their team members or students, help them to know what motivates an individual and to understand which personality type persons are handling emotions properly. For the parents and teachers, this study can be helpful to develop self-confidence and emotional intelligence in children based on their personality type.

1.5 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem for the present study is entitled as “***EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND SELF CONFIDENCE AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS IN RELATION TO THEIR PERSONALITY TYPES***”.

1.6 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

1.6.1 Personality

Personality can be defined as the dynamic organization of psychosocial systems within an individual that determine their characteristic behavior and thought (Allport, 1961). Every individual in a society has this unique set of characters, traits and features, both mental and physical. It is developed through socialization and aids our actions, attitudes and relationships.

1.6.2 Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence is the measure of an individual's abilities to recognize and manage their emotions, and the emotions of other people, both individually and in groups. People with higher intelligence find it easier to form and maintain interpersonal relationships and to fit to group situations and they are also better at understanding their own psychological states.

1.6.2 Self confidence

Self-confidence beliefs, defined as people's judgments of their capability to perform specific tasks, are a product of a complex process of self-persuasion that relies on cognitive processing of diverse sources of confidence information (Bandura, 1990). These sources of information include performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological states. Performance accomplishments are supposed to provide the most dependable confidence information because they are based on one's own mastery experiences.

1.7. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To find out whether there exists any significance difference in emotional intelligence on personality type (type A, type B and mixed type)
2. To find out whether there exists any significant difference in self-confidence on personality type (type A, type B and mixed type)

1.8 HYPOTHESES

Three hypotheses are formulated to study the relation between emotional intelligence and self-confidence with respect to personality types.

1. There will be any significant difference on emotional intelligence in relation to the personality type (type A, type B and mixed type) among college students.
2. There will be any significant difference on emotional self confidence in relation to the personality type (type A, type B and mixed type) among college students.

1.9 ORGANIZATION OF THE REPORT

The report of the investigation has been presented in five chapters. Chapter I presents the introduction, statement, operational definitions of variables and significance of the study Chapter II gives the related theoretical background and the studies related to personality type emotional intelligence and self-confidence. This chapter also include objectives and hypothesis of the study. Methodology is presented in Chapter III. Chapter IV gives the results and discussion. And Chapter V contains the summary and conclusion.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

- A. Empirical studies on personality**
- B. Empirical studies on emotional intelligence**
- C. Empirical studies on self confidence**
- D. Summary and conclusion**

2.1 EMPIRICAL STUDIES ON PERSONALITY

Personality, being a collective system of an individual's behaviour, thoughts and feelings, holds great influence in various aspects of their daily life. A study by de Gruijter, on "The influence of personality on career success: An empirical study" studied over 1940 Dutch workers the relation between the "Big Five" personality traits (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism) and career success. Results reveal that conscientious, extraverted, calm and disagreeable workers report to have higher incomes. Furthermore, it is shown that conscientious, extraverted and calm workers report to have higher job satisfaction. It is found that demography-related, human capital related and profession related variables are associated with income and job satisfaction. Additionally, women are found to have higher incomes than men for equal levels of the traits openness to experience and neuroticism.

Orpen (1982) investigated a study on "Type A Personality as a Moderator of the Effects of Role Conflict, Role Ambiguity and Role Overload on Individual Strain". The relations between three types of role stress (role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload) and three measures of individual strain were examined in a sample of 91 middle managers. Separate measures of psychological strain (anxiety, resentment, depression), physical strain (headaches, dizziness, shortage of breath, nausea, fatigue) were developed. In addition, the heart rate, blood pressure, and respiration rate of each subject was assessed. The relations between role conflict and physical strain and between role conflict and psychological strain were significantly positive and higher among Type A personalities than among Type B personalities.

The relations between role stress and heart rate, blood pressure, and respiration rate were negligible and were not moderated by personality (Type A or Type B). The results highlight the important role of personality factors in determining how people react to different kinds of stress,

Another study by Smith and Anderson (1986) on “Models of personality and disease: An interactional approach to Type A behavior and cardiovascular risk”. Describes and critiques models currently guiding research regarding the link between Type A (coronary prone) behavior and coronary heart disease and offers an alternative model. The model offered places this link in an interactional context. Specifically, it is hypothesized that via cognitive and overt behaviors, Type A individuals construct a subjective and objective environment rich in those classes of stimuli known to elicit enhanced physiological reactivity. This approach differs from previous ones by emphasizing that the Type A pattern represents an ongoing process of challenge and demand engendering behavior. That is, Type A persons do not simply respond to challenges and demands; they seek and create them through their cognitions and actions. This constructed environment also elicits and maintains further Type A behavior.

Baron(1989) conducted a study on “Personality and organizational conflict: Effects of the type a behavior pattern and self-monitoring” Managerial and technical employees of a large food-processing company provided information on the frequency with which they experienced conflict with others (subordinates, peers, supervisors), and on their preferred modes of handling conflict when it occurred. In addition, they completed questionnaires designed to assess their relative standing on

two personality dimensions: the Type A behavior pattern and self-monitoring. It was predicted that Type As and low self-monitors would report a higher frequency of conflict with others and weaker preferences for cooperative modes of conflict resolution than Type Bs and high self-monitors. It was also predicted that such differences would be larger in the context of relations with subordinates than in the context of relations with supervisors. Results offered partial support for all of these predictions. In addition, females reported a lower frequency of conflict than males and expressed stronger preferences for collaboration and avoidance. Results were interpreted as suggesting the importance of including individual characteristics or predispositions in comprehensive models of organizational conflict.

Stumpf and Dunbar (1991) conducted a study on “The Effects of Personality Type on Choices Made in Strategic Decision Situations”. Extending the work of Haley and Stumpf, it is proposed that individuals with different personality-type preferences exhibit cognitive styles that are associated with specific biases in the pattern of choices they make. Through participation in an interactive behavioral simulation, 407 participants confronted over one hundred ill-structured decision situations and proposed whatever actions they perceived appropriate. The results support the hypothesized relationships that individuals with different personality-type preferences (i.e., sensing-thinking, intuition-thinking, sensing-feeling, and intuition-feeling) take patterns of actions that reflect specific biases (i.e., selective perception, positivity, social desirability, and reasoning-by-analogy, respectively).

Roberts and DelVecchio (2000) investigated a study on “The rank-order consistency of personality traits from childhood to old age: A quantitative review of

longitudinal studies”. This study used meta-analytic techniques to test whether trait consistency maximizes and stabilizes at a specific period in the life course. From 152 longitudinal studies, 3,217 test–retest correlation coefficients were compiled. Meta-analytic estimates of mean population test–retest correlation coefficients showed that trait consistency increased from .31 in childhood to .54 during the college years, to .64 at age 30, and then reached a plateau around .74 between ages 50 and 70 when time interval was held constant at 6.7 years. Analysis of moderators of consistency showed that the longitudinal time interval had a negative relation to trait consistency and that temperament dimensions were less consistent than adult personality traits.

Savickas, Briddick and Watkins (2002) conducted a study on “The Relation of Career Maturity to Personality Type and Social Adjustment”. The present study investigated whether Super’s model of career maturity could be linked to Gough’s three-dimensional model of personality organization. To explore relations between the two structural models, 200 college students responded to Gough’s California Psychological Inventory and Super’s Career Development Inventory. Results showed that planful competence in career development related to greater realization of one’s potential and a higher degree of social adjustment. Furthermore, the results indicated that more mature attitudes toward career planning and exploration related to an adjustment style characterized by extroversion in interpersonal relationships and by a positive orientation to social norms.

Another study by Isaksen, Lauer and Wilson (2003) on “An Examination of the Relationship Between Personality Type and Cognitive Style”. This study

investigated the relationship between psychological type, as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), and cognitive style as measured by the Kirton Adaption-Innovation Inventory (KAI). The results of correlations between the measures showed a statistically significant relationship between the MBTI and KAI. Stronger relationships were found between the MBTI function scales of Sensing-Intuitive and Judging-Perceiving, which respectfully accounted for 30 and 19 percent of the variance with the KAI total score. The relationship was further explored through an analysis of previous studies and a conceptual understanding of the core constructs.

Another study by Rogers and Glendon (2003) on “Blood type and personality” This study investigated possible relationships between blood types and personality within a normal population. Evidence from published studies claiming associations between blood type and personality is scanty, conflicting, and characterised by unequal cell sizes. This study predicted that compared to those with other blood types, blood Type B individuals would be higher on neuroticism, blood Type O individuals would be higher on extraversion and optimism, blood Type A individuals would be higher on agreeableness and blood Type AB individuals would be higher on conscientiousness. A main effect for gender on neuroticism and an interaction effect for gender and blood Type B on neuroticism were also predicted. Participants comprised a quota sample of blood donors—180 males and 180 females. Thirty males and 30 females from each of the four blood types were included in the final analysis. A version of the big-five factor personality inventory developed by Goldberg, and the Life Orientation Test Revised were administered.

MANOVA results showed that the combined dependent variables were not significantly affected by blood type, nor by gender, nor were there any interaction effects. No relationship between blood type and personality is supported by this study.

Another study by Van Aken and SemonDubas (2004) on “Personality type, social relationships, and problem behaviour in adolescence”. Using data from a short-term longitudinal study of 569 adolescents, they investigated the transactions between type membership and perceived family and peer support and coercion in predicting problem behaviour, and the concomitants of stability and change in type membership. Resilients report the most perceived support from family members and from friends and the lowest parental coercion. Overcontrollers and undercontrollers report similarly low levels of support and undercontrollers report the highest amount of parental coercion. The types also differ in their psychosocial functioning, with overcontrollers and undercontrollers showing more internalizing and social problems and undercontrollers additionally showing more externalizing problems. Interactions between type and support in predicting the level of problem behaviour were found; support seemed more relevant for overcontrollers, and coercion more for resilients and undercontrollers. Type membership was moderately stable over a period of three years, a stability that in several instances seems to be related to perceived relational support and to problem behaviour.

Friborg, Barlaug, Martinussen, Rosenvinge and Hjemdal (2005), conducted a study on “Resilience in relation to personality and intelligence” Resilience is a construct of increasing interest, but validated scales measuring resilience factors

among adults are scarce. Here, a scale named the Resilience Scale for Adults (RSA) was cross validated and compared with measures of personality (Big Five/5PFs), cognitive abilities (Raven's Advanced Matrices, Vocabulary, Number series), and social intelligence (TSIS). All measures were given to 482 applicants for the military college. Confirmatory factor analyses confirmed the fit of the five-factor model, measuring 'personal strength', 'social competence', 'structured style', 'family cohesion' and 'social resources'. Using Big Five to discriminate between well-adjusted and more vulnerable personality profiles, all resilience factors were positively correlated with the well-adjusted personality profile. RSA-personal strength was most associated with 5PFs-emotional stability, RSA-social competence with 5PFs-extroversion and 5PFs-agreeableness, as well as TSIS-social skills, RSA-structured style with 5PFs-conscientiousness. Unexpectedly but interestingly, measures of RSA-family cohesion and RSA-social resources were also related to personality. Furthermore, the RSA was unrelated to cognitive abilities.

Bagley and Gonsman (2005) conducted a study on "Pet attachment and personality type" This study examined the relationship between personality type and pet attachment by administering the Keirsey Four Types Sorter and the Lexington Attachment to Pets Scale to 163 participants. Idealist personality types had significantly higher attachment scores than Rationals and Artisans, but not Guardians. Rationals, Artisans, and Guardians did not differ from each other on attachment scores. In addition, stronger attachments to target pets were observed as the length of time the respondents cared for the target pets or other pets increased

and as the number of current pets increased. Pet attachment was not significantly related to gender, marital status, or pet preference (dog versus cat), while it was nonlinearly related to age.

Another study by Fallan (2006) on the topic “Quality Reform: Personality type, preferred learning style and majors in a business school”. The quality reform of higher education in Norway has generally recommended a substitution of classroom teaching with more active forms of learning in higher education. This study reveals that ignoring the student’s personality type may be in conflict with the purpose of the reform. The student’s personality type affects both the most effective mode of learning and even the student’s selection of major areas of study. The most dominant personality type among business students is the sensing and judging (SJ) student. Because SJ students select a majority of majors where facts, procedures and sequential learning are the usual mode of learning, implementation of the recommended substitution of classroom teaching with more active forms of learning may lead to lower academic achievement and a need for more resources. The conclusion from this study is that personality type counts both when it comes to a preferred mode of learning and selection of a major in a business school.

A study by Muller, Basson, Martins and Nico(2006), on “The relationship between personality preferences, self-esteem and emotional competence” This study was conducted to analyse the responses of a sample of 107 South African leaders in the manufacturing industry to measures of the three constructs. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), the Culture-free Self-esteem Inventories for Adults (CFSEI-AD), and the 360° Emotional Competency Profiler (ECP) were

administered. Positive relationships were found between the three constructs. The self-esteem construct appeared to be a more reliable predictor of emotional competence than the MBTI personality preferences. The findings of the study make an important contribution to the expanding body of knowledge concerned with the evaluation of personality variables that influence the effectiveness of leaders.

Robert (2006) investigated a study on “Matching Student Personality Types and Learning Preferences to Teaching Methodologies”. The objectives of the study were to 1) identify the most common personality types among first- and second-year undergraduate dental students at the University of Texas Dental Branch at Houston using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI®); 2) identify the learning preferences of these personality types; and 3) determine a more effective approach to teaching clinical dentistry based upon student personality types and learning preferences. Four common personality types were identified among respondents: ISTJ, ESFJ, ESTJ, and ISFJ, with a predisposition for Sensing (S) (desire for facts, use of senses) over Intuition (N) (look for possibilities, relationships) and Judging (J) (prefers decisiveness, closure) over Perceiving (P) (desire flexibility, spontaneity). The most common occurring personality type, ISTJ, represents an Introverted, Sensing, Thinking, Judging individual. Specific clinical curricular techniques that would appeal to these common personality types are identified, and an explanation of their benefit is provided. Results of this study demonstrate the importance of faculty understanding and acknowledging different student personality types and related learning preferences as a way to initiate improvement

of undergraduate dental education, promote student motivation, and allow for an expression of learning style preference.

Lim, Shiba, Clark, Kim, Styles, Brandt and Barthelow (2007) investigated a study on “Personality Type of the Glaucoma Patient”. In this study, one hundred eight subjects including 56 open-angle glaucoma (OAG) and 52 controls were given the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory-2 (MMPI-2) test and all performed automated perimetry. Clinical and demographic information which could relate to personality type was collected. The study concluded that, Patients with a diagnosis of OAG had more abnormal MMPI-2 scores in areas that focus upon concerns of somatic complaints and poor health. The use of systemic medications, which may be a constant reminder of illness, is a factor that may contribute to higher MMPI-2 scores.

Barkhi and Wallace (2007) conducted a study on “The impact of personality type on purchasing decisions in virtual stores”. This study despite the proliferation of virtual stores, research into the consumer personality characteristics that influence consumer interactions with virtual stores has been lagging. In this paper we propose and test a model linking consumer personality type with a decision to purchase from a virtual store. The results indicate that a consumer’s personality type has an effect on perceived ease of use and peer influence; and those two variables, together with perceived usefulness, have an effect on a consumer’s eventual decision to purchase from a virtual store. The practical implications of the findings are that consumer perceptions and attitudes towards virtual stores can be altered by

personalizing virtual stores in a manner which will increase their likelihood of making a purchase

Another study by Chi-Shun Liao and Cheng-Wen Lee (2009) titled “An Empirical study of employee job involvement and personality traits: The case of Taiwan” studied over 272 Taiwanese plastics industry employees, the relationship between the Big Five personality traits and job involvement. Empirical findings show that neuroticism relates negatively to employee job involvement, whereas extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness relate positively to it.

Alarcon, Kevin and Bowling (2009), in their study “relationships between personality variables and burnout: A meta-analysis” examined the relationship between personality and three dimensions of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI): emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. Consistent with our hypotheses, self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, emotional stability, extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, positive affectivity, negative affectivity, optimism, proactive personality, and hardiness, each yielded significant relationship with burnout. Type A Personality, however, was only related to personal accomplishment. Furthermore, regression analysis found that core self-evaluations, the Five-Factor Model personality characteristics, and positive and negative affectivity explained significant variance in each of the burnout dimensions. Finally, moderator analyses found several instances in which the strength of personality–burnout relationships depended upon whether burnout was assessed with the Human Services Survey of the MBI or the General Survey version of the MBI. It was concluded that employee personality is consistently related to

burnout. Given the practical importance of employee burnout, it is recommended that personality variables be included as predictors in future research on burnout.

Clark and Schroth (2010), in their study “Examining relationships between academic motivation and personality among college students” studied over 400 college students to understand the relationship between personality and academic motivation. Results indicated that students who were more intrinsically motivated to attend college were more extroverted, agreeable, open to experiences and conscientious (also dependent on the type of intrinsic motivation). It was also found that the ones extrinsically motivated were extroverted, agreeable, conscientious and neurotic while the ones less motivated were disagreeable and careless. The overall results suggested that students with different personalities had different reasons for pursuing college and different academic priorities.

Another study conducted by Sadeghi, Mohd Kasim, Hoon Tan and Sathi Abdullah (2012), on the topic “Learning Styles, Personality Types and Reading Comprehension Performance”. This study aims at reviewing the relationship between learning styles, personality and reading comprehension performance. The reviewed studies substantiate that there is a relationship between personality types and/or traits of the learners, the way they establish their learning styles and their academic success in school and university both at an undergraduate and postgraduate level. Therefore, learners depending on the type of their personality resort to different learning styles or preferences which--in turn--affect their learning performance. However, there are no studies--either theoretical or empirical--examining exclusively the role of personality and learning styles on reading

comprehension performance. Moreover, the findings with regard to the bulk of research on the relationship between personality and success in reading comprehension--are not that congruent. Accordingly--due to the scarcity of the research on showing the relationship between personality, learning styles and achievement in reading comprehension, and also incongruity of the research results on personality and reading comprehension performance.

A study by Salih Yesil and Fikret Sozbilir (2013) on “An empirical investigation into the impact of personality on individual innovation behaviour in the workplace” studied the effect of personality characteristics on individual innovation behaviour, the data were collected from hotel employees located in Kahramanmaraş in Turkey. The results revealed that openness to experience but no other personality dimensions is positively related to individual innovation behaviour. The findings from this research provide the evidence regarding the link between personality and individual innovation behaviour in the workplace.

Helena Bjurberg (2014), conducted a study on “Academic achievement and personality traits: An empirical and neurobiological investigation” studied over 90 students in a medium sized Swedish senior high school how personality traits are connected to academic achievement. The results indicate positive correlations between academic achievement and the personality trait conscientiousness and its conceptually underlying facets order and self-discipline. It also indicates a positive correlation between academic achievement and the character strengths of persistence, love of learning, perspective and open mindedness and a negative correlation with spirituality and teamwork

2.2 EMPIRICAL STUDIES ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence is found to influence many aspects of life like physical health, psychological wellbeing, social relationships and professional success.

Parker, Taylor and Bagby (2001) investigated a study on “The relationship between emotional intelligence and alexithymia” In this study, the empirical association between the apparently similar constructs of emotional intelligence and alexithymia was examined using latent variable analysis in a large community sample of adults (N=734). The Twenty-Item Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20) and the BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) were used to assess alexithymia and emotional intelligence. Results revealed that although the constructs are independent, they overlap considerably and are strongly and inversely related.

Reiff, Hatzes, Bramel, and Gibbon (2001) conducted a study on “The Relation of LD and Gender with Emotional Intelligence in College Students”. This study examined the relation of learning disabilities (LD) and gender with emotional intelligence in 128 college students. Fifty-four students with LD (32 men and 22 women) and 74 without LD (34 men and 40 women) attending two colleges and one university participated in the study. Emotional intelligence was assessed using the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i; BarOn, 1997), a self-report instrument designed to measure interpersonal and intrapersonal skills, stress management,

adaptability, and general mood. A 2-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to examine the main effects of LD and gender and the interaction of the two main effects on the five composites of the EQ-i. Students with LD had fewer credits and lower scholastic aptitude test (SAT) scores, high school grade point averages (GPAs), and college GPAs than students without LD; women students were older and had higher college GPAs than men students. Results of the MANOVA indicated significant main effects of both LD and gender; no significant interaction occurred. Post hoc univariate analyses of the five composites revealed significant differences between students with LD and students without LD on stress management and adaptability, significant differences between men and women students on interpersonal skills, and significant differences of the interaction of LD and gender on interpersonal skills.

Another study by Tischler and Biberman (2002), on “Linking emotional intelligence, spirituality and workplace performance: Definitions, models and ideas for research”.Recent researchers have begun to argue for the importance of exploring their relationship to workplace performance. Recent research, for example, has shown a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and workplace success. Similarly, it appears that spirituality is related to workplace performance or effectiveness. This paper explores the impacts of emotional intelligence and spirituality on workplace effectiveness, presents several theoretical models examining possible linkages among these variables, and, finally, presents several ideas for future research deriving from the models

Trinidad and Johnson (2002) conducted a study on “The association between emotional intelligence and early adolescent tobacco and alcohol use”. This study was conducted to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and adolescent tobacco and alcohol use (TAU). Subjects were 205 multi-ethnic adolescents (52% male) from middle schools in southern California (mean age=12.63 years), 153 from a public school and 52 from a parochial school. An abbreviated version of the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale, Student Version. Multifactor emotional intelligence scale, student version. Durham, NH] was used to assess the EI of the students. EI was negatively correlated with a general, overall measure of tobacco and alcohol use, and with individual tobacco and alcohol scales and items. It is plausible that the adolescents with high EI may possess a greater mental ability to read others well and detect unwanted peer pressure. These abilities may have led to an increased resistance to TAU, thus explaining the negative correlations found in this study.

Another study by Schutte, Malouff, Simunek, McKenley and Hollander (2002), examined the “Characteristic emotional intelligence and emotional well-being” Two studies investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and mood, and between emotional intelligence and self-esteem. The results of these studies indicated that higher emotional intelligence was associated with characteristically positive mood and higher self-esteem. The results of a third study indicated that higher emotional intelligence was associated with a higher positive mood state and greater state self-esteem. The third study also investigated the role of emotional intelligence in mood and self-esteem regulation and found that

individuals with higher emotional intelligence showed less of a decrease in positive mood and self-esteem after a negative state induction using the Velten method, and showed more of an increase in positive mood, but not in self-esteem, after a positive state induction. The findings were discussed in the light of previous work on emotional intelligence, and recommendations were made for further study.

Afzalur Rahim and Minors (2003) conducted a study on “Effects of emotional intelligence on concern for quality and problem solving”. This study tested the relationships of the three dimensions of emotional intelligence (EQ) (self-awareness, self-regulation, and empathy) to managers’ concern for the quality of products and services and problem-solving behavior of subordinates during conflict. The results of hierarchical regression analysis show that self-awareness and self-regulation are positively associated with problem solving, and self-regulation was positively associated with concern for quality. There was a marginally significant main effect of empathy on quality and interaction effect of self-regulation and empathy on concern for quality. The implication of the study is that supervisors, who are deficient in EQ, may be provided appropriate training in it that will improve their concern for quality and problem solving.

Another study by Petrides and Furnham (2003), on “Trait emotional intelligence: behavioural validation in two studies of emotion recognition and reactivity to mood induction”. This paper conducted two experiments concerning trait emotional intelligence (‘trait EI’). In study 1, ten high and ten low trait EI individuals were selected from a sample of 85 persons to participate in a computerized experiment involving the recognition of morphed emotional

expressions. As hypothesized, high trait EI participants were faster at identifying the expressions than their low trait EI counterparts. In study 2, trait EI scores from 102 persons were residualized on the Big Five and subsequently 15 high and 15 low trait EI individuals were selected to participate in a mood induction experiment. As hypothesized, high trait EI participants exhibited greater sensitivity to the mood induction procedure than their low trait EI counterparts. The findings are discussed in terms of the construct validity of trait EI, with particular emphasis on the issue of incremental validity vis-à-vis broad personality traits.

Lopes, Brackett and Nezle(2004) investigated a study on “Emotional Intelligence and Social Interaction”.Two studies found positive relationships between the ability to manage emotions and the quality of social interactions, supporting the predictive and incremental validity of an ability measure of emotional intelligence, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). In a sample of 118 American college students (Study 1), higher scores on the managing emotions subscale of the MSCEIT were positively related to the quality of interactions with friends, evaluated separately by participants and two friends. In a diary study of social interaction with 103 German college students (Study 2), managing emotions scores were positively related to the perceived quality of interactions with opposite sex individuals. Scores on this subscale were also positively related to perceived success in impression management in social interactions with individuals of the opposite sex. In both studies, the main findings remained statistically significant after controlling for Big Five personality traits.

Another study by Woitaszewski and Aalsma (2004) on the topic “The contribution of emotional intelligence to the social and academic success of gifted adolescents as measured by the multifactor emotional intelligence scale - adolescent version”. The purpose of this study was to measure emotional intelligence, as conceptualized by J. D. Mayer and P. Salovey (1997), in order to better understand its contribution to the success of gifted adolescents. An adolescent version of the unpublished Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS-A) was used to measure emotional intelligence, while measures of interpersonal relations, social stress, and grade point average were utilized to gauge success. Thirty-nine gifted adolescents (mean age = 16.5) participated. The results of hierarchical multiple regression analyses revealed that emotional intelligence did not significantly contribute to the social and academic success of these adolescents. Recommendations for future research in this area are provided, including suggestions for designing studies that could be more practical for educators and other helping professionals.

Petrides, Frederickson and Furnham (2004), conducted a study on “Trait emotional intelligence and happiness” Participants completed measures of trait emotional intelligence (trait EI), happiness, personality, and cognitive ability. Neuroticism was negatively related to happiness, whereas Extraversion and Openness to Experience were positively related to it. Cognitive ability was not related either to happiness or to trait EI. A three-step hierarchical regression showed that trait EI explained over 50% of the total variance in happiness. The positive relationship between trait EI and happiness persisted in the presence of the Big Five.

Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) investigated on “Emotional intelligence and its relationship to workplace performance outcomes of leadership effectiveness”. This study seeks to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI), personality, cognitive intelligence and leadership effectiveness. Senior executives (n=41) completed an ability measure of EI (MSCEIT), a measure of personality (16PF5) and a measure of cognitive ability (the Wechsler abbreviated scale of intelligence (WASI)). Leadership effectiveness was assessed using an objective measure of performance and a 360° assessment involving each leader's subordinates and direct manager (n=149). The findings were correlational and regression analyses revealed that higher EI was associated with higher leadership effectiveness, and that EI explained variance not explained by either personality or IQ

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Another study by Chan (2005) on “Self-Perceived Creativity, Family Hardiness, and Emotional Intelligence of Chinese Gifted Students in Hong Kong” This study assessed the self-perceptions of 212 gifted students regarding their creativity, family hardiness, and emotional intelligence. There were in general no gender and age group differences on these self-perceptions, with the exception that younger students perceived their families as harder than did older students. The results of regression analysis indicated that family hardiness and emotional intelligence had separate and direct effects on self-perceived creativity, and their effects were additive, rather than multiplicative, as their interaction terms did not yield significant increment in variance accounted for in the criterion of prediction.

GohmGrant and Dalsky (2005), conducted a study on “Emotional intelligence under stress: Useful, unnecessary, or irrelevant”? This investigation among 158 freshmen examined the association between emotional intelligence (emotion-relevant abilities) and stress (feelings of inability to control life events), considering personality (self-perception of the meta-emotion traits of clarity, intensity, and attention) as a moderating variable. Results suggest that emotional intelligence is potentially helpful in reducing stress for some individuals, but unnecessary or irrelevant for others.

Austin, Evans, Goldwater and Potter (2005) investigated a study on “A preliminary study of emotional intelligence, empathy and exam performance in first year medical students” A group of 156 first year medical students completed measures of emotional intelligence (EI) and physician empathy, and a scale assessing their feelings about a communications skills course component. Females

scored significantly higher than males on EI. Exam performance in the autumn term on a course component (Health and Society) covering general issues in medicine was positively and significantly related to EI score but there was no association between EI and exam performance later in the year. High EI students reported more positive feelings about the communication skills exercise. Females scored higher than males on the Health and Society component in autumn, spring and summer exams. Structural equation modelling showed direct effects of gender and EI on autumn term exam performance, but no direct effects other than previous exam performance on spring and summer term performance. EI also partially mediated the effect of gender on autumn term exam performance. These findings provide limited evidence for a link between EI and academic performance for this student group. More extensive work on associations between EI, academic success and adjustment throughout medical training would clearly be of interest.

Extremera and Fernández-Berrocal (2005) investigated a study on “Perceived emotional intelligence and life satisfaction: Predictive and incremental validity using the Trait Meta-Mood Scale”. This study investigated the association between Perceived Emotional Intelligence (PEI), measured by the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS), and life satisfaction in Spanish undergraduate university students. Specially, the predictive and incremental validity of this self-report measure of emotional intelligence was examined. The authors investigated whether PEI would account for variance in satisfaction with life beyond the level attributable to mood states and personality traits. Correlation analysis showed significant associations between Clarity and Repair and higher life satisfaction. Hierarchical multiple

regression analysis confirmed these findings and indicated that Clarity accounted further variance in life satisfaction not accounted for by mood states and personality traits. These findings extend previous studies and provide additional support for the incremental validity of the TMMS suggesting that Clarity contribute to life satisfaction independently from well-known mood states constructs and personality traits.

Another study by Schutte, Malouff, Thorsteinsson and Sally (2007), carryout a study on 7898 participants, titled “A meta-analytic investigation of the relationship between emotional intelligence and health” Emotional intelligence measured as a trait was more strongly associated with mental health than emotional intelligence measured as an ability. Comparison of three measures of perceived trait emotional intelligence, the EQ-i, the Assessing Emotions Scale and the Trait Meta Mood Scale showed that the EQ-i had a significantly stronger association with mental health than the other measures. The findings provide a basis for research aimed at determining the causal relationship between trait emotional intelligence and health.

Vernon, Petrides, Bratko and Schermer (2008) conducted a study on “A behavioral genetic study of trait emotional intelligence”. These two studies in this article examine the heritability of trait EI scores with a view to demonstrating empirically that the construct has a similar level of genetic influence as other personality traits. Study 1 was a family design of 133 high-school students and their parents. Regressions of offspring on midparent scores suggested median upper-limit heritability estimates of .18 at facet level, .25 at factor level, and .32 at the global trait EI level. Study 2 was a twin design (213 pairs of monozygotic [MZ] twins and

103 pairs of dizygotic [DZ] twins). It yielded median heritabilities of .42 for the facets, .44 for the factors, and .42 for global trait EI. Overall, our findings are in accordance with studies of the major personality dimensions and provide further empirical support for the conceptualization of EI as a personality trait.

Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008) tested on the topic “Emotional intelligence and job satisfaction: Testing the mediatory role of positive and negative affect at work”. The study tested the extent to which positive and negative affect at work mediate personality effects (Emotional Intelligence) on job satisfaction. Participants were 523 educators who completed the Wong Law Emotional Intelligence Scale, a version of the Job Affect Scale and the General Index of Job Satisfaction. Results using structural equation modelling indicated that positive and negative affect at work substantially mediate the relationship between EI and job satisfaction with positive affect exerting a stronger influence. In males, affect at work fully mediated the EI effect on job satisfaction. Among the four EI dimensions, use of emotion and emotion regulation were significant independent predictors of affect at work. The results confirm expectations deriving from Affective Events Theory regarding the role of work affectivity as an interface between personality and work attitudes and extend the literature on EI effects in organizational settings.

Berenson, Boyles, and Weaver (2008), conducted a study on the titled “Emotional Intelligence as a Predictor of Success in Online Learning” This study examined several factors to characterize successful online college students, including emotional intelligence (EI), persistence, personality, age, gender and previous online experience among students attending community college. Factor

analysis revealed two profiles labelled 'EI' and 'Persuasive'. EI was positively correlated with GPA and resilience. Males had significantly higher EI than females. EI was unrelated to age, personality, number of semesters completed, program of study and previous online experience. Conclusions were that there may be a profile of the successful online student that could be used in marketing, advisement, quality assessment and retention efforts

Qualter, Whiteley, Morley and Dudiak (2009) were conducted a study on "The role of Emotional Intelligence in the decision to persist with academic studies in HE" Failure to adapt to the demands of higher education (HE) is often cited as a cause of withdrawal from the course. It was considered the role of individual differences in Emotional Intelligence (EI) and demonstrated a link between EI, withdrawal/retention and measures of academic achievement. In this study we ask whether EI mediates withdrawal in a UK HE institution and whether an EI-based intervention might improve retention rates. Study 1 considers the effects of EI upon retention, revealing that students with higher levels of EI are more likely to progress to Year 2 of study. Study 2 evaluates an EI-based intervention programme, demonstrating that students who show an increase in EI are more likely to persist with their studies. These findings are discussed in the light of current theoretical work. The prospects for EI-based intervention programmes are also considered.

Estelle, Kamikawa. Barbara and Shoults (2010) were investigated a study on "Emotional Intelligence, Performance, and Retention in Clinical Staff Nurses" A convenience sample of 350 nurses in a large medical center in urban Hawaii participated in this study. This article reports the findings pertaining to the subset of

193 clinical staff nurses who responded. The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test instrument was used to measure emotional intelligence abilities. Commitment was scored on a Likert scale. Emotional intelligence scores in clinical staff nurses correlated positively with both performance level and retention variables. Clinical staff nurses with higher emotional intelligence scores demonstrated higher performance, had longer careers, and greater job retention.

Kapp (2010) conducted a study on “Emotional Intelligence (EQ) and success in post-graduate studies: A pilot study”. For this pilot study the value of EQ for success in post-graduate studies was investigated. Of the 80 post-graduate students in education who completed the EQ-map questionnaire, a sample of ten were selected to represent two categories of academic success (n=5) and two categories of partial or no success (n=5). The EQ-profiles provide some indication that high responses at the optimal and proficient levels of most of the identified scales seem to differentiate between upper level successful and lower level unsuccessful students. Successful students appear to be strong on quality of life and optimal performance, while unsuccessful students have negative emotions. Most post-graduate students experience high levels of life pressures. It seems that EQ does have some value in securing success in post-graduate studies.

MacCann, Fogarty, Zeidner and Roberts. (2011) investigated a study on “Coping mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and academic achievement” this study examined the relationships between performance measures of emotional intelligence (EI), coping styles, and academic achievement is sparse. Two studies were designed to redress this imbalance. In each of these

studies, both EI and coping styles were significantly related to academic achievement. In Study 1, 159 community college students completed the Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) and problem-focused, emotion-focused, and avoidant coping scales. Collectively, the coping variables significantly mediated the relationship between EI and grade point average (GPA) for Emotion Perception, Emotion Facilitation of Thought and Emotion Management (but not for Emotional Understanding). Problem-focused coping was the only single significant mediator, mediating the relationship between emotion management and GPA (but not other branches and GPA). In Study 2, 293 middle school students completed the Situational Test of Emotion Management for Youths (STEM-Y) and scales measuring the same three coping strategies. In this study, the coping variables again significantly mediated the relationship between emotion management and GPA. Once again, problem-focused coping was a significant mediator. Collectively, these results suggest that better educational outcomes might be achieved by targeting skills relating to emotion management and problem-focused coping.

Schutte and Malouff (2011) conducted a study on “Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between mindfulness and subjective well-being”. This study examined whether emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between mindfulness and subjective well-being. Participants completed measures of characteristic mindfulness, emotional intelligence, and affect and life satisfaction as indices of subjective well-being. Higher levels of mindfulness were associated with greater emotional intelligence, positive affect, and life satisfaction and lower negative affect. Higher levels of emotional intelligence were associated with greater

positive affect and life satisfaction and lower negative affect. Emotional intelligence mediated between mindfulness and higher positive affect, lower negative affect, and greater life satisfaction. These results provide information regarding a possible process through which mindfulness exerts its beneficial effects.

2.3 EMPIRICAL STUDIES ON SELF CONFIDENCE

Self-confidence is found to influence our personal motivation, personality and decision making. A study by Todd Todd (2000) on “Relationship Between Goal Orientation, Self-Confidence and Multidimensional Trait Anxiety among Mexican-American Female Youth Athletes”. This study sought to establish this particular tenet of goal perspective theory among a sample of culturally diverse adolescent athletes. Female volleyball players (N = 196) participating in a United States Olympic Committee (USOC) Development Program completed the 13-item Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire, the 13-item Trait Sport Confidence Inventory, and the 21-item Sport Anxiety Scale. The study examined the multivariate relationship among ego orientation, task orientation, sport self-confidence, and the three-trait anxiety dimensions of worry/concern, concentration disruption, and somatic anxiety. In addition, hierarchical multiple regression analyses provided support for the contention that self-confidence plays a mediating role in the goal orientation-trait anxiety relationship. Specifically, greater competitive trait anxiety was evidenced only among those highly ego-involved athletes reporting low self-confidence. These findings strongly suggest that coaches and sport psychologists endeavor to enhance their athletes' task involvement, yet

also consider the interaction of motivational goals and self-confidence when assessing the stress responses of Mexican-American female athletes.

Ryska (2002), carried out a study on a study “Effects of Situational Self-Handicapping and State Self-Confidence on the Physical Performance of Young Participants”. This study sought to determine the performance-related consequences of self-handicapping and state self-confidence among 189 physical education students participating in a running task. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses indicated that beyond the effects of gender, situational self-handicapping had a positive impact on performance among runners with relatively low self-confidence, whereas this relationship was largely absent in the high confidence group. The possible motivational and attentional mechanisms underlying this moderator effect are discussed.

Michelle (2002) conducted a study on “The Impact of Motivation, Student-Peer, and Student-Faculty Interaction on Academic Self-Confidence”. This study focused on the impact of student-faculty interaction on academic self-confidence, examining the impact of negative student-faculty interaction on academic self-confidence. In addition, the impact of diverse peer interaction on students’ academic self-confidence was examined. Analyses were done by combining sets of similar variables into nine blocks representing input or environmental variables and entering them into a stepwise regression. In spite of some identified limitations of this research, a positive relationship appears to exist between diverse peer interaction and students’ academic self-confidence. The hypothesis that negative interactions with faculty would have an impact on students’ academic self-

confidence was not supported, but student-faculty interaction of a positive sort did help students increase their academic self-confidence. It is significant that diverse peer interaction and student-faculty interaction may play a key role in the development of academic self-confidence in students is of importance since these are conditions that can be created in the educational environment.

Kais and Raudsepp (2004) investigated a study on “Cognitive and Somatic Anxiety and Self-Confidence in Athletic Performance of Beach Volleyball” This study considered the influence of competitive anxiety and self-confidence state responses upon athletic performance. 66 male beach volleyball players completed the translated and modified Competitive State Anxiety Inventory–2 which included the original intensity scale and a direction scale of Jones and Swain. Players' performance was scored from the video records using a standard rating scale. Correlations indicated scores on Direction subscale of modified Competitive State Anxiety Inventory–2 and Self-confidence were moderately positively ($r = .27$ to $.51$) correlated with different skill components and sum of skill components of beach volleyball. Stepwise multiple regressions indicated that, as anticipated, directional perceptions of cognitive and somatic anxiety and self-confidence were significant predictors of beach volleyball performance but accounted for only 42% of variance. Original Intensity subscales of somatic and cognitive anxiety did not predict performance. Findings support the notion that direction of anxiety responses must be taken into consideration when examining anxiety-performance association in sport.

Fogarty and Else (2005) investigated a study on “Performance calibration in sport: Implications for self-confidence and metacognitive biases”. When people are asked to make judgments about their own performance, either retrospectively or prospectively, they typically overestimate their level of performance, leading some researchers to claim that overconfidence is a pervasive metacognitive bias. Evidence for such a trait in sport has implications for the way we assess confidence and for our understanding of athletes’ perceptions of their own abilities and their reactions to performance feedback. To gain a better understanding of this issue, we used the calibration paradigm to measure metacognitive bias in a sample of 54 male golfers varying widely in age (13 to 75 years) and ability level (1 to 27 handicap). Golfers were required to complete a putting task and a chipping task (20 trials each) after first estimating how well they would perform on each of the tasks. The exercise was repeated once. Results indicated that golfers tended to be reasonably well-calibrated on the putting tasks but slightly overconfident on the chipping tasks used in this study. They were also overconfident on a test of knowledge of golf rules. There was no effect for level of expertise.

Another study by Benabou and Tirole (2005) on “Self-Confidence and Personal Motivation. They analyse the value placed by rational agents on self-confidence, and the strategies employed in its pursuit. This demand for self-serving beliefs must be weighed against the risks of overconfidence. On the supply side, we develop a model of self-deception through endogenous memory that reconciles the motivated and rational features of human cognition. The resulting intrapersonal

game of strategic communication typically leads to multiple equilibria. While “positive thinking” can improve welfare, it can also be self-defeating.

Barber, Ismail and Taylor (2005) carried out a study on the titled “Label Fluency and Consumer Self-Confidence” The decision to purchase a bottle of wine is often difficult for consumers. Influenced by levels of self-confidence, the decision conflict between competing characteristics of the wine products offered can affect the consumers' decision behaviour. Research has suggested that the front label conveys key information to consumers relating the benefits of purchasing a wine product. Using a self-administered questionnaire, this study examined information, label fluency, consumer self-confidence and the impact on consumers purchase decisions. The results indicated that overall, respondents preferred the label information provided and those with low self-confidence preferred the modern label color and classic label information.

Another study by Mellalieu, Neil and Hanton (2006) on “Self-Confidence as a Mediator of the Relationship Between Competitive Anxiety Intensity and Interpretation” The aim of this study was to examine whether self-confidence mediated the relationship between competitive anxiety intensity and direction. Elite (n = 102) and nonelite (n = 144) participants completed the self-confidence subscale of the Competitive Trait Anxiety Inventory-2 and the worry and somatic subscales from the Sport Anxiety Scale. Consistent with procedures recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986), linear regression analyses were used. The findings for elite athletes revealed worry intensity to significantly predict self-confidence and worry direction. However, when self-confidence was controlled, worry intensity did not

predict worry direction over that which was significantly predicted by self-confidence. Within the analysis for somatic symptoms, only self-confidence was found to predict somatic symptom direction. For the nonelite athletes, worry and somatic symptom intensity predicted both self-confidence and direction, and direction when self-confidence was controlled. The findings for the elite athletes suggest self-confidence mediates the relationship between performers' worry symptoms and subsequent directional interpretations. However, the findings suggest that high levels of self-confidence and low symptom intensity are needed for nonelite athletes to demonstrate a less debilitating interpretation.

Esterl, Henzi and Cohn (2006) conducted a study on “Senior Medical Student “Boot Camp”: Can Result in Increased Self-Confidence Before Starting Surgery Internships”. The purpose of this study was to develop a surgical internship readiness elective or senior medical student (SMS) “Boot Camp” for fourth-year medical students to prepare them for the rigors of surgery internship. Sixteen fourth-year medical students completed a series of clinical and didactic sessions over a 4-week elective. Students evaluated the effectiveness of the elective with a pre- and post-survey that focused on confidence levels in 4 areas: anatomic dissection, administrative skills, technical skills, and patient management. Upon completion of the elective, students rated themselves as more confident in all 57 categories on the survey. During the focus group session, students identified several strengths of the elective and offered recommendations for improvements in the elective. The SMS “Boot Camp” gave fourth-year medical students confidence and an opportunity to develop necessary prerequisite skills to begin the surgery internship.

Cristian (2009) examined a study on “Self-Control and Self-Confidence: Their Relationship to Self-Rated Oral Health Status and Behaviours”. The aim of this study was to examine the relationship between self-control and self-confidence, and students' self-rated oral health and oral-health-related behaviours. The sample consisted of 178 first-year medical students. The questionnaire that was used in this study included information about sociodemographic factors, behavioural factors, self-reported oral health status, self-control and self-confidence. Results: The results showed that mean levels of self-confidence in individuals with current extracted teeth and with poor/very poor perceived gingival condition were statistically significant and lower than those with no current extracted teeth and with self-rated excellent gingival health. Also, participants with self-reported gingival bleeding showed lower values of self-control compared with those with healthy non-bleeding gingiva. When oral health behaviour was evaluated, it was shown that students with higher scores of self-controls were more likely to use every daymouth rinses. The multiple linear regression analyses showed, for self-rated oral and gingival health status as dependent variable, a strong association with students' self-confidence level. The results support the view that self-confidence is related with oral health status, and individuals with impaired oral and gingival health have a low self-confidence level.

Another investigation by Loibl, Cho, Diekmann and Batte (2009), on “Consumer Self-Confidence in Searching for Information” This article examines a multidimensional self-confidence concept to explore how consumer self-confidence influences information search. Findings of a mail survey document that high-

confidence consumers engage in more intensive search activities and that demographic patterns shape consumer self-confidence scores. The findings empirically support a multidimensional measurement of self-confidence to predict search behaviour and suggest avenues to enhance the self-confidence needed to produce positive marketplace experiences.

Freeman and Rees (2010) investigated a study on “Perceived social support from team-mates: Direct and stress-buffering effects on self-confidence”. In this study, to determine whether the perceived support available from team-mates predicts levels of self-confidence. Four dimensions of support were examined: emotional, esteem, informational, and tangible. The sample consisted of 152 university athletes with a mean age of 20.1 years. Participants completed measures of perceived support, stressors, and self-confidence at the training session before an important match. Moderated hierarchical regression analyses revealed that all four dimensions of support had direct effects on self-confidence with support positively predicting self-confidence. Perceived emotional esteem and informational support also had stress-buffering effects on self-confidence. The findings suggest that although university athletes perceived different levels of emotional, esteem, informational, and tangible support to be available from their team-mates, all four dimensions of support positively predicted self-confidence.

Another study by Filippin and Paccagnella (2012), on “family background, self-confidence and economic outcomes” In this paper they analyse the role played by self-confidence, modeled as beliefs about one's ability, in shaping task choices. they propose a model in which fully rational agents exploit all the available

information to update their beliefs using Bayes' rule, eventually learning their true type. If differences in self-confidence are correlated with socio-economic background, self-confidence can be a channel through which education and earning inequalities perpetuate across generations. This theory suggests that cognitive tests should take place as early as possible, in order to avoid that systematic differences in self-confidence among equally talented people lead to the emergence of gaps in the accumulation of human capital.

Chesser-Smyth and Long (2012), in their study "Understanding the influences on self-confidence among first-year undergraduate nursing students in Ireland" this study report a mixed-methods study of the development of self-confidence in Irish nursing students undertaking the first year of an undergraduate nursing programme. The design involved pre-test and post-test measurements of self-confidence, focus group interviews, a student self-evaluation questionnaire and analysis of the relevant curriculum content. sampling was from three cohorts of students at three different Institutes of Technology in Ireland. Data collection matched the nature of the data, including descriptive, non-inferential statistics and qualitative content analysis. The result found that self-confidence fluctuated during the first clinical placement and as students' self-confidence developed, simultaneously, motivation towards academic achievement increased. Conversely, self-confidence was quickly eroded by poor preceptor attitudes, lack of communication, and feeling undervalued.

Another study by Kleitman, Stankov, Allwood, Young and Mak, (2012) on "Metacognitive Self-Confidence in School-Aged Children". In these studies, the students' academic, non-academic and metacognitive self-concepts were assessed.

they also assessed students' perceptions of their key environments: classroom and family. The results from these studies demonstrate stable individual differences in confidence ratings. Higher levels of self-confidence predicted greater school achievement, irrespective of a student's cognitive ability, age and gender. Metacognitive and academic self-concept acted as both important predictors of the students' levels of confidence and mediators of the predictions that other variables had on self-confidence. Classroom factors (goal orientation) were linked to metacognitive and academic self-concepts, which in turn positively predicted academic outcomes and self-confidence. Such results support the claim for the existence of a broad self-confidence construct, signifying its pertinence for school achievement. The results also suggest that a student's perception of classroom and family dynamics has an important influence on both confidence and achievement.

Zietlow, Schlüter, Nonnenmacher, Müller and Reck,(2014) conducted a study on the topic "Maternal Self-confidence Postpartum and at Pre-school Age". The aim of the study was to analyze the impact of maternal postpartum depression and/or anxiety disorders according to DMS-IV on maternal self-confidence throughout infancy and early childhood. Exploratively, associations between maternal attachment insecurity and maternal self-confidence at pre-school age were examined. Data revealed a significant difference in maternal self-confidence between clinical and control group at child's pre-school age: Women with postpartum depression and/or anxiety disorder scored lower on maternal self-confidence than healthy controls, but only if they had current SCID-diagnoses or partly remitted symptoms. The results emphasize the impact of attachment

insecurity and maternal mental health regarding maternal self-confidence leading to potential adverse long-term consequences for the mother–child relationship.

Liu, Dong, Chiclana, Cabrerizo, and Herrer-Viedma, (2016), in their study “Group decision-making based on heterogeneous preference relations with self-confidence” In this study, they define the preference relation with self-confidence by taking multiple self-confidence levels into consideration, and we call it the preference relation with self-confidence. Furthermore, they present a two-stage linear programming model for estimating the collective preference vector for the group decision-making based on heterogeneous preference relations with self-confidence. Finally, numerical examples are used to illustrate the two-stage linear programming model, and a comparative analysis is carried out to show how self-confidence levels influence on the group decision-making results.

2.4 COMBINED STUDIES

Furnham and Cheng (2002), conducted a study on “Personality, peer relations, and self-confidence as predictors of happiness and loneliness”. This study is set out to examine to what extent peer relations, self-confidence, and school performance correlated with self-rated happiness (OHI) and loneliness (UCLA LS) in adolescents. Personality traits (EPQ), self-confidence (PEI), friendship and school grades were all significantly oppositely correlated with happiness and loneliness. Regression analysis revealed that extraversion and neuroticism were direct predictors of happiness and self-confidence, while psychoticism and extraversion were direct predictors of loneliness. The effect of sex on happiness and loneliness was moderated by friendship and neuroticism, and by neuroticism and

psychoticism, respectively. Extraversion was also a significant predictor of general confidence and social interactions which directly influenced loneliness whilst psychoticism was a direct predictor of loneliness. Self-rated school performance was the only direct predictor of happiness whereas general confidence and social interactions were related to adolescents' self-reported loneliness.

Another study by Caruso, Mayer and Salovey (2002), on “Relation of an Ability Measure of Emotional Intelligence to Personality”. This study examined an ability test of emotional intelligence and its relationship to personality test variables to determine the extent to which these constructs overlap. A sample of 183 men and women took the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale, an ability measure of emotional intelligence as well as measures of career interests, personality, and social behavior. Emotional intelligence was measured reliably and was relatively independent of traditionally defined personality traits, supporting the discriminant validity of the emotional intelligence construct.

Vakola, Tsaousis and Nikolaou (2004), carried out a study on “The role of emotional intelligence and personality variables on attitudes toward organisational change and health” The purpose of the present study is to add a different way of looking and working with organisational change by focusing on individuals' emotions and personality traits. This paper explores how emotional intelligence and the “big five” dimensions of personality can facilitate organisational change at an individual level by exploring the relationship between these attributes and attitudes toward organisational change. The sample consisted of 137 professionals who completed self-report inventories assessing emotional

intelligence, personality traits and attitudes towards organisational change. The results confirmed that there is a relationship between personality traits and employees' attitudes toward change. Similarly, the contribution of emotional intelligence to the attitudes to change was found to be significant, indicating the added value of using an emotional intelligence measure above and beyond the effect of personality.

Another study by Shaffer and Shaffer (2005), on “emotional intelligence abilities, personality and workplace performance” Using socioanalytic theory we develop and test a model of the direct and indirect effects of the Big Five personality traits and EI abilities on multiple forms of performance. The proposed model was tested with two on-line instruments completed by 116 Hong Kong managers. One instrument was an abilities test of emotional intelligence. The other was a survey of self-reported personality and workplace behavioral data. Multiple hierarchical (moderator) regression was used to analyze the data from 116 Hong Kong managers. Hypotheses were partially supported. Agreeableness had a positive influence on contextual performance and conscientiousness was positively associated with task performance. In respect to the four-branch model of EI, perceiving emotions was negatively associated with contextual performance, which was counter to what was hypothesized. Total EI moderated (enhanced) relationships between agreeableness and both task and contextual performance.

Di Fabio and Palazzeschi (2009) conducted a study on “Emotional intelligence, personality traits and career decision difficulties”. This study aims to take an in-depth look at the role of emotional intelligence and personality traits in

relation to career decision difficulties. The Italian version of the Career Decision Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ), the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Short (Bar-On EQ-i: S), and the Big Five Questionnaire (BFQ) were administered to 296 interns of the tertiary sector. The emotional intelligence dimensions add a significant percentage of incremental variance compared to variances due to personality traits with respect to career decision difficulties. The results highlight the role of emotional intelligence and its relationship with career decision difficulties.

Fabio and Palazzeschi (2012), investigated a study, titled “Emotional intelligence, personality traits and career decision difficulties”. This study aims to take an in-depth look at the role of emotional intelligence and personality traits in relation to career decision difficulties. The Italian version of the Career Decision Difficulties Questionnaire (CDDQ), the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Short (Bar-On EQ-i: S), and the Big Five Questionnaire (BFQ) were administered to 296 interns of the tertiary sector. The emotional intelligence dimensions add a significant percentage of incremental variance compared to variances due to personality traits with respect to career decision difficulties. The results highlight the role of emotional intelligence and its relationship with career decision difficulties.

Another study by Pishghadam and Sahebiam (2012), on “Personality and Emotional Intelligence in Teacher Burnout”. This paper aims to investigate the relationship between teacher's personality types, emotional intelligence and burnout and to predict the burnout levels of 147 teachers in the city of Mashhad (Iran). For

this study used three inventories: Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI), and Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I). And used Homogeneity Analysis and Multiple Linear Regression to analyse the data. The results exhibited a significant relationship between personality types and emotional intelligence and the three dimensions of burnout.

2.4.1 Summary and conclusion of the study

Some studies which are related to personality, emotional intelligence and self-confidence are given in this part. Most of these studies show that emotional intelligence is related to the personality type. Some studies show self-confidence is also associated with personality. Other psychological and social status influencing the emotional intelligence and self-confidence of the students were also found in these studies.

The studies in general provide an adequate framework in terms of formulating hypotheses and methodology for the present investigation

CHAPTER III

METHOD

A. Research design

B. The participants

C. Tools

D. Data collection procedure

E. Statistical techniques

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is a set of instructions provided to the investigator which enables him to gather and analyse the data in certain ways; it is therefore a control mechanism. The statistical principle that this mechanism is designed to maximize the systematic variance, to control extraneous variance systematically and to minimize error variance. The research design can be classified into four types such as explanatory, descriptive and exploratory (Neuman, 2003). Exploratory study is often utilized when there is insignificant knowledge with respect to certain occurrence. The main aim of exploratory study is to develop a better insight regarding specific aspect, to generate innovative data as well as to construct a base for future investigation (Sekaran, 2000). Initially, descriptive research starts with enhanced concept concerning to specific occurrence when compared to exploratory study. Descriptive statistics are often designed and structured to examine the characteristics depicted in research questions (Neumann, 2003). Finally, explanatory research knows the issue and has description of the issue. This method assists to determine the highlights of the complex inter relationship that exist within the issues proposed in the research questions (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

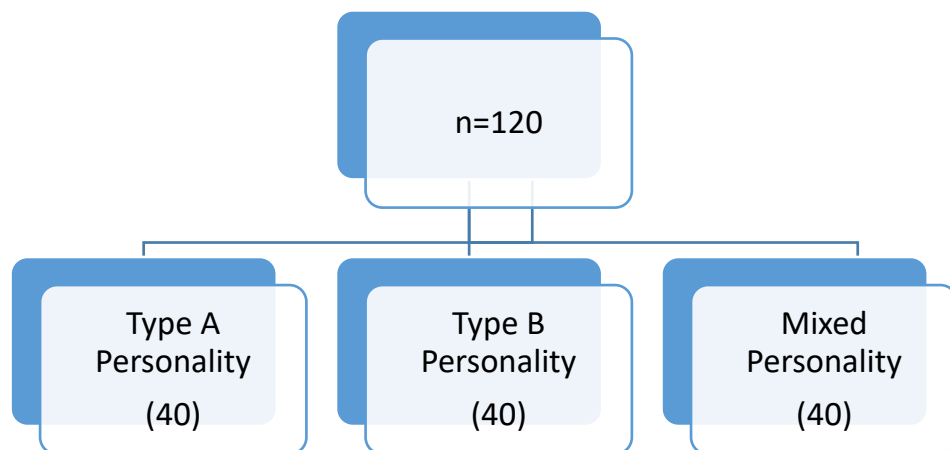
Descriptive research designs were used for this study, it helps to provide answers to the questions of who, what, when, where, and how associated with a particular research problem; a descriptive study cannot conclusively ascertain answers to why. Descriptive research is used to obtain information concerning the current status of the phenomena and to describe "what exists" with respect to variables or conditions in a situation.

3.2 THE PARTICIPANTS

A sample is the representative part of the total population. Sampling means selection of individuals from the population in such a way that every individual has the equal chance to be taken into the sample population.

The sample consisted of 120 participants; 40 participants who belong to Type A personality pattern; 40 participants who belonged to Type B personality pattern and another 40 participants who belonged to Mixed personality pattern which included features of both Type A and Type B. For the study, college students of the age group 18 to 26 were considered as sample and it was collected on the basis of inclusion and exclusion criteria from various colleges in Kollam, Kerala by Quota sampling method.

Figure 3.1: Distribution of Sample



3.2.1 Method of sampling

In the present study, Participants who can speak and understand English or Malayalam and who are free from any congenital, developmental or behavioural disorders for the past 1 year were selected for this study. Participants belonged to the

age group of 18-25. Adopted children, participants belonging to broken families or currently staying separately from parents were excluded from the study. Participants from socio-economically troubled living conditions were excluded from the study. Participants with a negative family history were also excluded from the study. Participants of ages above or below ages 25 and 18 respectively were excluded from the study.

3.3 TOOLS

The data were collected mainly using 3 psychological measures;

1. Emotional intelligence scale devised by Anukool Hyde, SanjyotPethe and Upinder Dhar (2002)
2. Self-confidence scale devised by Dr. Rekha Gupta (2013)
3. Type A/B Behavior Pattern Scale devised by UpinderDhair and Manisha Jain (2001)
4. Personal data sheet

3.3.1 Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS)

The Emotional intelligence scale (EIS) was developed by Anukool Hyde, SanjyotPethe and Upinder Dhar(1971). It is a general measure for emotional intelligence of general age group and uses Likert technique. It consisted of 34 items with five alternative options likewise “Strongly agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, Strongly Disagree”. The test is highly reliable as split half method showed a reliability of 0.88. The test is also highly valid and showed high content validity. When validated against external criteria, the coefficient score was found to be 0.93.

Interpretation of emotional intelligence given from very low to very high emotional intelligence, the high score on scale indicate high emotional intelligence and low score indicate low emotional intelligence. Scores range from a minimum of 51 to a maximum of 85.

3.3.2 Self Confidence Scale

Self-confidence scale was developed by Dr Rekha Gupta. It consists of 56 right or wrong statement. Among 56 items 44 items were worded positively and scored 1 and 0 (numbered 2,7,23,31,40,41,43,44,45,53,54,55) were worded negatively and scored vice versa of positive items. The test is highly reliable as test retest method showed a reliability of 0.78 and split half method showed a reliability of 0.91. The test is also highly valid and showed high content validity. When validated against external criteria, the coefficient score was found to be 0.74. The item wise scores are to be transferred the table given ahead of the scale to obtain different competencies scores. Using the norm tables the raw scores are converted into Z-score for further interpretation.

3.3.3 Type A/B Behaviour Pattern Scale

The construct of Type A and Type B was originally described by Friedman and Rosenman (1974). The scale to be used for this study was developed by Upinder Dhair and Manisha Jain to measure the Type A/B behaviour pattern in an Indian context. The test consists of two parts: Form A and Form B and constitutes a total of 33 items. The first part consists of 17 statements and second part consists of 16 statements which are related to daily life experiences. The participant is to select the one describing their behavior more accurately. Each statement is measured on a

5-point scale using five alternative options: “Strongly agree, Agree, Uncertain, Disagree, strongly disagree”. Sum of scores on Form A and Form B determines Type A and Type B respectively and based on if the scores falls below, within or above the normal range of scores, it is determined if the person shows Type A or Type B behaviour pattern. Individuals with scores for both Forms falling below, within or above the normal ranges indicate presence of both Type A and B behaviour and are thus categorized as Type AB or Mixed category. The reliability coefficient was found to be 0.54 for both Form A and Form B separately. The scale has high content validity and the reliability index (a measure of validity) was found to be 0.73 for both forms separately.

3.3.4 Personal data sheet

A personal data sheet was used to collect information like the subjects' mark, education and occupation of parents, monthly income etc. A copy of personal data sheet is presented on Appendix.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

The participants of the study were college students, and they were met in their respective educational institutions after obtaining the consent of the authorities concerned. The total population of the study is 120, among that 40 were type A, 40 were type B and 40 were mixed type from different colleges of Kollam district. Rapport was established and it helps to make the participants comfortable and co-operative to the study.

The scales were introduced one by one and the method of making the responses were carefully explained through the instructions provided in the beginning of each scale, a few general instructions were provided in prior to conduction, like the need for being honest in the response as there were no right or wrong answers, to be spontaneous and ensure that every item has been answered.

The confidentiality of the response was assured, putting the participants at ease even further and was also communicated not to discuss their opinions or responses while responding. Upon completion, the forms received were checked for possible items left unmarked, and the data was consolidated.

3.6.1 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The following Statistical techniques are employed for analysing the data. They include:

3.6.1 Analysis of Variance

Analysis of variance is a class of statistical analysis to determine the significance of the difference among the means of three or more groups. The analysis is of the square of standard deviation (variance) rather than the standard deviation itself (variability). The groups used in the analysis may result from a single classificatory variable or more than one classificatory variable. In the former case, the analysis is labeled one way analysis of variance and in the later, two way or multiple way analysis of variance according to the number of classificatory variables involved. When subgroups are formed on the basis of two or more

classificatory variables, the interaction between the independent variables affecting the dependent variable can also be studied.

Variance is made up of two components – between groups (due to actual differences) and within groups (due to the operation of chance factors). The ratio of between groups variance to the within groups variance (F-ratio) follows Fisher's F distribution. A critical value of F therefore exists depending upon the size of a sample, against which the calculated F may be compared. If the calculated value exceeds the critical F, the difference among the means is significant and not due to chance factors (Robinson, 1981). The present study one-way analysis used for finding the difference between socio-economic status on the variable of parenting style.

3.7.2 Duncan Multiple Range Test

When the investigator uses the analysis of variance with more than two groups, there is a question as to which means are significantly from which other means. This leads to the problem of multiple comparison. Here the suitable comparison techniques, Duncan Multiple Range Test is used.

The results obtained from analyzing the data and their discussions are included in the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. Analysis of Variance

B. Duncan's Multiple Range Test

C. Test of Tenability of Hypotheses

The information gathered from the sample was coded and was subjected to appropriate statistical analysis. One-way analysis was made use in finding out if there is significant relation among the variables under study. Post hoc tests were sought to final out group wise differences between groups in their cores as these variables.

4.1 Analysis of variance

In the present study one-way ANOVA was used to test the emotional intelligence and self-confidence in relation to the personality type of the college students. As the classification of the personality type is based on one criterion, one-way ANOVA has been applied. The personality group is found to be significant, so the Multiple Range Test (Duncan's method) is used to find the significant difference between personality groups.

The summary of ANOVA for the variable emotional intelligence and self-confidence based on the personality type is presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Summary of ANOVA for the variable emotional intelligence and self-confidence based on the personality type

Variable	Group	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Self Confidence	Between Groups	550.617	2	275.308	4.831	**
	Within Groups	6667.350	117	56.986		
	Total	7217.967	119			
Emotional Intelligence	Between Groups	91.467	2	45.733	3.259	*
	Within Groups	1642.000	117	14.034		
	Total	1733.467	119			

Note: ** indicates significance at 0.01 level

* indicates significance at 0.05 level

There are statistically significant differences in emotional intelligence and self confidence among college students in relation to their personality type. Table 1 shows the comparison of variables i.e., Self-confidence (F = 4.831, significant at 0.01 level) and Emotional intelligence (F = 3.259, significant at 0.05 level) based on personality type among college students.

The F value is found to be significant, so the Duncan Multiple Range Test is used to find the difference between the personality groups on emotional intelligence and self-confidence.

4.2 Duncan's multiple range test

The result of Duncan's Multiple Range Test is given in Table 4.2 and Table 4.3 respectively.

Table 4.2

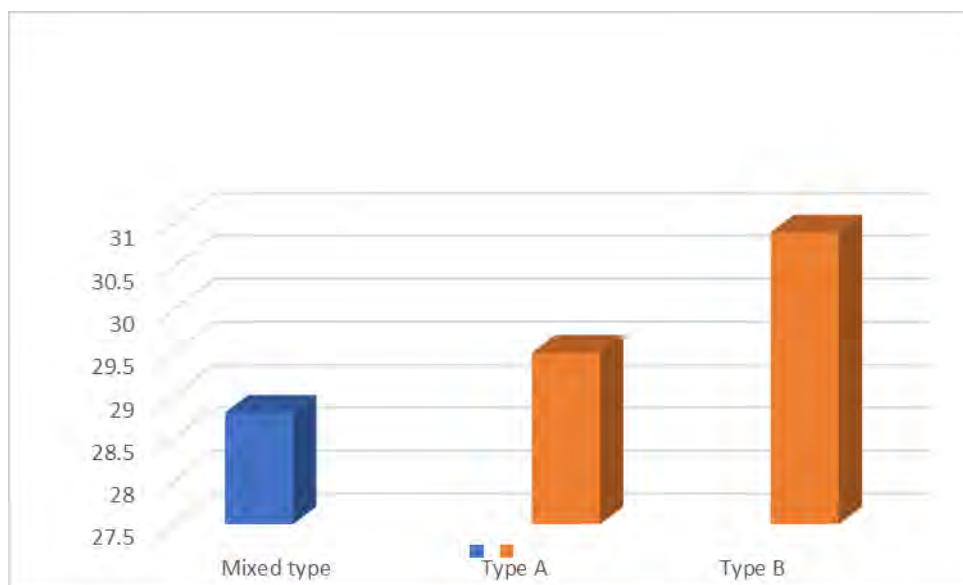
Score of Multiple Range Test (Duncan's method) obtained by three groups on the variable of self confidence

Personality type	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Mixed type	40	27.33	
Type A	40		31.40
Type B	40		32.23
Sig.		1.000	.626

Table 4.2 shows the mean scores of 31.40 and 32.23 obtained by type A and type B groups did not show much difference. But the mean score of 27.33 obtained by mixed group shows difference and which is low compared to the other two groups.

Graph 4.1

Showing the comparison of three groups on the variable of self confidence



Graph 4.1 shows the comparison of personality type on the variable of self-confidence among college students. The result shows that there is self-confidence is higher in type B group and lower in mixed group. But there is no differ significantly in type A and type B groups.

Table 4.3

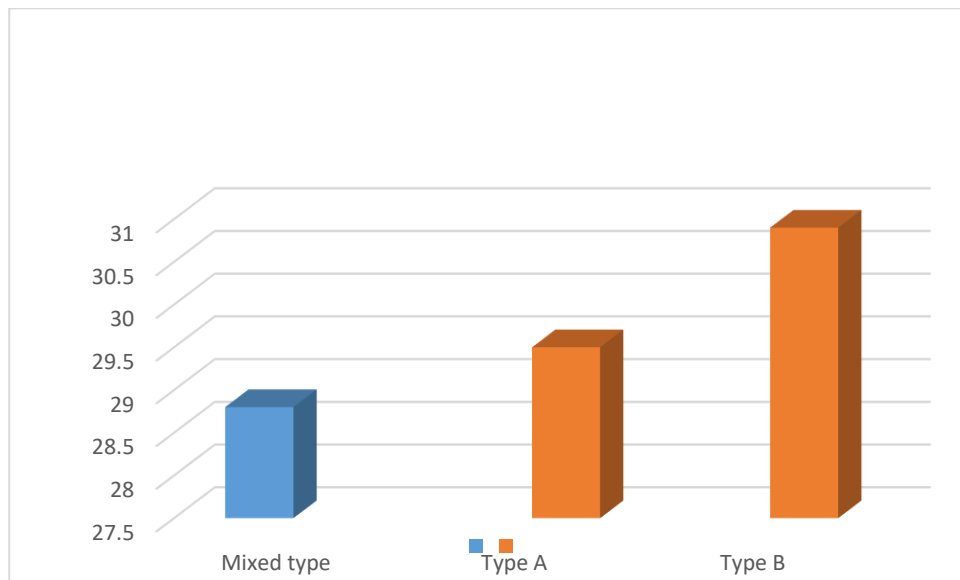
Scores of Multiple Range Test (Duncan's method) obtained by three groups on the variable of emotional intelligence

Personality type	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Mixed type	40	28.80	
Type A	40	29.50	29.50
Type B	40		30.90
Sig.		.405	.097

The mean scores of 29.50 and 30.90 obtained by type A and type B groups did not show much difference. But the mean score of 28.80 obtained by mixed group shows difference and which is low compared to the other two groups.

Graph4.2

Showing the comparison of three groups on the variable of emotional intelligence



Graph 4.2 shows the comparison of personality type on the variable of emotional intelligence among college students. The result shows that there is self-confidence is higher in type B group and lower in mixed group. But there is no differ significantly in type A and type B groups. The result shows that there is emotional intelligence is higher in type B group and lower in mixed group. But there is no differ significantly in type A and type B groups

Pishghadam and Sahebiam (2012) was investigated the relationship between teacher's personality types, emotional intelligence and burnout. The results exhibited a significant relationship between personality types and emotional intelligence and the three dimensions of burnout. Another study by Vakola, Tsaousis and Nikolaou (2004), carried out on “The role of emotional intelligence and personality variables on attitudes toward organisational change, emotional

intelligence and health". The results confirmed that there is a relationship between personality traits and employees' attitudes toward change. Similarly, the contribution of emotional intelligence to the attitudes to change was found to be significant, indicating the added value of using an emotional intelligence measure above and beyond the effect of personality. These two studies examined there is a significant difference between emotional intelligence and personality type. These studies are also support the present findings.

4.3 Test of tenability of hypotheses

The results presented above provide adequate light on the hypothesis formulated for the present study. The tenability of the hypothesis is stated below:

1. The first hypothesis that *"there will be significant differences in emotional intelligence in relation to the personality type among college students"* is accepted. The results of the study indicated type B personality group have high emotional intelligence than type A and mixed group. But there was no difference of emotional intelligence among type A and type B. So, the hypothesis is accepted.
2. The second hypothesis that *"there will be significant difference in self confidence in relation to the personality type among college students"* is accepted. The results of the study indicated type B personality group have high self-confidence than type A and mixed group. But there was no difference of self-confidence among type A and type B. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

A. Resume of the investigation

B. Major findings

C. Implication of the study

D. Limitations of the study

E. Scope for further research

5.1 RESUME OF THE INVESTIGATION

The present study is aimed to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-confidence among college students in relation to the personality type (type A, type B and mixed type). The sample for the study consists of 120 college students (both male and female) selected from different colleges in Kollam districts.

The tools used for the study were Emotional intelligence scale, Self-confidence scale, Type A/B Behaviour Pattern Scale and personal data sheet. Statistical techniques such as Analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) and Duncan's multiple range test were employed to analyses the data.

5.2 MAJOR FINDINGS

1. There is significant difference of emotional intelligence and personality type (type A, type B and mixed type) among college students.
2. There is significant difference of self-confidence and personality type (type A, type B and mixed type) among college students.

5.3 IMPLICATIONS OF STUDY

The present study reveals that there exist an effect of emotional intelligence and self-confidence on personality type among college students. Emotional intelligence is important factor for maintaining inter personal relationship and self-confidence is important in our social situations. We can identify the personality of the students and to help for building self-confidence and emotional intelligence.

Self-confidence also influence the educational settings and life situations. We can identify the students become non self-confident based on the personality type. Emotional intelligent persons were emotionally, intellectually, physically and psychologically wellbeing. Thus, it will be helpful for parents and teachers to identify the students who become less self-confident and emotional intelligent.

The present study found that mixed type personality groups are less self-confident. We can identify other personality type rather than type A and type B, to improve their self-confidence by providing some training programs and counselling. It also found the mixed personality groups are less emotionally intelligent. Teachers and parents can identify these students easily and provide certain programs.

Nowadays peoples become ego centric and there is no emotional intelligence. It also affects their personal, family and social relationships. This study will give the insight for parents and teachers to motivate and building students become self-confident and emotionally intelligent. This study would be informative to developmental psychologists, educationalists, counselors especially school counselors, teachers, parents, societies, etc. This study will be useful for the Government organizations for preparing programs for the overall development of the student.

5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE PRESENT INVESTIGATION

Though every attempt was made by the investigator to make the study as objective and as precise as possible, a few limitations are noted. Some of which are

inevitable, because of the limited time for completing the work. The major limitations of the study are:

1. The sample was taken from a limited geographical area.
2. Various factors like medical background, current emotional state etc, were not considered in the present study.
3. The sample was limited to college students who belong to an age group of 18 to 26 years

5.5 SCOPE FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The study can be extended in a broad way by increase the sample size and collect data from a wide geographical region including other age groups like early adolescents and adulthood so that the power and generalization of study could be improved. Different demographic variables like medical history, current emotional state etc. can be considered for the study. Personality type can be measured in different types, and that will be more objective in future results. In a further study we can include a number of other relevant variables and it correlates with personality type can be found out.

The investigator will be grateful, if this work serves as a guideline for students and prospective researchers interested in this area.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Demographic details

A set of questions pertaining to your demographic details are given here below. Please answer them in the best possible way. The form is designed in a manner that will minimize your effort, as many of the questions can be replied to with a simple tick (✓) mark

Participant details			
Name:			
Age	Sex	Educational Qualification	
Name of College			
Type of College (Tick all that applies to you)	Govt.	Aided	Self Finance
Day Scholar or hostelite			
Parent details			
Father	Education:	Mother	Education:
	Working status:		Working status:
	Working place:		Working place:
	Hrs, spent at home in a day (avg)		Hrs, spent at home in a day (avg):
Family Details			
Nature of family	Nuclear	Joint	Other
Number of members in your family			
Siblings	Elder	Sister	Brother
	Younger	Sister	Brother
Your relative position in the birth – order	1	2	3
Grandparents living with the family	Only grandfather	Only grandmother	Both grandparents
Location of your house	City	Urban	Rural

APENDIX B

AABPS

(Dhair & Jain 2001)

INSTRUCTIONS

The scale has two parts I & II, former contains 17 statements whereas later contains 16 statements related to various behavioral experiences in day to day life. You have to read each statement carefully and make your response by making (✓) tick mark in the corresponding box of our response under three alternatives as “strongly agree” (SA), agree (A), Uncertain (U), Disagree (D) and strongly disagree” (SD). As all the statements are related to your views and expressions and there is no right or wrong response, therefore be house in making your performance and your responses are kept confidential.

Sl. No	Statement Part 1	(SA)	(A)	(U)	(D)	(SD)
1.	Prefer to move around rapidly when I am not doing anything					
2.	Prefer to finish the tasks at land as soon as possible					
3.	I am never late if I am on an appointment					
4.	I tend to feel impatient when the rate which most events takes place					
5	I have very few and side my work					
6	I feel important when I don't have any work to load					
7	I always feel rushed					
8	I am habitual of having quick uses					
9	Competition is my first choice					
10	I enjoying doing two or more things simultaneously					

Sl. No	Statement Part 1	(SA)	(A)	(U)	(D)	(SD)
11	Quantity is a measure of success for me					
12	I can not a relax without guilt					
13	I have always been slugging to achieve more or less time					
14	I am very particular to exhibit my superiority whenever I play					
15	I have always lived life to deadlines					
16	I take it as a privilege of to display or discuss my achievement or accomplishment whenever I get an opportunity to do so.					
17.	I have never find time sufficient for the task at land.					
	Part II					
1	I do not work under time pressure					
2	I do not display or discuss either my achievement or accomplishment unless such exposure is demanded by the situation.					
3.	I have never set deadlines for my accomplishments					
4	I pay for from and relation					
5	I relax whenever I want to do so					
6	I do not give much weight age to quantity in comparison to other measures of success					
7	I prefer to concentrate one task at a time.					
8	I enjoy my food by making no waste while eating					
9	I never feel rushed					
10	Leisure time as welcome after a spell of work					
11	I open in expressing my feelings					
12	I have many interests outside my work					

Sl. No	Statement Part 1	(SA)	(A)	(U)	(D)	(SD)
13	I am comfortable with the rate at which most events take place					
14	I make appointment casually					
15	I prefer to complete the tasks at land slowly					
16	I preferred to sit at are place when I am not doing anything					

APENDIX C

EIS

(Hyde, Pethe & Dhar, 2002)

INSTRUCTIONS

On the following pages 56 statements about your thinking have been given which are related to different situations. Read each statement carefully and decide your answer whether you think it to be right or wrong, and mark a (✓) mark in the appropriate of the two boxes provided against each statement for right / wrong. Kindly give response to all the 56 statements. No answer is right or wrong. Your answer will be kept confidential.

Sl. No.	Statement	Right	Wrong
1.	It usually happens with you that you are undecided upto the time to work		
2.	You usually reply to what in said about you?		
3.	You usually feel difficulty in taking to people		
4.	You are easily hard		
5.	To avoid meeting same people you take the other side of the road		
6.	You are fearful that people may dislike you		
7.	You can face any situation without difficulty		
8.	For certain things people unjustify treat you responsible		
9.	You refuse to play certain games because you are not good than.		
10.	You think much over everything		
11.	You can not openly demonstrate your emotions		
12.	People generally take advantage of you		
13.	When you think to do same work, you are fearful of failure in that		
14.	You feel difficulty in speaking the on the opportune time		
15.	For you life us stressful		

16.	You fall back from facing cries		
17.	You feel difficulty in concentrating over one job		
18.	So many times you left the idea of doing certain work because you felt less able to do it		
19.	You feel that you can not face the situations properly		
20.	You spend much time over fear of future		
21.	Since you fail to take decision you have lost many good opportunities		
22.	You remain sad usually		
23.	You can make friends in the same way as others		
24.	You feel discouraged when your view does not tally with others		
25.	You usually satisfy your unfulfilled desires through dreams.		
26.	You like to take initiative for any work		
27.	You are discouraged easily		
28.	You take time to recover when upset emotionally		
29.	You take time to recover when upset understand you.		
30.	Sometimes you feel so uneasy that you can't sit idle.		
31.	Normally you feel yourself physically fit and energetic		
32.	Usually you feel yourself helpful		
33.	You feel inferior to take initiative to start talking with superior officer		
34.	You have problem in making new friends		
35.	In a social dialogue you are generally a listener in place of the speaker		
36.	You generally feel yourself insecure		
37.	You face problem speaking before a group of people		
38.	When other people are watching you can't perform well up to your ability		
39.	You are very much influenced by the praise or criticism by other person		
40.	You consider yourself as a successful person		

41.	You always feel that you can achieve which you want to achieve		
42.	You have problem in taking decision		
43.	You can play well in a game again a player superior to you		
44.	You decide in advance your next move		
45.	You easily solve problems and feel relaxed		
46.	You are more influenced compared to other persons in a humiliating situation		
47.	You generally take up as unworthy		
48.	You are easily hurt		
49.	You hesitate in entering after meeting has started		
50.	You are generally frustrated because you can not do what you like to do		
51.	You feel that your friends have done better adjustment in life than you		
52.	You are generally confused		
53.	If given opportunity, you can prove yourself a better leader		
54.	You feel that nothing can obstruct you achieve your goals.		
55.	You can behave naturally in any party		
56.	When any serious situations is over than you think what you should have done and could not.		

APPENDIX D

SCI (GUPTA, 2013)

INSTRUCTIONS

Here same statements are given and for every statement you have to express your views by making tick (✓) on any one the five alternatives. there is no right and wrong answer. So please give your response on all the items.

Sl. No.	Statement	Right	Wrong
1.	I an encourage other to work even when things are rod favourable		
2.	People tell me that I am an Inspiration for them		
3.	I am able to encourage people to take initiative		
4.	I am able to make intelligent decisions using a healthy		
5.	I do not depend an others encouragement to do my work well		
6.	I can continue to do what I believe in, even under severe criticism		
7.	I am able to access the situation and them behave		
8.	I can concentrate on the task at hand inspite of disturbances		
9.	I pay attention to the worries and concerns of others		
10	I can listen to some one without the urge to say something		
11	I am perceived as friendly that outgoing		
12	I have my priorities clear		
13	I can handled conflicts around me		
14	I do not mix unnecessary emotions with issues at hand.		
15	I try to see the other person's point of view		
16	I can stand up for my beliefs		

17	I can see the brighter side of my situation		
18	I believe in myself		
19	I am able to stay composed in both good and bad situations		
20	I am able to stay focused even under pressure		
21	I am able to maintain the standards of honesty and integrity		
22	I am able to confront unethical actions of others		
23	I am able to meet commitments and keep promises		
24	I am organized and careful my work		
25	I am able to handle multiple demands		
26	I am comfortable and open to novel ideas and new informations		
27	I pursue goals beyond what is required and expected of me		
28	I am persistent in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks		
29	I have built rapport and made and maintained personal friendships with work associates.		
30	I am able to identify and separate my emotions		
31	I think that feelings should be managed		
32	I am aware of my weaknesses		
33	I feel that I must develop myself even when my job does not demand it		
34	I believe that happiness is a positive attitude		

ROLE OF PARENTAL STYLES ON SELF-ESTEEM AMONG ADOLESCENTS

Dissertation

Submitted in Partial fulfillment of the requirement for
MASTER OF SCIENCE IN PSYCHOLOGY



Submitted By:

DANIMON.N (P1616007)

Guide:

Dr. REENA GEORGE

SUPERVISING TEACHER

FATIMA MATA NATIONAL COLLEGE, KOLLAM

Research Center:

FATIMA MATA NATIONAL COLLEGE, KOLLAM

KERALA, INDIA, 2019

DECLARATION

I, DANIMON.N, do hereby declare that this dissertation ‘**ROLE OF PARENTAL STYLES ON SELF -ESTEEM AMONG ADOLESCENTS**’ is a bonafide record of the dissertation work done by me under the guidance of DR. REENA GEORGE, Asst. Professor, Department of Psychology, FATIMA MATHA NATIONAL COLLEGE, KOLLAM. I further declare that this dissertation or any part of this has not been submitted for any degree, diploma, recognition or title in this or any other University or Institution.

Place: Fatima Mata National College, Kollam

Date: 28/07/2019

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Danimon.N

ROLE OF PARENTAL STYLES ON SELF-ESTEEM AMONG ADOLESCENTS.

Abstract

This study aims to investigate the impact of parental styles on self-esteem among adolescents. This study will be conducted through the participants of 120 students from various schools in Kollam who will be administered by psychological measures like, The Parental style Scales by Gafoor and self-esteem Scale by Rosenberg . The participants were randomly selected from different Schools. The statistical tools like, Correlation, t-test and ANOVA were used. The data collected will be analyzed with the help of SPSS. The result showed that there is a high relationship between parental styles and self-esteem. In addition that there is a significant influence of parental styles on self-esteem of adolescents

KEYWORDS: *Adolescents, Parental styles, Self-esteem,*

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CHAPTER

I

INTRODUCTION

PARENTAL STYLES

➤ SELF-ESTEEM

➤ STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

➤ SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

➤ DEFINITIONS OF THE KEY TERMS

➤ OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

Parental Styles

Parents play an influential role in modelling and shaping the behaviour of adolescents. From this perspective, Coste (2015) recognizes the work of Baumrind, a clinical as well as developmental psychologist best known for her work on parenting styles. Baumrind identified three parenting styles based on parental demandingness and responsiveness, which included authoritative parenting, authoritarian parenting, and permissive parenting.

In Proverbs 22: 6, God's Word tells us to attend to our parenting styles: "Train a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not turn from it." Parenting is the most rewarding work of adult life. Nothing brings more joy and pride than a happy, productive, and a loving child. Parents are considered the primary agents of socialization and they occupy the most important place in a child's life. 'Mathro devo bhava' and 'Pithra devo bhava'- In Indian culture, parents are given the place next only to God – given adulation and respect. Celebrated Indian epics, such as Ramayana and the Mahabharata, provide scripts of lifelong devotion to parents; and traditional Indian values stress continuity rather than discontinuity in family ties from childhood to adulthood (Kumar, 1993).

In Indian culture, parenting is a much longer process where there is prolonged dependence of child on the parents. In the West, individuation from family is seen as a developmental task of adolescence (Havighurst 1953), and the process of distancing or "breaking away" from the family is endorsed by the cultural scripts of literature and films (Considine 1985; Kiell 1959). In contrast to India, Western culture places high priority on adolescent's development of self reliance and fulfillment of each individual's distinct potentials (Saraswathi & Ganapathy 2002). There responsibility of parenting is shared between the parents and the state.

Adolescents are different from other human developmental stages such as infancy and childhood in terms of their strong sense to exercise their autonomy. Adolescents may begin to question the legitimacy of parental authority and supervision. Adolescents are particularly prone to defiant behaviour towards authority due to the need to be autonomous. Moreover as adolescents' transition from childhood to adults they go through different domain of issues and concerns. Adolescents are faced with the pressure of excelling in school and making future career decisions. It is also not uncommon for the family, school and society to impose higher expectation on adolescents. Coping with life's challenges are crucial for adolescents because failure to do so could lead to negative outcomes such as being defiant towards parental authority, engagement in risky behaviour (e.g. reckless driving, unprotected sex), drug and alcohol use and lack of self-esteem. Adolescents' self-belief in restraining themselves from engaging in misconduct is determined by their level of self-esteem.

Developmental psychologists have been interested in how parents influence the development of children's social and instrumental competence since at least the 1920's. One of the most robust approaches to this area has been the study of what has been called "parenting style". Parenting style has captured two important elements of parenting: parental responsiveness (also referred to as parental warmth or supportiveness) refers to the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality, self-regulation, and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children's special needs and demands (Baumrind, 1991), parental demandingness (also referred to as behavioural control) refers to the claims parents make on children to become integrated into the family whole, by their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child who disobeys (Baumrind, 1991).

Parenting style has been a typology rather than a linear combination of responsiveness and demandingness and therefore each parenting style is different from and more than the sum of its parts. In addition to differing on responsiveness and demandingness, the

parenting styles also differ in the extent to which they are characterized by a third dimension: psychological control. Psychological control “refers to control attempts that intrude into the psychological and emotional development of the child” (Barber, 1996) through use of parenting practices such as guilt, induction, withdrawal of love, or shaming. Parenting is a complex activity that includes many specific behaviors that work individually and together to influence outcomes. Although specific parenting behaviors such as spanking or reading aloud, may influence child development, looking at any specific behaviour in isolation may be misleading. Many writers have noted that specific parenting practices are less important in predicting child well-being than is the broad pattern of parenting. Most researchers who have attempted to describe this broad parental milieu have relied on Baumrind’s concept of parental style. The construct of parenting style has been used to capture normal variations in parents’ attempt to control and socialize their children (Baumrind, 1991).

Caporella (2007) examined that Parenting is one of the most relevant perspectives in the study of the relationships between parents and children. There has been a lot of previous research on the relationship between parenting styles and self-esteem. Parental styles will become a main focus in the early part of the 21st century. Diana Baumrind has spent over 30 years conducting longitudinal research to examine parenting styles in relation to social and psychological adjustment, academic success and general well-being of adolescents and children and developed parental authority prototypes: Authoritarian, Authoritative and Permissive (Baumrind, 1991). It has been significant to society as it has played a pivotal role on the development of adolescents who are important to the future. Good parenting practices will positively impact adolescent’s development. Much research has been conducted due to the well documented importance of parenting styles on various developments (Gale Encyclopaedia of Education, 2002). Harter stated that the foundation for self-esteem will be laid early in life, so the role of parenting in self-esteem development will be focused on much by psychologists.

Dwairy, Achoui, Abouserie, Farah, Ghazal, Fayad et al., (2006) identified Different

parenting styles have been associated with different levels of self-esteem and the levels will change based on various groups and community. Nowadays parenting style is certainly an interesting and important topic (Caporella, 2007). The reasons why this topic was chosen was to provide the public, parents and students alike with better understanding on parental styles and self-esteem. Different parenting styles have relationship to self-esteem differently, either positively or negatively. However, much research was only done in western countries and it is still a myth for African population regarding the unpopular statistics between parenting styles and self-esteem and this study will contribute a quota to that regard. Again as teenagers move through school and encounter new and more challenging situations spanning the academic, sexual, political and interpersonal spheres they require improved skills and resources. Self-esteem has often been assumed to help individuals adjust to adversity. Self-esteem has been a well-known construct and focuses on evaluations of global self-worth. Low self-esteem has been usually associated with self-damaging behaviors, whereas High self-esteem has been associated with an ability to cope more effectively with life's problems.

Parenting style provides a robust indicator of parenting functioning that predicts child well-being across a wide spectrum of environment. Parental responsiveness and parental demandingness are important components of good parenting. Parenting style usually is conceptualized along two dimensions: parental demandingness (control) and parental responsiveness (warmth), which can be combined to create four categories of parenting: authoritative (high demandingness and high responsiveness), authoritarian (high demandingness and low responsiveness), indulgent or permissive (low demandingness and high responsiveness), and indifferent or neglecting (low demandingness and low responsiveness) (Baumrind, 1971; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Research has shown that authoritative parenting is more related to higher levels of adjustment (Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn, & Dornbusch, 1991), psychosocial maturity (Lamborn, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989), psychosocial competence (Lamborn, Steinberg, Mounts & Dornbusch, 1991), self-esteem (Bartle, Anderson, & Sabatelli, 1989; Johnson, Shulman, & Cplins, 1991), and academic success (Dornbusch, Ritter,

Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleig).

Theoretical Framework

The concept parenting style is viewed as a characteristic of a parent that changes the effectiveness of family socialisation practices and children's receptiveness to such practices (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Parenting styles are broad patterns of childrearing practices, values, and behaviours. It is the way parents take care of their children which can have impact on the children's personality development and the ways of interacting with social and close relations (Akhtar, 2012). While various typologies of parenting styles have been developed and utilised in literature, Baumrind (1991) typology (authoritative, authoritarian and permissive styles) has largely been accepted as very comprehensive. Consequently, the current study utilised this typology to assess the relationship between parenting styles and children's social development.

Authoritative Parenting Style

Baumrind first introduced the concept of authoritative parenting style. According to Baumrind (1966), the authoritative parents provide guidance to their children on issue oriented and rational manner. Since the level of demandingness is higher in this parenting style, parents usually welcome effective communication as well as effective relationship between them (Piko & Balazs, 2012).

Hoskins (2014) points out that authoritative parents display more demandingness and responsiveness by exhibiting more supportive towards harsh behaviour. These parents encourage verbal give-and take, express reasoning behind rules and use power, reason, and shaping to strengthen objectives. This style of parenting is more associated with positive adolescent outcomes. As a result, it is found as most beneficial and effective style of parenting among most of the families. In other words, authoritative parenting style fosters positive well-being of adolescents. For parents to be classified as authoritative they should fulfil the criterion proposed by Baumrind; however, for

parents to be categorized as authoritative, they should have low score in terms of passive acceptant.

Sarwar Nijhof and Engels (2007) have a firm belief that authoritative parenting style plays an influential role in the development of healthy adolescent psychologically and socially. This is particularly because authoritative parenting style helps the children to develop higher level of self-reliance, self-esteem and ability to employ effective coping strategies, while developing positive self-image (Parker & Benson, 2004).

The authoritative style balances clear, high expectations with emotional support and recognition of children's autonomy. The authoritative parent tries to direct the child, but in a rational manner (Baumrind, 1991). Such a parent encourages give and take but shares the reasoning behind his or her rules. These parents value both autonomous self-will and disciplined conformity. They exercise firm control with certain points but the child is not tied up with restrictions (Baumrind, 1991). Authoritative parents provide a warm family climate, set standards and promote independence, which result in more active career exploration on the part of children (Kracke 1997). This sort of parenting is characterised by high levels of nurturance, involvement, sensitivity, reasoning and encouragement of autonomy. They provide a positive emotional climate for their children in order to promote autonomy and support assertiveness and individuality. Authoritative parents are assertive but intrusive and restrictive. Their disciplinary methods are supportive rather than punitive. Parents who direct the activities and decisions for their children through reasoning and discipline are described as authoritative (Turner, Chadler & Heffer, 2009).

Authoritarian Parenting Style

The authoritarian parent tries to shape, control, and evaluate the behaviour and attitudes of the child in accordance with a set standard of conduct (Baumrind, 1991). Obedience is a virtue and punitive measures are used to curb self-will. When the child expresses actions or beliefs that are at variance with parent's or when the child's

actions or beliefs go contrary to what the authoritarian parent deems as a good conduct, the child is panelised. This type of parenting tries to institute respect of authority, respect for work and preservation of order and traditional structure. Verbal give and take is not encouraged and the parent's word should be accepted as right, willy-nilly. Parents characterised as authoritarian exhibit highly directive behaviours, high levels of restriction and rejection behaviours and power-asserting behaviours of children (Turner, et al 2009). Maintenance of structure and order are high priorities for these parents. These parents are highly demanding and unresponsive.

The authoritarian parents attempt to evaluate, shape and control the attitudes as well as behaviour of their children in line with set standards of conduct, known as absolute standard. In the light of this absolute standard, children are supposed to follow very strict rules defined by their parents. In case the children fail to comply with such rules they are punished. Cherry (2015) points out that authoritarian parents usually fail to come up with reasoning behind such rules.

According to Hoskins (2014), authoritarian parents exhibit low responsiveness and they are highly demanding. In this style of parenting, parents emphasize on conformity and obedience and thus expect that they are obeyed without explanation in a less warm environment. Furthermore, authoritarian parents display low level of engagement and trust toward their children. They most often discourage open communication and make strict control of a child's behaviour. In other words, it is widely believed that an authoritarian parent is forceful, punitive and believes that a child should adhere to work in accordance to ethics and should be obedient. In the authoritarian parenting style, parents are more concerned with the traditional family structure; therefore, they limit Parenting Style on Children's Behaviour the child's autonomy along with the parent-child relationship. Since the foremost concern of this parenting style rests within the traditional family structure, the child is demanded to adhere to parent's orders without any questions; therefore, it can be argued that authoritarian parenting style tends to rely on rules that are considered as concrete.

According to Nijhof and Engels (2007), the authoritarian parenting style is related with the lower level of ability and self-confidence to employ coping mechanisms among adolescents and thus restricts a child to explore his/her capabilities and social interactions, eventually resulting in the child's dependence on parental guidance and direction.

Permissive Parenting Style

The permissive parent attempts to behave in a non-punitive, accepting, and affirmative manner towards the child's impulses, desires, and actions (Baumrind, 1991). With this type of parenting, few demands are made of the child regarding such things as chores. This type of parenting does not require the parent to act as an active agent responsible for shaping or altering the child's behaviour (Baumrind, 1991). The child is allowed to regulate his or her own activities. The parent does not control the child nor encourages the child to obey external standards. Parents who adopt this type of parenting consider self-regulation to be the right of a child to live freely without outside authority. Those who support this type of parenting style feel that punishment has inevitable negative side effects and it is an ineffective means of controlling behaviour. They also feel that close supervision, high demands, and other manifestations of parental authority provoke rebelliousness in children

According to those who espouse this parenting type, firm parental control generates passivity and dependence in the child (Baumrind, 1991). Permissive parenting is characterised by making few demands, exhibiting non-controlling behaviours and using minimal punishment. These parents are warm and responsible but not demanding and have few expectations of their children. Parents who do not set rules and regulations for their children's behaviour are described as possessing a permissive parenting style (Turner, et al, 2009).

The important role of parenting practices in the development of the child has garnered research attention of educationists. Consequently, a plethora of researches has been

conducted to determine how significantly parenting styles are related to student cognitive and psycho-motor development.

Dornbousch, Rither, Liederman, Roberts and Fraleigh (1987) conducted a study to find the relationship between parenting styles and student learning achievement. The study utilised school performance of 7,836 high school adolescents in San Francisco. The students' performance was based on a measure of self-reported grade averages and questionnaire was used to obtain indirect measures of parenting style. The results revealed that authoritative parenting style was positively correlated with students' school grades while authoritarian and permissive styles were negatively correlated with school grades. The relationship was consistent across ethnic, parents' education, gender and age.

Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, (1994) Studies have also established that children raised by authoritative parents scored higher on measures of academic competence, achievement, self-perceptions, and mental health than do children reared by the other three parenting types.

Strage and Brandt (1999) studied the role of parenting styles in the live of college students and found that previous parenting behaviours continue to be important in the lives of the students. The more autonomy, demand and support parents provided, the more students were confident and persistent academically as with children and adolescents.

In a related study, Shaw (2008) found a relationship between academic self-efficacy and parenting styles. The study examined the relationship between parenting styles and academic self-efficacy and college adjustment of 31 fresh engineering students. The study reported strong academic self-efficacy in students of authoritative parents than those of other parents.

A study by Aunola, Stattin and Nurmi (2002) set out to investigate the extent to which

adolescents' academic strategies were associated with the parenting styles they experienced in their families. The results unveiled four types of families: authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and neglectful parenting styles. The study further disclosed that adolescents from authoritative families applied most of the adaptive achievement strategies characterised by low levels of failure expectations and task-irrelevant behaviours unlike their cohorts from other families. The parenting styles adopted in the upbringing of the children had great influence on the children's choice of academic strategies.

Tay and Tam (2011) also studied the relationship between parenting styles and coping capability of adolescent children. The survey study that used 140 students found that parenting styles correlated with adolescents' coping capability. It emerged that authoritarian paternal and authoritative maternal parenting correlated with adolescents' coping capability. On his part, Starr (2011) examined the relationship among the styles of parenting, learning autonomy, perceived parental autonomy support and scholastic achievement of undergraduate students. The results revealed positive and negative correlations between many of the variables in the study.

Parenting styles had a significant and positive direct effect on achievement motive for female students but not for male students. However, Cramer's (2002) study found a positive relationship between parenting styles and classroom motivation of the students.

Hickman, Suzanne and McKeny (2000) also examined relationship between parenting styles and academic performance and adjustment in college students. Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) was used to assess respondents' perceptions of parenting styles while self-reported college grade point (GPA) was used to assess student academic achievement. The study unveiled that authoritative parenting style was positively correlated with students' academic achievement, while permissive and authoritarian styles negatively correlated with students' achievement.

A comparative study was carried out by Gary, Levin, Urajnik and Kauppi (2005) to examine parenting styles, family characteristics and academic achievement using sample of Canadian and East Indian adolescents. Items in the questionnaire, the instrument used to gather data were based on acceptance and strictness. The results of the study disclosed that the percentages of self-reported authoritative parenting style were similar in both Canadian and East Indian samples. On parents using authoritarian parent style, there were differences. While 35% of the Canadian sample used it, 19% of the East Indian sample used it. In the Canadian sample, it was realised that authoritative parenting style was related to highest academic achievement but with the East Indian sample there was no relationship.

Yusuf (2004) set out to investigate the influence of parenting styles on junior secondary school students' performance in social studies. Questionnaire and proforma were used to collect data on parenting styles and students' performance. The data on junior school certificate and parenting styles were analyzed using frequency count, percentages and chi- square to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses raised in the study. The results showed that the parenting styles adopted had influence on the performance of the students.

It was also realised that students from authoritative parenting had better performance than students from other parenting styles. Differences exist in the academic performance of children with authoritative parents and those with authoritarian and permissive parents and that parenting style is a major predictor of student academic achievement. Authoritative parenting style is associated with high academic achievement. Authoritative parenting style tends to emphasis both responsiveness and demandingness which appears superior in fostering higher academic performance (Reitman, Rhode, Hopp & Altobello, 2002). There is, however, dearth of knowledge on the influence of parenting styles on social competence of pupils. Do children of authoritative parents behave better than those of authoritarian and permissive parents? This question needed empirically-based evidence, hence the need for the study.

According to Baumrind (1966), permissive parents attempt to behave in acceptant, affirmative and non-punitive manner toward their children's impulses, actions and desires. Considering the definition proposed by Baumrind that this parenting style tends to have a higher level of responsiveness, it implies that a responsive parent is more likely to define and determine rules associated with family, while encouraging the adolescents to consider it as a resource (Johnson & Kelley, 2011).

Neglecting Parenting Style

Neglecting parents are those that show very low level of involvement as well as strictness with their child (Kremers, Brug, de Vries, & Engels, 2003). According to Hoskins (2014), permissive parents can be characterized as exhibiting low level of demandingness and high level of responsiveness, whereas neglecting parents are neither responsive nor demanding. They behave in a manner that is more affirmative toward the impulses, actions and desires of adolescent while consulting with them about family decisions. In addition, they tend to avoid engaging in behavioural control, do not set rules and set a small number of behavioural expectations for their adolescents.

From this perspective, it can be stated that permissive parents actually allow the adolescents to actively participate without being concerned for their actions. Nevertheless, it is widely believed that the delinquent behavior in most of the juveniles is the result of parenting styles. For example, Poduthase (2012) argues that adolescents can be led towards delinquent behaviour when they are exposed to lack of intimacy, lack of guidance, lack of parental involvement, lack of parental attachment, anger and blaming. It would therefore not be wrong to state that there is a significant link between the parental styles and individual's tendency to engage in delinquent or violent behaviour. In other words, lack of parental involvement and interaction results in increased risk of violence, primarily in male juveniles (Brook et al, 2014).

Self-esteem

The term self-esteem comes from a Greek word meaning "reverence for self." The "self" part of self-esteem pertains to the values, beliefs and attitudes that we hold about ourselves. The "esteem" part of self-esteem describes the value and worth that one gives oneself. Simplistically self-esteem is the acceptance of us for whom and what we are at any given time in our lives. Rosenberg (1965) states: "when we speak of high self esteem .., we ... simply mean that the individual respects himself, considers himself worthy. Low self esteem, on the other hand implies self rejection, self dissatisfaction, self contempt". Most researchers agree that parental affection/support is positively related to adolescent (Harper, 1987; Kawas, Peterson, Southworth, and Peters, 1983). Likewise a parenting style that avoids the use of guilt, anxiety, and love withdrawal for use in controlling behaviour appears to have a positive relationship with the self-esteem in adolescents (Graybill, 1987; Kwash et al Litovisky and Dusek, 1985). It is believed that such behaviors instill in children a sense of their inherent value (Openshaw et al, 1984). A somewhat more ambiguous picture emerges regarding parental discipline should promote self esteem (Baumrind, 1968; Coopersmith, 1967;Edler,1963).

In the history of research on the self-concept, no topic has been more heavily studied than self-esteem, thus making self-esteem a household name. Self-esteem has been defined as a person's confidence and belief that he or she is able to achieve something that has significant effect over their lives, and it has a major effect over a person's ability to compete with other individuals. This study has analyzed the influence of parental styles on adolescent's self-esteem. Adolescence has been known to be a rather challenging developmental stage in human life span for adolescents as well as their parents.

Some studies indicate that mild form of punishment is associated with high self-esteem in children (Grove, 1980; Peterson et al., 1983). Others argue that excessive parental control (discipline) is linked to low self-esteem (Litovsky and Dusek, 1986; Openshaw et al., 1984). However no clear conclusion could be drawn out of the

various studies carried on. The individual's positive or negative evaluation of one's own worth or value is known as self-esteem. It influences the psychological development and wellbeing of adolescents including their mental health adjustment and academic attainment. Parenting is a complex activity that includes many specific behaviors that work individually and together none is more significant than the family.

The empirical evidence relating self-esteem and other variables gives a theoretical perspective to the problem under study and also reveals unexplored areas. 'Therefore, the literatures on self-esteem related to the present study are reviewed under the following sub-sections.

Conceptualisation of Self-esteem

The literature on 'self-esteem' shows that several researchers have conceptualised the term and the explanations given by them are given below. Self-esteem is frequently described in terms of evaluative attitudes. According to k3Senberg (1965), self-esteem means 'the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself: it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval. Cooper smith (1967) has also defined the concept in a similar way.

According to Bachman and O'Malley (1977), self-esteem refers to an individual's self-evaluation or judgement of his/her own worth. According to Pavur and Little (1981) self-esteem is the total set of evaluative attitudes about one's worth as a person in a variety of situations. Mussen et al. (1984) distinguish self-esteem from self-concept and indicate that self-esteem is not identical to self-concept, though the two are often confused. The self-concept is a set of ideas about oneself that is descriptive rather than judgmental. Self-esteem, on the other hand, refers to one's evaluation of one's own qualities. Lie searchers like Bee (1992), Santrock (1994), Ziegler and Stevenson (1987), and Sprinthall and Collins (1995) agree that self-esteem is the evaluative and affective dimension of self-concept. Self-esteem also is referred to as self-worth or self-image. Some of the definitions conceive 'self-esteem' in terms of the relation between two sets of attitudes.

According to Cohen (1959) self-esteem is the degree of correspondence between an individual's ideal and actual concept of himself; he considers it as a discrepancy between ideals and actual attainment. Silber and Tippett (1965) explain the term as the attitude a person has toward himself who is presumed to reflect the approximation of the person's self-image, how he actually sees himself with his own ideal self-image and how he would really like to be.

Carlson (1965) has pointed out that if people are to have self-esteem, there must be a correspondence between their concepts of self and their self-ideals. Warter's interesting research on self-esteem (Harter, 1988, 1990) shows that self-esteem is the degree of discrepancy between the value an individual places on some skill or quality and the amount of that skill or quality the individual sees herself as having. Block and Robins (1993) defined self-esteem as "the extent to which one perceives oneself as relatively close to being the person one wants to be." Many investigators have considered self-esteem as a psychological response.

Rogers (1950) described acceptance of self as a tendency of the person to perceive himself as a person of worth, worthy of respect rather than condemnation. Liosenberg (1965) has stated that high self-esteem expresses the feeling that one is 'good-enough' and the individual feels that he is a person of worth. Low self-esteem on the other hand implies self-rejection, self-dissatisfaction and self-contempt.

According to Forssmann and Johnson (1996) self-acceptance refers to the individual's evaluation of his self-concepts and his coping-abilities, and co-relates with basic self-esteem. While defining the concept, some authors have viewed self-esteem as a personality function. Ziller et al. (1969) define self-esteem as a component of the self-system which regulates the extent to which the self-system is maintained under conditions of strain, such as during the processing of new information concerning the self.

Ziegler and Stevenson (1987) consider self-esteem as a vital part of the child's

personality, affecting all aspect:: of her behaviour. Apart from the definitions and descriptions given above, it seems relevant to mention the various terms used by different authors with meanings more or less similar to self-esteem. Fouche and Grobbelaar (1970), stressed one's self-confidence in defining self-esteem.

Wells and Marwell (1976) consider the term self-acceptance and self-esteem as equivalent. In her critical review of measures of self-concept, Wylie (1974) used the words, 'self-regard' or 'self-regarding attitudes' as generic terms to include self-satisfaction, self-acceptance, self-esteem, self-favourability, congruence between self and ideal self, and discrepancies between self and ideal self. Thus, the literatures on the conceptualisations of self-esteem have presented the term as an evaluative, judgmental, or affective aspect of a person's self-conception and also as the discrepancy between self-image and ideal self-image!.

Components/Dimensions of Self-esteem

Some authors have made an attempt to describe the nature of self-esteem by analysing the components and specifying the various aspects of it. According to Simpson and Boyle (1975) there are three specific types of self-esteem: global self-esteem (resulting from a general evaluation), specific self-esteem (related to a situation or role such as work), and task specific self-esteem (related to competence in a particular activity).

Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton (1976), after analysing the components of self-esteem, found that general self-esteem Lies at the top of a hierarchy and can be separated into academic and non-academic components. The latter is assumed to be further divisible into physical, emotional and social aspects.

Franks and Marolla (1976) conceive self-esteem as having two interacting dimensions: outer self-esteem (which gives rise to feelings of self-worth), and inner self-esteem (which gives rise to feelings of power and competence). Self-esteem consists of "inner or outer" self-esteem (Gecas and SchwaYbe, 1983), where inner

refers to the self-esteem which is acquired by one's (own, and outer by other's appraisal of one's success.

Franks and Marolla (1976) also distinguish between "given or earned", where 'given' refers to the self-esteem which is based on "the reflected appraisal of others" (Mead, 1934) and 'earned' to the self-esteem which is a result of the individual's appraisals of his ability to cope with an impartial world so as to obtain desired goals by his own intentional acts. The former is supposed to be accompanied by a more passive orientation and the latter by a more active orientation.

Flemings and Watts (1980) have reported three factors of self-esteem, namely, social confidence, school abilities and self-regard. Some authors like Mc Farlin and Blascovich (1981) differentiate between 'chronic' and 'acute' self-esteem. Chronic self-esteem involves the relatively enduring perception of overall worth or competence, while acute self-esteem refers to an individual's perception of worth or competence within the context of a specific task or setting.

According to Harter (1982b) self-esteem may vary according to different skill domains or areas of competence. The Self-Perception Profile for children taps five specific domains-scholastic competence, athletic competence, social acceptance, physical appearance and behavioural conduct-plus general self-worth (Harter, 1985). The Self- Perception Profile for Adolescents taps eight domains (Harter, 1989), including three skill domains not present in the children's version-job competence, romantic appeal, and close friendship.

A recent study by Hopkins and Klein (1993) stresses the usefulness of a multidimensional construct of self-perception. It concludes, many researchers have indicated the need for understanding the children's domain-specific aspects of self-esteem, while measuring the global self-worth.

There are a multitude of factors which can affect self-esteem but arguably none is more significant than the family. This is not to imply that the family is the cause of an individual's level of self-esteem but rather has a 'predisposing' effect. Certain parental attitudes have been found to effect self-esteem (Mruk: 1995, Joseph: 1994). These are:

- Parental involvement - the greater a parents involvement with and to their child the higher the levels of self-esteem.

- Parental warmth - also defined as unconditional positive acceptance (Joseph: 1994) is the ability to accept a child's strengths and weaknesses. This acceptance is 'warm' in that it is balanced.
- Clear expectations - boundaries that are clear and firm without being authoritarian help the child ascertain what behaviours are acceptable and what are not.
- Respect - respect for one's children coupled with a democratic or authoritative parenting style has the most positive effect on self-esteem.
- Parental consistency - being consistent in the treatment of one's children enhances self-esteem because it reinforces the value of the child to the parent.
- Empowering children - confident, capable individuals who believe they can achieve generally have positive self-esteem (Joseph: 1994). Parents can empower children by fostering responsibility for their feelings and actions.
- Modelling - children imitate what they see. Parents who face life's challenges honestly and directly expose their children to examples of problem-solving strategies which can enhance self-esteem.
- Positive thinking - a positive perspective helps us see the good things in life rather than the bad, which helps foster a positive self-esteem.

Just as there are experiences which build self-esteem there are others which can have a damaging effect on self-esteem (Van Ness 1995). Some of these are:

- Repeated negative evaluation by others - if we are repeatedly told we are dumb, stupid, slow, fat and so on we can come to believe this.
- Severe or repeated criticism - self-worth and self-confidence can be damaged if we are told that we are 'not good enough' or 'below average'.
- Negative humour, putdowns and 'barbed kidding' - all of these are criticism disguised in a joke but nonetheless are a powerful form of putdown.
- Mistakes, errors or failures - whilst all of these experiences are normal occurrences in the path of experience, for many they can lower confidence and ultimately self-esteem.

NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE

The present study explores the relationship of parental styles on self-esteem among adolescents. . It is distinctive because it will look at the direction of these variables. One of the focus points of this study is the relationship between parental styles and self-esteem. Self-esteem is a major concern in human life that can be affected by different factors including parental styles and other adolescent's issues.

A good parenting style would enable a person to enhance his/her self esteem. Parenting style is used to help children and adolescents to inculcate the values and responsibilities in themselves and others. Moreover, it makes them a better person to handle problems and difficulties in their life. When considering the effects of Parenting Styles on self-esteem among adolescents, it is possible to promote a healthy life in adolescents, if the best parenting style is applied. Also, the authoritative parenting style will also help to decrease their problems in personal life and see the positive outcomes of life. Parenting style is very important as it gives direction to our life in critical moments. This also helps to solve the problems of meaning and values.

Self esteem can be affected by a good numbers of factors ranging from physical, emotional, social and economical .Self- esteem can cause extreme problems with a person's attitude towards himself/herself especially with the adolescents. Therefore, this study investigates relationship between parenting styles and self-esteem. The study will try to confirm the hypothesis associated with parental styles and self-esteem. The findings of the study will add new insights and hope to generate further studies in the same framework. The study will also assist the adolescents and parents

to understand their pattern of parenting style.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem to be focused in the study is entitled as “Role of Parenting Style on Self-esteem among Adolescents”.

KEY TERMS DEFINED

Operational Definitions

- **Parenting styles:** It is a universal climate in which a family functions and in which child rearing behaviors of parents are described by the way parents react and respond to their child’s emotion.
- **Permissive parenting:** It involves high involvement with their children but place few demands or control on them.
- **Authoritarian:** It is a restrictive, directive, highly demanding, punitive style that exhorts the child to follow the parents directions and to respect work and effort and not responsive to the needs or demands of children.
- **Authoritative parenting style:** It offers a balance of warmth and control and encourages children to be independent but still places firm limits and controls on the child and allows little verbal exchange.

- **Adolescents:** This refers to individuals between the ages of 14 to 18 .
- **Self Esteem:** This refers to an evaluation of the self by an individual and the feelings associated or connected with the evaluation.

OBJECTIVES

- To examine whether there exists any relationship between parental styles and self-esteem.
- To examine whether there exists any difference between parenting styles of father on self-esteem among adolescents.
- To examine whether there exists any difference between parenting styles of mother on self-esteem among adolescents..

CHAPTER

2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

PARENTAL STYLES

Parents have huge impact on a person's life. Number of studies in the area of parenting matches its importance on the developing person. Parenting process combines all the activities of the parents that intended to support their children's wellbeing. One of the most studied approaches to understanding parental influences on human development is concept of parenting style .Baumrind proposed parenting styles as correlates to socialization of the children. Then many researches recognized the importance of researching role of parenting style in child development.

Clark and Jeglic (2009) conducted a study on parenting styles focused on three parenting styles originally proposed by Baumrind namely authoritative parenting, authoritarian parenting and permissive parenting, though in 1971, Baumrind added negligent parenting. Baumrind grouped parents to three (or four) parenting styles according to their child rearing patterns, on the basis of her interviews with parents and children.

Maccoby and Martin (1983) conducted a study for grouping parents to different styles, suggested a conceptual structure in; they viewed parenting style as combinations of differing levels of parental demandingness and warmth. The styles are thus determined by measuring parental warmth and demandingness. There is a growing interest in the role of parenting in a person's affective and social characteristics. The attention of educational researchers on the parenting styles and their effects on school relevant developmental outcomes are also on the rise.

Aunola, Stattin and Nurmi, (2000) investigated that Several studies found that parenting style or parental behavior has statistically significant relation with developmental outcomes like performance, achievement strategies, self-regulated learning, achievement goals, self-efficacy and wellbeing of students. Though these studies demonstrated the significance of researching the effect of parenting style in the development of a person, numbers of published instruments for measuring parenting styles are very few, and most of the available instruments are based on tripartite classification of these styles initially proposed Baumrind (Baumrind, 1967).

Parenting behaviour is deeply influenced by culture. The culture decides the limits of behaviour that to be controlled and praised. Extant conceptualization of the parental behaviour largely bases on studies conducted with majority White, middle class families' values, cultural norms, and parental expectancies (Rodriguez, Donovanick & Crowley, 2009).

Heavenr and Ciarrochi, (2008) examined the developmental trajectory of trait hope and self-esteem over 4 years and the impact of gender and perceived parental styles on these trajectories. Participants were 884 high school students. There was a general decline in hope and self-esteem over time, with females declining more rapidly than males. Girls had higher hope than boys in Grade 7, but lower hope by Grade 10. Perceived parental authoritativeness at Time 1 was related to high hope across the 4 years, whilst perceived parental authoritarianism was related to low self-esteem. We discuss the importance of perceived parental styles for adolescent well being, as well as possible explanations for changes in hope and self-esteem.

Nastas and Sala (2012) focused on the idea that Parents try to adopt a parental style adapted to their own sons and daughters' needs, some of them consider opportune educating adolescents like they were once educated, and others wish to act differently from their parents' education.

Wood and Tolley (2003) study proposed to highlight the relationship between the level of development of emotional intelligence and parental styles. There were implied 90 adolescents and their parents. The adolescents completed 2 individual tests which evaluate the developmental level of emotional intelligence and its components: Emotional Intelligence Scale – EIS ([Schute et al., 1998](#)) and Battery of Emotional Intelligence Profile – BTPIE (The parents were asked to fill in the Questionnaire for the parental styles– CSP. The results show the fact that the development level of emotional intelligence is influenced by the five parental styles: authoritarian, dictatorial, permissive, democratic and rejecting / neglecting. The manner in which parents rapport to their own adolescents, marks the level of development of emotional intelligence.

Martinez and Garcia (2007) examined the relationship of parenting styles with adolescents' outcomes was analyzed within a sample of Spanish adolescents. A sample of 1456 teenagers from 13 to 16 years of age, of whom 54.3% were females, reported on their parents' child-rearing practices. The teenagers' parents were

classified into one of four groups (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, or neglectful). The adolescents were then contrasted on two different outcomes: (1) priority given to Schwartz's self-transcendence (universalism and benevolence) and conservation (security, conformity, and tradition) values and (2) level of self-esteem (appraised in five domains: academic, social, emotional, family and physical). The results show that Spanish adolescents from indulgent households have the same or better outcomes than adolescents from authoritative homes. Parenting is related with two self-esteem dimensions—academic and family—and with all the self-transcendence and conservation values. Adolescents of indulgent parents show highest scores in self-esteem whereas adolescents from authoritarian parents obtain the worst results. In contrast, there were no differences between the priority given by adolescents of authoritative and indulgent parents to any of the self-transcendence and conservation values, whereas adolescents of authoritarian and neglectful parents, in general, assign the lowest priority to all of these values.

Lee, Daniels and Kissinger (2006) study identified distinct patterns of parental practices that differentially influence adolescent behaviour using the National Educational Longitudinal Survey (NELS: 88) database. Following Brenner and Fox's research model (1999), the cluster analysis was used to classify the four types of parental practices. The clusters of parenting practices in the current study showed convergence with Baumrind's parenting style. The results indicated that these four clusters differentially affected students' self-concept, locus of control, and academic achievement. The authors discuss how these identified parenting behaviour patterns are linked with children's adjustment, development, and achievement.

Heaven, Ciarrochi, and Lesson (2010) examined the effect of Grade 7 parental styles on Grade 10 religious values. The authors surveyed 784 participants (382 boys, 394 girls; 8 unreported) in Grade 7. The mean age of the group at Time 1 was 12.3 years (SD = 0.5 years). Time 2 occurred 3 years later when students were in Grade 10 (372 boys, 375 girls). In addition to assessing parental styles at Time 1, we also controlled for a number of Time 1 variables thought to possibly influence Time 2 religious

values, namely, self-esteem, trait hope, and students' levels of conscientiousness. Time 1 measures (except self-esteem) were significantly correlated with Time 2 religious values, but only parental authoritativeness and hope significantly predicted religious values. The authors discuss these results with reference to the nature of parental styles and hope and their impact on religious values.

Milevsky, Schlechter, Netter, and Keehn, (2006) examined variations in adolescent adjustment as a function of maternal and paternal parenting styles. Participants included 272 students in grades 9 and 11 from a public high school in a metropolitan area of the North-eastern US. Participants completed measures of maternal and paternal parenting styles and indices of psychological adjustment. Authoritative mothering was found to relate to higher self-esteem and life-satisfaction and to lower depression. Paternal parenting styles was also related to psychological adjustment, however, although the advantage of authoritative mothering over permissive mothering was evident for all outcomes assessed, for paternal styles the advantage was less defined and only evident for depression. Our study highlights the importance of examining process-oriented agents as part of the broader interest in well-being variations in adolescents.

Carreras et al., (2013) conducted a study on parents that Mothers and fathers often adopt different approaches to raising their children, and the influence of different parenting styles on the development of behavioural problems may be different for boys and girls. Using data from 89 subjects, 42 boys and 47 girls, with a mean age of 62.8 months ($SD = 3.3$), the current study tested the influence of early negative maternal and paternal parenting styles on the development of boys' and girls' aggressive and behavioural problems. Parents, when children aged 5–6, completed the Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire, and when children aged 8–9, the child behaviour checklist. Children were evaluated for aggressive behaviour with peers using the Direct and Indirect Aggression Scale at age 8–9. Our results show that an authoritarian maternal style is positively associated with both children's externalizing and internalizing problems while the combination of an authoritarian

maternal style and a permissive paternal style was negatively associated with internalizing problems, but only in boys, and this type of family was positively associated with both types of aggressive behaviour in girls and boys. Besides, the combination of a permissive maternal style and a permissive paternal style was positively related to girls' (but not boys') physical aggression.

Rubin, Nelson, Hastings, and Asendorpf, (1999) have examined factors that “determine” parenting beliefs, styles, and behaviours. One potential determinant of parenting is the child him/herself. Child characteristics, such as temperament, have been cited as evocative influences on parenting beliefs and behaviours. The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the longitudinal relations between children's social wariness/inhibition and parents' beliefs about how to best socialise their children. Questionnaire data on child temperament and parenting practices were collected from the parents (mothers and fathers) of sixty 2-year-olds; identical data were collected 2 years later. Observations of inhibited behaviour were taken at two years. Results indicated that few differences existed between mothers' and fathers' expressed parenting styles at ages 2 and 4 years. Second, parental perceptions of child shyness at age 2 were: (a) stable to age 4; and (b) predicted a lack of encouragement of independence at age 4. Third, parents' expressed lack of encouragement of independence, although stable from 2 to 4 years, failed to predict child shyness at age 4. The findings support the conjecture that young children's dispositional characteristics predict subsequent maternal and paternal behaviour.

Cohen and Rice (1997) investigated about how children and their parents rate their parenting styles, and how this rating is associated with academic achievement, alcohol, and tobacco use. We surveyed students and their parents in two public school districts. A total of 386 matched parent-child pairs from eighth- and ninth-grade students were analyzed for parent and student classification of parents as authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, or mixed parenting styles. Agreement on parenting styles between parents and children was poor. Students perceived parents as less authoritative, less permissive and more authoritarian than parents considered

themselves. High grades were associated with child and parent perception of higher authoritativeness, lower permissiveness, and lower authoritarianism. Child tobacco and alcohol use was associated with child perception of lower authoritativeness, and higher permissiveness while parent perception of parenting style was not associated with child substance use. This study provides further evidence that parenting styles and adolescents' perceptions of them are associated with child achievement and substance use. While we cannot determine whether child or parent perception of parenting style is more accurate, child perception is more strongly associated with grades and substance use than is parent perception. It is likely that parents would benefit from understanding how they are perceived by their children.

Chao, (1994) investigated that styles of parenting have been found to be predictive of poor school achievement among European-Americans, and yet the Chinese are performing quite well in school. This study suggests that the concepts of authoritative and authoritarian are somewhat ethnocentric and do not capture the important features of Chinese child rearing, especially for explaining their school success. Immigrant Chinese and European-American mothers of preschool-aged children were administered standard measures of parental control and authoritative-authoritarian parenting style as well as Chinese child-rearing items involving the concept of "training." After controlling for their education, and their scores on the standard measures, the Chinese mothers were found to score significantly higher on the "training" ideologies. This "training" concept has important features, beyond the authoritarian concept, that may explain Chinese school success.

Darling & Steinberg, (1993) investigated that despite broad consensus about the effects of parenting practices on child development, many questions about the construct parenting style remain unanswered. Particularly pressing issues are the variability in the effects of parenting style as a function of the child's cultural background, the processes through which parenting style influences the child's development, and the operationalization of parenting style. Drawing on historical review, the authors present a model that integrates 2 traditions in socialization

research, the study of specific parenting practices and the study of global parent characteristics. They propose that parenting style is best conceptualized as a context that moderates the influence of specific parenting practices on the child. It is argued that only by maintaining the distinction between parenting style and parenting practice can researchers address questions concerning socialization processes. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2016 APA, all rights reserved)

Langsley, Fairbairn and Deyoung, (1968) examined the fact that like the individual, the family may be better understood from a developmental point of view. It has different tasks and problems at various stages of its existence. The family with adolescent children faces a change in composition (loss of children and the responsibility of helping these children become adults). This threat may produce a family crisis and individual members may react to the specific conflicts in a manner which depends on their previous problems. The family member who becomes a 'patient' may be the teenager or a parent. A family crisis therapy approach permits tension reduction within the group, improves functioning on the part of the 'patient' and permits the family to work out a more adaptive solution.

Milevsky, Schlechter, Netter, and Keehn (2006) conducted a study examined variations in adolescent adjustment as a function of maternal and paternal parenting styles. Participants included 272 students in grades 9 and 11 from a public high school in a metropolitan area of the North-eastern US. Participants completed measures of maternal and paternal parenting styles and indices of psychological adjustment. Authoritative mothering was found to relate to higher self-esteem and life-satisfaction and to lower depression. Paternal parenting styles was also related to psychological adjustment, however, although the advantage of authoritative mothering over permissive mothering was evident for all outcomes assessed, for paternal styles the advantage was less defined and only evident for depression. Our study highlights the importance of examining process-oriented agents as part of the broader interest in well-being variations in adolescents.

Hoeve, Dubas, Gerris, Van der Laan, and Smeenk (2011) The present study examines the cross-sectional and longitudinal associations between fathers' and

mothers' [parenting](#) styles and male and female [delinquency](#) using a sample of 330 Dutch families with a mid or late [adolescent](#) son or daughter (ages 14–22), followed across two [measurement](#) waves with a 5-year interval. Parenting styles of fathers and mothers were linked to [delinquency](#). A significant [parenting](#) style by [sex](#) interaction was found: neglectful parenting was related to higher levels of delinquency in males and [permissive parenting](#) was linked to delinquency in females. A long term relationship was found between fathers' neglectful parenting style and delinquency in males. Furthermore, results revealed that levels of delinquency were the lowest in families with at least one authoritative parent and highest in families with two neglectful parents, indicating that the level of delinquency was dependent on the combination of mother's and father's [parenting styles](#).

Cheng and Furnham (2004) conducted a study to determine to what extent three recalled parental (care, discouragement of behavioural freedom, denial of psychological autonomy), self-esteem, and self-criticism predicted self-rated happiness in a normal, non-clinical, population of young people in their late teens and early 20s. Three hundred and sixty-five participants completed four questionnaires: Parental Bonding Instrument (Parker, Tupling and Brown: 1979, *British Journal of Medical Psychology* 55, pp. 1–10), Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg: 1965, *Society and the Adolescent Self-Image* (Princeton University Press, Princeton, NJ)), Self-Criticism Questionnaire (Brewin, Firth-Cozens, Furnham and McManus: 1992, *Journal of Abnormal Psychology* 101, pp. 561–566), and the Oxford Happiness Inventory (Argyle, Martin and Crossland: 1989, *Recent Advances in Social Psychology: An International Perspective* (Elsevier, North Holland)). Regressions showed self-esteem (the positive five items) to be the most dominant and powerful correlate of happiness. Maternal care was a significant correlate of both self-esteem and self-criticism. Maternal care was the only direct correlate of happiness when paternal and maternal rearing styles were examined together suggesting that the warmth showed by mothers towards their children was particularly beneficial in increasing the offspring's' scores on self-reported happiness.

Baumrind's (1967) widely cited research on a two factor model of discipline to generate a typology in which three ideal parenting types; Authoritative, Authoritarian and Permissive- were generated by combining the extreme poles of a two-factor discipline model. The two bipolar dimensions on the model are termed "Control and Warmth" (also known as demandingness and responsiveness respectively).

Bornstein and Zlotnik (2008) made a study on the ideal parenting styles have been constructed as follows: Authoritative parents were high on both warmth and control. Authoritative parents were to apply firm control and require their children to obey a reasonable set of rules and guidelines. They were to utilize reason and control to make disciplinary decisions while harsh forms of punishment are discouraged to use.

Dwairy and Menshar (2005) stressed that Authoritative parenting style was to provide warmth, love and acceptance for their children in order to educate them to become progressively more autonomous. Another important characteristic that needed highlighting is the verbal give-and take between parents and children, open communication and reciprocal dialogue that was to be found within this parenting style (Authoritarian parents were to be high on control but low on warmth. Compliance, conformity, parental control and respect for authority were to be the major concern of Authoritarian parents. They preferred exercising high degree of demands on their children rather than nurturance and open communication. Children from Authoritarian homes were to be punished when they disobeyed the strict rules and regulations which were set by parents. Authoritarian parents were usually discouraging of autonomy and decision making by their children.

Bornstein and Zlotnik (2008) investigated that Permissive parents were to be low on control but high on warmth, which are they were rarely enforcing the rules for their children to follow. Permissive parents were practicing high levels of nurturance and clarity of communication while exercising low level of control (demandingness). Permissive parents were encouraging autonomy and decision making by their children. They tended to accept and support greatly towards impulse, needs and

behaviors of their children while avoiding confrontation and punishment (Dwairy & Menshar, 2005).

Self-esteem

The term self-esteem comes from a Greek word meaning "reverence for self." The "self" part of self-esteem pertains to the values, beliefs and attitudes that we hold about ourselves. The "esteem" part of self-esteem describes the value and worth that one gives oneself. Simplistically self-esteem is the acceptance of us for whom and what we are at any given time in our lives.

The empirical evidence relating self-esteem and other variables gives a theoretical perspective to the problem under study and also reveals unexplored areas. 'Therefore, the literature on self-esteem related to the present study are reviewed under the following sub-sections. The literature on 'self-esteem' shows that several researchers have conceptualised the term and the explanations given by them are given below. Self-esteem is frequently described in terms of evaluative attitudes.

Sternberg (1965) explained that self-esteem means 'the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself: it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval. Cooper smith (1967) has also defined the concept in a similar way.

Bachman and O'Malley (1977) also explained self-esteem refers to an individual's self-evaluation or judgement of his/her own worth. According to Pavur and Little (1981) self-esteem is the total set of evaluative attitudes about one's worth as a person in a variety of situations. Mussen et al. (1984) distinguish self-esteem from self-concept and indicate that self-esteem is not identical to self-concept, though the two are often confused. The self-concept is a set of ideas about oneself that is descriptive rather than judgmental. Self-esteem, on the other hand, refers to one's evaluation of one's own qualities. Lie searchers like Bee (1992), Santrock (1994), Zigler and Stevenson (1987), and Sprinthall and Collins (1995) agree that self-esteem is the evaluative and affective dimension of self-concept. Self-esteem also is referred to as self-worth or self-image. Some of the definitions conceive 'self-esteem' in terms of the

relation between two sets of attitudes.

Cohen (1959) conducted a study on self-esteem that self-esteem is the degree of correspondence between an individual's ideal and actual concept of himself; he considers it as a discrepancy between ideals and actual attainment. Silber and Tippett (1965) explained the term as the attitude a person has toward himself who is presumed to reflect the approximation of the person's self-image, how he actually sees himself with his own ideal self-image and how he would really like to be.

Carlson (1965) conducted a study that has pointed out that if people are to have self-esteem, there must be a correspondence between their concepts of self and their self-ideals. Warter's interesting research on self-esteem (Harter, 1988, 1990) shows that self-esteem is the degree of discrepancy between the value an individual places on some skill or quality and the amount of that skill or quality the individual sees herself as having.

Block and Robins (1993) defined self-esteem as "the extent to which one perceives oneself as relatively close to being the person one wants to be." Many investigators have considered self-esteem as a psychological response. Rogers (1950) described that acceptance of self as a tendency of the person to perceive himself as a person of worth, worthy of respect rather than condemnation. Liebenberg (1965) has stated that high self-esteem expresses the feeling that one is 'good-enough' and the individual feels that he is a person of worth. Low self-esteem on the other hand implies self-rejection, self-dissatisfaction and self-contempt.

Forsman and Johnson (1996) focused that self-acceptance refer to the individual's evaluation of his self-concepts and his coping-abilities, and co-relates with basic self-esteem. While defining the concept, some authors have viewed self-esteem as a personality function.

Ziller et al. (1969) define self-esteem as a component of the self-system which regulates the extent to which the self-system is maintained under conditions of strain, such as during the processing of new information concerning the self.

Ziegler and Stevenson (1987) stressed self-esteem as a vital part of the child's personality, affecting all aspects of her behaviour. Apart from the definitions and descriptions given above, it seems relevant to mention the various terms used by different authors with meanings more or less similar to self-esteem. Fouche and Grobbelaar (1970), for example, stressed one's self-confidence in defining self-esteem.

Wells and Maxwell (1976) focused the term self-acceptance and self-esteem as equivalent. In her critical review of measures of self-concept, Wylie (1974) used the words, 'self-regard' or 'self-regarding attitudes' as generic terms to include self-satisfaction, self-acceptance, self-esteem, self-favourability, congruence between self and ideal self, and discrepancies between self and ideal self. Thus, the literature on the conceptualisations of self-esteem have presented the term as an evaluative, judgmental, or affective aspect of a person's self-conception and also as the discrepancy between self-image and ideal self-image. Some authors have made an attempt to describe the nature of self-esteem by analysing the components and specifying the various aspects of it.

Simpson and Boyle (1975) investigated that there are three specific types of self-esteem: global self-esteem (resulting from a general evaluation), specific self-esteem (related to a situation or role such as work), and task specific self-esteem (related to competence in a particular activity). Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton (1976) investigated that general self-esteem lies at the top of a hierarchy and can be separated into academic and non-academic components. The latter is assumed to be further divisible into physical, emotional and social aspects.

Franks and Marolla (1976) conceived self-esteem as having two interacting dimensions: 'outer self-esteem (which gives rise to feelings of self-worth), and inner self-esteem (which gives rise to feelings of power and competence). Self-esteem consists of "inner or outer" self-esteem where inner refers to the self-esteem which is acquired by one's (own, and outer by other's appraisal of one's success. Franks and

Marolla (1976) also distinguished between "given or earned", where 'given' refers to the self-esteem which is based on "the reflected appraisal of others" (Mead, 1934) and 'earned' to the self-esteem which is a result of the individual's appraisals of his ability to cope with an impartial world so as to obtain desired goals by his own intentional acts. The former is supposed to be accompanied by a more passive orientation and the latter by a more active orientation.

Flemings and Watts (1980) have reported three factors of self-esteem, namely, social confidence, school abilities and self-regard. Some authors like Mc Farlin and Blascovich (1981) differentiate between 'chronic' and 'acute' self-esteem. Chronic self-esteem involves the relatively enduring perception of overall worth or competence, while acute self-esteem refers to an individual's perception of worth or competence within the context of a specific task or setting.

According to Harter (1982b) self-esteem may vary according to different skill domains or areas of competence. The Self-Perception Profile for children taps five specific domains-scholastic competence, athletic competence, social acceptance, physical appearance and behavioural conduct-plus general self-worth. Harter (1985) The Self- Perception Profile for Adolescents taps eight domains including three skill domains not present in the children's version-job competence, romantic appeal, and close friendship.

Hopkins and Klein (1993) stressed the usefulness of a multidimensional construct of self-perception. 'To conclude, many researchers have indicated the need for understanding the children's domain-specific aspects of self-esteem, while measuring the global self-worth.

Rosenberg and Owens (2004) conducted a study on the collective portrait of the low self-esteem person. Our cumulative portrait draws on data from a number of survey and experimental studies that have included self-esteem as a critical or implicated variable. We utilize several data sources to paint our portrait, with particular focus on 3 large-scale studies of adolescents: (1) a study of 5,024 high school juniors and seniors in New York State, (2) a study of 815 students from grades 7-12 in the

Baltimore public schools, and (3) a study of 2,300 10th grade pupils in 87 high schools throughout the contiguous 48 states. Although this approach differs from the familiar case study methodology, a great deal can be learned about the low self-esteem phenomenon by searching for general findings that appear across a broad range of cases. It is for this reason that we speak of a collective, not an individual, portrait of people with low self-esteem.

Baumeister (1993) focused his study on speculations and hypotheses about people with low self-esteem. Perhaps they hate themselves. Perhaps they seek to distort things in a negative, pessimistic direction. Perhaps they are indifferent to praise and popularity. Perhaps they lack some key drive to succeed or to think well of themselves. Perhaps they are irrational and self-destructive. In the last two decades, however, a growing body of enlightening data on low self-esteem has allowed psychologists to move beyond the earlier, more speculative theories. One can begin to sort the welter of competing theories into a coherent set of empirically grounded conclusions.

Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger and Vohs (2003) defined Self-esteem has become a household word. Teachers, parents, therapists, and others have focused efforts on boosting self-esteem, on the assumption that high self-esteem will cause many positive outcomes and benefits—an assumption that is critically evaluated in this review.

Jordan, Spencer, Zanna, Hoshino-Browne, and Correll (2003) investigated that Long-standing theories have suggested high self-esteem (SE) can assume qualitatively different forms that are related to defensiveness. The authors explored whether some high-SE individuals are particularly defensive because they harbor negative self-feelings at less conscious levels, indicated by low implicit SE. In Study 1, participants high in explicit SE but low in implicit SE showed the highest levels of narcissism—an indicator of defensiveness. In Studies 2 and 3, the correspondence between implicit and explicit SE predicted defensive behaviour (in-group bias in Study 2 and

dissonance reduction in Study 3), such that for high explicit-SE participants, those with relatively low implicit SE behaved more defensively. These results are consistent with the idea that high SE can be relatively secure or defensive.

Baumeister, Heatherton, and Tice, (1993) conducted a study that revealed the fact that the tendency for people with high self-esteem to make inflated assessments and predictions about themselves carries the risk of making commitments that exceed capabilities, thus leading to failure. Ss chose their performance contingencies in a framework where larger rewards were linked to a greater risk of failure. In the absence of ego threat, Ss with high self-esteem showed superior self-regulation: They set appropriate goals and performed effectively. Ego threat, however, caused Ss with high self-esteem to set inappropriate, risky goals that were beyond their performance capabilities so they ended up with smaller rewards than Ss with low self-esteem. The results indicate the danger of letting egotistical illusions interfere with self-regulation processes. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2016 APA, all rights reserved)

Paradise and Kernis (2002) examined the extent to which self-esteem (SE) Level and SE Stability predicted scores on Ryff's (1989) multidimensional measure of psychological well-being. Main effects for SE Level emerged on all six subscales, indicating that high self-esteem was associated with greater well-being than was low self-esteem. In addition, main effects for SE Stability emerged for the autonomy, environmental mastery, and purpose in life subscales, indicating that stable SE was associated with higher scores than was unstable SE. Finally, SE Level \times SE Stability interactions emerged for the self-acceptance, positive relations, and personal growth subscales indicating more complex relationships between self-esteem and these aspects of well-being. Theoretical implications of the relationship between fragile self-esteem and positive psychological functioning are discussed.

Kernis et al., (1998) examined whether stability and level of self-esteem interact with daily hassles in predicting severity of depressive symptoms. As predicted, Time 2 depression scores (with Time 1 scores controlled) were highest among individuals

with unstable self-esteem who reported considerable daily hassles. By contrast, self-esteem level did not interact with daily hassles to predict Time 2 depressive symptoms. These findings held even after negative self-concept items were eliminated from the depressive symptom inventories. Additional analyses revealed that self-esteem stability accounted for variance independent of the tendency to over generalize following failure or negative event attribution style. These findings support the contention that unstable self-esteem reflects fragile feelings of self-worth that exacerbate depressive symptoms under certain circumstances.

Robins and Trzesniewski (2005) investigated that after decades of debate, a consensus is emerging about the way self-esteem develops across the lifespan. On average, self-esteem is relatively high in childhood, drops during adolescence (particularly for girls), rises gradually throughout adulthood, and then declines sharply in old age. Despite these general age differences, individuals tend to maintain their ordering relative to one another: Individuals who have relatively high self-esteem at one point in time tend to have relatively high self-esteem years later. This type of stability (i.e., rank-order stability) is somewhat lower during childhood and old age than during adulthood, but the overall level of stability is comparable to that found for other personality characteristics. Directions for further research include (a) replication of the basic trajectory using more sophisticated longitudinal designs, (b) identification of the mediating mechanisms underlying self-esteem change, (c) the development of an integrative theoretical model of the life-course trajectory of self-esteem.

Herz and Gullone (1999) investigated that Within Western cultures, self-esteem consistently has been demonstrated to be inversely related with parenting styles characterized by low levels of acceptance and high levels of overprotection (i.e., affectionless control). Although in traditional collectivist cultures there may be a preference for this parenting style, within a strong collectivist framework it is not thought to have a negative impact on self-esteem. However, for immigrant adolescents, the cultural context of collectivism may no longer support such a

parenting style as adaptive, particularly because they tend to acculturate more quickly than their parents. To investigate this proposal, 118 Vietnamese Australian and 120 Anglo-Australian adolescents, aged 11 to 18 years, were recruited. They were administered the Cooper Smith Self-Esteem Inventory; the Parental Bonding Instrument, an acculturation measure; and two subscales of Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire. As expected, parenting characterized by high levels of overprotection and low levels of acceptance related negatively with self-esteem for both samples of adolescents.

PARENTAL STYLES AND SELFESTEEM

Martinez, Garcia, and Yubero (2007) made a study explored the relationship between parenting styles and self-esteem among 1,239 11- to 15-yr.-old Brazilian adolescents (54% girls; M age = 13.4 yr., $SD=1.4$). Teenagers' families were classified into 1 of 4 groups (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, or Neglectful) based on adolescents' answers to the ESPA29 Parental Socialization Scale. Participants completed the AF5 Multidimensional Self-Esteem Scale which appraises five dimensions: Academic, Social, Emotional, Family, and Physical. Analyses showed that Brazilian adolescents from Indulgent families scored equal (Academic and Social) or higher (Family) in Self-esteem than adolescents from Authoritative families. Adolescents from Indulgent families scored higher than adolescents from Authoritarian and Neglectful families in four Self-esteem dimensions, Academic, Social, Family, and Physical. Adolescents from Authoritative families scored higher than adolescents from Authoritarian and Neglectful families in three Self-esteem dimensions, Academic, Social, and Family. These results suggest that Authoritative parenting is not associated with optimum self-esteem in Brazil.

Stenberg (1965) conducted a study on self-esteem that self-esteem means 'the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself: it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval.

Bachman and O'Malley (1977) also revealed that self-esteem refers to an individual's self-evaluation or judgement of his/her own worth reviews the pattern of

developmental and contextual changes that occur in the child during adolescence and speculates on the implications that each has for parenting / briefly reviews the biological, cognitive, social-cognitive, emotional, self-definitional, and contextual changes that impact on the task of parenting / developmental change requires the parenting task to change in several respects, but particularly with regard to issues of flexibility, responsiveness, supervisory responsibilities, and the like reviews developmental concerns that parents experience as their children make the transition to adolescence, again speculating on how such concerns alter the parenting task / examines adolescent outcomes of parenting, with a particular focus on findings relevant to adolescent competence and adjustment difficulties / research relevant to the following dimensions of parenting is reviewed: parenting style, parenting practices, changes in parenting practices during the transition to adolescence, discrepancies between parent and adolescent viewpoints regarding important family issues, and parent-adolescent conflict / examine effects of both parent and child gender on parenting practices / differences between mother-adolescent and father-adolescent relationships are highlighted, as are more specific dyadic differences (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2016 APA, all rights reserved)

Abidin (1992) Explored factors that influence parenting behaviour through examination of previously reported and more recently developed models for predicting parenting behaviour. Patterson's behavioural model, Abidin's initial model of parenting stress, and Belsky's process model of determinants of parenting are reviewed. A proposed model is presented to improve on previous models by integrating sociological, environmental, and behavioural factors, as well as personality characteristics of the parent, in predicting parenting behaviour. Finally, description is provided on a new self-report measure (i.e., the Parenting Alliance Inventory) developed to focus on those aspects of the marital relationship that bear directly on parenting. Implications for future research are presented.

Hoff and Laursen (2019) conducted study to help couples prepare for parenthood and to improve the effectiveness of parents, this book provides extensive guidelines and background information for accomplishing the basic tasks of parenting. Chapter One

depicts parenting as a process, delineates parents' tasks and describes how parents learn to be parents. Based on Erikson's theory of development, Chapter Two discusses parenting in relationship to the human life cycle. Chapters Three and Four examine the basic assumptions and techniques of five strategies of parenting that focus either on feelings or on changing behaviour. Human development from birth through adolescence is discussed in Chapters Five through Ten. Chapter Eleven describes women's reasons for entering the work force and possible effects of mother's employment on children. Focused on single parenting, Chapter Twelve examines the experiences many parents go through as they cope with disruption of the family unit, come to terms with that loss, and establish new life patterns. Guidelines for step parenting are provided in Chapter Thirteen. The concluding Chapter briefly indicates the resources (both inner and outer) parents can draw on when their children face severe problems. (Author/RH)

Hoff and Laursen(2019)made a study that described the differences in parenting ideas and parenting practices associated with SES / ask where those differences come from / [review] the history of research on SES and parenting, including the role of evolving theories in shaping this research / [discuss] central issues in the field, including the many methodological issues that vex both those who have conducted research in this area and those who would try to synthesize the research that has been conducted / review the literature on relations of SES to parenting, focusing particularly on 2 areas that have been the subject of a great deal of research: the childrearing values and goals that parents have and the nature of mother–child interaction (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2016 APA, all rights reserved)

Collins, Maccoby, Steinberg, Hetherington, and Bornstein (2000) study revealed the Current findings on parental influences provide more sophisticated and less deterministic explanations than did earlier theory and research on parenting. Contemporary research approaches include (a) behaviour-genetic designs, augmented with direct measures of potential environmental influences; (b) studies distinguishing among children with different genetically influenced predispositions in terms of their

responses to different environmental conditions; (c) experimental and quasi-experimental studies of change in children's behaviour as a result of their exposure to parents' behaviour, after controlling for children's initial characteristics; and (d) research on interactions between parenting and nonfamilial environmental influences and contexts, illustrating contemporary concern with influences beyond the parent-child dyad. These approaches indicate that parental influences on child development are neither as unambiguous as earlier researchers suggested nor as insubstantial as current critics claim. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2016 APA, all rights reserved)

Rhee (2006) investigated to determine the relationship between the 4 parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful) and overweight status in first grade. Data from the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Study of Early Child Care and Youth Development were analyzed. Children with complete data for parenting parameters at 54 months and measured weight and height in first grade were included in the analysis. Overweight was defined as BMI of ≥ 95 th percentile. The 4 parenting styles were constructed with 2 scales, namely, maternal sensitivity and maternal expectations for child self-control. Multivariate logistic regression analysis was used to evaluate the relationship between parenting style and overweight in first grade, controlling for gender, race, maternal education, income/needs ratio, marital status, and child behaviour problems.

A total of 872 children, 11.1% overweight and 82.8% white, were included in the analysis. Children of authoritarian mothers ($n = 298$) had an increased risk of being overweight, compared with children of authoritative mothers ($n = 179$). Children of permissive ($n = 132$) and neglectful ($n = 263$) mothers were twice as likely to be overweight, compared with children of authoritative mothers. Of the covariates, only income/needs ratio was significant and did not alter the relationship between parenting style and overweight risk. Among the 4 parenting styles, authoritarian parenting was associated with the highest risk of overweight among young children. Understanding the mechanisms through which parenting styles are associated with overweight risk may lead to the development of more-comprehensive and better-targeted

interventions.

Spera, (2005) This article reviews the literature on the relationship among parenting practices, parenting styles, and adolescent school achievement. The review of the empirical research indicates that parental involvement and monitoring are robust predictors of adolescent achievement. Several studies, however, indicate that parental involvement declines in adolescence, prompting the call for future research on the reasons for and associated consequences of this decline. Furthermore, the review indicates that authoritative parenting styles are often associated with higher levels of student achievement, although these findings are not consistent across culture, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status. Darling and Steinberg's contextual model of parenting provides a promising model to help resolve these discrepancies, however, further research is needed to examine the major linkages of the model. It is also argued that the contextual model should expand its notion of context towards the larger cultural and economic context in which families reside.

Prinzle, De Haan, & Belsky, (2019) Notes that the influence of parents' personalities may be widespread, perhaps shaping not only maternal and paternal behavior, but also the way in which adults function in these other contexts of their lives that many presume affect the way in which parents care for their offspring and, thereby, the child's development. The chapter begins by considering historical issues that have shaped the study of personality and parenting and then proceeds to review issues central to the study of personality and parenting and the limited theory which guides this area of inquiry. Empirical research is reviewed which shows that a child's development is likely to benefit from a parent who is psychologically healthy and mature, and more specifically, low in neuroticism, high in extraversion and agreeableness, perhaps high in openness to experience and conscientiousness, as well as high in self-esteem and characterized by an internal locus of control. It is shown that these kinds of individuals have been repeatedly found to provide care that is more supportive, sensitive, responsive, and intellectually stimulating, almost irrespective of the child's age. Future directions for research are outlined. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2016 APA, all rights reserved)

Brown, Mounts, Lamborn, & Steinberg, 1993, Social scientists have often assumed that parental influence is sharply curtailed at adolescence because of the rising counterinfluence of peer groups, over which parents have little control. The present study tested a conceptual model that challenged this view by arguing that parents retain a notable but indirect influence over their teenage child's peer associates. Data from a sample of 3,781 high school students (ages 15–19) indicated that specific parenting practices (monitoring, encouragement of achievement, joint decision making) were significantly associated with specific adolescent behaviors (academic achievement, drug use, self-reliance), which in turn were significantly related to membership in common adolescent crowds (jocks, druggies, etc.). Findings encourage investigators to assess more carefully parents' role in adolescents' peer group affiliations.

Harkness, S., & Super, C. M. (1995). reviews major issues and trends in the study of parenting where culture is also an object of conscious attention / through an integrated historical review of developments in both anthropological and psychological research . . . attempts to bridge the chasm between the 2 fields as they relate to parenting / reviews classical ethnographic studies of whole cultures carried out by anthropologists from the end of the 19th century to roughly the 1950s / considers the work of researchers who saw the cultural construction of childhood experience as the medium of cultural transmission and thereby the production of culturally specific adult personality patterns / discusses how systematic cross-cultural analyses, drawing from the accumulated ethnographic literature, have constituted a distinctive contribution to understanding parenting as it varies in different cultures (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2016 APA, all rights reserved)

Amato & Fowler, 2002, pThe authors used data from Waves 1 and 2 of the National Survey of Families and Households (NSFH) to test the generality of the links between parenting practices and child outcomes for children in two age groups: 5–11 and 12–

18. Parents' reports of support, monitoring, and harsh punishment were associated in the expected direction with parents' reports of children's adjustment, school grades, and behavior problems in Wave 1 and with children's reports of self-esteem, grades, and deviance in Wave 2. With a few exceptions, parenting practices did not interact with parents' race, ethnicity, family structure, education, income, or gender in predicting child outcomes. A core of common parenting practices appears to be linked with positive outcomes for children across diverse family contexts.

(Dix, 1991, Presents a 3-component model of parenting that places emotion at the heart of parental competence. The model emphasizes (a) child, parent, and contextual factors that activate parents' emotions; (b) orienting, organizing, and motivating effects that emotions have on parenting once aroused; and (c) processes parents use to understand and control emotions. Emotions are vital to effective parenting. When invested in the interests of children, emotions organize sensitive, responsive parenting. Emotions undermine parenting, however, when they are too weak, too strong, or poorly matched to childrearing tasks. In harmonious relationships, emotions are, on average, positive because parents manage interactions so that children's and parents' concerns are promoted. In distressed relationships, chronic negative emotion is both a cause and a consequence of interactions that undermine parents' concerns and children's development. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2016 APA, all rights reserved)

(Coleman & Karraker, 1998, p Appreciation for cognitive factors associated with parental competence and satisfaction is increasingly evident in recent developmental research. In particular, parental self-efficacy beliefs have emerged as both a powerful direct predictor of specific positive parenting practices and a mediator of the effects of some of the most thoroughly researched correlates of parenting quality including maternal depression, child temperament, social support, and poverty. Parental self-efficacy beliefs embody an estimation of the degree to which parents perceive themselves as capable of performing the varied tasks associated with this highly demanding role. The overall objective of this review is to synthesize the extant findings related to parental self-efficacy in order to shed light on the importance of the

construct for both theoretical and applied purposes. A foundation in self-efficacy theory and general self-efficacy research is offered initially, followed by an exploration of the empirical findings relevant to parenting self-efficacy. Mechanisms through which self-efficacy beliefs are likely to develop and influence parenting are subsequently described. Finally, the possibility of therapeutic intervention designed to alter competency perceptions among parents who are at-risk or who are currently experiencing difficulty in parenting is examined and avenues for future investigative work are suggested.

Simons, Whitbeck, Conger, & Wu, 1991, A social learning model was developed that portrayed 4 processes whereby harsh parenting might be transmitted across generations. The model was tested using a sample of 451 2-parent families, each of which included a 7th grader. Both parent self-report and adolescent-report measures were utilized for the harsh parenting construct. Analysis using structural equation modeling procedures showed that grandparents who had engaged in aggressive parenting produced presentday parents who were likely to use similar parenting practices. The effect was stronger for mothers than for fathers. In addition to a direct modeling effect, there was evidence that similarities across generations regarding the harsh discipline of male children are in part a function of socioeconomic characteristics being transmitted across generations. There was little support for the contention that parents transmit their aggressive parenting practices indirectly by influencing the personality and parenting beliefs of their children. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2016 APA, all rights reserved)

Hoeve et al., 2009, p This meta-analysis of 161 published and unpublished manuscripts was conducted to determine whether the association between parenting and delinquency exists and what the magnitude of this linkage is. The strongest links were found for parental monitoring, psychological control, and negative aspects of support such as rejection and hostility, accounting for up to 11% of the variance in delinquency. Several effect sizes were moderated by parent and child gender, child age, informant on parenting, and delinquency type, indicating that some parenting behaviors are more important for particular contexts or subsamples. Although both

dimensions of warmth and support seem to be important, surprisingly very few studies focused on parenting styles. Furthermore, fewer than 20% of the studies focused on parenting behavior of fathers, despite the fact that the effect of poor support by fathers was larger than poor maternal support, particularly for sons. Implications for theory and parenting are discussed.

Barnhart, Raval, Jansari, & Raval, 2012, Although a growing body of psychological literature has examined the influence of culture on parenting style, relatively less attention has been paid to gender differences in parenting style across cultures. The present study examined perceptions of parenting style as a function of participant's culture, participant's gender, and parent gender in college students in India and the United States. Using a new vignette-based self-report measure that characterizes each of Baumrind's three parenting styles, participants rated perceptions of effectiveness, helpfulness, caring, and normativeness of each style. Contrary to expectation, results showed that Indian college students considered the parent demonstrating permissive parenting to be more effective and helpful than US college students. In contrast, US college students considered the parents demonstrating authoritative and authoritarian parenting to be more effective, helpful, and caring than Indian college students. A majority of Indian and US college students selected the parent demonstrating authoritative parenting as most similar to their own parents, and the type of parent they wish to be in the future. Females considered the parent demonstrating authoritative parenting to be more effective and helpful than males. Relatively few effects of parent gender were found.

Somayeh Keshavarz and Rozumah Baharudin(2009) made an empirical studies which emphasize that parenting styles are strongly influenced by the cultural context of the society. Cultural differences in values, described as individualism-collectivism, similarly shape understanding of the forms (e.g., authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting styles) and interpretation of parenting styles. The review indicates that Malaysian parents from the three ethnic groups (i.e., Malay, Chinese and Indian) are similar with other parents from collectivist countries which endorse authoritarian parenting more than individualist parents, and do not regard it as an unfavorable style of parenting. Keywords: Parenting styles, culture, collectivism,

individualism.

Isaac, Annie, and Prashanth (2013) examined that Parenting is a process of raising and educating children from birth until adulthood. Parenting style varies across cultures. This chapter discusses the parenting styles in India. It includes the factors influencing parenting and changes that have happened in India over the years with globalization and industrialization and existing policies, schemes and Government programmes to support families and parenting efforts. It is hoped that this chapter will give an insight into parenting styles in India and the role of the State and other key people to support parents in fulfilling their responsibilities.

Van Ingen et al. (2015) Helicopter parenting, an observed phenomenon on college campuses, may adversely affect college students. The authors examined how helicopter parenting is related to self-efficacy and peer relationships among 190 undergraduate students ages 16 to 28 years. Helicopter parenting was associated with low self-efficacy, alienation from peers, and a lack of trust among peers. Implications are provided for counselors and psychologists in college- and university-based counseling centers to help them to understand and provide assessment and treatment for adult children of helicopter parents.

Masud, Thurasamy, and Ahmad, (2014) Literature accords the importance of parenting style and their impact on young adolescent's behavior. There are many factors that affect the academic performance of children and parenting styles is one of the significant factors of academic performance. But there is lack of research that integrates and systemizes the relationship between parenting styles and academic performance especially in Pakistan. The unit of analysis of this research was studies that were previously conducted on parenting styles and academic performance of young children. Main focus of search was to availability of data that is most recent and relevant, so this research paper focuses on 39 studies. Articles from seven databases (Google Scholar, Science Direct, Taylor and Francis Journals, Web of Science, JSTOR, Springer link and SAGE Journals) were identified related to the

topic using a pre-established set of terms that included both parenting styles and academic performance. All the studies highlighted that parenting styles affect the academic achievement of adolescents. It was analyzed that authoritative parenting style is the most effective parenting style in enhancing the academic performance of young children. More research is needed on parenting styles in different continents to have an understanding of the cultural effect of parenting styles on the academic performance of adolescents. Implications for parents and policy makers are discussed.

Rodriguez (2010) predicted that greater use of corporal punishment as well as physical maltreatment would be associated with child abuse potential and selected parenting styles. Three independent studies were examined, two with community samples and a third with a clinical at-risk sample of parents. Parents across all studies anonymously completed the Child Abuse Potential Inventory, the Parent–Child Conflict Tactics Scale to assess physical discipline and maltreatment, as well as the Parenting Scale to measure dysfunctional parenting styles. Findings support that overall parent–child aggression, as well as physical maltreatment behaviors specifically, were associated with child abuse potential. Parent–child aggression was also related to dysfunctional parenting styles, particularly an overreactive, authoritarian parenting style. Permissive parenting was also identified as potentially associated with physical maltreatment, although the findings regarding such lax parenting styles are less clear. Intriguing findings emerged regarding the connection of psychological aggression to both child abuse potential and dysfunctional parenting style. Child abuse potential was also associated with dysfunctional parenting style, particularly harsh, overreactive approaches. Recommendations for future study with at-risk samples and additional research on permissive parenting and psychological aggression are discussed.

Mohammad Ebrahim Maddahi (2000) conducted a study aimed at to explore the relationship between parenting styles (including authoritative, authoritarian, permissiveness and neglectful) and personality dimensions (including five factors as extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness to experiences). For this purpose, 272 students from national university, Islamic Azad

University and Payam Nour University of Yazd pre-province were selected at random and responded to Parenting Styles Questionnaire (Naghashian, 1979) and Five-Factor Personality Factors Questionnaire (Costa and McCrae). The findings show that among all the components of personality, there is a direct and significant relationship only between openness personality trait and authoritative parenting style; that is to say, authoritative parenting style is correlated with developing openness trait components (including, having desire for curiosity, imagination, aesthetics, wisdom, enlightenment and humanism).

Keller, Borke, Chaudhary, Lamm, and Kleis, (2010) conducted a prospective longitudinal study is aimed at contributing to the understanding of cultural diversity concerning maternal parenting behaviors and conversational styles on one hand and continuity in parenting strategies on the other hand. It could be demonstrated that German middle-class families from Berlin and Indian Hindu middle-class families from Delhi represent two different cultural environments embodying different parenting strategies. The Berlin mothers focus on the cultural model of independence, whereas the Delhi mothers focus on the cultural model of autonomous relatedness. These different orientations are expressed in nonverbal and conversational behaviors with 3-month-old babies as well as in the play styles with 19-month-old toddlers. It could also be demonstrated that the parenting styles form continuous socialization environments. Especially the conversation styles that mothers use while talking to their 3-month-old babies were good predictors for the play styles with their 19-month-old toddlers. The results are discussed with an emphasis on parenting strategies as continuous and consistent cultural projects.

Walke,(2008) used a parenting style framework to explain mixed evidence about the influence of teacher practices on student outcomes. Participants included 3 fifth-grade math teachers and 45 of their students. The author assessed teacher practices, teaching style (i.e., demandingness and responsiveness), student engagement, self-efficacy, and standardized achievement test scores. The most academically and socially competent students were those who experienced an *authoritative* teaching style (i.e., consistent

classroom management, support of student autonomy, and personal interest in students). The author found disengagement and limited ability beliefs in the *authoritarian* context (i.e., consistent classroom management but limited autonomy support and limited personal interest in students). She found smaller academic gains in the *permissive* context (i.e., inconsistent management, autonomy support, and interest in students).

Saloni Sapru(2006)This article examines the ancestral and acculturated cultural meanings in immigrant Indian parenting and adolescent identity using the independence-interdependence dimension as the focus. Forty Indian parents and their adolescents in Delhi, India, and Geneva, Switzerland, were interviewed using open-ended questions and scenarios. Adolescents also completed a contextual version of the Twenty Statements Test. Results showed beliefs and practices to be similar for the two groups of parents except that immigrant parents in Geneva placed greater emphasis on traditional Indian culture at home. Self-other constructions of identity measures showed Geneva adolescents to have fewer attributes of interdependence compared to their counterparts in Delhi. Case study analysis further demonstrated how immigrant adolescents construct their self-other relations to synthesize the ancestral and acculturated values of their parents and the host society.

Gupta and lekshmi(2008) This research compared the parenting behavior of European American and Asian Indian parents according to country of residence and gender. Correlation between the scores of different parenting styles of spouses was also studied. This study also examined if one of the three types of parenting style, i.e. authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive, is correlated with the other two parenting styles of either gender of parents of European American or Asian Indian parents. To determine parenting style, parents completed the self-administered Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire. Both Parents of 20 children from America and 20 children from India participated in this study. It was found that parenting behavior differs significantly due to parent's country of residence and gender. Limited correlation was found between parenting style of spouses. One parenting style was not

significantly correlated with other parenting styles except between authoritative and permissive styles of European American fathers and authoritarian and permissive styles of Asian Indian mothers.

Green, Furrer, & McAllister, 2007 The importance of supportive relationships for new parents has been the focus of both research and parenting interventions. Attachment style, typically viewed as a relatively stable trait reflecting one's comfort in social relationships, as well as social support, or one's perception of the social context, have both been found to be important for fostering engaged, involved parenting. Less is known, however, about how these variables work together to influence parenting behavior, especially in families at higher risk for negative child outcomes. Data were collected from 152 urban, predominantly African American, low-income parents when their children were 14 and 36 months of age. Results suggest that parents with more social support show greater increases in the frequency of positive parent-child activities over time, but that this effect is mediated by mothers' attachment style, specifically, their level of anxious/ambivalent attachment. Mothers with more social support tended to be less anxious/ambivalent about close relationships, and this in turn led to increases over time in the frequency of parent-child interactions. Mothers' tendency to avoid close relationships, however, while correlated with social support, was unrelated to changes in parenting behavior. Implications of these findings for program development, parenting, and the malleability of attachment style based on social context are discussed.

HYPOTHESES

- There will be significant relationship between parental styles and self-esteem.
- There will be significant difference between parental styles of mother on self-esteem among adolescents..
- There will be significant difference between parental styles of father on self-

esteem among adolescents.

- There will be a significant interaction between categories of parenting styles and classificatory factors of demographic variables (age, sex, strem, location) on self-esteem.

CHAPTER

3

METHOD

METHOD

The method used for the study is briefly described as follows.

PARTICIPANTS FOR THE STUDY

This study was conducted in the education sector consisting of higher secondary schools in the Kollam district. A simple random sampling will be used among 120 students from different (government and private) schools.

INCLUSION CRITERIA

Participants who can speak and understand English or Malayalam and who are free from any congenital, developmental or behavioural disorders are selected for this study. Participants belonged to the age group of 14-18.

EXCLUSION CRITERIA

Participants of ages above or below ages 14-18 respectively were excluded from the study.

MEASURES USED

- Parental Scale questionnaire developed by Gafoor(2003)
- Rosenberg's self-esteem Scale(1971).

Parental Scale questionnaire developed by Gafoor(2003). Items in the tool were arranged alternatively, starts with responsiveness item. Item number one is a responsiveness item, its parallel control item is item number forty; item number two is a control item, its parallel responsiveness item is item number thirty nine, and so on.

Scoring

The pupil required to respond on the five point scale as, "always true", "almost true", "sometimes true, sometimes false", "almost false", and "always false". The score was five to one. There are no negative items. Half of the items in scale are responsiveness item and half of them are control item. At first the total score of control and total score of responsiveness found out separately. Scores for each parent were taken separately and sum of scores of each parents were taken for overall score of an item. Thus the instrument yields six separate scores for each participant, namely mother's responsiveness, father's responsiveness, mother's control, father's control, parental responsiveness and parental control. A parent who rated as

high in both responsiveness and control (above the median), he is categorized as authoritative parent. A parent who rated as low in both responsiveness and control (below the median), he is categorized as negligent parent. A parent who rated as high in responsiveness and low in control, he is categorized as indulgent parent. A parent who rated as low in responsiveness and high in control, he is categorized as authoritarian parent. On the basis of these scores, found out parenting style of each parent. The final scale consists of 38 items of which 19 are to measure parental responsiveness and 19 to measure parental control.

SELF-ESTEEM

To measure Self-esteem, Rosenberg's self-esteem Scale (1971)", questionnaire was used. There are 10 questions in this questionnaire. The Split half reliability coefficient was 0.87 and the face validity is 0.93 which shows high validity.

Personal Data Sheet

PROCEDURE AND ADMINISTRATION

The questionnaire will be a self-administrating one. Instructions will be printed at the beginning of the inventories. Response space will be provided against each item, and the respondent will require ticking the appropriate column representing his/her response. Participants will be approached individually during the working hours in their respective schools with the help of the concerned administration. The participants will be briefed about the purpose of the study and confidentiality will be assured. Sufficient time will be given to respond to the questionnaires and then the data collection will be made. Scoring will be done as per manuals.

Correlation

A correlation coefficient is a measure of linear association between two variables. It can be computed indifferent ways depending on the nature of the data. Here used the Pearson's correlation coefficient. pearson's correlation coefficient, can take values from+1 to-1.Apearson'scorrelation coefficient+1 indicates a perfect association of ranks, a zero indicates no association between ranks and-1indicates perfect negative association between ranks

ANALYSIS OF DATA (STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES)

The following statistical techniques will be used to analyze the data collected, to throw light on the information sought from the investigation. Computer analysis (SPSS version 18) will be done to test the various hypotheses. The statistical tools of percentage analysis, preliminary analysis, correlation analysis,

CHAPTER

3

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The present chapter deals with data analysis. Analysis involves correlations of Variables t-test and Analysis of variance

□ SECTION 1

□ *Correlation Analysis between Parental Styles and self-esteem*

□ SECTION 2

□ *Role of Parental Styles on Self-esteem*

□ SECTION 3

□ *Role of Parental Styles and the classificatory factors of demographic variables (age, sex, education, location and type of stream) on Self-esteem*

SECTION 1

CORRELATION ANALYSIS BETWEEN PARENTAL STYLES AND SELF-ESTEEM

In order to find out the inter correlation between parental styles and self-esteem, Karl Pearson product moment correlation test was used. The coefficients of correlation obtained between different variables and also the inter correlation are represented in table 1.1. The inter correlation of the entire data is found. There are 15 variables altogether i.e 6 variables of parental styles and the overall/total parental style. The 9th variable is the overall/total self-esteem. Others are demographic variables. In the total correlations, there are 29 significant ones. Out of them 29 are significant at 0.01 levels and 0 are significant at 0.05 levels.

SECTION 2

ROLE OF PARENTAL STYLES ON SELF-ESTEEM

The second hypothesis states that there will be a significant difference on parenting styles of on self-esteem among adolescents. Table 1.2 examined the mean difference on parenting styles of father and mother on self-esteem among adolescents

Table 1.2 shows paired sample t –test for parenting styles and self-esteem

Variable	Father	Mother	t-Value
Parenting styles of father and self-esteem	Mean &S.D	Mean &S.D	-46.870***
Parenting styles of mother and self-esteem	-15.842 3.6919	-15.950 3.7278	-47.005***

Role of parenting style of father on self esteem

The t-test shows that there is a significant difference among parenting styles of father on self-esteem among adolescents with t-value-.46.870*** which is significant at 0.001 level so, the second hypothesis is fully conformed.

Role of parenting style of mother on self esteem

The t-test proved that there is a significant difference among parenting styles of mother on self-esteem among adolescents with t value -47.005*** which is significant at 0.001 level. Thus, third hypothesis is accepted.

On the basis of mean scores, (Table 1.2) it can also be reported that the parenting styles of mother have higher mean scores in overall self-esteem (M=-15.950)

A study by McKinney and Renk (2008) with 475 youth suggested that adolescents perceived mothers to favour authoritative and permissive parenting while fathers favour more of the authoritarian parenting. Shek (1998) also discovered significant differences in both parents' parenting styles within the Chinese community. Students perceived fathers as less demanding, less responsive, less concerned but harsher to them whereas mothers were perceived as the opposite. These differences in parenting styles especially among Asians can be attributed to the cultural values. Fathers are usually seen as the figure of authority at home, executing punishment and hence they are perceived as less concerned and harsh. In contrast, mothers are perceived as responsive and concerned because women are more expressive in their emotions, are more protective and affectionate (Shek, 1998).

CHAPTER

5

CONCLUSION

- *Variables of the study*
- *Tenability of the study*
- *Major findings of the study*
- *Implications of the study*
- *Limitations and Suggestions for future research*

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Independent Variables

Parental styles

Dependent Variable

Self-esteem

Demographic variables

(age, sex, education, location, stream)

The present study explores the relationship of parental styles on self-esteem among adolescents. It is distinctive because it will look at the direction of these variables. One of the focus points of this study is the relationship between parental styles and self-esteem. Self-esteem is a major concern in human life that can be affected by different factors including parental styles and other issues.

Self-esteem is very much related to parenting styles. Therefore, this study investigates relationship between parental styles and self-esteem. The study will try to confirm the hypothesis associated with parental styles and self-esteem. The findings of the study will add new insights and hope to generate further studies in the same framework. The study will also assist the parents and adolescents to understand themselves better so that they can focus their parenting style in such a way that will enhance their well-being.

TENABILITY OF HYPOTHESES

Three main hypotheses and its sub hypotheses were formulated for the study. In the light of the results of the study, the tenability of these hypotheses is tested:

□ **The first hypothesis states: There will be significant relationship between parental styles and self-esteem.**

Pearson correlation was used for testing the hypothesis about correlation with the dimensions parental styles and Self-esteem. And there is a high positive relationship between parental styles and self-esteem. Hence the hypothesis is fully confirmed.

□ **Second hypotheses states: There will be significant difference between parental styles of father on self-esteem among adolescents.**

The t-test shows that there is a significant difference among parenting styles of father on self-esteem among adolescents. The second hypothesis is fully confirmed.

□ **The third hypothesis states: There will be significant difference between parental styles of mother on self-esteem among adolescents.**

The t-test proved that there is a significant difference among parenting styles of mother on self-esteem among adolescents. So the third hypothesis is accepted.

MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

1. A high positive relationship exists between parental styles and self-esteem.
2. A high positive relationship exists between the variables of parental styles and self-esteem.
3. Parenting style has a major role on the self-esteem of the adolescents
4. Mother's parenting style has a major role on the self-esteem of the adolescents.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The present study was designed to understand and find out the relationship between parental styles and self-esteem among adolescents. It is hoped that this study will stimulate enthusiastic investigators to undertake future research programmes that may further illuminate this area. Parental style is very important in shaping an individual. So it has to be addressed in a proper way. Unless and until, we take care of our children, their self-esteem will be affected in a negative way. So let us do our level best to instil self-esteem in our children. Another finding is that mother's parental style enhances adolescents' self-esteem because mothers are so kind to their child. To put it in another way, they know the pulse of their child and act according to the nature of each child in a polite way.

LIMITATIONS OF THE PRESENT STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study was conducted to find out the relationship of parental styles on self-esteem among adolescents. It was used only in limited number of samples. The participants of the study were only from kollam district. The participants from whole kerala may produce variations in the result. A study using a large sample can also produce a better result. By using demographic variable the study becomes more effective. The finding of the result justifies a strong recommendation for future research based on parental styles and self-esteem.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

- **PSYCHOSOCIAL CONSTRAINTS**
- **SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**
- **STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**
- **HYPOTHESES**
- **METHODS IN BRIEF**
- **ORGANIZATION OF THE REPORT**

Up to date the families of specially challenged children are faced with issues related to physical, psychological, and socioemotional aspects of their lives. In the present society they are more vulnerable for socialization, main streaming and other psychological issues such as anxiety, stress, and depression especially for the parents of exceptional children. Even though these issues are not getting attention to the governmental level and also for the concerned department who are meeting needs of specially challenged people. Based on this fact it leads to some sever psychological and physiological problems in parents.

A healthy person should require both mental and physical health to survive their life. But due to some life changes many problems may occur when parents of specially challenged children dealing with others especially socialization problems, anxious, depressed and increased stress levels can lead to severe psychological and physiological fitness problems. So, there is a necessity to study the psychological correlates between the parents of with and without specially challenged children.

1.1 Socialization:

Socialization means activity of mixing socially with others. In detail process by which individual acquire the knowledge, language, social skill and value to confirm to the norms and roles required for integration into a group or community. It is a combination of both self-imposed, (the individual wants to confirm) and externally imposed rules and the expectations of the others. In an organizational setting, socialization refers to the process through which a new employee 'learns

the ropes' by becoming sensitive to the formal and informal power structure and the explicit and implicit rules of behaviors.

1.2 Depression:

Depression [Major depressive disorder] is a common and serious medical illness that negatively affects, how you feel, the way you think and how you act. Fortunately, it is also treatable. Depression courses feelings of sadness and or a loss of interest in activities once enjoyed. It can lead to a variety of emotional and physical problems and can decrease a person's ability to function at work and at home.

1.3 Stress:

In a medical or biological context stress is a physical mental or emotional factor that course bodily or mental tension. Stress can be external (from the environment psychological or social situations) or internal (illness or from a medical process) stress can initiate the "fight or flight" response, a complex reaction of neurologic and endocrinologic systems.

Calachalamine hormones such adrenaline or nor adrenaline, facility immediate physical reactions association with a preparation for violent muscular action. These include acceleration of heart and lung action paling or flushing or alternating between both, inhibition of stomach and upper intestinal action to the point, were digestion slows down or stopes, the general effect on the sphincters of

the body, constriction of the blood vessels in many parts of the body, liberation of nutrients (fat and glucose) for muscular action, dilation of blood vessels for muscles, inhibition of the lacrimal gland (responsible for tear production) and salivation, dilation of pupil (Mydriasis) relaxation of bladder, inhibition of erection, auditory exclusion (loss of hearing) tunnel vision (loss peripheral vision) disinhibition of spinal reflexes and shaking.

Stress can cause or influence the ways of many medical conditions including psychological conditions such as depression and anxiety. Medical problems can include poor healing, irritable bowel syndrome, high blood pressure, poorly controlled diabetes and many other conditions.

1.4 Anxiety:

The American Psychological Association [APA] defines anxiety as “an emotion characterized by feeling of tension worried thoughts and physical changes like increased blood pressure.” It is imperative that we understand the difference between what normal anxiety means and what is bought on anxiety disorders.

Regular or normal anxiety is the feeling that you experience when you are in danger or when you find yourself worrying about the effect of an action.

Our human mind has been conditioned in that fashion that when we feel we are in danger these alarm bell ring and we feel nervous our heart beat increase, we sweat. All these are signs when we have a regular anxiety attack. Whereas earlier

anxiety revolves around self-presentation saving one's life, but these days anxiety revolves around work money, family life, health and other things which may demand a person's attention.

The feeling of nervousness before an important event of life and in a difficult situation is basically our body's natural response for survival. So an individual must understand it is just a natural to a feeling of apprehension and fear and no you do not have an anxiety disorder.

1.5 Disability:

A disability is defined as a condition or function judged to be significantly impaired relative to the usual standard of an individual group. The term is used to refer an individual functioning including physical impairment, sensory impairment, cognitive impairment, intellectual impairment, mental illness and various types of chrome disease.

Disability is conceptualize as being a multi-dimensional experience for the person involved. There may be effects on organs or body parts and it have an effect on a person's participation in area of life correspondingly, three dimensions of disability are recognized in ICF: Body structure and function (impairment) activity (and activity restrictions) and participation (and participation restrictions). The classification also recognizes the role of physical and social environmental factors in affecting disability outcome.

Even though individuals have same type of disability, its severity is varied upon individuals. Some disabilities may be hidden, known as invisible disability. In some clinics and special schools in Kollam district some issues are observed that the parents of specially challenged children have depression, stress and anxiety related problems which affects their mental and physical health and some socialization issues on parents because of the disability of the child. Parents were backing from the social gatherings and social programme, were reported in clinics and special schools. These problems affect the whole family relationship too.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

At the present society parents with specially challenged children face many problems and these issues were not given any relevant importance. This study is to identify whether there is any psychosocial constraints for parents with specially challenged children, and then give proper and adequate training to parents who suffer with psychosocial constraints based on the severity of the disability of the child in order to uplift them to the mainstream of the society, to make the society aware of the problems faced by the parents of specially challenged children, help to maintain healthy family relationship and create a happy home atmosphere. It is also necessary to inform government missionaries about the relevance of problems faced by the parents of specially challenged children to create a good atmosphere in the society for the parents of specially challenged children. By giving awareness to

the society based on the findings of the study necessary action and other steps to reduce the psychosocial constraints in the parents of specially challenged children.

One of main problem is the lack of study in psychosocial constrains on parents of specially challenged children in Kerala, especially in Kollam district so it is necessary to conduct further studies on the relevant field based on the findings.

1.7 Aim

This study attempts to investigate the Psychological Correlates of Parents with and without Specially Challenged Children.

1.8 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem of the present study is entitled as **“Psychological Correlates of Parents with and without Specially Challenged Children”**

1.9 HYPOTHESES

1. There will be significant differences on the variable psychosocial constraints (i.e., anxiety, socialisation, depression, & stress) among parents with and without specially challenged children.
2. There will be significant differences on the variable psychosocial constraints (i.e., anxiety, socialisation, depression, & stress) on the group of levels of disability (i.e., no disability, mild, moderate, & severe) among parent’s with and without specially challenged children.

3. There will be significant difference on the variables of psychosocial constraints (anxiety, socialisation, depression, stress) based on parents (i.e., father & mother) among parent's with and without specially challenged children

1.10 METHODS IN BRIEF

A brief outline of the procedure followed for the investigation is presented below. Detailed description is given in Chapter III.

1.10.1 Sample

The sample consist a total of 140 parents in which 35 male parents and 35 female parents with specially challenged children and 35 male parent and 35 female parents without specially challenged children belonging to different socioeconomic status from various parts of Kollam.

1.10.2 Tools

The following tools were used in this study.

- 1. Social Motives Scale (Singh & Bhargava, 2019)**
- 2. Anxiety, Depression and Stress Scale (Bhatnagar, 2019)**

1.10.3 Data Collection Procedure

The data were collected using Social Motives Scale and Anxiety, Depression and Stress Scale from the parents with and without Specially challenged children

1.10.4 Statistical Techniques

In order to analyze the data, the following statistical techniques were used.

1. ANOVA (One way)
2. t – test

1.11 ORGANIZATION OF THE REPORT

The report of the investigation has been presented in five chapters. Chapter I presents the introduction, significance of the study, hypotheses, and a brief description of the procedure. Chapter II gives the related theoretical background. Methodology is presented in Chapter III. Chapter IV gives the results and discussion. And Chapter V contains the summary and conclusion.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A literature review is a search and evaluation of the available literature in your given subject or chosen topic area. It documents the state of the art with respect to the subject or topic you are writing about. A literature review shows your readers that you have an in-depth grasp of your subject; and that you understand where your own research fits into and adds to an existing body of agreed knowledge. A literature review has four main objectives, it surveys the literature in your chosen area of study, it synthesises the information in that literature into a summary, it critically analyses the information gathered by identifying gaps in current knowledge; by showing limitations of theories and points of view; and by formulating areas for further research and reviewing areas of controversy, it presents the literature in an organised way.

2.1 Studies on Psychosocial Constraints

Singh, Goyal, Pershad, Singhi, and Walia (1990) conducted a study on Psychosocial problems in families of disabled children. The objective of the study was to analyse the psychosocial problems faced by parents and other family members. A semi-structured questionnaire assisted interview and standardized scales were used to measure social burden, marital adjustment and maternal neuroticism among 50 families with a physically disabled child, 50 with a mentally retarded child and 50 with a healthy child. The result of the study showed that

families with disabled children perceived greater financial stress, frequent disruption of family routine and leisure, poor social interaction, and ill effects on their physical and mental health as compared to families of control children. The overall social burden scores were significantly higher in both the groups with disabled children as compared to controls (mean scores PD 17.8, MR 14.6, C 0.72, p less than .001), and showed a significant inverse correlation with the socio-economic and educational status of parents. The neuroticism scores were also significantly higher (PD 23.7, MR 19.0, C 9.6, p less than .01), and the marital adjustment scores lower (PD 75, MR 79, C 86, p less than .01) in families with disabled children.

Another study was conducted by Feizi, Najimi, Salesi, Chormai, and Hoveidafar, (2014) on parenting stress among mothers of children with different physical, mental, and psychological problems. The aim of this study is to compare the stress in mothers of children with different disabilities to each other, considering their demographic background. This was a cross-sectional study conducted in Isfahan, Iran on 285 mothers of 6-12 years old children with chronic physical disease, psychological disorder, and sensory-motor and mental problems using Abedin's parenting stress questionnaire. The obtained data were analysed by using multivariate analysis of variance. The result of the study shows that Mothers of children with sensory-motor mental and chronic physical problems experience more stress than mothers of children with psychological disorders. There was a

significant difference between the score of mothers of children with chronic physical problems and mothers of children with psychological disorders regarding parent-child dysfunctional interaction. Also, mothers of children with chronic physical problems in different levels of education have experienced different levels of parenting stress. A significant difference was also noted in terms of stress among mothers of children with sensory-motor mental problem with different number of children.

Kim, Szatmari, and Bryson (2000) conducted a study on The Prevalence of Anxiety and Mood Problems among Children with Autism and Asperger Syndrome with the objective to correlate anxiety and mood problems among 9- to 14- year-old children with Asperger syndrome and high-functioning autism. The test was administrated upon 40 children who received a diagnosis of autism and on 19 children who received a diagnosis of Asperger syndrome on a diagnostic interview when they were 4 to 6 years of age. The administrated tests were battery of cognitive and behavioural measures and through contacting families roughly 6 years later at mean age of 12 years for children and assessed for evidence of psychiatric problems including mood and anxiety disorders and compared with a sample of 1751 community children. The results showed that AS and autistic children demonstrated a greater rate of anxiety and depression problems and these problems had a significant impact on their overall adaptation. There were no differences in the number of anxiety and mood problems between the AS and

autistic children within this high-functioning cohort also the number of psychiatric problems was not correlated with early autistic symptoms. The study also indicated that high-functioning PDD children are at greater risk for mood and anxiety problems than the general population but the correlates and risk factors for these comorbid problems remain unclear.

An article by Nimbalkar, Raithatha, Shah and Panchal, (2014) named A Qualitative Study of Psychosocial Problems among Parents of Children with Cerebral Palsy Attending Two Tertiary Care Hospitals in Western India. The objective of the study was to explore the psychosocial problems faced by the parents of children with cerebral palsy (CP) in rural and urban settings. For the study, qualitative research design using focus group discussions was used. Setting. Two focus group discussions comprising one at a rural tertiary level care hospital and the other at an urban tertiary level care hospital were conducted with a total of thirteen parents participated in the two focus group discussions. The result of the study found that the problems experienced by the mothers were associated with common themes such as disturbed social relationships, health problems, financial problems, moments of happiness, worries about future of the child, need for more support services, and lack of adequate number of trained physiotherapists.

A study conducted by Solomon (2015) was to assess the Depression, Anxiety and Stress among the Parents of Differently Able Children. The study was

intended to study the level of depression, anxiety and stress which is experienced by parents of children with differently abled children. The study was conducted among 86 parents and the findings of the study reveal the number of parents experiencing anxiety is found to be high, which may be because the parents tend to be worried more about their children's future.

Ramzan and Minhans (2014) was conducted a study on Anxiety and depression in mothers disabled and non-disabled children to find the prevalence of anxiety and depression in mothers of disabled and non-disabled children and to find the association of anxiety and depression with demographic characteristics. Cross sectional comparative study was conducted to find differences in the level of anxiety and depression among mothers of disabled and non-disabled children. The participants consist of 340 mothers, 170 from each group. Urdu version of Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) was used for the assessment. ANCOVA was used for data analysis. The ANCOVA revealed statistically significant differences ($p < .001$) in the level of anxiety and depression in both groups of mothers. The results of the study showed that 78% mothers belonging to children with disability had anxiety and 76% mothers belonging to children with disability had depression. Correlation analysis revealed a significantly positive relationship of anxiety and depression with mothers' age and statistically significant inverse relationship with disabled child's age, mothers' educational and family income status.

Tabassumi and Moshin (2013) was conducted a study on Depression and anxiety among parents of children with disabilities: A case study from developing world aimed to find out the relationship between depression and anxiety among parents of children with disabilities and the parent's depression and anxiety with the type of disability among children. The sample size of the study consisted of 80 parents among which 58.12% were mothers and 41.875% were fathers having one or more disabled children with the age range of 4-18 years. The questionnaires used for the study was Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale, developed by Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995 with 42 items. Pearson product moment correlation and independent sample t-test was used for statistical analysis. The results of this study showed that a highly significant positive correlation was found between depression and anxiety.

In a study, Lenze, Rogers, Martire, Mulsant, Rollman, Dew, Schulz and Reylonds (2001) examined the Association of Late-Life Depression and Anxiety with Physical Disability: Review of the Literature and Prospectus for Future Research were searched the recent geriatric literature for studies associating late life depression or anxiety with physical disability. The result of the study showed that depression in old age to be an independent risk factor for disability; similarly, disability was found to be a risk factor for depression. Anxiety in late life was also found to be a risk factor for disability, although not necessarily independently of

depression. Increased disability due to depression is only partly explained by differences in socioeconomic measures, medical conditions, and cognition.

In another study, Maruer, Rebbapragada, Borson et al (2008) explored the Anxiety and Depression in COPD: Current Understanding, Unanswered Questions, and Research Needs aimed to shed light on the current understanding of the anxiety and depression the very common comorbidities in COPD. The result of the study showed that estimates of prevalence of anxiety and depression in COPD vary widely but generally they are higher than those reported in some other advanced chronic diseases. Untreated and undetected anxiety and depressive symptoms may increase physical disability, morbidity, health care utilization.

Hastings and Brown (2002) was conducted a study on Behaviour Problems of Children with Autism, Parental Self-Efficacy, and Mental Health. In the study, 26 mothers and 20 fathers of children with autism. They are asked to report their self-efficacy, anxiety, and depression and the teachers were trained to rate the behaviour problems of the children. Regression analysis was used for statistical analysis. The results showed that self-efficacy mediated the effect of child behaviour problems on mothers' anxiety and depression, but there was no evidence that it functioned as a mediator for fathers, but, self-efficacy moderated as an effect of child behaviours problems on fathers' anxiety.

In a study, Hasstings (2003) was evaluated the child behaviour problems and partner mental health as correlates of stress in mothers and fathers of children with

autism explored how children affect parents and their interrelationships between mothers' and fathers' psychological well-being. The participants of the study were 18 married couples who were the parents of children with autism. The results done through partial correlation analyses revealed that child behaviour problems and fathers' mental health were associated with mothers' stress and Mothers and fathers did not differ in their levels of stress and depression, but mothers reported more anxiety than fathers.

Anastopoulos, Guevremont, Shelton and Dupaul (1992) was conducted a study on parenting stress among families of children with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder investigated the degree to which such stress was related not only to the child's ADHD, but also to various other child, parent, and family-environment circumstances. Participants were 104 clinic-referred children with ADHD and they were assessed through Multimethod assessments procedures. For statistical analysis, hierarchical multiple-regression analyses, utilizing the Parenting Stress Index as the criterion was used. The results showed the child's oppositional-defiant behaviour and maternal psychopathology were especially potent predictors and child and parent characteristics accounted for a substantial portion of the variance in overall parenting stress. Also, the severity of the child's ADHD, the child's health status, and maternal health status also emerged as significant predictors.

In a study Hastings and Beck (2004) was examined the Stress intervention for parents of children with intellectual disabilities with the purpose to consider the evidence base for psychological intervention to remediate stress in these parents. The method used to collect was a focus on group interventions designed to reduce stress in parents of children with intellectual disabilities that incorporate various cognitive behavioural techniques. The results reveal that standard service models (e.g., respite care, case management) probably help to reduce parental stress and strongest evidence base is for cognitive behavioural group interventions, especially for the reduction of stress in mothers.

Boyd (2002) conducted a study on Examining the Relationship between Stress and Lack of Social Support in Mothers of Children with Autism reviewed an association between challenging child characteristics and a mother's inclination to seek social support. The cumulative results of study illustrated that parents who received support related better emotionally to their children and levels of social support were the most powerful predictors of depression and anxiety in mothers.

Dabrowska and Pisula (2010) was conducted a study on Parenting stress and coping styles in mothers and fathers of preschool children with autism and Down syndrome examined the profile of stress in mothers and fathers of preschool children with autism, Down syndrome and typically developing children and to assess the association between parenting stress and coping style. The participants of the study were 162 parents and the tools used were Holroyd's 66 item short form of

Questionnaire of Resources and Stress for Families with chronically ill or Handicapped Members and the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations by Endler and Parker. The results of the study indicated a higher level of stress in parents of children with autism and an interaction effect was revealed between child diagnostic group and parent's gender for two scales of parenting stress: dependency and management and limits of family opportunities. Mothers of children with autism scored higher than fathers in parental stress, but no such differences were found in the group of parents of children with Down syndrome and typically developing children. In social diversion coping it was found that parents of children with autism differed from parents of typically developing children.

Estes, Munson, and Dawson (2009) conducted a study on Parenting stress and psychological functioning among mothers of preschool children with autism and developmental delay. This study investigated how child characteristics influence maternal parenting stress and psychological distress. The participants of the study were 51 mothers of developmental-age matched preschool-aged children with ASD and 22 mothers of developmental delay without autism. The results showed evidence for higher levels of parenting stress and psychological distress was found in mothers in the ASD group compared to the DD group and children's problem behaviour was associated with increased parenting stress and psychological distress in mothers in the ASD and DD groups and this relationship was stronger in the DD group.

Hastings, Kovshoff, Ward, Episona, Brown and Remington (2005) was conducted a study on Systems Analysis of Stress and Positive Perceptions in Mothers and Fathers of Pre-School Children with Autism with the purpose to more explicitly to address relationships between child, partner, and parent variables. The participants were 41 mother–father pairs (48 parents) of children with autism. They were asked report on child characteristics, and their own stress and mental health. Regression analyses was used for statistical analysis and the results revealed that paternal stress and positive perceptions were predicted by maternal depression; maternal stress was predicted by their children’s behaviour problems (not adaptive behaviour or autism symptoms) and by their partner’s depression and mothers were found to report both more depression and more positive perceptions than fathers.

DeWolfe, Byrne and Bawden (2007) was conducted a study on ADHD in preschool children: parent – rated psycho social corelates. 25 children which includes 21 males and 4 females with attention-deficit-hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) participated in this study in addition to 25 typically developing children which includes 21 males, 4 females. Parental ratings of the preschool children and preschool child self-ratings were examined within the framework of three domains like behavioural disturbance, social competence, and familial environment. Compared to their typically developing peers, preschool children classified as having ADHD were rated by their parents as significantly more aggressive, more

demanding of parental time, less socially skilled, less adaptable to change in routine, and as exhibiting more non-compliance. In contrast to these parental ratings, preschool children with ADHD perceived themselves as equally competent, and as socially accepted as their peers. Parents of preschool children with ADHD rated themselves as less competent parents, and as experiencing a restricted parenting role. Although parenting a preschool child with ADHD was viewed as stressful, the parents did not rate general family functioning to be adversely affected.

Mir, Riaz, Bilal and Batool (2016) was conducted a study on psychosocial correlates of behavioral problems in children with ADHD in special schools in Pakistan to determine the psychosocial correlates of behavioral problems in children with ADHD and also to determine gender differences in psychosocial correlates of behavioral problems in children with ADHD. 300 children with ADHD including 150 male and 150 female children were selected from different cities of Pakistan through purposive sampling technique. For the collection of data, Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support, WHO Quality of Life Scale and Strengths and Difficulties questionnaire were used. For the analysis of the collected data, descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation and independent sample t-test using SPSS software version 20 was used. Results revealed that social support and quality of life were negatively related with behavioural problems among children with ADHD. Gender differences revealed that male ADHD children were

higher on behavioural problems as compared to female that were higher on social quality of life. Thus, the study concludes that social support and quality of life have negative association with behavioural problems among children with ADHD.

In a study, Dardas, Ahmad (2014) was assessed Psychosocial Correlates of Parenting a Child with Autistic Disorder to examine the relationship between two sets of variables in a sample of parents of children with autistic disorder. The first set was composed of the parents' characteristics and the coping strategies used and the second set was composed of three stress subscales parental distress (PD), parent child dysfunctional interaction (PCDI), and difficult child (DC) and the parental quality of life (QOL). 184 Jordanian parents of children with autistic disorder were the participants of the study. To assess the relationship between the sets of variables Canonical correlation multivariate analysis was used. The analyses of data revealed that the parents who have higher incomes, use diverse problem-solving strategies, exhibit less escape avoidance, and exhibit less responsibility acceptance behaviour tended to report lower PD, PCDI, and DC scores and a higher QOL score. The analyses also revealed that being an older parent, having more time since the child's autistic diagnosis, and using more distancing coping strategies were associated with lower PD scores, higher PCDI and DC scores, and better QOL.

Hayat and Zafar (2015) conducted a study on Relationship between Psychological Well-Being and Coping Strategies among Parents with Down

syndrome children investigated the relationship between coping strategies and psychological well-being among parents with Down syndrome children. The sample consist of 120 parents which includes 60 fathers and 60 mothers of 60 children with Down syndrome collected through purposive sampling. Results showed significant correlations between psychological well-being and coping strategies. Those parents who relied more on active avoidance coping, reported lower levels of psychological well-being as compared to those who relied on problem-focused coping strategies. Fathers scored significantly high on psychological well-being than mothers. Data analysis suggested significant differences in parental psychological well-being and coping strategies with the increasing age of the children. Gender differences were also explored which suggested that parents with girl-child had comparatively higher levels of psychological wellbeing than parents with boy-child.

A study was conducted by Mosazadeh, Boromand and Narimani (2014) to compare the psychological well-being factors among the parents of the mentally retarded children with those of the normal children. Through the random sampling 80 parents of the mentally retarded children were chosen and 80 parents of the normal children were selected through the multistage random sampling. For the collection of data, the Ryff psychological well-being questionnaire was used. The multivariate variance analysis statistics was applied for the analysis of the data. The results of the multivariate variance analysis statistics show that there is a significant

relation with regards to the positive relationship with the others, mastering the environment at the alpha level of 0/01 ($P < 0/01$), and with regards to the self-acceptance factors, independence, having purpose in life and personal development at the alpha level of 0/05 ($P < 0/05$). There is a significant difference between the parents of the normal children and those of the mentally retarded children with regards to the psychological well-being factors like positive relationship with the others, mastering the environment, self-acceptance factors, independence, having purpose in life, and personal development.

Parameswari and Elijo (2015) was conducted a study on A Study on Psychological Well Being among the Parents of Children with Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities investigated the level of psychological well-being among the parents of children with intellectual and developmental disabilities. The participants were 37 parents of children with Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities. Ryff's Psychological wellbeing scale (1989) was used to assess the psychological well-being which has a multidimensional view on autonomy, Environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relation with others, purpose in life and self – acceptance. In this study the results show that more than half 56.8% of the respondents are having low level of psychological wellbeing and more than half of the parents do not have good mental health due to their multiple responsibilities.

Morya, Agrawal, Upadhyaya and Sharma (2015) was conducted a study on stress and coping in families of mentally retarded children with the objectives of finding out the stress & coping strategies and the factors influencing these strategies in the families with mentally retarded children. Fifty mentally retarded children were divided into two groups- Group A comprising 28 children with IQ more or equal to 50 and Group B comprising of 22 children having IQ less than 50. Parents of selected mentally retarded children were interviewed by using semi structured Performa containing Family Interview for Stress and Coping in Mental Retardation (FISC-MR), NIMH-Family Efficacy Scale (NIMH-FES), Problem Behaviour Check List. For the analysis of obtained data, unpaired t test, Pearson`s correlation coefficient & z-score were used. The results of the study indicated that, in various dimensions of perceived stress, families with mentally retarded children with IQ <50 (Group B) experienced significantly higher daily care stress, emotional stress, social stress and total perceived stress than the families with mentally retarded children with IQ \geq 50 (Group A). Families in both groups used similar coping strategies like awareness about mental retardation, attitude and expectation, rearing practices and social support except global support strategy which was used significantly higher by the families of children with IQ < 50. Having a female mentally retarded child and nuclear family were the factors associated with higher stress in families.

In a study, Staruss, Rodzilsiky and Burack (2001) was examined Psychosocial Correlates of Physical Activity in Healthy Children explore the relationship between health beliefs, self-efficacy, social support, and sedentary activities and physical activity levels in children and to examine the relationship between physical activity and children's self-esteem. The participants were 92 children aged 10 to 16 years. The Physical activity of participants was monitored for 1 week with a motion detector. Moderate-level activity and high-level activity were defined based on the results of treadmill testing. Health beliefs, self-efficacy, social influences, and time spent in sedentary behaviours were determined through questionnaires. Self-esteem was measured using the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. Chronic anxiety was measured with the Revised Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale. The results indicated that There was a significant decline in physical activity levels between ages 10 and 16 years, particularly in girls. Preteen girls spent approximately 35% more time in low- and high-level activity than did teenage girls ($P<.001$). Overall, children spent 75.5% of the day inactive, with a mean \pm SD of 5.2 ± 1.8 hours watching television, sitting at the computer, and doing homework. In contrast, only 1.4% of the day (12.6 ± 12.2 minutes) was spent in vigorous activity. Time spent in sedentary behaviours was inversely correlated with the amount of moderate-level activity ($P<.001$) but not high-level activity. In contrast, time spent in high-level activity correlated with self-efficacy scores ($P<.001$) and social influences scores ($P<.005$). High-level physical activity

was also associated with improved self-esteem ($P < .05$). Higher health beliefs scores were not correlated with physical activity levels.

Mwale, Kauye, Gladstone and Mathanga (2018) was conducted a study on Prevalence of psychological distress among parents of children with intellectual disabilities in Malawi aimed at determining the prevalence and risk factors for psychological distress among parents of intellectually disabled children in Malawi. The participants were 175 mothers and fathers of children with intellectual disabilities as diagnosed by psychiatric clinical officers were randomly sampled from two selected child disability clinics. The Self-Reporting Questionnaire (SRQ) was used as measure for psychological distress were administered to all consenting participants. The collected data analysed using STATA. 70/170 (41.2%) of parents of children with intellectual disabilities reported psychological distress. Univariate and multivariate analysis showed that area of residence ($P < 0.05$), low socio-economic status ($P < 0.05$), knowledge of the disability of one's child ($P < 0.05$), low confidence in managing the disabled child ($P < 0.05$), increased perceived burden of care ($P = 0.05$), and having no sources for psychological support ($P < 0.05$) significantly predicted psychological distress among the parents for children with disabilities.

Hassall and McDonald (2005) was assessed Parenting stress in mothers of children with an intellectual disability: the effects of parental cognitions in relation to child characteristics and family support investigated the relationships between

parental cognitions, child characteristics, family support and parenting stress. The participants were 46 mothers of children with intellectual disability. Participants were administered by Vineland Adaptive Behaviour Scales and Maladaptive Behaviour Domain, The Family Support Scale, The Parenting Sense of Competence Scale, Shortened form of the Parental Locus of Control Scale and the Parenting Stress Index (Short Form). Data were analysed using Pearson's correlation coefficients, partial correlations and regression analysis. The results indicated that most of the variance in parenting stress was explained by parental locus of control, parenting satisfaction and child behaviour difficulties. Whilst there was also a strong correlation between family support and parenting stress, this was mediated by parental locus of control.

In a study, Emerson (2003) was assessed Mothers of children and adolescents with intellectual disability: social and economic situation, mental health status, and the self-assessed social and psychological impact of the child's difficulties compare the socio-economic situation of mothers raising a child with intellectual disability to that of mothers of non- intellectual disability children , assess the contribution of raising a child with intellectual disability to negative psychological outcomes for mothers and to identify variables associated with negative psychological outcomes among mothers of children with intellectual disability. The participants consist of 245 mothers of children with intellectual disability with a comparison group of 481 mothers of children who did not have

intellectual disability. The results of the study showed that families supporting a child with families supporting a child with intellectual disability were significantly economically disadvantaged when compared with families supporting a child who did not have families supporting a child with intellectual disability. When compared with mothers of sampled children who did not have intellectual disability, mothers of sampled children with intellectual disability reported that their child's difficulties resulted in greater social and psychological impact and having a child with intellectual disability marginally reduced the odds of mothers screening positive for having mental health problems (once all other variables were taken into account). Among mothers of children with intellectual disability, mental health problems were associated with the child's difficulties having a greater social impact, having a boy, the child experiencing more than one potentially stressful life event, poverty, receipt of means-tested welfare benefits and 'unhealthy' family functioning.

Yamada, Suzuki, Kato, Tanaka et.al (2007) was conducted a study on Emotional distress and its correlates among parents of children with pervasive developmental disorders evaluated the emotional stress level of parents caring for their children with and pervasive developmental disorders and the correlates of their emotional stress. Participants were 147 families which includes 147 mothers and 122 fathers of 158 children with pervasive developmental disorders (42 with autistic disorder, 35 with Asperger's disorder and 81 with PDD not otherwise

specified). The scales used in this study were K6 to measure the stress level of the parents, Intimate Bond Measure to assess Marital relationships and NEO Five-Factor Inventory to assess personality. Parents also rated the characteristics of their children with pervasive developmental disorder through the Pervasive Developmental Disorder–Autism Society Japan Rating Scale (PARS). The results indicated that mean K6 score of the mothers was significantly higher than that of the women in the general population in Japan. Stepwise multiple regression indicated the emotional stress of the mothers was correlated with the personality traits of Neuroticism and Agreeableness, perceived Control by the husband, and the children's PARS score.

Sharpley, Bitsika and Efermidis (1997) was conducted a study on Influence of gender, parental health, and perceived expertise of assistance upon stress, anxiety, and depression among parents of children with autism. The participants were 219 parents of children with autism. The nature of the child's disorder, parental well-being (anxiety, depression), parents' daily level of stress arising from parenting, their confidence in handling their child's major difficulty, and the frequency of being stretched beyond their limits were included as dependent variables and the Independent variables were gender of parents, age of child and age of onset, parental health, access to other family members, and level of understanding of those family members of the child's problems. Results indicated that, although social support has previously been posited as an alleviating factor for

parental stress, this may be a result of the perceived expertise of the family member who provides respite care for the parents.

In a study, Liwen (2009) was explored Depression, anxiety and quality of life in parents of children with epilepsy to assess the impact of childhood epilepsy on parental quality of life (QOL) and psychological health, and to investigate possible correlations between parental QOL and background variables as well as parental anxiety and depression. 263 Parents having an epileptic child and 270 parents having a healthy child were the participants of the study. Short-Form Health Survey (SF-36) Questionnaire, Zung Depression Scale (ZDS) and Zung Anxiety Scale (ZAS) were scales used in the study. The results indicated that the parents of children with epilepsy had significantly lower QOL scores in SF-36 for all subscales and higher levels of depression and anxiety by using ZDS and ZAS. The factors correlated with parental QOL were seizure control, visit status, anxiety, depression, employment, cost of epilepsy, status epilepticus, drug side effect and age of parents.

Wright, Lorenz and Ellis (2007) was conducted a study on Locus of control fails to mediate between stress and anxiety and depression in parents of children with a developmental disorder. Participants were 619 parents which includes parents of children with an autistic disorder, parents of children with Down's syndrome and parents of children with no disorder. A cross – sectional survey was done among parents to assess levels of parental stress, depression and anxiety. The

results of the study indicated that anxiety and depression were higher in parents of children with a disorder, and highest in parents of children with autism. Locus of control was more external in parents of children with autism. Locus of control failed to mediate the relationship between stress and both anxiety and depression in parents of children with a disorder. This suggests that help for parents of a child with a disorder may be effective if focused on the sources of stress rather than perceived control over events.

In another study, Bayayt, Erdem and Kuzucu (2008) was examined the Depression, Anxiety, Hopelessness, and Social Support Levels of the Parents of Children with Cancer to determine the depression, anxiety (state and trait), hopelessness, and perceived social support levels of parents of children with cancer. The participants were 94 parents of children with cancer followed up at a university hospital. Data were collected using the scales, Beck Depression Inventory, Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support, State—Trait Anxiety Inventory, and The Hopelessness Scale. The results revealed a positive relationship was found between depression and hopelessness scores and between state and trait anxiety scores for both mothers and fathers. Also, a negative relationship was found between social support and depression scores and between hopelessness and social support scores. Apart from fathers, a positive relationship between depression and trait anxiety scores and a negative relationship between state anxiety and hopelessness scores were found in mothers.

Rao and Beidel (2009) was conducted a study on The Impact of Children with High-Functioning Autism on Parental Stress, Sibling Adjustment, and Family Functioning investigate the impact of children with high-functioning autism (HFA) on parental stress, sibling adjustment, and family functioning. The sample of the study involves a sample of parents of 15 children with high functioning autism and parents of 15 normal children. The results indicate parents of children with HFA experience significantly more parenting stress than parents of children with no psychological disorder, which was found to be directly related to characteristics of the children. The study further showed that the higher intellectual functioning in children with HFA does not compensate for the stress associated with parenting children with autism spectrum disorders. Because the intervention efforts directed at children with HFA will not eliminate the child's primary symptoms, treatment programs may need to address parental stress, which in turn will help optimize treatment outcome for the child and the family.

In a study Oswald and Grigaliunjenin (2006) was examined a Controlled Study of Alexithymia in Adolescent Patients with Persistent Somatoform Pain Disorder and they confirmed the following assumptionsto study the differences in levels of alexithymia, depression, and anxiety between a sample of adolescents diagnosed with ICD-10 persistent somatoform pain disorder and healthy adolescent control subjects. The participants were 120 adolescents aged 12 to 17 years, with somatoform disorder, who were hospitalized in Kaunas Medical University

Hospital, Lithuania and 60 healthy adolescents aged 12 to 17 years, who were randomly selected from 6 schools in Kaunas, Lithuania. The data was collected using the Toronto Alexithymia Scale and the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale. The results indicated that the rate of alexithymia in adolescents with somatoform disorder was 59%, which was significantly higher than that in healthy control subjects (1%, $P < 0.001$). Similarly, the rate of anxiety was significantly higher in the patient group (62%), compared with control subjects (15%, $P < 0.001$). The rate of depression was low in both groups and did not differ significantly between groups.

Ulzen and Hamilton (1998) was conducted a study on The Nature and Characteristics of Psychiatric Comorbidity in Incarcerated Adolescentsto determine the prevalence of psychiatric disorders, the degree of psychiatric comorbidity, and the relationship between these in a sample of incarcerated adolescents. A comparison with an age- and sex-matched community sample was conducted and sample consist of 49 incarcerated adolescents and 49 nondelinquents. The psychiatric morbidity and psychosocial characteristics were assessed for the study. Psychiatric diagnoses were determined using the Diagnostic Interview for Children and Adolescents-Revised (DICA-R). and additional information on psychosocial, family, and offence characteristics was obtained using a semi structured interview designed specifically for this study. The results showed that Approximately 63.3% of incarcerated adolescents had 2 or more psychiatric disorders. The degree of psychiatric morbidity was directly related to indicators of family adversity, physical

abuse, other psychosocial variables, or polysubstance abuse. Psychiatric comorbidity was more frequent in females. Incarcerated adolescents were more likely to endorse symptoms of thought disorder.

HungKo, Yen and Chen (2009) was conducted a study on Predictive Values of Psychiatric Symptoms for Internet Addiction in Adolescents to evaluate the predictive values of psychiatric symptoms for the occurrence of Internet addiction and to determine the sex differences in the predictive value of psychiatric symptoms for the occurrence of Internet addiction in adolescents. The participants were a total of 2293 adolescents which include 1179 boys and 1114 girls from ten junior high schools in southern Taiwan. Internet addiction as assessed using the Chen Internet Addiction Scale in a time gap of 6, 12, and 24 months. To assess depression, attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, social phobia, and hostility self-reported questionnaires were used. The results was indicated that depression, attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, social phobia, and hostility were found to predict the occurrence of Internet addiction in the 2-year follow-up, and hostility and attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder were the most significant predictors of Internet addiction in male and female adolescents.

Charbonneau, Mezulis and Hyde (2009) was conducted study on the Stress and Emotional Reactivity as Explanations for Gender Differences in Adolescents'

Depressive Symptoms. In this study researchers examined certain types of stressful events and how individuals respond to these events would explain gender differences in depressive symptoms among adolescents. 315 adolescents consisting of 51% females; 93% Caucasian; 3% African–American; and 1% each Hispanic, Asian–American, and Native American participated in this longitudinal study of child development since birth. For the analysis of the data, used multiple regression and constrained nonlinear regression were used. Results indicated that stressful events significantly mediated gender differences in depression, and that individual differences in emotional reactivity to these stressors significantly moderated the relationship between stress and depression. Also, significant gender differences in emotional reactivity to these stressors; temperamental differences in withdrawal negativity in infancy were marginally significant in mediating gender differences in emotional reactivity to stress in adolescence

Bristow and Patten (2002) was examined the Treatment-Seeking Rates and Associated Mediating Factors among Individuals with Depression systematically reviewed the literature with respect to treatment-seeking rates for depression and associated mediating factors. This review focuses on adolescents and adults of all ages. Using Medline and Psych Info databases two trained reviewers independently and blindly assessed each study according to 4 inclusion criteria and a total of 17 papers met all 4 criteria were selected for the study purpose. The result of the study revealed between 17.0% and 77.8% of individuals with depressive episodes or

disorders sought treatment in these studies. The range in rates by diverse measures of depression, mediating factors that influence treatment-seeking, varied years in which the studies were done, and different time periods over which treatment-seeking was assessed.

In a study, Brown, Harris, Woods, Buman and Joanne (2011) was assessed the Longitudinal Study of Depressive Symptoms and Social Support in Adolescent Mothers examined the association of social support and depressive symptoms over one year postpartum. This was a prospective study of 120 adolescent mothers who enrolled in a teen tot program from 12 weeks to 1 year. Participants completed the Centre for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale for children (CES-DC) and the Duke-UNC Functional Social Support Questionnaire. The results indicated that the mean CES-DC scores of the adolescent mothers were ≥ 16 points at all three time points (baseline: mean = 18.7 ± 10.3 ; 53% ≥ 16 ; 12 weeks: mean = 18.4 ± 11.4 , 57% ≥ 16 ; one year: mean = 20.0 ± 11.4 ; 57% ≥ 16). Social support had a significant, inverse association with depressive symptoms for all participants from baseline to 12 weeks with a stronger association for those with more depressive symptoms (score ≥ 16) at baseline (beta = -0.030 ± 0.007 ; $P < 0.001$) than for those with fewer depressive symptoms (score < 16) at baseline (beta = -0.013 ± 0.006 ; $P = 0.021$). From 12 weeks to one year, increased social support was only significantly associated with decreased depressive symptoms for those with a higher baseline level of depressive symptoms (beta = -0.039 ± 0.009 ; $P < 0.001$). Depressive symptoms were prevalent among adolescent mothers and for more depressed

adolescent mothers, higher levels of social support were associated with less depressive symptoms over the 1-year follow-up.

Azeem, Dogar, Shah, Chemma et.al (2013) was conducted a study on Anxiety and Depression among Parents of Children with Intellectual Disability in Pakistan to assess the level of psychopathology i.e. anxiety, depression and both anxiety and depression together among parents of children with intellectual disability. Participants were 198 parents including 99 fathers or 99 mothers of 100 children with the diagnosis of intellectual disability in a tertiary care hospital in Pakistan. The study was approved by the Institutional Research Committee and the parents were assessed for anxiety and depression using DSM IV criteria. The results indicated significantly high proportion of mothers (89%) had anxiety, depression, or both anxiety and depression together as compared to fathers (77%) ($p\text{-value} < 0.05$). Among mothers, 35% met criteria for anxiety, 40% for depression and 13% for both anxiety and depression. Among fathers 42% had anxiety, 31% depression and 3% both anxiety and depression. There was a significant association between gender of parent and individual psychiatric diagnosis of anxiety, depression and anxiety and depression together ($p\text{-value} < 0.05$). A significant association was also found between mother's anxiety, depression or both and degree of intellectual disability of their children ($p\text{-value} < 0.05$).

In another study was conducted by Gupta and Kaur (2010) on stress among parents with intellectual disability examines stress among parents of children with

intellectual disability. The participants were 102 parents among that 30 were parents of children without disability. A stress assessment test with internal validity of 0.608 was used and this test has two parts, physical with 19 items and mental with 21 items. T test was applied to assess the significant difference in stress, gender differences, and differences in mental and physical stress. Results of the study indicated most parents of children with intellectual disability experience stress, physical and mental stress are significantly correlated, gender differences in stress experienced occur only in the mental area, and parents have higher mental stress score as compared to physical stress.

Kamaruddin and Mamat (2016) was conducted a study on Stress among the Parents of Children with Learning Disabilities: A Demographical Analysis investigate the level of stress among the parents of children with learning disabilities (LD) in primary schools in the district of Tanjong Malim in the state of Perak. The participants were 110 parents of the children who have learning disability. The participants were administrated Parental Stress Scale. The results revealed that a total of 21 (19.1%) parents experiencing stress at high level and they are in the state of normal. Whilst 80 (72.7%) of the parents were suffering average level of stress (a score of 14 to 19) which is considered as mild. Furthermore, the analysis also showed that only 9 (8.2%) of them experienced high level of stress which is classified as severe. The findings have shown that parents of girl with disabilities was associated with higher stress. Parents engaged in more lucrative

and prestigious occupations had more stress than parents engaged in less prestigious and lucrative occupations irrespective of their income. The findings also showed there is no significant difference in terms of stress between the different ethnic groups and religious groups in Malaysia.

Evenson and Simon (2005) conducted a study on Clarifying the relationship between parenthood and depression. The study examined parental status differences in emotional well-being, but relatively little is known about variations in emotional distress among parents. In this article, researchers clarified the relationship between parenthood and current symptoms of depression using data from the National Survey of Families and Households. The analyses provided evidence that parenthood is not associated with enhanced mental health since there is no type of parent who reports less depression than nonparents. Certain types of parenthood are associated with more depression than others. Additionally, although marital status differences in symptoms among parents, there are no gender differences in the association between parenthood and depression.

Milevsky, Schlechter, Netter and Keehen (2006) conducted a study on Maternal and Paternal Parenting Styles in Adolescents: Associations with Self-Esteem, Depression and Life-Satisfaction. The study examined variations in adolescent adjustment as a function of maternal and paternal parenting styles. Participants included 272 students in grades 9 and 11 from a public high school in a metropolitan area of the North eastern US. Participants completed measures of

maternal and paternal parenting styles and indices of psychological adjustment. The results indicated that authoritative mothering was found to relate to higher self-esteem and life-satisfaction and to lower depression. Paternal parenting styles was also related to psychological adjustment, however, although the advantage of authoritative mothering over permissive mothering was evident for all outcomes assessed, for paternal styles the advantage was less defined and only evident for depression.

Sloper (2000) was conducted a study on Predictors of Distress in Parents of Children with Cancer: A Prospective Study to investigate levels of psychological distress in parents of children with cancer and relationships between distress and measures of illness variables, appraisal, psychosocial resources and coping strategies. The participants were 68 mothers and 58 fathers at 6 (Time 1) and 18 (Time 2) months postdiagnosis. The results indicated that high levels of distress for 51% of mothers and around 40% of fathers were apparent at both time points, with little change over time. For mothers, their appraisal of the strain of the illness, and their own ability to deal with it, and family cohesion were predictive of distress, both concurrently and prospectively, and, at Time 1, greater use of self-directed coping strategies was related to higher levels of distress. For fathers, risk factors of employment problems and the number of the child's hospital admissions were significant, along with appraisal and family cohesion.

Hastings (2002) was examined the Parental stress and behaviour problems of children with developmental disability focuses on the integration of two research foci in the field of developmental disability: models of the development and maintenance of children's problem behaviours, and parental stress associated with child characteristics. The researcher investigated children's behaviour problems, parental stress, and parenting behaviour are related. Evidence is found for a central part of this model (that child behaviour problems lead to parental stress), but other aspects are as yet untested in the developmental disability field.

In another study, Boyd (2002) was conducted a literature review study on Examining the Relationship Between Stress and Lack of Social Support in Mothers of Children with Autism. The researcher done selective, critical literature review on the relationship between stress and the paucity of social supports for mothers of children with autism. The published literature reviewed reveals an association between challenging child characteristics and a mother's inclination to seek social support, with mothers under greater stress being more prone to pursue social support. For mothers of children with autism, informal support appeared to be a more effective stress-buffer than formal support. The cumulative results of several studies illustrated that parents Who received support related better emotionally to their children. Furthermore, low levels of social support Were the most powerful predictors of depression and anxiety in mothers.

Weiss (2002) was assessed the Hardiness and Social Support as Predictors of Stress in Mothers of Typical Children, Children with Autism, and Children with Mental Retardation assessed the effects of social support and hardiness on the level of stress in mothers of typical children and children with developmental disabilities. 120 mothers which includes 40 mothers of children with autism, 40 mothers of children with mental retardation, and 40 mothers of typically developing children were the participants of the study. Regression analyses were conducted to determine the best predictors of the dependent measures Results indicated significant group differences in ratings of depression, anxiety, somatic complaints and burnout. Both hardiness and social support were predictive of successful adaptation.

Barlow and Ellard (2006) was conducted a study on review in the psychosocial well-being of children with chronic disease, their parents and siblings: an overview of the research evidence base to provide an overview of the current literature regarding the psychosocial well-being of children with chronic disease, their parents and siblings. Electronic searches for reviews were conducted using AMED, CINAHL, Cochrane Database, DARE, HTA, MEDLINE, NHS EED, PsycLIT, PsycINFO and PubMed (1990 to 2004). Inclusion criteria were systematic reviews, meta-analyses and overviews based on traditional reviews of published literature. The titles of papers were reviewed, abstracts were obtained and reviewed, and full copies of selected papers were obtained. Six reviews of the

psychosocial well-being of children were identified: three on chronic disease in general, one on asthma, one on juvenile idiopathic arthritis and one on sickle cell disease. Two reviews of psychosocial well-being among parents and two reviews of sibling psychosocial well-being were identified and reviewed. The result of the study shows that evidence from meta-analyses shows that children were at slightly elevated risk of psychosocial distress, although only a minority experience clinical symptomatology. The proportion that experience distress remains to be clarified, as do contributory risk factors. However, a meta-analysis of siblings showed that they are at risk from a number of negative effects.

In a study, Davis and Carter (2008) explored the Parenting Stress in Mothers and Fathers of Toddlers with Autism Spectrum Disorders: Associations with Child Characteristics examined associations between child behaviour and parenting. The participants were mothers and fathers of 54 toddlers with ASD. The results revealed parents reported elevated parenting stress. Deficits/delays in children's social relatedness were associated with overall parenting stress, parent-child relationship problems, and distress for mothers and fathers. Regulatory problems were associated with maternal stress, whereas externalizing behaviours were associated with paternal stress. Cognitive functioning, communication deficits, and atypical behaviours were not uniquely associated with parenting stress.

Abbeduto, Seltzer, Shattuck, Kraus et al (2004) conducted a study on Psychological Well-Being and Coping in Mothers of Youths with Autism, Down Syndrome, or Fragile X Syndrome. The sample was comprised of 22 mothers of a child with fragile X syndrome, 39 mothers of a child with Down syndrome, and 174 mothers of a child with autism. The results indicated mothers of individuals with fragile X syndrome displayed lower levels of well-being than those of individuals with Down syndrome, but higher levels than mothers of individuals with autism, although group differences varied somewhat across different dimensions of well-being. The most consistent predictor of maternal outcomes was the adolescent or young adult's behavioural symptoms.

Heiman (2002) was conducted a study on Parents of Children with Disabilities: Resilience, Coping, and Future Expectations the study examined the perspectives of parents of children with an intellectual, physical, or learning disability. 32 parents were interviewed as to past, present, and the modes of coping. The researcher examined various aspects of family ecology domains: parents' responses to the child's diagnosis; patterns of adjustment; family support and services used by parents; and parents' feelings and future expectations. The results revealed that most parents had to make changes in their social life and expressed high levels of frustration and dissatisfaction, many try to maintain their routine life. The majority expressed the need for a strong belief in the child and in the child's future, an optimistic outlook, and a realistic view and acceptance of the

disability. The study highlighted the importance of social resources and support, and the need for effective programs of intervention.

Minde, Eakin, Hechtman et.al (2003) was conducted study on the psychosocial functioning of children and spouses of adults with ADHD. The participants were 23 spouses and 63 children of 33 families with an ADHD parent and 20 spouses and 40 children of 26 families. Both adults and their spouses were assessed for lifetime and current Axis I and Axis II diagnoses, present general psychiatric symptoms and their marital relationships and children were screened for ADHD and other problems, using the C-DISC, CBCL, TRF and the Social Adjustment Inventory. The results indicated that children with an ADHD parent had higher rates of psychopathology than those from comparison families. Children with ADHD had more co-morbidities than non ADHD children. Family and marital functions were impaired in ADHD families regardless of the gender of the affected parent. Children without ADHD from families with one psychiatrically healthy parent did well while the behaviour of children with ADHD was always poor and not associated with parental mental health.

Melins, Brackis, Dolezal and Abrams (2004) was conducted a study on The Role of Psychosocial and Family Factors in Adherence to Antiretroviral Treatment in Human Immunodeficiency Virus-Infected Children examines child psychosocial and caregiver/family factors influencing adherence to ART in perinatally human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-infected children. The participants were 448

children below 7 years and their caregivers. The participants were administered with A battery of psychologic assessments and self-report adherence. The results indicated that forty percent of caregivers and 56% of children reported missed doses of medication in the past month. Families in which the caregiver or child reported missed doses (nonadherent) were compared with families who reported no missed doses (adherent). In univariate analyses, nonadherence was significantly associated with older child age ($P < 0.05$), worse parent-child communication ($P < 0.017$), higher caregiver stress ($P < 0.002$), lower caregiver quality of life ($P < 0.003$) and worse caregiver cognitive functioning ($P = 0.033$), and of borderline significance in its association with increased (1) child responsibility for medications ($P < 0.07$), (2) HIV disclosure to the child ($P < 0.07$) and (3) child stress ($P < 0.08$) In logistic regressions controlling for age, caregiver/family factors were the most strongly associated with nonadherence, including worse parent-child communication ($P < 0.03$), higher caregiver stress ($P < 0.01$), less disclosure to others ($P < 0.05$) and quality of life ($P < 0.01$).

Ambrosini, Oddy, Robinson et al (2009) was conducted a study on Adolescent dietary patterns are associated with lifestyle and family psycho-social factors describes dietary patterns in a cohort of adolescents and examines their associations with socio-economic factors, as well as parental and adolescent risk factor behaviours. The participants were 1631 adolescents aged 14 years who were selected from a pregnancy cohort study. A semi-quantitative FFQ was used to

assess study adolescent's usual dietary intake over the previous year, family functioning, various socio-economic and risk factor variables Adolescents visited the study clinic for anthropometric measurements. Factor analysis was used to identify two distinct dietary patterns that differed predominantly in fat and sugar intakes. ANOVA was used for the statistical analysis. The results showed that showed that the 'Western' dietary pattern was positively associated with greater television viewing and having a parent who smoked, and was inversely associated with family income. The 'healthy' pattern was positively associated with female gender, greater maternal education, better family functioning and being in a two-parent family, and was inversely associated with television viewing.

Moulin, Chollet, Quiroga et al (2017) was conducted a study on Prevalence and Psychosocial Correlates of ADHD Symptoms in Young Adulthood: A French Population-Based Study assessed the psychosocial correlates of ADHD symptoms in a French community-based sample. Participants were 1,214 community-based young adults of age 18-35 years and their parents. Through telephone interview, ADHD symptoms and socioeconomic and psychosocial correlates were assessed and Logistic regression analyses were conducted to assess associations. The results indicated that total of 7.1% of the sample presented high levels of ADHD symptoms. Parental history of anxiety, dissatisfaction with love life, and consumption of tobacco were associated with the highest odds ratios.

Sepa, Frodi and Ludvigsson (2004) was conducted a study on Psychosocial correlates of parenting stress, lack of support and lack of confidence/security, to identify important correlates of parenting stress, frequently conceptualized as a mediator of suboptimal family function, and of social support and confidence/security. The participants were 16,000 families in Sweden were assessed in questionnaires at delivery and at one year. The results showed that parenting stress were parental dissatisfaction and poor child sleeping patterns; lack of support included lack of confidence/security, parents born abroad, single motherhood, and maternal health problems; and lack of confidence/security were lack of support and serious life events. Mothers lacking social support or confidence/security exhibited significantly higher stress. Although parenting stress is a complex phenomenon certain risk factors can be emphasized, such as sleep problems which appear more important than child health problems.

In a study, Lytton, Hugh, Romney, David (1991) was explored the literature review study on Parents' differential socialization of boys and girls: A meta-analysis. A meta-analysis of 172 studies attempted to resolve the conflict between previous narrative reviews on whether parents make systematic differences in their rearing of boys and girls. Most effect sizes were found to be nonsignificant and small. In North American studies, the only socialization area of 19 to display a significant effect for both parents is encouragement of sex-typed activities. In other Western countries, physical punishment is applied significantly more to boys.

Fathers tend to differentiate more than mothers between boys and girls. Over all socialization areas, effect size is not related to sample size or year of publication. Effect size decreases with child's age and increases with higher quality. No grouping by any of these variables changes a nonsignificant effect to a significant effect.

Pasterski, Geffner, Brain, Hindmarsh, Brook and Hines (2005) was conducted a study on Prenatal Hormones and Postnatal Socialization by Parents as Determinants of Male-Typical Toy Play in Girls with Congenital Adrenal Hyperplasia. The participants were 3 to 10-year-old children with Congenital Adrenal Hyperplasia and their unaffected siblings. They participants were assessed by observing the toy choices of 3 to 10 year old children with congenital adrenal hyperplasia (CAH) and of their unaffected siblings. The result of the study indicated that Girls with CAH displayed more male typical toy choices than did their unaffected sisters, whereas boys with and without CAH did not differ. Mothers and fathers encouraged sex typical toy play in children with and without CAH. However, girls with CAH received more positive feedback for play with girls' toys than did unaffected girls. Data show that increased male typical toy play by girls with CAH cannot be explained by parental encouragement of male typical toy play. Although parents encourage sex appropriate behaviour, their encouragement appears to be insufficient to override the interest of girls with CAH in cross sexed toys.

Hadjar, Baier, and Boehnke (2008) was conducted a literature review on the socialization of hierarchic self-interest: Value socialization in the family. The article reports research on family socialization of dominance values among adolescents. Dominance values were studied as expressed in Hierarchic Self-Interest (HSI), a value pattern that is typical for highly competitive market-oriented societies and has negative behavioural consequences. In analysing socialization, the study concentrates on authoritarian and achievement-focused parenting, as well as structural and ideological predictors thereof. The relevance of HSI for attitudes and behaviours is studied by considering xenophobia and delinquency as its consequences. Using panel data of 443 families (mothers, fathers, and adolescent offspring) from Berlin (Germany), a structural equation model is estimated. Results show that adolescent HSI can be traced back to social-structural variables and parenting modes, but also develops through intergenerational value transmission.

In a study, Schwarz (2006) was conducted a study on Adult Daughters' Family Structure and the Association Between Reciprocity and Relationship Quality explores whether family structure is a moderator of the associations between help exchange, reciprocity of this exchange, and the quality of the mother and adult daughter relationship. The participants were 183 daughters among that 87 were living in first marriage, 77 were living with a new partner after divorce, 99 were unmarried or divorced in a single-parent household. Results show that intimacy in a relationship is more strongly associated with help exchange for

daughters in first marriage than for both groups of divorced daughters. Among daughters who perceive that they give more help than they receive, only the single daughters report more conflict. Findings point to a higher importance of balance in support for single daughters.

Buhi, Scholwin, and Noack (2014) was conducted a study on Individuation in Adults' Family Interactions: An Observational Study investigates the status of individuation in adult child–parent relationships expressed in verbal interactions, as well as considering verbal behavior as a means to individuate. The sample consisted of 41 German adult children aged 20–45 years and their 39 mothers and 19 fathers were videotaped in dyadic conflict discourse. The interactions were coded in their entirety, and scales were allocated to the factor connectedness, individuality, and conflict. The results showed that Group comparisons show that mothers and fathers do not differ. Middle-aged adults interacted in a more individuated manner than young adults. Their mothers interacted in a way that was more connected and less conflictual than mothers in interactions with younger adults; their fathers, on the other hand, interacted more conflictual. The behaviour of adult children and their parents did not differ and so expressed a high amount of behavioural symmetry. Associations between the self-report about the relationship and family members' behaviour point to verbal interaction as a means for negotiating the relationship.

Lefkowitz, Baxt and Evans (2010) was conducted a study on Prevalence and Correlates of Posttraumatic Stress and Postpartum Depression in Parents of Infants in the Neonatal Intensive Care Unit (NICU) to assess the prevalence and correlates of acute stress disorder (ASD) and posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) in mothers and fathers, and postpartum depression (PPD) in mothers, of infants in the Neonatal Intensive Care Unit (NICU). Participants were 86 mothers and 41 fathers of Infants in the Neonatal Intensive Care Unit (NICU). Participants completed measures of ASD and of parent perception of infant medical severity 3–5 days after the infant’s NICU admission (T1), and measures of PTSD and PPD 30 days later (T2). The results indicated that 35% of mothers and 24% of fathers met ASD diagnostic criteria at T1, and 15% of mothers and 8% of fathers met PTSD diagnostic criteria at T2. PTSD symptom severity was correlated with concurrent stressors and family history of anxiety and depression. Rates of ASD/PTSD in parents of hospitalized infants are consistent with rates in other acute illness and injury populations, suggesting relevance of traumatic stress in characterizing parent experience during and after the NICU.

In another study, Wessiman , Warner, Wickramaratne and Prusoff (1988) was explored the Early-onset major depression in parents and their children on 6–23-year-old offspring of depressed and of normal parents, an inverse relationship between the rates of major depression among the children and the age of onset of major depression in their proband parents was found. The children of parents who

had an onset of major depression that was younger than age 20 years overall had the highest risk of major depression. There was specificity in the findings in that these higher rates were nearly all accounted for by prepubertal onsets of major depression in their children. There was a 14-fold increased risk of onset of depression before age 13 in the children of probands who had onset less than age 20. These results were not confounded by the current age of the proband or the children, by interview status (children were interviewed), by comorbidity in the parents or by assortative mating. Future family genetic studies should examine the rates and patterns of illness of the biological relatives of probands with prepubertal-onset major depression.

Ingersoll and Hambick (2011) was conducted a study on the relationship between the broader autism phenotype, child severity, and stress and depression in parents of children with autism spectrum disorders examined the relationship between child symptom severity, parent broader autism phenotype (BAP), and stress and depression in parents of children with ASD. One hundred and forty-nine parents of children with ASD completed a survey of parenting stress, depression, broader autism phenotype, coping styles, perceived social support, and child symptom severity. Parents reported elevated parenting stress and depression relative to normative samples. A path analysis indicated that both child symptom severity and parent BAP were positively correlated with these outcomes. The relationship between BAP and the outcome measures was partially mediated by

maladaptive coping and social support and the relationship between child symptom severity and outcomes was partially mediated by social support.

Dauod, Dooley, Gordon (2004) was conducted a study on Depression in parents of children with Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy examined depression, self-esteem, and mastery in the family caretakers of a group of males with Duchenne muscular dystrophy in comparison to a control group. A questionnaire based on the National Population Health Survey from Statistics Canada, a survey to collect information on the health of the Canadian population and related sociodemographic information, was conducted by telephone with 42 parents. The results were compared with the national data from the National Population Health Survey, 1994 and 1999, matched for province of residence, number of children in the household, age, and marital status of the respondents. Parents of children with Duchenne muscular dystrophy had a higher probability of going through a major depressive episode and had significantly lower self-esteem and mastery scores than the national control group. None of the variables investigated (age, intelligence quotient, and ambulatory status of child or sex, age, and marital status of parent) could predict the depressive episode, with two exceptions. Parents without a partner had lower scores on the mastery scale, and parents of males older than 13 years of age were more likely to experience distress that interfered with life. It is incumbent on those caring for patients with Duchenne

muscular dystrophy to counsel families regarding their potential to suffer a major depressive episode and to advise on appropriate therapy.

Anderssen and Wold (1992) was conducted a study on Parental and Peer Influences on Leisure-Time Physical Activity in Young Adolescents. The present analysis included 904 students in western Norway who took part in a health behaviour survey, which included questions regarding physical activity. Students completed a confidential questionnaire at school All four measures of influence were positively related to students' activity levels. Influence from parents and friends on adolescents' self-reported level of leisure-time physical activity was examined through measures of perceived leisure-time physical activity of parents and best friend, perceived direct support for physical activity from parents and friends, direct help from parents in exercising vigorously, and perceived value of physical activity of parents and friends. Parental and peer physical activity level and parental and peer support for physical activity seem to influence the reported physical activity level of the respondents. The findings indicate that, by serving as models and supporters, significant others have an important impact in promoting physical activity in young adolescents.

In a study, Xu, Farver, Zhang Zeng Yu and Cai (2010) was assessed the Parenting styles and mother-child interaction were examined with 97 Mainland Chinese mothers and their young children. Mothers completed questionnaires about their parenting styles, orientation to Chinese cultural values, perceived parenting

stress, and sources of social support. The regression analyses showed that mothers' adherence to Chinese values was associated with both authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles. Other characteristics of the family contexts, such as perceived parenting distress, social support, and years of education, also contributed to Chinese mothers' parenting styles. Mother-child dysfunctional interaction was associated with mothers' heightened parenting distress, a lack of perceived social support, and perceptions of children's difficultness. Group comparisons revealed that Chinese mothers who had high scores for both authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles adhered most strongly to the Chinese cultural values. The findings suggest that the aspects of families' eco-cultural settings such as mothers' endorsement of Chinese cultural values and perceived parenting stress contribute to their parenting styles and interaction with their children.

Barber and Olsen (1997) was conducted a study on Socialization in Context: Connection, Regulation, and Autonomy in the Family, School, and Neighbourhood, and with Peers investigated the relation to school grades, feelings of depression, and antisocial behaviour of youth perceptions of three central dimensions of socialization (connection with significant others, regulation of behaviour, and psychological autonomy) as they are experienced in four social contexts: family, school, neighbourhood, and peers. Analyses of a random sample of 900 fifth and eighth-grade youth included both descriptive accounts of youth experience in these

contexts and tested for various models predicting independent and interactive effects among contexts on youth functioning. Findings showed that connection, regulation, and autonomy were meaningful dimensions of socialization experience in the four contexts, that family and peers were primary socialization domains, and that discrete aspects of youth functioning were related to specific contexts. There was some evidence that deficits in experience in one context can be compensated for by experience in other contexts.

Barber and Schluterman (2008) was conducted a study on *Connectedness in the Lives of Children and Adolescents: A Call for Greater Conceptual Clarity* studies of the role of connectedness in the health and development of children and adolescents are accumulating rapidly. Although findings are uniformly consistent in documenting its correlation with a host of health indicators, the construct is in need of substantial conceptual clarification to maximize its research and applied utility. Current conceptualizations and operationalisations inconsistently span a wide spectrum of varied elements of social experience—including the quality of a relationship, the degree of liking an environment or relationship, the quality of performance in an environment or relationship, the possession of feelings or attitude states, and a combination of states and the behaviours that antecede them—resulting in an ability to adequately understand what the construct is and how, why, and when it is most protective. This paper documents this variability in an effort to sensitize researchers, practitioners, and policy makers to the complexity of the

construct. It further describes one ongoing, multicultural research project that is currently informing international health initiatives as an illustration of one approach to addressing the complexity with goals of precision, parsimony, cultural sensitivity, and applied utility.

Gemback and Locke (2007) was conducted a study on the socialization of adolescent coping behaviours: Relationships with families and teachers. A motivational theory of children's coping identified aspects of relationships— involvement, structure and autonomy support—that are expected to determine whether coping will be characterized by approach (active) or avoidance. Associations between adolescents' (N=487, Age M=14) relationships with families and teachers, and coping behaviours were examined. Whether a Family Primacy Model or a Context-Specific Model best explained the findings was also determined. A Family Primacy Model received predominant support; adolescents with more positive family relationships used more active coping with problems at home and school. Positive relationships with teachers predicted more active coping behaviours, especially at school.

Anderson and McCabe (2012) was conducted a study on A Coco structured World: Adolescent Self-Socialization on the Internet examines the ubiquitous Internet as a context for socialization for both younger and older adolescents. This research finds that the Internet adds dimensions to and takes away elements in the

socialization process that have not been manifest in the same way in the past. The Internet serves as both an influence agent and an interactive context in which socialization and identity development takes place. The authors find that the lack of the usual adult socialization agents in this context challenges the more traditional view of adolescent socialization and results in a self-socialization process. The authors attempt to understand some of the more subtle practices of self-socializing and identity development that occur during adolescence by describing the interrelated themes that arose from the data, including the online structure and context that supported this self-socialization, adolescents' goals while online, predominant socialization and identity development activities that they partake in, negotiated norms of this online constructed world, multiple identities related to their identity development, and carryover to the offline world. By examining the confluence of these adolescents with the often "hot" context of Internet social space, this article demonstrates how self-socialization and the negotiated norm of deception and lying gives rise to both benefits and potentially risky behaviours.

Hastings and Brown (2002) was conducted a study on Behaviour Problems of Children with Autism, Parental Self-Efficacy, and Mental Health. In the present study, 26 mothers and 20 fathers of children with autism reported on their self-efficacy, anxiety, and depression. Teachers rated the behaviour problems of the children. Regression analyses showed that self-efficacy mediated the effect of child behaviour problems on mothers' anxiety and depression, but there was no evidence

that it functioned as a mediator for fathers. However, there was evidence that self-efficacy moderated the effect of child behaviour problems on fathers' anxiety. No evidence for the moderating effect of self-efficacy was apparent for mothers. Methodological issues and the theoretical and practical implications of these results are discussed.

Schilling, Schinke and Kirkham (1985) was conducted a study on Coping with a handicapped child: Differences between mothers and fathers. This paper considers coping styles of mothers and fathers of handicapped children. Cautioning against stereotyping, the authors find that mothers and fathers differ in how they appraise and cope with the stress of rearing a developmentally disabled child. The need for systematic investigation of gender-related coping styles in families with handicapped children is discussed.

Little (2009) was conducted a study on middle – class mothers' perceptions of peer and sibling victimization among children with as Asperger's syndrome and nonverbal learning disorders article describes the yearly prevalence and frequency of peer and sibling victimization as reported by a large national sample of middle-class mothers of children with Asperger's syndrome and nonverbal learning disorders. An anonymous, mailed survey was sent to families solicited from two national Internet sites for parents of children with Asperger's and nonverbal learning disorders using the Comprehensive Juvenile Victimization scale and three questions designed to measure peer shunning. The overall prevalence rate reported by mothers of peer victimization was 94%. Mothers reported that almost three-

quarters of their children had been hit by peers or siblings in the past year and 75% had been emotionally bullied. On the more severe end of peer victimization, 10% of the children were attacked by a gang in the past year and 15% were victims of nonsexual assaults to the genitals. Peer shunning also was common. A third of the children had not been invited to a single birthday party in the past year, and many were eating alone at lunch or were picked last for teams. Peer shunning was significantly correlated with peer bullying and assault. The high rates of peer shunning and peer victimization reported suggest that children with Asperger's and nonverbal learning disorders may require further scrutiny and attention concerning their victimization experiences by peers and siblings.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

- **Sample**
- **Tools**
- **Statistical Techniques**

A detailed account of the method by which the study was carried out is given under different subtitles

3.1 Sample

The term sampling is defined as the process by which a relatively small number of individuals, or measures of objects or events are selected or analyzed in order to find out something about the entire population, or universe from which it is selected (Cornelt, 1960).

The term sample can be defined as a small proportion of population selected for observation and analysis. The sample for the study consists of a total of 140 parents in which 35 male parents and 35 female parents with specially challenged children and 35 male parent and 35 female parents without specially challenged children belonging to different socioeconomic status from various parts of Kollam. The details of classification of subjects selected for the present study are given in table 3.1.

Table 3.1
Classification of subjects

Sex	Male	70
	Female	70
Parent with specially challenged children	Father	35
	Mother	35
Parent with normal children	Father	35
	Mother	35

3.2 Tools

The following are the tools used for collecting data from the subjects

(a) Social Motives Scale (Singh & Bhargava, 2015)

This scale consists 36 items. It measures three important social motives-achievement (ach), power (pow.) and social contact motive (soc. cont.) by positive and negative tendencies of the individual. It contains 36 pair of statements. It is a highly reliable ($r = 0.81$, which is significant 0.01 level) and valid scale ($r = 0.70$, which is significant 0.01 level).

(b) Anxiety, Depression and Stress Scale (Bhatnagar, 2010)

Anxiety, Depression and Stress Scale was developed by Pallavi Bhatnagar (2010). The scale comprises of 48 items which is divided into 3 sub scales namely; anxiety sub scale, depression sub scale and stress sub scale. The scale has good reliability and validity. The Reliability of the total scale in terms of internal consistency as Measure of Cronbach's Alpha and Spearman-Brown coefficient is 0.81 and 0.89. The obtained reliability for anxiety, depression and stress subscales as measured by Cronbach's Alpha is 0.76, 0.75 and 0.61 and when measured by Spearman Brown coefficient is 0.86, 0.86 and 0.76 respectively.

3.3 Statistical Analysis

3.3.1 The *t*-test

The test of significance (*t*-test) for difference between means for large independent samples (Garrett, 1981) is used to compare the means obtained by any two group of subjects on any of the variables.

The *t*-test is based on *t*- distribution and is considered as an appropriate test for judging the significance of difference between the means of two samples, in

case of small samples, when population variance is not known (in which case we use variance of the sample as estimate of the population variance) (Kothari, 1985).

The t-test for large independent samples have been applied (two tailed tests) as the sample size in each of the categories exceeding 30.

3.3.2 Analysis of Variance

Analysis of variance is a class of statistical analysis to determine the significance of the difference among the means of three or more groups. The analysis is of the square of standard deviation (variance) rather than the standard deviation itself (variability). The groups used in the analysis may result from a single classificatory variable or more than one classificatory variable. In the former case, the analysis is labeled one-way analysis of variance and in the later, two way or multiple way analysis of variance according to the number of classificatory variables involved. When subgroups are formed on the basis of two or more classificatory variables, the interaction between the independent variables affecting the dependent variable can also be studied.

Variance is made up of two components – between groups (due to actual differences) and within groups (due to the operation of chance factors). The ratio of between groups variance to the within groups variance (F-ratio) follows Fisher's F distribution. A critical value of F therefore exists depending upon the size of a sample, against which the calculated F may be compared. If the calculated

value exceeds the critical F, the difference among the means is significant and not due to chance factors (Robinson, 1981). The present study one-way analysis used for finding the difference between psychosocial correlates (i.e., variables under study) and group in relation to the severity disability.

3.3.3 Duncan Multiple Range Test

When the investigator uses the analysis of variance with more than two groups, there is a question as to which means are significantly from which other means. This leads to the problem of multiple comparison. Here the suitable comparison techniques, Duncan Multiple Range Test is used.

The results obtained from analyzing the data and their discussions are included in the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

- **THE t- TEST**
- **ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE**
- **DUNCAN'S MULTIPLE RANGE TEST**
- **TEST OF TENABILITY OF HYPOTHESES**

The information gathered from the sample was coded and was subjected to appropriate statistical analysis. The t-test is used to finalize the significant difference between groups. One-way analysis was made use in finding out if there is significant relation among the variables under study. Post hoc tests were sought to final out group wise differences between groups in their cores as these variables.

4.1 *t* - test

The t-test has been done in order to find out whether there is any such difference in Psychological Correlates .

Table 4.1
Comparison of Psychosocial correlates on with and without disability
groups of parents.

Variable	Disability	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Df	t	Significance level
SOCIALIZATION	Disability	70	185.2857	34.71296	138	1.792	NS
	No disability	70	194.0000	21.22345			
ANXIETY	Disability	70	128.9714	49.99564	138	4.193	**
	No disability	70	96.5714	40.99790			
DEPRESSION	Disability	70	117.4286	55.49999	138	3.907	**
	No disability	70	87.2857	32.96557			
STRESS	Disability	70	137.5714	44.92944	138	3.518	**
	No disability	70	112.0000	40.987803			

(** indicate significance at 0.01 level)

The results show that there is no significant difference in socialization among the parents with and without specially challenged but there is significant difference in anxiety, depression and stress among these parents. The t-test has been done in order to find out whether there is any such difference in Psychological Correlates based on gender.

Table 4.2

Comparison of gender wise differences of parents of differently abled children on the psychosocial correlates variables.

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	Significance level
SOCIALIZATION	Male	35	182.5714	33.54916	138	0.560358	NS
	Female	35	188.0000	36.12071			
ANXIETY	Male	35	109.3714	38.93818	138	3.161545	**
	Female	35	148.5714	52.58846			
DEPRESSION	Male	35	113.4286	54.12094	138	1.126146	NS
	Female	35	121.4286	57.35046			
STRESS	Male	35	134.8571	41.18619	138	1.714938	NS
	Female	35	140.2857	48.83861			

**** indicate significance at 0.01 level**

Table 4.2 show there is no significant difference in socialization, depression and stress among the father and mother of parents with specially challenged children but there is significant difference in anxiety, among mother of specially challenged children.

4.2 Analysis of Variance

In the present study one-way ANOVA was used to test the psychosocial constraints of parents with and without specially challenged children in the intensity of disability (mild, moderate, and severe)

Table 4.3

Comparison of Psychosocial correlates of variables based on the severity group of parents

Variable	Group	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
SOCIALIZATION	Between Groups	2700.068	3	900.023	1.072	.NS
	Within Groups	114182.075	136	839.574		
	Total	116882.143	139			
ANXIETY	Between Groups	37307.757	3	12435.919	5.875	**
	Within Groups	287880.929	136	2116.772		
	Total	325188.686	139			
DEPRESSION	Between Groups	33727.429	3	11242.476	5.354	**
	Within Groups	285594.714	136	2099.961		
	Total	319322.143	139			

STRESS	Between Groups	27850.192	3	9283.397	5.045	.**
	Within Groups	250243.380	136	1840.025		
	Total	278093.571	139			

The results of ANOVA reveal that:

- (i) There is no significant difference in Socialization on Between Groups and Within Groups.
- (ii) There is a significant difference in Anxiety, Depression and Stress.
- (iii) To find out the pairs of mean difference, in the areas of mild, moderate, severe Duncan Post hoc test was used.

Table 4.4

Shows the comparison of disability severity groups of parents on the variable Anxiety based on Duncan's Multiple Range Test

Severity of Disability	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
NO	70	96.5714	
MODERATE	34		127.2941
MILD	25		128.4000
SEVERE	11		135.4545
Sig.		1.000	.576

Table 4.5
Shows the comparison of disability severity group of parents on the variable
depression based on Duncan's Multiple range test

Severity of Disability	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
NO	70	87.2857	
MODERATE	34		112.058
MILD	25		122.000
SEVERE	11		123,6364
Sig.		1.000	.576

Table 4.6
Shows the comparison of disability severity groups of parents on the variable
Stress based on Duncan's Multiple Range Test

Severity of Disability	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
NO	70	112.000	
SEVERE	11	119.009	119.0909
MILD	25	137.600	137.6000
MODERATE	34		143,5294
Sig.		.057	.070

The results of the Duncan's post hoc test indicate that anxiety is high for parents with children with severe disability children, following the parents with mild disability children. Anxiety is found to be low on parents with moderate disable child. The parents of children with severe disable children are more anxious about the future of their children, how their future will be and for parents with mild disable children is anxious about the performance level of the children and how they cope up with normal children.

In case of depression, depression is high for parents with severe and mild disable children and it is low for parents who have children with moderate disability. The parents of the severe disable children have an increased hopelessness about the future of their child and them self which leads to a depressive state and in case of parents of mild disable children, they have a sadness that their child is not performing as other children of the same age which leads to a depressive state in course of time.

In case of stress, stress is high for parents with moderate and mild disable children and it is low for parents who have children with severe disability. Since parents with mild and moderate disable children have a hope that their children can develop and become far better than this present condition, they will work hard for the development for their child, which creates an increase in the stress level of the parents.

4.3 Test of Tenability of Hypotheses

1. The first hypothesis is stated as: *“There will be significant differences on the variable psychosocial constraints (i.e., anxiety, socialization, depression, & stress) among parents with and without specially challenged children.”*, which is partially accepted.
2. The second hypothesis is stated as: *“There will be significant differences on the variable psychosocial constraints (i.e., anxiety, socialization, depression, & stress) on the group of levels of disability (i.e., no disability, mild, moderate, & severe) among parent’s with and without specially challenged children”*, which partially accepted.
3. The third hypothesis is stated as: *“There will be significant difference on the variables of psychosocial constraints (anxiety, socialization, depression, stress) based on parents (i.e., father & mother) among parent’s with and without specially challenged children”*, which partially accepted.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

- **RESUME OF INVESTIGATION**
- **MAJOR FINDINGS**
- **IMPLICATIONS**
- **LIMITATIONS**
- **SCOPE FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

5.1 RESUME OF THE INVESTIGATION

The present study was conducted to find out the psychosocial correlates among the parents of with and without specially challenged children. Anxiety, socialization, stress and depression were measured in a sample size of 140 parents (70 parents with normal children and 70 parents with differently able child). Psychological tools like Social Motives Scale (Singh & Bhargava, 2015) and Anxiety, Depression and Stress Scale (Bhatnagar, 2010) were used to measure the psychosocial constraints. t test and ANNOVA (one-way) were used to statically analyse the data

5.2 MAJOR FINDINGS

1. There is a significant difference in psychosocial constraints on parents of with and without specially challenged children.
2. There is no significant difference in socialization on both parents
3. On parents with specially challenged child anxiety is high when compared with parents who have normal child.

4. On parents with specially challenged child stress is high when compared with parents who have normal child.
5. On parents with specially challenged child depression is high when compared with parents who have normal child.
6. On the basis of gender, mothers of differently abled children have more psychosocial constraints.
7. On the basis of intensity of disability, anxiety is high among parents of children with severe and mild disability
8. On the basis of intensity of disability, stress is high among parents of children with moderate and mild disability
9. On the basis of intensity of disability, depression is high among parents of children with severe and mild disability
10. Socialization has no effect on parents of specially challenged children

5.3 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

From the study we came to a conclusion that there is a significant difference in psychosocial correlates on parents with and without specially challenged children. The findings show that there is no significant difference among parents of normal child and differently abled child on socialization which indicate socialization is adequate for both parents in and around Kollam cooperation area.

But the study shows a significant difference in anxiety, stress and depression. These factors are high in parents of differently abled children, so necessary action should be taken for reducing the psychological constraints such as anxiety, depression and stress among parents of specially challenged children. Parental counselling and other psychological support should be given to the parents to reduce the factors. Nowadays awareness classes are conducted for parental groups of specially challenged children by government and NGO's, but it will not focus on their specific problems. Individual counselling and family counselling should give to them in order to reduce these psychological constrains which help them to create a happy home atmosphere and lead a healthy life.

Based on gender in stress, socialization and depression among male parents and female parents of specially challenged children parents it is found to be almost similar, but anxiety is higher in female parents of specially challenged children. It is because mothers spent more time with children, so they know more in detail about their abilities and disabilities, so it creates an anxiety in mothers, thinking about the future of their child.

From the study it was also found that, Anxiety is high for parents with children with severe disability children and following that parents with mild disability children. Anxiety is found to be low on parents with moderate disable child. The parents of children with severe disable children are more anxious about the future of their children, how their future will be and for parents with mild

disable children is anxious about the performance level of the children and how they cope up with normal children.

In case of depression, depression is high for parents with severe and mild disable children and it is low for parents who have children with moderate disability parents of the severe disable children have an increased hopelessness about the future of their child and them self which leads to a depressive state and in case of parents of mild disable children, they have a sadness that their child is not performing as other children of the same age which leads to a depressive state in course of time.

In case of stress, stress is high for parents with moderate and mild disable children and it is low for parents who have children with severe disability. Since parents with mild and moderate disable children have a hope that their children can develop and become far better than this present condition, they will work hard for the development for their child, which creates an increase in the stress level of the parents.

In order to reduce these psychological constraints individual psychotherapy and awareness should be given to the parents as well as to the society.

5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. Conducted in urban area of Kollam district
2. Cultural and economic factors may affect because it is only done in Kollam cooperation area

5.5.1 SCOPE FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The problems of specially challenged people are highly neglected in Kerala State and it should be get a wider focus in other States. Psychosocial constrains are widely affecting in this population and there is a limited research in this population. Therefore, a holistic approach is necessarily needed for healthier lives of exceptional children as well as for the primary caregivers.

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APPENDICES

ROLE OF EMOTIONAL MATURITY ON PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS AMONG POLICE OFFICIALS

*Dissertation submitted to the partial fulfillment of the
requirement of M.Sc Degree in Psychology*

JINCY JOHNSON

(Reg. No. P1716005)



Guide:

Dr. REENA GEORGE

SUPERVISING TEACHER

FATIMA MATA NATIONAL COLLEGE,

(AUTONOMOUS), KOLLAM

Affiliated to the University of Kerala

Research Center:

FATIMA MATA NATIONAL COLLEGE,

KOLLAM, KERALA, INDIA, 2019

DECLARATION

I, **JINCY JOHNSON** do hereby declare that this dissertation “**ROLE OF EMOTIONAL MATURITY ON PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS AMONG POLICE OFFICIALS**” is a bonafide record of the dissertation work done by me under the guidance of **DR. REENA GEORGE**, Asst. Professor, Department of Psychology, **FATIMA MATA NATIONAL COLLEGE, KOLLAM**. I further declare that this dissertation or any part of this has not been submitted for any degree, diploma, recognition or title in this or any other University or Institution.

Place: **Fatima Mata National College, Kollam**

Date:28/06/2019

Certificate

This is to certify that Ms. JINCY JOHNSON, the student of fourth semester , MSc psychology has satisfactorily completed the project on the paper entitled –ROLE OF EMOTIONAL MATURITY ON PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS AMONG POLICE OFFICICALS” under my guidance in partial fulfilment of the requirement for MSc degree in psychology, at Fatima Mata National College (Autonomous), affiliated to the University of Kerala.

Place: Kollam

Date: 28/06/2019

Counter signed by,

Dr. Anil Jose P. S

Assistant Professor& Head

Department of Psychology

FMN College

Kollam

Dr. Reena George

Assistant Professor

FMN College

Kollam

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JINCY JOHNSON

ROLE OF EMOTIONAL MATURITY ON PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS AMONG POLICE OFFICIALS

Abstract

This study aims to investigate the Role of Emotional maturity on personal effectiveness among police officials. This study will be conducted through the participants of 120 police officials in various districts of Kerala who will be administrated by psychological measures like, Emotional maturity scale was developed by Singh and Bhargava (1990) and The Personal effectiveness Inventory (PEI) by Andros (1999) and re-standardized by Reena (2010) was used to measure personal effectiveness. The participants were randomly selected from different police stations. The statistical tools like, Correlation and ANOVA were used. The data collected will be analysed with the help of SPSS. The result showed that there is a high relationship between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness and emotional maturity has a significant role on personal effectiveness and its variables and also moderately emotionally mature participants have high personal effectiveness.

KEYWORDS: Emotional maturity, personal effectiveness, police officials

CONTENTS

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CHAPTER

1

INTRODUCTION

➤ **POLICE PSYCHOLOGY**

➤ **EMOTIONAL MATURITY**

➤ **PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS**

➤ **STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

➤ **SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

➤ **DEFINITIONS OF THE KEY TERMS**

➤ **OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

POLICE PSYCHOLOGY

Police psychology, the practice of psychology in police settings, has been part of American policing since the late 1960s and has traditionally been a clinical endeavor by clinical psychologists. Although many large police agencies and some medium-sized ones employ full-time clinical psychologists, most agencies contract for part-time work with clinical psychologists who often maintain separate private practices. The practice of psychology in police settings has also been a research, consultation, and training endeavor by psychologists who have backgrounds in, for instance, experimental, social, and industrial-organizational psychology. Therefore, generally, police psychology is a field of practice in which psychologists of different training investigate and apply psychological knowledge to police settings and problems. Psychological services for the police have traditionally involved evaluating police applicants, educating and training police officers, evaluating job tasks and duties, and carrying out fitness-for-duty assessments.

The police have the responsibility to keep the peace, maintain order, enforce laws, and safeguard the well-being of the community. This kind of duty to act involves the possibility of danger all the time, puts police officers at risk, and requires education and training. Critical issues in police education and training to which psychologists have given considerable attention are negotiating hostage and barricaded-suspect (HBS) situations, handling people with mental illness, conducting criminal investigations, and managing job-related stress. The police are receiving education and training in the handling of people with mental illness. They recognize that mental illness is not a crime and that people having mental illness live in their

communities, have professional vocations, and call for police services. The police also know that empirical investigations have found a link between mental illness and criminal behavior. For example, persons who suffer from bipolar disorder or schizophrenia are more likely to express antisocial behaviors that society criminalizes. Most mentally ill offenders are under the influence of alcohol or drugs when they commit crimes. There is some increased risk of mentally ill individuals becoming violent.

Although people who have a mental illness may commit a crime, be a victim of crime, or report a crime, police responses to encounters with them have improved with training. Police personnel, psychologists, and other mental health professionals have developed training curricula that include topics such as symptomatology of mental conditions, non-arrest and arrest options, and community police responses. They have developed and made available model police policies for contacts with people with mental illness. These policies have helped police administrators standardize the nature of their departments' response while giving the police flexibility to meet the needs of people with mental illness.

Psychologists have studied the procedures and tactics used by the police in criminal investigations. They have produced psychological knowledge and have helped the police apply it to criminal investigation techniques such as eyewitness identification. Police detection of the lies told by suspects during interrogation has received considerable research attention by psychologists. The police know that uncontrollable physiological arousal often accompanies a suspect's lying. For example, a police detective has a suspect of a crime and uses the polygraph technique

(or device) in interrogation. The polygraph examiner asks the suspect several non-crime-related questions that generate emotional responses (e.g., about past behaviors) and several crime-related questions. Both provoke physiological responses, but the crime-related questions provoke more physiological responses than the non-crime-related (or control) ones, which suggests that the suspect is guilty. Most courts do not accept polygraph results as evidence. Psychological research has suggested that the rate of accurately detecting deception is low and the rate of false positives is high. The police, however, continue to use the technique with others and try to convince suspects that they cannot beat the device and that they should admit the fact of having committed a crime.

Hypnosis is another investigative technique available to the police. Usually psychologists, psychiatrists, or trained forensic hypnotists conduct interviews using hypnosis. They use the technique mostly to obtain information from eyewitnesses or victims and rarely to obtain information from suspects. There is little empirical evidence to support the belief that hypnosis elicits reliable memories. Criminal profiling is a set of investigative techniques used to identify the characteristics of suspects most likely to have committed a crime. For example, a police detective analyzes a crime scene, investigates the personal history of the victim, considers motivating factors, links the nature of the crime with similar behaviors of criminals, and finally generates a hypothesis about the suspect's sex, age, race, education, marital status, personality, and other personal characteristics. Specialized training in criminal profiling is available at the FBI Academy. Police profilers use behavioral science techniques along with other techniques of criminal investigation. They use

criminal profiles to focus investigations in part on particular types of suspects while continuing investigative efforts on all possible suspects.

Police agencies have a responsibility to monitor the psychological fitness of their officers. They have a right to order psychological evaluations of officers who develop patterns of problematic job-related behaviors. Misconduct might take the form of abusing authority, using excessive force, misusing drugs and alcohol, and engaging in criminal behavior. Police agencies must collect and document information on the problem behaviors they wish to correct. Documentation might include performance evaluations, pre-employment psychological screening reports, disciplinary actions, medical or counseling records, and other types of relevant reports that support a fitness-for-duty evaluation.

The Psychological Services section of the International Association of Chiefs of Police recommends that psychologists have training and experience in psychological testing and police assessment techniques and that they have knowledge of police job-related functions and the legal issues surrounding employment practices. An assessment of job-related mental fitness usually involves reviewing background information, administering a battery of psychological tests, conducting a clinical interview, generating a report, and making recommendations. The scope of the assessment is breadth and depth of psychological fitness, with the aim of identifying the absence or presence of personal characteristics essential for performing job-related behaviors that the officer falls short of doing. Outcome recommendations first specify “if” or “no fit.” Police chiefs or other police stakeholders (the client) may request

additional recommendations, such as mental health counseling, remedial training, or other remedies.

Police psychology is an applied field of psychology and it is a relatively new field. It will be a major breakthrough in the field of police and public safety psychology and helps further identifying the influence of, emotional maturity on personal effectiveness of police officials and how those roles affect their life personal effectiveness

EMOTIONAL MATURITY

Emotion is the complex psycho-physiological experience of an individual's state of mind as interaction with biochemical (internal) and environmental (external) influences. In humans, emotion fundamentally involves "physiological arousal, expressive behaviours and conscious experience." Emotion is associated with mood, temperament, personality, disposition, and motivation. Motivation is a process that direct and energize behaviour, while emotions provide the affective component to motivation, which may either positive or negative. A related distinction is between the emotion and the results of the emotion, principally behaviours and emotional expressions. People often behave in certain ways as a direct result of their emotional state, such as crying, fighting or fleeing. If one can have the emotion without a corresponding behaviour, then we may consider the behaviour not to be essential to the emotion.

The emotional aspect of maturity is the most important factor in the development of the comprehensive mature personality, especially in a workplace. This is the global factor of emotional maturity which is the strength to actualize individual abilities within the frame of social demands. Life is becoming complex day by day. In the present circumstances the youth are facing difficulties which are giving rise to many problems such as frustration, anxiety, tension and emotional imbalance in day to day life. We humans are constantly striving to establish a satisfactory relationship with our environment or we can say that trying to full-fill our need in order to live happily and function effectively. Individuals grow from babies to adults through various stages of maturity and expected to undergo physical, cognitive, emotional and relationship maturity. There must be a balance between our physical age, IQ, social maturity and emotional maturity so that an individual is really grown up. Parents are an essential part of their child's environment. Therefore, in order to foster caring, responsible and strong children, adults need to have a positive view of them and serve as role models for their children.

An emotion is an affective experience that accompanies stirred up mental and psychological states and shows itself in his overt behaviour. Emotion is a magic word that makes human life dynamic and makes him a multi-coloured shell on the shore of sea of society. Emotions have strong link with urges, needs and interests. If they are

satisfied, an individual is said to be enjoying a happy life and is emotionally stable. Emotions sometimes lead to disintegration of our actions.

According to Goleman (1995), we have two minds, one that thinks and one that feels, these two fundamentally different ways of knowing, interact to construct our mental life. The rational mind is the mode of comprehension we are typically conscious of more prominent in awareness, thoughtful, able to ponder and reflect. The emotional mind is impulsive and powerful and sometimes illogical. These two minds operate in harmony with each other, most of times feelings are essential to thought, and most of the times thoughts to feeling. But when passions surge the balance tips: it is not just I.Q., but emotional intelligence that matters. Goleman point out that, —It is not that we want to do away with emotions and put reason in its place, but instead find an intelligent balance of two”. Emotions play a crucial role in contributing towards adjustment of the individual people who are emotionally mature, they can manage their feelings well and deal effectively with other people. Therefore, an emotionally mature person can have better adjustment with himself and others. The road to emotional maturity involves the integration of various aspects of personality into the self. The intra- and interpersonal aspects are dealt with from different standpoints (Freud, James, Gardner and others), the emotional aspect being seen not as the opposite of the intellectual, but as complementary to it in the child's and adult's personalities. Emotional maturity is a requirement for starting and maintaining relationships. It is a prerequisite for long term happiness. Emotional immaturity is associated with entanglements, transferences and unsatisfying shallow relationships.

Emotional maturity is an essential condition for the development of every individual and therefore, the sooner we achieve the sensitive balance between the components of the young child's self, the better we can prevent difficulties in his development. This will also contribute to a stronger and more stable personality structure in the adult, who can communicate well with others and achieve the maximum from his capabilities and strengths and that the concept of emotional maturity is an entire complex subject of the utmost importance. Emotional maturity develops throughout one's life; however, it is very important that parents and teachers be aware that the emotional sphere must be nurtured in one's intelligence, and intelligence in one's emotions, from an early age. The seed that we plant in early childhood will bear fruit not only during one's active life but throughout one's various ages. Its climax will occur during old age, when each of our selves will act on basic and stable ground in the shrinking and withering world which surrounds the elderly person. Attention paid to emotional maturity in early childhood is, therefore, a long term investment in man's existence.

Emotion in the organism is a dynamic internal adjustment that operates for the satisfaction and welfare of the individual. Thus, the word emotion is described differently by the psychologists. Emotion has been defined as upset state, feeling of euphoria, a transitory state, an enduring state, an intense feeling or the chronic anxiety. Emotions may range from hate, terror, affection, attention, interest, romantic love, ambition, zeal, a brief attention. These emotions may lead to euphoria, an enduring interest that leads one to achieve a difficult goal, or may be hindrance to the

harmonious development of personality. The broad implication of the above is that pupils should be helped to control emotions that are detrimental to progress and enhance emotions that are constructive

The concept of maturity has not received a great deal of explicit attention in the literature. Delineation of libidinal development has been yielded the important formulation of the ‘genital level’ and ‘object interest’ (Freud 1924). Recent emphasis on the conflict between the regressive dependents, versus, the progressive productive forces in the personality has directed interest toward the more detailed nature of maturity. The word ‘mature’ means ‘ripe’ or full development, psychological meaning is more flexible. A child may be mature in sense that he has reached the development which is typical for his act. In psychological writing, the definition of maturity essentially involves emotional control that means emotionally mature person is able to keep lid on his feelings, so it is not merely restrictions control but also the positive possibilities inherent in human nature. A person will be called emotionally mature if he is able to feel proper emotion in proper situation and express it in proper quality. Maturity is the ability to stick with a project or a situation until it is finished. It is the capacity to face unpleasantness, frustration, discomfort and defeat without complaint or collapse. It is the ability to make a decision and stand by it. Maturity is the ability to live up to the responsibilities of a love relationship and this means being dependable.

The healthy emotional development culminates into, —emotional maturity”, Emotional maturity may be defined as a process of acting ones age. Maturity is not an

absolute or definite characteristic at all. As an individual develops through childhood to adolescence to adulthood, his emotions become more easily classified as fear, hate, anger, disgust, affection, joy etc. People who follow these types of emotional behaviour usually adjust well in their lives and are accepted well in society. In the broadest sense, emotional maturity means the degree to which the person has realized his potential for richness of having and has developed his capacity to enjoy things, to love and to laugh, his capacity for whole hearted sorrow when occasion for grief arises, his capacity for experiencing anger when faced with a situation while he is not able to work according to him, that would increase the temper of any reasonably tolerant or sensible person and his capacity to show fear when there is an occasion to be frightened. Emotional maturity is not only the effective determinant of personality but, it also helps to control the growth of adolescent's development. The concept mature emotional behaviour of any level is that which reflects the normal emotional development. A person who is able to keep his emotions under control, which is able to break delay and to suffer without self-pity, might still be emotionally stunned and childish.

According to Walter et al. (1976) emotional maturity is a process in which the personality is continuously striving for the greater sense of emotional health, both intra physically and intra personally. The most outstanding mark of emotional maturity is to bear tension. The emotionally mature is not one who necessarily has resolved all the conditions that aroused anxiety or hospitability but is continually in the process of seeing him or herself in clearer perspective, continually involved in a

struggle to gain healthy integration of feeling and thinking action. A person's emotional maturity is very much influenced by his/ her relationship history. Emotional intelligence makes an important part of life, together with intellectual intelligence and relationship intelligence. Such intelligence can help one to assess emotional maturity and emotional freedom. How one person can tackle any relationship, is a major discernible factor to check your level of emotional maturity.

Traits of Emotionally Mature People are; Knowing as to what one wants and how to make it happen, Thinking sooner than acting and having control over one's behaviour, Having the sense of self-reliance and the capability to take accountability for one's life and actions, Having patience, Bonding with others in a supportive and constructive manner, Actually caring about others and representing their concern, Acting honestly and living by one's principles, Keeping self-control and balance in all things, Having the capacity to tackle difficult and demanding situations.

According to Smitson (1974) emotional maturity is a process in which the personality is continuously striving for greater sense of emotional health, both intrapsychically and intra-personally. Kaplan and Baron elaborate the characteristics of an emotionally mature person, say that he has the capacity to withstand delay in satisfaction of needs. He has the ability to tolerate a reasonable amount of frustration. He has belief in long-term planning and is capable of delaying or revising his expectations in terms of demands of situations. An emotionally mature child has the capacity to make effective adjustment with himself, members of his family and his

peers in the school, society and culture. But maturity means not merely the capacity for such attitude and functioning but also the ability to enjoy them fully.

According to Cole (1944) emotional maturity is the ability to bear tension, other marks are indifference toward certain kinds of stimuli that affect the child or adolescent and he develops moodiness and sentimentality. Besides, emotionally mature person has the capacity for fun and recreation. He enjoys both play and responsibility activities and keeps proper balance. According to McKinney, —The characteristics of an emotionally mature individual are hetero-sexuality, appreciation of attitude and behaviour of others, tendency to the attitudes and habits of others and capacity to delay his own responses". According to Seoul, if the emotional development of the individual is relatively complete, his adaptability is high, his regressive tendencies are low, and his vulnerability is minimal. Therefore, the emotionally mature is not one who necessarily has resolved all conditions that aroused anxiety and hostility but it is continuously in process of seeing himself in clearer perspective, continually involved in a struggle to gain healthy integration of feeling, thinking action.

According to Singh and Bhargava, (1990) Emotional maturity is not only the effective determinant of personality pattern but also helps to control the growth of an adolescent's development. A person who is able to keep his emotions under control who is able to brook delay and to suffer without self-pity might still be emotionally stunned. According to Young (1996) the emotionally mature or stable individual

regardless of his age, is the one who has the ability to overcome tension, to disregard certain emotion stimulations that affect him, and to view himself objectively as he evaluates his assets and liabilities and strings towards an improved integrator of his thoughts and emotional attitudes and his overt behaviour, so the mature individual is said to have control over his emotions. According to Bessell, R (2004) Emotional Maturity refers to those behavioural patterns that make for good adjustment in life.

According to Lisa, J.M. (2004) Emotional Maturity brings with it a capacity for independence, the willingness to take action as free agent along with the capacity to affiliate, to freely initiate and sustain loving relationships. Hence, emotional maturity refers to that stage of individual which the individual is able to face reality and deal with it, is interest in given and receiving love, is able to learn from his experiences and able to accept frustration and hostility in a constructive manner.

Morgan (1934) stated the view that an adequate theory of emotional maturity must take account of the full scope of the individuality, powers and his ability to enjoy the use of his powers. Actually, emotional maturity is not only the effective determine of personality pattern but it also helps to control the growth of adolescent's development. The concept "Mature" emotional behaviour of any level is that which reflects the fruits of normal emotional development. A person who is able to keep his emotions under control, which is able to break delay and to suffer without self-pity, might still be emotionally stunned and childish. However, emotional maturity has great importance in one's development as well as interpersonal relationships and his/her overall success.

PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Personal effectiveness is about making the most of our abilities. Being able to manage our time, make the most of opportunities for personal and professional development, as well being able to recognise our strengths and weakness are all vital components of personal effectiveness. The terms personal effectiveness, self-efficacy and personal efficacy are interchangeably can use. Self-efficacy is an individual's belief that he or she is capable of performing a task. The higher our self-efficacy, the more confidence we have in our ability to succeed. Changes in self-efficacy over time are related to changes in creative performance as well. Individuals high in self-efficacy also seem to respond to negative feedback which increased effort and motivation, while those low in self-efficacy are likely to lessen their effort after negative feedback.

Self-efficacy theory was proposed by Albert Bandura. He proposed four ways that increases the self-efficacy level. Enactive mastery (Gaining relevant experience with the task or job), Vicarious modelling(Becoming more confidence because an individual see someone else doing the task), Verbal persuasion(Becoming more confident because someone convinces the individual that he/she have the skills necessary to be successful) and Arousal(it leads an energized state, so the person gets —psched up” and performs better).

Personal effectiveness means making the most at all personal resources at our disposal-our personal talents, energy and time relative to what is important to us having effective living skills can lead to more control over daily life, more focus and sense of achievement. . It has two aspects- self-disclosure (sharing with others what

they do not seem to know about oneself) and use of feedback (being open to what others say on aspects which one may not be aware of). Pareek (2001) defined personal effectiveness as, being the best to oneself by mobilizing motivation and galvanizing cognitive capability in order to address the demand of a given situation; and the dimensions, self-disclosure is defined as, sharing with others what they do not seem to know about one- self; Feedback as, being open to what others say on aspects which one may not be aware of; and Perceptiveness as, sensitivity to others“ feelings and to non-verbal cues. In addition, perceptiveness or sensitivity to others“ feelings and to non-verbal cues is also important. Personal effectiveness is often perceived by employees as the extent to which they have sufficiently met the task requirements of their job, or the extent of their individual productivity. The organizational environment can have a strong effect on personal effectiveness and productivity (Arthur, 1994; Donald et al., 2005). Styles of organizational culture that maximize employees' abilities to approach their tasks in ways that they perceive as constructive and fulfilling are likely, therefore, to be positively related to personal effectiveness.

Workplace has become an area of demands, pressures, competition and interpersonal conflicts. If one wants to succeed one must have the abilities to respond positively to workplace challenges. Effectiveness does not only mean being efficient but, it also take a lot of understanding of interpersonal behaviours and integrity at the workplace. There are different aspects of effectiveness which mainly include: communication skills, emotional intelligence, time management, team building and conflict management and dealing with stress. The need of the hour is to know how to

become professional with technical as well as soft management skills. There is a need to learn and unlearn certain behaviours.

NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Police psychology is an applied field of psychology and it is a relatively new field therefore the researches done in this field is limited as a result, any new study contribute abundantly to the development of police psychology as a field. Emotional maturity is a process in which the personality is continuously striving for greater sense of emotional health, both intra psychically and intra-personally. Emotionally mature individual has the ability to tolerate a reasonable amount of stress, anxiety and frustrations. Also emotionally mature individuals have the higher tolerance first disagreeable circumstances, increasing satisfaction from socially approved responses, ability to delay the gratification of impulses, the enjoyment of daily living and personal effectiveness.

The present study aims to find out the role of emotional maturity on personal effectiveness among police officials. Most studies related on emotional maturity focuses on the role of emotional maturity on stress, adjustment or any other factors. There is no evidence of studies investigated the role of emotional maturity on personal effectiveness among police officials. Researches done in this field is limited as a result this study helps to get an idea about how the police officials' emotional maturity will affect their overall functioning. It will be a major breakthrough in the field of police

and public safety psychology and helps further identifying the influence of, emotional maturity on personal effectiveness of police officials and how those roles affect their life. By keeping track of this influence police psychologists will get an idea about level of emotional maturity and its importance in one's personal effectiveness or self-efficacy or personal efficacy.

DEFINITIONS OF KEY TERMS

- **Emotional maturity**

Emotional maturity is a process in which the personality is continuously striving for greater sense of emotional health, both intra-psychically and intra-personally (Walter D. Smitson, 1974).

- **Personal effectiveness**

Personal effectiveness means making the most at all personal resources at our disposal-our personal talents, energy and time relative to what is important to us. Having effective living skills can lead to more control over daily life, more focus and sense of achievement in other words it is an individual's belief that he or she is capable of performing a task.

- **Police officials**

Police officials or police officers are those who have the responsibilities of maintenance of law and order, preservation of the peace, prevention and detection of

crime, apprehension of offenders, enforcement of all law with which it is changed. Police work has been popularly depicted as hazardous and stressful occupation.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem of the present investigation is to study the “**ROLE OF EMOTIONAL MATURITY ON PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS AMONG POLICE OFFICIALS**”

OBJECTIVES

- **To find out whether there exist any relationship between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness.**
- **To find out the influence of emotional maturity on personal effectiveness and its variables.**
- **To find out the influence of emotional maturity & demographic variables (Age, Sex, Educational qualification, Marital status, Residential area, Annual income) on personal effectiveness and its variables.**

CHAPTER

2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

EMOTIONAL MATURITY

Gates (1924) conducted an analysis of the interrelation of physical and mental abilities; and also of maturity which includes the study of physical, mental, emotional, social and educational aspects. Two groups both containing boys and girls were chosen for the investigation. One group contained 57 pupils and the other 58 pupils. Since the results were worked up independently one was used as a check on the other. The measures used for evaluating these factors are divided into six groups. The first studies the anatomical traits: ossification of the wrist bones, height, weight, and chest girth. The second takes up the physiological functions: lung capacity, strength of forearm, index of nutrition, rate of heart beat, physical vigor, health and efficiency. The third delves into the emotional maturity and stability. The fourth attempts an estimation of social maturity. The fifth studies the interrelation between mental ability and maturity. The sixth step takes up the scholastic achievement of the pupils by means of the Stanford Achievement Test and Horace Mann Test in language and spelling. The data tends to disprove the work of Baldwin, Rotch and Woodrow concerning the significance of physical traits, the reasons being: first, although the correlations are positive they are variable; second, there is no high correlation between a physical measure and stamina, physical vigor, maturity, etc.; third, no physical trait is an index of such types of maturity as mental, scholastic, social, emotional or "general maturity." Setting aside these facts the authors classify the children into groups according to their similarities.

Durea and Mervin (1937) examined the emotional maturity of juvenile delinquent. Using norms for non-delinquents as a basis for comparison, juvenile delinquents, age for age, are emotionally retarded as measured both by total scores on the interest-attitude tests and by scores on separate tests. The extent of emotional retardation varies somewhat with life age. An insignificant relationship is found to exist between emotional age and degree of delinquent behaviour. Although the co-variation between emotional age and the delinquency index is of only moderate significance, yet the distinctive fact of emotional retardation among delinquents suggests that maturation of emotional behaviour is probably of as much significance as intelligence and other variables in a more complete understanding of the personality of the juvenile delinquent.

Dean (1966) investigated emotional maturity and marital adjustment. A random sample of married couples from a middle-class community of about 6,000 was selected; 117 paired, usable questionnaires were obtained (a response rate of 88 percent of contacted families). Using the Dean Emotional Maturity Scale and the Nye Scale of Marital Adjustment, it was determined that the husband's emotional maturity (self-rated) correlated .28 with his marital adjustment score; his emotional maturity as rated by his wife (independently and confidentially) correlated .52. The wife's emotional maturity (self-rated) correlated with her marital adjustment score .35; her emotional maturity (spouse-rated, as above) correlated .39. Marital adjustment scores correlated with each other .59. The hypothesis is regarded as sustained.

Cole and Dean (1980) conducted a study to find out the relationship between both spousal and self-rated emotional maturity and the marital adjustment of both spouses. Data were collected from responses of a random sample of 143 husband-wife pairs in the same community in which Dean (1966) did his original study, using a random sample of 117 husband-wife pairs. Using the Dean Emotional Maturity Scale and the Locke-Wallace Short Form, it was determined that husband's emotional maturity (self-rated) correlated .33 with his and .28 with his wife's marital adjustment; husband's emotional maturity (rated independently and confidentially by wife) correlated .27 with his and .51 with his wife's marital adjustment; wife's emotional maturity (self-rated) correlated .39 with her and .09 with her husband's; wife's emotional maturity (rated independently and confidentially by husband) correlated .20 with her and .23 with her husband's marital adjustment. Marital adjustment of husband and wife correlated at .50.

Richard Boyd Jr (1984) investigated the relationship between emotional maturity and drinking-and-driving involvement among young adults aged 25–34. The variables were sex, age broken down into two groups (25–29 and 30–39), and six drinking-and-driving categories. The Revised Huffman Inventory was used to measure emotional immaturity. The inventory was administered to graduate students enrolled at The University of Tennessee at Knoxville during the summer of 1981. A table of random numbers was used to obtain a sample of 326 subjects. A three-factor analysis of variance was used to test the hypotheses. If a difference among groups was significant ($p < .05$), Duncan's Multiple Range Test was applied to determine where

those differences were. The conclusions were: (1) among females and males in the same age group, females are more emotionally mature than males; (2) age is a factor in emotional maturity in that emotional maturity increases with age; and (3) there appears to be a link between emotional maturity and drinking-and-driving involvement in that persons with lower emotional maturity are more likely to drive while under the influence of alcohol.

Landau (1997) examined the aspects of the gifted self. That is the self - the global factor of emotional maturity. The road to emotional maturity involves the integration of various aspects of personality into the self. The intra- and interpersonal aspects are dealt with from different standpoints (Freud, James, Gardner and others), the emotional aspect being seen not as the opposite of the intellectual, but as complementary to it in the child's and adult's personalities. The self contains everything that has passed through consciousness; it is the most important element of consciousness. Thanks to drives for knowing, for feeling, for creating, which are always active, we achieve a self which is more than the sum of its components and becomes a global factor in our personality. This global factor is the difference between the idiot savant and the creative, actualizing, gifted personality.

Landau and Weissler (1998) conducted study to find out the relationship between emotional maturity, intelligence and creativity in gifted children. In the study, 221 children participated, between the ages of 9–13. All were measured for emotional maturity, intelligence and creativity. Results showed an effect of emotional maturity

on creativity, as well as an effect of intelligence. Among the highly intelligent group, emotionally mature children were more creative. These results demonstrate that giftedness is conditioned not only by high intelligence but that emotional maturity has its share in it, and their interaction facilitates creative behaviour the actualization of the whole personality.

Singh and Bhargava (1990) examined the personality disintegration dimension of emotional maturity among post graduates and research scholars. The data was then analysed through Mean, SD and t-test for the comparison of mean scores between groups with the help of SPSS 21. The findings of the study revealed that majority of the post graduate students and research scholars of the university are emotionally unstable. The findings also showed that male students are emotionally immature than females on personality disintegration dimension of emotional maturity. Significant difference was also found between post graduates and research scholars on personality disintegration dimension of emotional maturity. On other dimensions of emotional maturity no difference was found between males and females and post graduates and research scholars University students must be taught to identify their level of emotional maturity, as they are at the highest seat of learning.

kiran (2000) examined the Interpersonal skills and emotional maturity influence of entrepreneurial style of bank managers. Results of this study highlight the importance of human resource managers and trainers assessing the interpersonal skills and emotional maturity of new recruits and enhancing the

interpersonal skills of the existing managerial workforce. The entrepreneurial style of the branch manager is projected to play an increasingly important role in the deregulated finance sector. Currently, the branch manager, who can best be described as a corporate entrepreneur, could well evolve into an independent entrepreneur under a franchise banking system. Path analysis was used to investigate the interrelationships among the three competency factors for a bank branch manager. Emotional maturity and interpersonal skills are modelled as impacting on entrepreneurial style. All the hypothesised effects were supported by decomposition of the zero-order correlations.

Nehra (2003) conducted a study to know the relationship between adjustment and emotional maturity at secondary stage. In the present study, a descriptive survey method was used. The sample comprised of 100 students (50 boys and 50 girls) of Class IX from 4 Government schools. The study will be helpful for teachers, students, parents and all the stakeholders in the process of education. For the present study Singh and Bhargava's Emotional Maturity Scale & Adjustment inventory by Sinha and Singh was used to assess the emotional maturity and adjustment of the students studying in IX class. The procedure adopted for administration of the test: questionnaire was distributed to the students and they were given some time limit. There was one correct answer for each option which was cross marked in the box given in front of the sentences. Scoring was done according to the norms and instruction given in the manual and final analysis was completed by calculating mean, standard deviation, correlation and t-value etc. Result revealed that: (i) there is no

significant difference between the adjustment of boys and girls studying in class IX (ii) there is no significant difference between the emotional maturity of boys and girls studying in class IX & (iii) there is no significant relationship between Adjustment and emotional maturity. The findings of the present study may be helpful to the students, teachers, principals, administrators and educational planners.

Pastey and Aminbhavi (2006) investigated the impact of emotional maturity on stress and self confidence of adolescents. Sample of the study consists of 105 adolescents studying in XI and XII class at Dharwad city Karnataka State, India. The scales such as emotional maturity (Singh and Bhargav,1994), Self Confidence Inventory (Rekha Agnihotri,1987) and Students' Stress Scale (Deo,1997) were administered on the selected sample. Along with responses to the above scales, some personal data information was also collected from the sample. The obtained responses were scored and converted to standard (T) scores, further subjected to t and F tests. The findings revealed that the adolescents with high emotional maturity have significantly high stress ($t=10.44$; $p< 0.001$) and self-confidence ($t=-2.92$; $p< 0.01$) when compared to those with low emotional maturity. Adolescents with more number of siblings have shown significantly higher level of self-confidence ($t = 2.96$; $p< 0.01$) than their counter parts. It is also found that educational level of father has significantly influenced stress of their adolescent children ($F= 5.303$; $p< 0.01$). Adolescent boys tend to have significantly higher stress than girls ($t=1.72$) and girls tend to have significantly high self confidence ($t=1.83$).

Klever (2009) conducted a study to examine the differentiation of self, which is a major concept in Bowen theory. Differentiation of self has a profound influence over time on the functioning of the individual and his or her family unit. It was a 5-year longitudinal study tested this hypothesis with 50 developing nuclear families. The dimensions of differentiation of self that were examined were goal direction and effectiveness and emotional maturity. A qualitative analysis of participants' goals demonstrated that couples with higher functioning developing nuclear families, when compared with couples with lower functioning families, placed more emphasis on family goals, had more balance between family and personal goals, and pursued more goals over the 5 years. The quantitative analysis supported the hypothesis that goal effectiveness and emotional maturity influenced variation in nuclear family functioning. In addition, couple goal effectiveness and emotional maturity were associated with nuclear family functioning more strongly than individual goal effectiveness and emotional maturity were associated with individual functioning.

Riffle (2010) examined the emotional maturity of adults and adolescents in GED programmes. This study looked at three groups of students: adults enrolled in an Adult Basic Education (ABE)/GED program, adolescents enrolled in a pre-GED or GED Option program and normative high school students enrolled in an eleventh grade English class. Instruments utilized for data collections were the TABE and the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i). This data was analysed to determine if correlations exist between these instruments within groups, and if significant differences exist between groups. Analysis included variables of gender and ethnicity.

Any of the constructs or sublevels of socially intelligent behaviour found to have significant differences could then be utilized as a factor for identifying at-risk students and applying the appropriate remediation.

Firouzabadi, Hakami and Mansoobifar (2011) conducted a correlation study which reviewed the relationship between emotional maturity and marital satisfaction of the nurses in Karaj. Statistical population includes all female nurses in Karaj, and the sample volume consists of 90 people from so-called community that has been selected as an available sample. Using regression and Pearson correlation method, the analysis of the data has been done, and research findings indicate that there is a meaningful relationship between the emotional maturity and marital satisfaction among female nurses in Karaj. According to analysis of findings by regression and Pearson correlation, there is a positive and meaningful relationship between the components of emotional maturity (emotional stability, social incompatibility and emotional return) and the marital satisfaction of nurses. Also, there is a reverse and meaningful (negative) relationship between nurses' personality disintegration and marital satisfaction. It means that the more the personality disintegration is, the less the probability of marital satisfaction and vice versa. Results also showed that there is no meaningful relationship between the lack of independence and marital satisfaction among the nurses.

Subbarayan and Visvanathan (2011) conducted a Study on emotional maturity of college students. Normative survey method and random sampling technique has

been used in the present study. The Emotional Maturity standardized Pal was used for this study. The result of the study shows that the emotional maturity of college students is extremely unstable.

Sharma (2012) examined college adjustment processes and emotional maturity between first and final year female students enrolled in different undergraduate courses offered by colleges affiliated with University of Rajasthan in Jaipur city. They were assessed on Adjustment Inventory for College Students (Sinha and Singh,1995)and Emotional Maturity Scale (Bhargava and Singh,1991).Results indicated that the first year undergraduate students were less emotionally mature, and had difficulty in adjusting emotionally and socially to the changing demands of the environment and faced more academic difficulty as compared to final year students. The final year students were more socially adjusted and more integrated into the social fabric of the college. Based on the research implication for further counselling interventions are discussed.

Mahmoudi (2012) conducted a study to investigate the adjustment level of the post graduate Students of Yasouj city. Emotional maturity was measured by Singh's emotional maturity Scale (EMS).While asthenia's adjustment inventory was used to measure the adjustment Level of the students. A sample of 160 female students of age range 18-22years Studying in post graduate closes were selected from different colleges of Yasouj city. High Positive correlation was obtained between emotional maturity and overall adjustment.

Kelley (2012) investigated the level of emotional maturity among clinical psychology doctoral students. . The study compared the emotional maturity of first and last-year clinical psychology graduate students from a self-differentiation and emotional intelligence perspective. First and last-year students did not differ significantly from each other or the adult norm on critical dimensions of self-differentiation, including solid self, anxiety regulation through accommodation, reactivity involving argument, and tolerating pain for growth. These findings suggest that clinical psychology graduate programs are overlooking the emotional maturation of their students.

Calastre,Cañete ,Colastre,Patricio and Villavicencio (2012) examined the self esteem, emotional maturity and social skills of college students engaged in romantic relationship. This descriptive research study utilized the one-shot survey design. It sought to determine the level of self-esteem, emotional maturity, and social skills of 80 College of Education students engaged in romantic relationships at West Visayas State University, Academic Year 2011—2012. It also aimed at ascertaining the significant differences and relationships of self-esteem, emotional maturity, and social skills in relation to their age and length of relationship. It employed purposive sampling technique. The data were gathered utilizing the Self-Esteem Inventory, Emotional Maturity Questionnaire, and Social Skills Questionnaire. To describe the data, the researchers utilized frequency, mean scores, and standard deviation for descriptive statistics, and for inferential analysis, the Wilcoxon-Mann Whitney Test

and Spearman rho, both set at 0.05 alpha level. The results revealed that college students engaged in romantic relationships have average self-esteem when taken as an entire group and when classified according to age and length of relationship. Further, the emotional maturity and social skills of the participants whether taken as an entire group or when classified according to age and length of relationship was high. There were no significant differences in the levels of self-esteem, emotional maturity, and social skills of participants when classified according to age and length of relationship. Conversely, there was a highly significant relationship that exists between social skills and emotional maturity and between emotional maturity and self-esteem. However, there was no significant relationship between social skills and self-esteem of college students engaged in romantic relationships.

Mortazavi, Sohrabi and Hatami (2012) investigated both attachment styles and emotional maturity as two influential factors contributing to the prevention and treatment of addiction. Research has shown that attachment styles contribute to the development of personality traits. Personality is regarded as an effective factor that enhances the inclination towards drug use. Therefore, the present study aimed to investigate the relationship between attachment styles and addiction with emotional maturity. The participants of the present study consisted of 120 people who were assigned into two groups. In one group, there were 60 opiate addicts who were under treatment in Healthy Life Center for Abandonment in Kerman city during March 2010. In the second group, there were 60 healthy people living in Kerman city during the same time. The instruments used to collect the data included Collins & Read

attachment scale and emotional maturity scale. Mann Whitney U test and Chi-square test were run to analyse the data. The results showed that there is significant difference in attachment styles and emotional maturity between opiate addicts and non-addicts. The results revealed that addicts usually have insecure attachment styles while non-addicts have secure styles. Besides, addicts enjoyed a lower level of emotional maturity comparing with non-addicts.

Jogson (2012) examined the emotional maturity and religious among college Students. For This Purpose Total 120 Student (60 boys, 60 girls) were taken as a sample. The research tool for Emotional Maturity, Emotional Maturity scale was used which was made by Bhargva and Yashvirsingh(1956). For measure Religiousness in them Tripathi's Religiousness scale was used. t –Test was applied to check the significance of them. For check the Relation, Karl-Pearson Co-relation was used. Results shows that girls have more Emotional Maturity and Religiousness compare with Boys. Co-relation is 0.37 which was positive correlation. Girls are early Mature as compare boys because our society and family members are pressure and treat her as a girl. Girls are believed in god and religiousness as compare boys. For examples in our culture some fast for only girls for good husbands, child etc. so girls are emotional mature and Religiousness.

Taj (2012) examined the level of emotional maturity and the level of anxiety among rural college students. It was hypothesized that there will be a significant difference between male and female rural college students on the level of emotional

maturity and the level of anxiety. An explorative study used between group design and Cluster sampling was opted for the study. The sample consisted of 120 rural college students (60 male and 60 female), studying in Govt. College KGF, and Govt. College Bangarpet, Kolar district, aged between 18-21 years. College students were administered the socio-demographic data sheet. Emotional maturity scale by Singh and Bhargava, Anxiety scale Questionnaire by Krug, Scheier, cattell. Data analysis was done using average, standard deviation, and inferential statistic t-test. Analysis of data indicated that both male and female rural college students showed significant difference in the level on anxiety and emotional maturity and female college students scored high on the level of anxiety and male college students showed higher level of emotional instability.

Berwal (2013) conducted a study to examine whether the practice of yoga has a positive effect on self-concept and emotional maturity of visually impaired students. The sample contains 15 visually impaired students drawn purposively from a School for the Blind. A Yoga training programme was designed and the subjects were exposed to it for a period of four weeks. The effects of yoga on self-concept of visually impaired students were measured by administering Saraswat's Self-Concept Inventory whereas effects on emotional maturity were obtained by applying Singh and Bhargava's Emotional Maturity Scale. The data was analysed in terms of mean, SD, and t test. The results indicate that on the whole, the level of self concept and emotional maturity of visually impaired students improves after the practice of yoga. Significance differences were found between mean gain scores on all the dimensions

of Self-Concept Inventory and Emotional Maturity Scale. The study has its implications for school administrators, policy makers, parents, teachers, community leaders, and rehabilitation workers.

Dutta, Chetia and Soni (2013) study investigated the emotional maturity of secondary school students in Lakhimpur and Sonitpur districts of Assam. This study was conducted on a sample of 1000 Students, out of 1000 students 500 boys and 500 girls selected randomly from 32 Government and Private secondary schools of both districts of Assam. The descriptive survey method is used for data collection using Emotional Maturity Scale (Bhargava and Singh , 1990). The finding of the study reported that there was not any significant difference in various areas of emotional maturity of government and private school students; no significant difference in the emotional maturity level of boys and girls school students; and there is no significant difference between in the emotional maturity level of rural and urban secondary school students of both districts of Assam.

Agarwal and Surabhi (2013) investigated the impact of High and Low levels of Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Maturity and Self-confidence on the Academic Achievement of High School Students. The sample of this study comprised 400 high school students of Shimla district of Himachal Pradesh. Cluster sampling was used as a technique for selecting the sample. Descriptive Survey Method was used for collection of data. ANOVA was used as a statistical technique for analysing the data. The findings revealed no significant difference in the Academic Achievement of High

School Students in relation to high and low levels of Emotional Intelligence and Self-confidence. However, a significant difference has been recorded in the Academic Achievement of Students in relation to high and low levels of Emotional Maturity. Further the study demonstrates that there is no significant interactional effect of Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Maturity and Self-confidence of High School Students on the Academic Achievement. Also, on the basis of mean scores, the results of the study revealed better academic performance of high level group of students in relation to all the three variables under study.

Kumar, Sandeep, Sharma,,Mandeep, Singh and Rajbir (2014) analyse the relationship between emotional maturity and personality factors. The sample consists of 110 adolescents studying in class XI and XII taken from a private school. Further, the association of emotional maturity with personality dimensions of these adolescents was analysed. ‘Emotional maturity scale’ was administered on the selected sample to assess emotional maturity and ‘NEO- FFI (Form S)’, was used for measuring various personality dimensions of these adolescents. . The results showed that (i) Neuroticism has a significant negative correlation with emotional maturity (ii) Agreeableness and Conscientiousness have significant positive correlation with emotional maturity, (iii) Openness and Extroversion doesn’t show any significant relation with emotional maturity and (iv) Stepwise regression analysis revealed two predictors of emotional maturity i.e. Agreeableness and Neuroticism, jointly account for 19% of variance in emotional maturity.

Singh (2014) conducted a study to find the relation of Mental Health of Adolescents with their Emotional Maturity and Parent Child Relationship. The sample comprised of 200 9th class adolescents (100 boys and 100 girls) from Government Secondary Schools of Moga district. The data was obtained by using Emotional Maturity Scale (2011) by Singh and Bhargava, Parent Child Relationship Scale (2011) by Rao and Mental Health Battery (2012) by Singh and Gupta. The results of the study showed positive and significant relation between Mental Health with Emotional Maturity also between Mental Health and Parent Child Relationship.

Tiwari, Kumar; Ojha and Sandhya (2014) studied general well-being and emotional maturity of adolescents. The 21st century is an era of technological revolution. Due to the technology, the environment of today is changing as never before. Adolescents of today are well and easily exposed to vast, unlimited and most importantly censored information and are subject to high pressure because of ever increasing competition and expectations from their family and peers. The aim of present study is to examine and compare various dimensions of general well-being and emotional maturity among adolescents. The present study carried out one hundred adolescents (50 boys and 50 girls) with age range of 15-19 years. For purpose of data collection general well-being scale (Kalia& Deswal, 2011) and emotional maturity scale (Pal, 1986) was used. There are significant difference on PWB and EWB dimension of GWB between boys and girls. Findings also highlights that girls are more emotionally unstable as compare to boys. The gender difference can be attributed to the variations in socialization process of both genders than to the inherent

genetic character. All people are equal, but not the same. Study recommended that parents, teachers and other responsible society members should ensure that gender bias does not exist in home, school and society. School management should organize personality development programs from time to time that help adolescents emotionally mature.

Naik and Simons (2014) investigated the effect of parenting on emotional and social maturity among adolescents. There is extensive research linking healthy social and emotional development to effective parenting. Adolescents thrive when parents provide not only affection, but also respectful communication and listening, consistent rules and expectations, and safe opportunities that promote independence. Successful parenting fosters psychological adjustment, helps adolescents succeed in school, encourages curiosity about the world, and motivates children to achieve.

Komoto(2015) introduced a paper to explain how the tokkatsu is used to build interpersonal skills and emotional maturity across school levels. In Japan, curriculum activities called tokkatsu (tokubetsukatsudo, or special activities) have long been practiced universally as part of the official curriculum. This type of curriculum helps support children's holistic development and builds school communities of learning. The latter half of this paper, compares the teaching plans (jugyokeikaku an) of classroom meetings (gakkyukai) for 6th and 7 th graders and illustrates the similarity between the classroom meeting.

Wani (2015) identified the level of emotional maturity among university students and to find the significant differences in emotional maturity across gender and their level of education. To achieve the stipulated objectives descriptive method of research was followed. The sample for the present investigation was randomly drawn from different department of JamiaMilliaIslamia New Delhi. A total sample of 100(50 male & 50 female) including Post Graduates and Research Scholars were selected. The data was collected by administering the Emotional Maturity Scale developed by Prof. Nicholls, Levy and Perry (2015) emotional maturity, dispositional coping, and coping effectiveness among adolescent athletes. Seven hundred and ninety athletes completed measures of emotional maturity, dispositional coping, and coping effectiveness. The data was analysed using structural equation modelling, which revealed partial support for the model. Several of the predicted paths were significant. In particular, there was a significant path between emotional maturity and task-oriented coping, but the paths between emotional maturity and distraction- and disengagement-oriented coping were not significant. Their findings indicate that how an athlete copes might be limited by his or her level of emotional maturity, which provides further evidence that coping is constrained by maturation among adolescent athletes.

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Khan, Khan, Kawa, Fatima and Baby (2015) examined the relationship between emotional maturity and self-efficacy among University students. University students were also compared on emotional maturity and self-efficacy with respect to their gender. The sample of the study consists of 100 students (males=50, females=50) belonging to various departments of Aligarh Muslim University. The general Self efficacy scale (Schwarzer and Jerusalem, 1995) and emotional maturity scale by Yashvir Singh and Mahesh Bhargava (1971) were used in the present study. The data was analysed by using appropriate statistical techniques like Pearson's product moment correlation and t-test. The results revealed that significant negative correlation exist between self-efficacy and emotional immaturity, emotional instability, emotional regression and personality disintegration whereas insignificant correlation was found between self-efficacy and social maladjustment and lack of independence. Further the results revealed that there was insignificant difference in self efficacy, emotional immaturity, emotional instability, emotional regression, personality disintegration and whereas significant difference was found in lack of independence and social maladjustment among the students of Aligarh Muslim University with respect to gender.

Ratna (2016) conducted a study to examine the level of emotional maturity level amongst student teacher admitted for B.Ed course. Emotional development is one of the major aspects of human growth and development. Emotion like anger, fear, love, etc plays a great role in the development of a child's personality. This single sided development leads to formation of negative traits like anxiety, stress, tension, hatred and jealousy. These negative traits are the main reasons for the imbalances and mal-adjustment of the emotions of a person. Hence being a teacher it is most important to maintain emotional balance to deal with the children at school. For the purpose of studying emotional maturity level of student teacher, two Institute offering BEd course from Kohima district of Nagaland have been taken under consideration. Necessary measures need to be taken for enhancing level of emotional maturity being suggested.

Fernandes and David (2016) examined the emotional maturity in widows and widowers. Emotional maturity is a process in which the personality is continuously striving for greater sense of emotional health, both intra-psychically and intra-personally. The study examined the emotional maturity among widows and widowers. The sample included 120 widows and widowers out of which 60 were widows and 60 widowers. The five dimensions of the scale namely: Emotional instability, Emotional regression, Social adjustment, Personality disintegration and Lack of independence were considered for the analysis. The results revealed that widows are emotionally mature than widowers, the results being supported by the t value (2.306), significant at 0.05 level. Further, considering the dimensions, Emotional instability and Social

adjustment was found significant at 0.05 level and Personality Disintegration significant at 0.01 levels.

Rai (2017) conducted a study to assess emotional intelligence and emotional maturity of undergraduate students. Data was collected from 187 students who were randomly selected as a sample of the study from four degree colleges in Sikkim by administering two psychological tools: Emotional Intelligence Test (REIT) and Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS). Collected data were analysed on Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 16.0. The study found that a large number of students belong to normal range in emotional intelligence; the majority of undergraduate students are extremely unstable in emotional maturity scale; a perfect positive correlation was found between emotional intelligence and emotional maturity of undergraduate students. In addition, this paper has attempted to give some suggestions as well.

Rawat and Singh (2017) examined the effect of family types on emotional maturity of adolescents. Adolescents between the age ranges of 16 to 20 years were selected using Simple Random Sampling without Replacement. Self-designed socio-demographic questionnaire and Emotional Maturity Scale was used to study the socio-demographic characteristics and emotional maturity of respondents, respectively. Z-test was employed to find out the significance across different family type and emotional maturity of respondents. Results revealed that adolescents from joint families were more emotionally progressive, socially well adjusted, had adequate personality and were independent than those from nuclear families. The prominent

reason for a significant difference in emotional maturity across family setup was observed to be family composition, climate and traditions, and confounding factors.

Bhagat, Izad, Jayaraj, Husain, Mat, ThweAung and (2017) examined the emotional maturity among medical students and Its impact on their academic performance. The study population included preclinical medical students of UniSZA from Year 1 and Year 2 of academic session 2015/2016. The convenient sampling technique was used to select the sample. Data were collected using ‘Emotional Maturity Scale’ to study the association between emotional maturity and academic performance. Out of 124 questionnaires only 10 response sheets were not complete, other 114 were complete. Among the study participants, 87 % and 27 % were males and females, respectively. The data were then compiled and analyzed using SPSS Version 22. The Carl Pearson’s correlation coefficient method was carried out to find the significance of the association between the variables. The result revealed that there was a statistically significant positive correlation between emotional maturity and academic performance.

Rai and Khanal (2017) assess the emotional intelligence and emotional maturity of college students in Sikkim and further it assessed the relationship of these two variables with academic achievement of students. Tools used for the study are Emotional Intelligence Inventory by Mangal and Mangal and Emotional Maturity Scale by Pal. Sample size was 122 which were randomly taken from the population. This study revealed highly positive correlation between emotional intelligence

academic achievement and no significant correlation was found between emotional maturity and academic achievement.

Olugbenga (2017) study investigated the level of emotional maturity of staff of universities in southwest Nigeria and its influence on their patterns of marital conflict. The study adopted descriptive survey design. The study sample was 1330 married staff members proportionately selected from nine universities using multi-stage sampling technique. Emotional Maturity Questionnaire (EMQ) and Patterns of Marital Interaction Questionnaire (PMIQ) were used to collect data for the study. The results showed that the largest percentage of the participants (54.9%) demonstrated moderate level of emotional maturity. The results also showed that a significant relationship exists between the respondents' level of emotional maturity and the patterns of marital conflict they experienced.

Ofole (2017) examined the Impact of emotional maturity on coping with stress among freshmen in South-Western Nigeria universities. Ex post survey design was adopted to examine the impact of emotional maturity on coping with stress among freshmen in South-Western Nigerian universities. Simple random sampling technique was utilized in four stages to draw a sample size of 2236 respondents (Male=1021; Female=1215) with age range of 16-20 years (\bar{x} =19.3; SD=7.2) from three categories of universities in South Western Nigeria (Federal, State and Private). Singh and Bhargava (1991) emotional maturity scale was the only source of data. Descriptive statistics was adopted to answer the first three research questions while t-

test for independent samples and ANOVA were used for the fourth and fifth questions respectively. The result revealed that 63.2% of the 2236 freshmen were emotionally immatured to cope with stress. The females reported more emotional maturity than their male counterpart. Respondents between ages 22 and above reported more emotional maturity than their younger counterparts. This study has provided empirical evidence to suggest that freshmen are not emotionally matured to cope with challenges that are experienced in universities in Nigeria. The outcome of this study will sensitize the lecturers and school administration of the need to ameliorate some of the factors predisposing students to stress since the students level of maturity differs. Counselling psychologist should also institute stress management programme for freshmen in order to cushion the effects of stress associated with transition.

Singh (2017) investigated the emotional maturity among adolescents in Relation to parental involvement. Sound emotional maturity is important for success in life and it is quite essential to possess a well balanced personality. An emotionally mature person can utilize his/her energy properly for his betterment. He can think about a developed society and get more recognition from his family, teachers, Friends and society. Parental involvement helps their children in teaching the form of parent's values and aspiration modelled in the home. It is a major force to shape children in adjustment. During this period, adolescents have a great need of support and education for their positive development. As these two aspects of person's life is important for his/her present and future success. The study will help the students to maintain their

emotional maturity and improve their parents behaviour. The investigator is fascinated to take the present problem.

Lamuki, Pasha, Hafezi and Shams (2017) investigated the effect of life skills training on the eve of the Emotion Maturity and Mental health of young couples married in Tehran. The target population of the study consisted of all couples who referred to Ahmadi Health Center in the second half of the year 2015, from whom 60 people (30 couples) were selected using convenience sampling method and were randomly assigned to two groups of control and experimental. Before introducing the independent variable, the control and experimental subjects were pretested. Subjects completed the SCL-90-r questionnaires of emotional development and mental health. Results: According to the results, life skills positively affect young marrying couples' emotional maturity and mental health. Conclusion: Couples who were well-educated in life skills are likely to show a high level of emotional maturity and mental health, thus they would establish strong and solid relationships with family and community members, and they socially show more desirable behaviors, and have a more self-contained concept, and this will allow them to assess, understand, and accept their limitations and abilities in a more correct way.

Shamsudheen, SafaBishmi, Appu, and Aneesh (2017) studied the emotional maturity and self-control on machiavellianism among office workers. The study comprised of 68 office workers of 23 to 60 years of age. Simple Random sampling was used to collect the data. The tools used in the study include Mach IV Scale,

Emotional Maturity Scale, and Brief Self-Control Scale. The statistical technique such as moderator regression, correlation and t test were carried out to analyse the calculated data. The main objective of the study was to analyse the moderating effect of Self-control on the relationship between Emotional maturity and Machiavellianism. The result shows that Self-control is negatively moderated on the relation between Emotional maturity and Machiavellianism. The study also got the evidence for negative correlation between self-control and Machiavellianism. The study implicates the importance of self-control which is essential for reducing deceptive and manipulative behaviour for making success at career.

Singh, Pant and Valentina (2017) examined the type of family has any significant impact on social and emotional maturity of senior school adolescents of Pantnagar and to derive relationship between social and emotional maturity. 277 adolescents studying in class XI were taken randomly for the study. Self-designed socio-demographic questionnaire was used to study the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents of the present study. Social maturity and Emotional maturity of the respondents were assessed through Rao's Social Maturity Scale and Emotional Maturity Scale, respectively. Results revealed that respondents from joint family were more personally, interpersonally and socially adequate and thus, socially mature than those from nuclear family. Similarly, they were significantly higher on emotional stability, emotional progression, social adjustment, personality integration and independence component of emotional maturity than those from nuclear family.

Social maturity and emotional maturity was found to be significantly positively correlated across type of family.

Siswanto, SutoyoandJapar (2018) conducted a study to enhance students' emotional maturity through experiential learning group counseling service. The experiment research method of pre-test post-test control group design was used with involving 16 students as experimental group (N = 8) and control (N = 8). The result of data analysis by using Wilcoxon test and Mann-Whitney test showed that group counseling based on experiential learning was effective to improve students' emotional maturity. Discussion of the results of this research is directed to identify the implications of the application of group counseling based on experiential learning in improving students' emotional maturity.

DograandYadav (2018) examined the relationship between career maturity and emotional intelligence of adolescents has been studied in the present study. Career maturity scale by Dr.Nirmala Gupta and emotional intelligence scale by Dr.S.k.Mangal and Dr.ShubhraMangal were administered on 120 adolescents of Pathankot district of Punjab. The data obtained was subjected to descriptive, correlation and differential analysis. The results explained that there is positive significant relationship between career maturity and emotional intelligence. Further, results revealed that there is significant difference in career maturity of adolescents with respect to gender i.e. male and female. The career maturity is also significantly different for government and private school adolescents.

PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Bandura and Schunk (1981) examined the hypothesis that self-motivation through proximal goal setting serves as an effective mechanism for cultivating competencies, self-percepts of efficacy, and intrinsic interest. 40 children (7.3–10.1 years of age) who exhibited gross deficits and disinterest in mathematical tasks pursued a program of self-directed learning under conditions involving either proximal subgoals, distal goals, or no goals. Results of the multifaceted assessment provide support for the superiority of proximal self-influence. Under proximal subgoals, Ss progressed rapidly in self-directed learning, achieved substantial mastery of mathematical operations, and developed a sense of personal efficacy and intrinsic interest in arithmetic activities that initially held little attraction for them. Distal goals had no demonstrable effects. In addition to its other benefits, goal proximity fostered veridical self-knowledge of capabilities as reflected in high congruence between judgments of mathematical self-efficacy and subsequent mathematical performance. Perceived self-efficacy was positively related to accuracy of mathematical performance and to intrinsic interest in arithmetic activities.

Bouchard (1989) investigated the influence of self-efficacy judgments on cognitive performance when subjects had equivalent knowledge and experience in the performance domain. High or low self-efficacy perceptions were experimentally induced in a sample of 64 Canadian college students. Results showed that differences in perceptions were related to measures of the number of problems completed, the

efficiency of problem-solving strategies, and the accuracy of self-evaluation of responses. These results suggest that the perception of self-efficacy is a viable construct for comprehending performance, particularly on academic tasks requiring sustained self-monitoring.

Schunk (1989) examined the self-efficacy and achievement behaviours. Research addressing cognitive skills, social skills, motor skills, and career choices has shown that self-efficacy is an important construct that helps to explain students' learning and performance of achievement-related behaviours. Research also has identified variables that are associated with educational contexts and that signal to students how well they are achieving or making progress in learning. These task-engagement variables include models/social comparative information, goal setting, attribution and performance feedback, strategy instruction, cognitive processing, and reward contingencies. A suggested future self-efficacy research agenda might include maintenance and generalization of changes in self-efficacy, the identification of additional task-engagement variables, instrument development and validation, integration of efficacy information from diverse sources, developmental influences on self-efficacy, and teachers' sense of efficacy.

Cervone, Kopp, Schaumann, and Scott (1994) examined the effects of induced mood on personal standards for performance and judgments of one's performance capabilities, or self-efficacy judgments. Three experiments involving 208 undergraduates were conducted. In Experiment 1, standards and self-efficacy judgments were assessed on common social and academic tasks. In Experiment 2,

these variables were assessed on 2 novel tasks. In both experiments, negative mood induced higher standards for performance. Induced mood had no effect on perceived self-efficacy. Negative mood thus held minimal standards for performance that significantly exceeded the levels of performance they judged they actually could attain. Experiment 3 provided support for the hypothesis that negative mood raises standards by lowering evaluations of prospective outcomes.

Brosnan (1998) examined the relationship between computer anxiety and computer performance using a self-efficacy framework. A novel database searching task was demonstrated to 50 participants using two procedures (namely, accessing the data tables directly and constructing look-up tables). Levels of computer anxiety, prior experience and perceptions of self-efficacy were recorded. The results indicate that computer anxiety directly influences the number of correct responses obtained whilst self-efficacy determines how the task is attempted. Less anxious subjects obtained more correct responses and subjects with higher perceptions of self-efficacy used more look-up tables. The results indicate that self-efficacy theory can account for around half the variance in computer performance and that how a task is attempted should be assessed in addition to accuracy and speed of performance.

Stajkovic and Fred (1998) examined the relationship between self-efficacy and work-related performance through meta-analysis. Results of the primary meta-analysis indicated a significant weighted average correlation between self-efficacy and work-related performance, $G (r_{\pm}) = .38$, and a significant within-group heterogeneity of

individual correlations. To account for this variation, the authors conducted a 2-level theory-driven moderator analysis by partitioning the k sample of correlations first according to the level of task complexity (low, medium, and high), and then into 2 classes according to the type of study setting (simulated-lab vs. actual-field). New directions for future theory development and research are suggested, and practical implications of the findings are discussed.

Parker and Sharon (1998) examined enhancing role breadth self-efficacy and the roles of job enrichment and *other* organizational interventions. Role breadth self-efficacy (RBSE) refers to employees' perceived capability of carrying out a broader and more proactive set of work tasks that extend beyond prescribed technical requirements. A newly developed scale of RBSE was internally consistent and distinct from the related concepts of proactive personality and self-esteem. In an initial cross-sectional study ($n = 580$), work design variables (job enrichment, job enlargement, and membership of improvement groups) were the key organizational predictors of RBSE. These investigations were repeated in a second cross-sectional study ($n = 622$) and extended by examining change over time ($n = 459$). The longitudinal analysis showed that increased job enrichment and increased quality of communication predicted the development of greater self-efficacy.

Bandura (1990) analysed the influential role played by perceived self-efficacy in the exercise of control over behaviour that carries risk of AIDS (Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome) infection. Effective programs of self-directed change

require four major components. The first is informational, designed to increase awareness and knowledge of health risks. The second component is concerned with development of the social and self-regulatory skills needed to translate informed concerns into preventive action. The third component is aimed at skill enhancement and building resilient self-efficacy through guided practice and corrective feedback in applying the skills in high-risk situations. The final component involves enlisting social supports for desired personal changes.

Rychtarik, Prue, Rapp and King (1992) investigated the role of self-efficacy in the prediction of relapse following alcoholism treatment was examined in a 12-month follow-up evaluation. Self-efficacy was assessed at intake to inpatient treatment and again at discharge. The drinking status of male alcoholics completing treatment then was assessed during six intervals over the course of the post treatment year. Results indicated a significant increase in self-efficacy from intake to discharge. Additional analyses showed that lower intake self-efficacy ratings were associated with relapse by either 6- or 12-months post-treatment. Discharge self-efficacy, on the other hand, was not related to relapse status at either post-treatment point. A subsequent analysis of the pattern of relapses across the six follow-up intervals was conducted using survival analysis. Results revealed that only intake self-efficacy was predictive of the follow-up interval during which a relapse occurred. Individuals high in self-efficacy at intake showed the greatest resistance to relapse across time. The maintenance of aftercare further reduced the risk of relapse. The results are discussed with respect to

self-efficacy theory and the problem of ceiling effects in post-treatment self-efficacy assessments.

Vancouver, Jeffrey.Thompson, Tischner, PutkaandDan(2002) examined the negative effect of self-efficacy on performance. Although hundreds of studies have found a positive relationship between self-efficacy and performance, several studies have found a negative relationship when the analysis is done across time (repeated measures) rather than across individuals. Powers (1991) predicted this negative relationship based on perceptual control theory. Here, 2 studies are presented to (a) confirm the causal role of self-efficacy and (b) substantiate the explanation. In Study 1, self-efficacy was manipulated for 43 of 87 undergraduates on an analytic game. The manipulation was negatively related to performance on the next trial. In Study 2, 104 undergraduates played the analytic game and reported self-efficacy between each game and confidence in the degree to which they had assessed previous feedback. As expected, self-efficacy led to overconfidence and hence increased the likelihood of committing logic errors during the game.

Wang and Netemeyer (2002) investigated the Effects of Job autonomy, customer demandingness, and trait competitiveness on salesperson learning, Self-Efficacy, and Performance. Although self-efficacy has been demonstrated to be positively associated with performance-related variables, few studies have looked at its possible antecedents in the context of personal selling. Applying social cognitive theory, this study posits that while self-efficacy positively affects performance, the

salesperson's learning effort directly affects self-efficacy. Furthermore, two task-related factors (perceived job autonomy and customer demandingness) and one individual difference variable (trait competitiveness) are proposed to affect salesperson learning effort and self-efficacy. Two empirical studies show consistent results regarding the positive effects of learning on efficacy and efficacy on performance as well as the influences of three exogenous constructs on learning and efficacy.

Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Gerbino and Pastorelli (2003) examined the role of affective self-regulatory efficacy in diverse spheres of psychosocial functioning. This prospective study with 464 older adolescents (14 to 19 years at Time 1; 16 to 21 years at Time 2) tested the structural paths of influence through which perceived self-efficacy for affect regulation operates in concert with perceived behavioural efficacy in governing diverse spheres of psychosocial functioning. Self-efficacy to regulate positive and negative affect is accompanied by high efficacy to manage one's academic development, to resist social pressures for antisocial activities, and to engage oneself with empathy in others' emotional experiences. Perceived self-efficacy for affect regulation essentially operated mediation ally through the latter behavioural forms of self-efficacy rather than directly on pro social behaviour, delinquent conduct, and depression. Perceived empathic self-efficacy functioned as a generalized contributor to psychosocial functioning. It was accompanied by pro social behaviour and low involvement in delinquency but increased vulnerability to depression in adolescent females.

Wants, and Boglarsky (2007) investigated the perceptions of organizational culture, leadership effectiveness and personal effectiveness across six countries. Perceptions of which facets of organizational culture are related to leadership and personal effectiveness were examined using archival data from Canada, Hong Kong, New Zealand, South Africa, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Organizational culture was strongly perceived as being related to both leadership effectiveness (explaining 40% of the variance) and personal effectiveness (24% of the variance). Aspects of organizational culture that promote employee fulfillment and satisfaction were uniformly viewed as positively related to leadership and personal effectiveness. The perceived relationship across samples was stronger between organizational culture and leadership effectiveness than between organizational culture and personal effectiveness. The implications of these findings for managers are discussed.

Huy P. Phan (2007) conducted an examination of reflective thinking, learning approaches, and self-efficacy beliefs at the university of the south pacific. his study examined the causal and mediating relations between students' learning approaches, self-efficacy beliefs, stages of reflective thinking, and academic performance. Second-year undergraduate students (n = 241; 118 females, 123 males) in the South Pacific were administered the revised version of Biggs' Study Process Questionnaire, the Reflective Thinking Questionnaire, and the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire. Latent variables analysis indicated that a surface learning approach contributed to the prediction of habitual action, and a deep learning approach

predicted understanding and self-efficacy. Self-efficacy directly predicted the stages of reflective thinking, with the exception of critical thinking, and understanding negatively predicted academic performance. Finally, with the exception of critical thinking, the stages of reflective thinking were found to relate causally in a uni-dimensional manner. ,

Funk, Strang (2007) examined whether attributional retraining increases career decision-making self-efficacy. This study examined whether 60 college students (41 women and 19 men), grouped according to their career locus of control, were differentially affected by a videotaped career intervention. The intervention was an attributional retraining procedure designed to persuade students to attribute low levels of confidence in making career decisions and career-related failures to a lack of effort. Results indicated that the career decision-making self-efficacy (CDMSE) of students who initially exhibited an external career locus of control significantly increased after the attributional retraining procedure ($p < .05$), whereas the students who initially exhibited an internal career locus of control demonstrated no significant increase in CDMSE after attributional retraining.

Prati, Pietranoni and Cicognani (2009) investigated whether Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between stress appraisal and quality of life among rescue workers. Rescue workers are frequently exposed to highly stressful situations during their everyday work activity. Stress and coping theory emphasizes the interaction between primary and secondary appraisal in determining coping responses to stressful events and quality of life. According to Social Cognitive Theory, stress reactions

depend on self-appraisal of coping capabilities. A self-administered questionnaire was submitted to a sample of 451 Italian rescue workers (firefighters, paramedics, and medical technicians), including the Professional Quality of Life Scale, which measures three dimensions of emergency workers' quality of working life: compassion fatigue, burnout, and compassion satisfaction. Multiple regression analyses indicated that the relationship between stress appraisal and professional quality of life was significant only among rescue workers with low levels of self-efficacy but not among those with higher levels of self-efficacy. These results confirmed the expectations based on Social Cognitive Theory that self-efficacy buffers the impact of perceived stressful encounters on professional quality of life. Results suggest the usefulness of interventions aimed at increasing rescue workers' psychosocial skills.

Dale and Schunk (2011) studied Self-Efficacy and Academic Motivation. Academic motivation is discussed in terms of self-efficacy, an individual's judgments of his or her capabilities to perform given actions. After presenting an overview of self-efficacy theory, he contrast self-efficacy with related constructs (perceived control, outcome expectations, perceived value of outcomes, attributions, and self-concept) and discuss some efficacy research relevant to academic motivation. Studies of the effects of person variables (goal setting and information processing) and situation variables (models, attributional feedback, and rewards) on self-efficacy and motivation are reviewed. In conjunction with this discussion, he mentioned substantive issues that need to be addressed in the self-efficacy research and

summarize evidence on the utility of self-efficacy for predicting motivational outcomes. Areas for future research are suggested.

Reena and Jayan(2012) investigated the quality of work life of engineering college teachers under various dimensions. New challenges can be faced with employees satisfaction, commitment and involvement in achieving personal effectiveness. This study helps the engineering college teachers to know the role of QWL on job attitude and personal effectiveness. The sample consisted of 457 engineering college teachers in kerala state, who completed quality of work life questionnaire (Jayan, Reena, Susan,&Rekha 2010) and job attitude scale (Jayan,2004) and personal effectiveness inventory (Andros, 1999). The collected data after being coded were analysed using statistical package for social science research (SPSS) and bivariate correlation and one-way Anova were used.

Reena and Jayan (2012) examined the relationship between organizational culture and the quality of work life and how it encourages the employees to find meaning and purpose in their life. This paper further argues that certain organizational culture attributes add to the shaping of the behaviour, productivity and personal effectiveness. Basically, organizational culture is the personality of the organization and it decides the employees' attitudes, performance and well being

Reenaand Jayan (2012) investigated the impact of Organizational Culture on Personal Effectiveness. Moreover this study could shed light on the level of influence on organizational culture on educational sectors consisting of engineering college

teachers in Kerala. A purposive random sampling method was used and about 390 sample responses were collected. Organizational Culture Inventory and Personal Effectiveness Inventory were administered to the respondents. Data were analysed by using descriptive statistics and One-way ANOVA, to test the formulated hypothesis and the significance and reliability of the findings. Results revealed that Organizational Culture had a significant impact on Personal effectiveness and its dimensions like Personal Focus, Personal growth, Team effectiveness, Customer focus, Relationships and Personal adaptability. Employees with a higher organizational culture significantly scored higher personal effectiveness than employees with moderate and low organizational cultures. Generally speaking, a higher level of organizational culture leads to a higher level of personal effectiveness

Karwowski (2016) examined the dynamics of creative self-concept and changes and reciprocal relations between creative self-efficacy and creative personal identity. Although creative self-concept constructs are intensively studied in the creativity literature, little is known about the dynamics of their changes during the life span and the relationships between different aspects of the creative self-concept. Using a longitudinal and a cross-sequential design, this investigation aimed to test changes in two important creative self-concept constructs—creative self-efficacy and creative personal identity—over short (6 months) and longer (20 months) periods of time, while simultaneously examining reciprocal relationships between them. The results showed the short-term stability of both constructs, but they also revealed significant change over the longer period—specifically, a growth of creative self-

efficacy and creative personal identity in people from late adolescence to early adulthood and a drop among older participants. Reciprocal longitudinal relationships between creative self-efficacy and creative personal identity were also demonstrated, with creative self-efficacy being a more stable predictor of creative personal identity than the reverse.

Studzińska, Golonka and Izydorczyk (2019) examined whether Self-Efficacy is a Moderator between Stress and Professional Burnout in Firefighters. Firefighters from 12 different Polish provinces ($N = 580$; men; M (mean age) = 35.26 year, $SD = 6.74$) were analysed regarding the perceived stress at work, burnout, self-efficacy, and a broad range of socio-demographic variables. The Perceived Stress Scale (PSS), the Link Burnout Questionnaire (LBQ), and the General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES) were used in the study. To explore the relationships between work-related stress, burnout, and self-efficacy, separate regression models for each burnout dimension were analysed. The results revealed that self-efficacy is a significant moderator that changes the direction and strength of the relationships between perceived stress and psychophysical exhaustion, sense of professional inefficacy, and disillusion. However, self-efficacy did not moderate the relationship between stress and lack of engagement in relationships (relationship deterioration). The results indicate that self-efficacy in firefighters is a crucial personal resource that buffers the impact of perceived stress on most burnout symptoms. It may be concluded that in high risk professions, special attention should be paid to developing self-efficacy as an important part of burnout prevention programs, pro-health activities, and psycho-education.

HYPOTHESES

- **There will be significant relationship between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness.**
- **There will be significant interactions between the levels of emotional maturity on personal effectiveness and its variables.**
- **There will be significant interactions between levels of emotional maturity & classificatory factors of demographic variables (Age, Sex, Educational Qualification, Marital status, Residential area, Annual Income) on personal effectiveness and its variables.**

CHAPTER

3

METHOD

The method used for this study is described in below;

PARTICIPANTS FOR THE STUDY

The present study was conducted using descriptive research design. A total of 120 police officials were drawn from a population of police officials by simple random sampling method from different districts, in Kerala. The age of participants ranged from 20-50 years. Participants who could speak and understand English or Malayalam and who were free from any congenital, developmental or behavioural disorders were included in this study.

MEASURES USED

The present study contains 2 inventories for the data collection procedure;

- Emotional maturity scale by Singh and Bhargava (1990).
- Personal effectiveness scale by Andros (1999) and re-standardized by Reena (2010)
- Personal data sheet

Emotional maturity scale

Emotional maturity scale was developed by Singh and Bhargava (1990). The scale has a total of 48 items and five categories (emotional stability, emotional progression, social adjustment, personality integration and independence). The Emotional maturity scale was rated in 5 point Likert scale with 5 indicating very much to 1 indicating never. The scores for the responses were 5,4,3,2 & 1 respectively for very much, much, undecided, probably and never. The sum of the scores for all the items constituted the total score on the scale in which there are four levels of emotional maturity that is 50 to 80 indicates extremely emotionally mature, 81 to 88 indicates moderately emotionally mature, 89 to 106 indicates emotionally immature and 107 to 240 indicates extremely emotionally immature.

Personal effectiveness scale

The Personal effectiveness Inventory (PEI) by Andros (1999) and re-standardized by Reena (2010) was used to measure personal effectiveness. This is an inventory that is designed to give an assessment of awareness of our knowledge, skills, current competencies and efficacy. It is a personal development instrument that helps individuals focus on those factors related to personal effectiveness, health and well-being. Some items focus on us, some on others with whom we work, and some on our relationship with others. It is designed to guide the users through a structured process in becoming more effective, both on-the-job and in personal lives. The PEI is

a 60 item questionnaire that measures the 6 dimensions of personal effectiveness. However, in the present study only 40 items measuring 5 dimensions of personal effectiveness is used. The personal effectiveness inventory was rated in 5 point Likert scale with 5 indicating strongly agree to 1 indicating strongly disagree. The scores for the responses were 5,4,3,2 &1 respectively for strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree and strongly disagree. The sum of the scores for all the items constituted the total score on the scale. All items were positive. Item 5,9,13,18,22,27,30,38 included Personal focus; 1,6,10,14,19,23,31,35 Personal growth; 2,7,15,20,24,32,36,39 Team effectiveness; 3,11,16,21,25,28,33,37 Relationships; and 4,8,12,17,26,29,34,40 Personal adaptability. The maximum and minimum scores obtained in this inventory were 200 and 40 respectively.

Personal data sheet

PROCEDURE AND ADMINISTRATION

The questionnaire will be a self-administrating one. Instructions will be printed at the beginning of the inventories. Response space will be provided against each item, and the respondent will require ticking the appropriate column representing his/her response. Participants will be approached individually during the working hours in their respective organizations with the help of the concerned administration. The participants will be briefed about the purpose of the study and confidentiality will

be assured. Sufficient time will be given to respond to the questionnaires and then the data collection will be made. Scoring will be done as per manuals.

ANALYSIS OF DATA (STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES)

The following statistical techniques will be used to analyze the data collected, to throw light on the information sought from the investigation. Computer analysis (SPSS version 18) will be done to test the various hypotheses. The statistical tools of percentage analysis, preliminary analysis, correlation analysis, Analysis of variance or ANOVA will be used.

Correlation

A correlation coefficient is a measure of linear association between two variables. It can be computed in different ways depending on the nature of the data. Here used the Pearson's correlation coefficient. Pearson's correlation coefficient, can take values from +1 to -1. A Pearson's correlation coefficient +1 indicates a perfect association of ranks, a zero indicates no association between ranks and -1 indicates perfect negative association between ranks

Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

In general, the purpose of Analysis Of Variance, popularly known as ANOVA, is to test for significant differences between means. This test can be used in cases where there are more than two groups. The ANOVA is a powerful and common statistical procedure in the social sciences because it can handle a variety of situations.

CHAPTER

4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The present chapter deals with data analysis.

Analysis involves inter-correlations, correlations of variables and Analysis of variance.

➤ **SECTION 1**

- **CORRELATION ANALYSIS BETWEEN EMOTIONAL MATURITY AND PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS**

➤ **SECTION 2**

- **ROLE OF EMOTIONAL MATURITY ON PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS AND ITS VARIABLES.**

➤ **SECTION 3**

- **ROLE OF EMOTIONAL MATURITY AND CLASSIFICATORY FACTORS OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES (AGE, SEX, EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION, MARITAL STATUS, RESIDENTIAL AREA, ANNUAL INCOME) ON PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS AND ITS VARIABLES.**

TABLE 1.1; TABLE SHOWING THE CORRELATION AND INTER-CORRELATION OF EMOTIONAL MATURITY AND PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS AMONG POLICE OFFICIALS

VARIABLES	PF	PG	TE	RE	PA	PES	EMS	E Range
PF	-							
PG	.822**	-						
TE	.834**	.805**	-					
RE	.792**	.770**	.839**	-				
PA	.792**	.777**	.822**	.799**	-			
PES	-.925**	-.906**	-.936**	-.911**	-.915**	-		
EMS	-.590**	-.570**	-.592**	-.559**	-.532**	-.619**	-	
E Range	-.558**	-.516**	-.516**	-.519**	-.463**	-.559**	.892**	-

SECTION 1

CORRELATION ANALYSIS BETWEEN EMOTIONAL MATURITY AND PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS

In order to find out the correlation between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness, we use the Karl Pearson product moment correlation test. The coefficients of correlation obtained between different variables and also the inter correlation are represented in table 1.1. The inter correlation of the entire data is found. There are 8 variables altogether i.e, 6 variables of personal effectiveness and the overall/total personal effectiveness. The 7th variable is the overall/total emotional maturity and the 8th variable is the emotional maturity level others are demographic variables. In the total correlations, there are 67 significant ones. Out of them 28 are significant at 0.01 levels and 39 are significant at 0.05 levels.

INTER CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE DIMENSIONS OF PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS

The correlation coefficient indicates the strength of the relation between the variables. A coefficient is considered significant if the p-value is < 0.01 . Total personal effectiveness is significantly correlated with personal focus (PF) ($r=.925$,

$p < 0.01$); personal growth (PG) ($r = 0.906$, $p < 0.01$); team effectiveness (TE) ($r = 0.936$, $p < 0.01$); relationships (RE) ($r = 0.911$, $p < 0.01$); personal adaptability (PA) ($r = 0.915$, $p < 0.01$). This indicates that there exists a high significant positive correlation between overall personal effectiveness and its variables.

According to Pareek (2001) Personal effectiveness as, being the best to oneself by mobilizing motivation and galvanizing cognitive capability in order to address the demand of a given situation; and the dimensions, self-disclosure is defined as, sharing with others what they do not seem to know about one- self; Feedback as, being open to what others say on aspects which one may not be aware of; and Perceptiveness as, sensitivity to others" feelings and to non-verbal cues. Personal effectiveness is very much influential in an individual's personal and professional life. It has positive impact on success in each and every activities and goal achievement.

CORRELATION BETWEEN EMOTIONAL MATURITY AND PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS

The emotional aspect of maturity is the most important factor in the development of the comprehensive mature personality, especially in a workplace. This is the global factor of emotional maturity which is the strength to actualize individual abilities within the frame of social demands. Workplace has become an area of demands, pressures, competition and interpersonal conflicts. If one wants to succeed one must have the abilities to respond positively to workplace challenges. Effectiveness does not only mean being efficient but, it also take a lot of understanding of interpersonal behaviours and integrity at the workplace.

The correlation matrix presented in table 1.1 indicates that there is a significant correlation between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness. The results of the correlation between the scores of emotional maturity and personal effectiveness, that these variables are significantly correlated ($r = -.619$, $p < 0.01$). The overall emotional maturity has a significant correlation between all the 5 dimensions of personal effectiveness that is the personal focus (PF) ($r = -.590^{**}$, $p < 0.01$); personal growth (PG) ($r = -.570^{**}$, $p < 0.01$); team effectiveness (TE) ($r = -.592^{**}$, $p < 0.01$); relationships (RE) ($r = -.559^{**}$, $p < 0.01$); personal adaptability (PA) ($r = -.532^{**}$, $p < 0.01$). This indicates that there exist a high negative significant correlation between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness. That means emotional immaturity decreases personal effectiveness. Studies also shows significant negative association between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness (Khan, Khan, Kawa, Fatima & Baby, 2015).

CORRELATION BETWEEN EMOTIONAL MATURITY, PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS AND DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

The relationship of socio-demographic variables (age, sex, educational qualification, marital status, residential area and annual income) with emotional maturity is examined and the study shows that emotional maturity has a significant correlation with two demographic variables like age ($r = 0.255$, $p < 0.01$) and sex ($r = .200$, $p < 0.01$). Personal effectiveness shows no correlation with other demographic variables like age, sex educational qualification, marital status, residential area and annual income.

SECTION 2

ROLE OF EMOTIONAL MATURITY ON PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS

In order to examine the role of emotional maturity on personal effectiveness, the data is classified into different categories and the significance of differences in emotional maturity and the scores of the respondents in the different categories are tested by analysis of variance (ANOVA).

A one- way ANOVA was conducted to find out the independent effect of emotional maturity on personal effectiveness; the results indicate that there is a significant influence of emotional maturity on personal effectiveness. Furthermore emotional maturity has a significant role on personal effectiveness and its five dimensions

Main effects (One -way interaction):

(a) Emotional maturity on Personal effectiveness and its variables

Emotional maturity on personal effectiveness and its variables were tested for its mean value. It can be noticed from Table 1.2 that Emotional maturity has indeed a significant role on personal effectiveness ($F=26.889$; $p<0.001$); and personal effectiveness variables like Personal focus(PF) ($F=26.324$; $p<0.001$), Personal growth(PG) ($F=19.795$; $p<0.001$), Team effectiveness(TE) ($F=21.293$; $p<0.001$),

Relationships(RE)(F=20.639; p<0.001) and Personal adaptability(PA)(F= 16.622, p<0.001). That means emotional maturity make a significant difference on personal effectiveness.

Table 1.2

(a) Results of the one- way ANOVA of emotional maturity on personal effectiveness and its variables

	Emotional maturity
	F-value
Personal effectiveness	26.889***
Personal focus	26.324***
Personal growth	19.795***
Team effectiveness	21.293***
Relationships	20.639***
Personal adaptability	16.622***

***p<0.001

Emotional Maturity brings with it a capacity for independence, the willingness to take action as free agent along with the capacity to affiliate, to freely initiate and sustain loving relationships. Emotional maturity is not only the effective determinant of personality pattern but also helps to control the growth of an adolescent's development.

Personal effectiveness means making the most at all personal resources at our disposal-our personal talents, energy and time relative to what is important to us

having effective living skills can lead to more control over daily life, more focus and sense of achievement. Studies also show that emotional maturity has a significant influence on personal effectiveness.

Table 1.3 Mean and Standard deviation of different levels of emotional maturity on personal effectiveness and its variables

personal effectiveness and its variables	Levels of emotional maturity	Mean	Std. deviation
PF	1	33.64	3.231
	2	35.41	5.328
	3	31.23	5.023
	4	25.42	5.488
PG	1	33.42	2.763
	2	34.35	2.714
	3	31.64	6.145
	4	26.65	5.076
TE	1	33.60	2.828
	2	35.29	2.910
	3	31.73	5.453
	4	26.65	5.811
RE	1	33.62	3.162
	2	35.29	2.823
	3	31.32	5.735
	4	27.19	4.593
PA	1	33.34	3.108
	2	35.59	5.304
	3	31.50	6.360
	4	26.48	6.044
PE	1	167.68	11.831
	2	176.00	15.492
	3	157.36	26.707
	4	132.35	24.703

Emotional maturity has four levels such as 50-80 indicates extremely emotionally mature, 81-88 indicates moderately emotionally mature, 89-106 indicates emotionally immature and 107-240 indicates extremely emotionally immature. On the basis of mean scores (Table 1.3) it can also be reported that moderately emotionally mature participants have higher mean scores on personal effectiveness and its variables. That means moderately emotionally mature participants has high personal effectiveness as compared to others

Changes in self-efficacy over time are related to changes in creative performance as well. Individuals high in self-efficacy also seem to respond to negative feedback which increased effort and motivation, while those low in self-efficacy are likely to lessen their effort after negative feedback.

The concept "Mature" emotional behaviour of any level is that which reflects the fruits of normal emotional development. A person who is able to keep his emotions under control, which is able to break delay and to suffer without self-pity, might still be emotionally stunned and childish. However, emotional maturity has great importance in one's development as well as interpersonal relationships and his/her overall success.

SECTION 3

ROLE OF EMOTIONAL MATURITY AND CLASSIFICATORY FACTORS OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES (AGE, SEX, EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION, MARITAL STATUS, RESIDENTIAL AREA, ANNUAL INCOME) ON PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS AND ITS VARIABLES

There is no significant interaction between emotional maturity and classificatory factors of demographic variables like age, sex, educational qualification, marital status, residential area, annual income on personal effectiveness and its variables. But in correlation analysis emotional maturity has a significant correlation with two demographic variables like age ($r=0.255$, $p < 0.01$) and sex ($r=.200$ $p<0.01$). As a result the importance of demographic variables cannot be completely ignored.

According to Young (1996) the emotionally mature or stable individual regardless of his age, is the one who has the ability to overcome tension, to disregard certain emotion stimulations that affect him, and to view himself objectively as he evaluates his assets and liabilities and strings towards an improved integrator of his thoughts and emotional attitudes and his overt behaviour, so the mature individual is said to have control over his emotions.

CHAPTER

5

CONCLUSION

- *Variables of the study*
- *Tenability of the hypotheses*
- *Major findings of the study*
- *Implications of the study*
- *Limitations and suggestions for future research*

The present study investigates the relationship of emotional maturity on personal effectiveness among police officials. This study is quite distinctive because it will look at the direction of these variables. The main focus points of this study are the relationship between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness. Emotional maturity is one of the major factor that affect a persons functioning and wellbeing. Emotionally matured individuals have better coping skills and interpersonal relationships as compared to the emotionally immature one. Personal effectiveness means making the most at all personal resources at our disposal-our personal talents, energy and time relative to what is important to us having effective living skills can lead to more control over daily life, more focus and sense of achievement. The study will try to confirm the hypothesis associated with emotional maturity and personal effectiveness. The findings of the study will add new insights and hope to generate further studies in the same framework. Effectiveness does not only mean being efficient but, it also take a lot of understanding of interpersonal behaviours and integrity at the workplace. This will also help the police psychologists will get an idea about level of emotional maturity and its importance in one's personal effectiveness or self-efficacy or personal efficacy.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

- **Independent Variable**

Personal effectiveness

- **Dependent Variable**

Emotional maturity

- **Demographic variables**

Age, Sex, Educational qualification, Marital status, Residential area,
Annual income

TENABILITY OF HYPOTHESES

Three main hypotheses were formulated for the study. In the light of the results of the study, the tenability of these hypotheses is tested:

- **The first hypothesis states: There will be significant relationship between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness.**

Pearson correlation was used for testing the hypothesis about correlation with emotional maturity and personal effectiveness. And there is a high positive interrelationship between personal effectiveness variable with its sub-variables. There exist a high significant negative relationship between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness. A study also shows significant negative association between emotional

maturity and personal effectiveness. The overall emotional maturity has a significant relationship between all the 5 dimensions of personal effectiveness that is the personal focus (PF), personal growth (PG), team effectiveness, relationships (RE), and personal adaptability (PA). Hence the hypothesis is substantially accepted.

- **The second hypothesis states: There will be significant interactions between the levels of emotional maturity on personal effectiveness and its variables.**

A one- way ANOVA was conducted to find out the independent effect of emotional maturity on personal effectiveness. The results indicates that emotional maturity has indeed a significant role on personal effectiveness and personal effectiveness variables like Personal focus(PF), Personal growth(PG), Team effectiveness(TE), Relationships(RE) and Personal adaptability(PA). That means emotional maturity make a significant difference on personal effectiveness. So the hypothesis is fully confirmed.

- **The third hypothesis states: There will be significant interactions between levels of emotional maturity & classificatory factors of demographic variables (Age, Sex, Educational Qualification, Marital status, Residential area, Annual Income) on personal effectiveness and its variables.**

Emotional maturity has a significant correlation with two demographic variables like age and sex and others are not at all significant. But there will not be any significant interactions between levels of emotional maturity & classificatory factors of demographic variables (Age, Sex, Educational Qualification, Marital status, Residential area, Annual Income) on personal effectiveness and its variables. Hence this hypothesis is significant only in some extent.

MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

- 1) There is a high positive interrelationship between overall personal effectiveness and its variables.
- 2) High emotional immaturity reduces personal effectiveness.
- 3) A high negative relationship exists between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness.
- 4) A high negative relationship exists between emotional maturity and variables of personal effectiveness.
- 5) Emotional maturity has a significant relationship between the demographic variables like age and sex.

- 6) Emotional maturity has a significant role on personal effectiveness and its variables.
- 7) Moderately emotionally mature participants have high personal effectiveness.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The present study was designed to understand and find out the relationship between emotional maturity on personal effectiveness among police officials. This study has a lot of influence in the field of police psychology. It is hoped that this study will stimulate enthusiastic investigators to undertake future research programmes that may further illuminate this area. Emotional maturity is an essential condition for the development of every individual and therefore, the sooner we achieve the sensitive balance between the components of the young child's self, the better we can prevent difficulties in his development. This will also contribute to a stronger and more stable personality structure in the adult, who can communicate well with others and achieve the maximum from his capabilities and strengths and that the concept of emotional maturity is an entire complex subject of the utmost importance.

Police psychology is an applied field of psychology and it is a relatively new field. It will be a major breakthrough in the field of police and public safety psychology and helps further identifying the influence of, emotional maturity on personal effectiveness of police officials and how those roles affect their life personal

effectiveness. Police psychologists will get an idea about level of emotional maturity and its importance in one's personal effectiveness or self-efficacy.

LIMITATIONS OF THE PRESENT STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study is conducted to find out the relationship of emotional maturity on personal effectiveness among police officials. This study is limited to police officials of districts of Kerala who understand English and Malayalam. The participants from whole Kerala may produce variations in the result. A study using a large sample can also produce a better result. It is a quantitative study. A combination of quantitative and qualitative methods will be more effective than this. The finding of the result justifies a strong recommendation for future research based on emotional maturity and personal effectiveness.

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APPENDIX

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Age	20-30/30-40/40-50
Sex	Male/Female/Other
Educational Qualification	SSLC/12th pass/graduate/post graduate
Marital status	Unmarried/married/divorced
Residential area	Rural/Urban
Presence of any illness	Yes/No
Annual Income	Below 3 lakh/Above 3 lakh

Questionnaires of Emotional maturity and Personal effectiveness

Dear participant,

As part of my M.Sc project I am conducting this survey. Your responses will be kept confidential. Kindly read them carefully and mark your response against the appropriate option. Thanks for taking your time out to fill this questionnaire.

There are given some statements about yourself. Five possible modes of response are provided, such as : *very much*, *much*, *undecided*, *probably* and *never*. Read each statements carefully and mark tick in any one of the five alternative response which is most suitable for you. Do not think too much while answering, whatever you feel may indicate.

Sl.no	STATEMENTS	Very much	Much	Undecided	Probably	Never
1	Are you involved in mental tension?					
2	Do you get frightened about the coming situations?					
3	Do you stop in the middle of any work before reaching the goal?					
4	Do you take help of other person/s to complete your personal work?					
5	Is there any difference between your desires and objectives?					
6	Do you feel within yourself that you are short-tempered?					
7	Do you feel that you are very stubborn?					
8	Do you feel jealous of other people?					
9	Do you get wild due to anger?					
10	Do you get lost in imagination and day dream?					
11	If you fail to achieve your goal, do you feel inferior?					
12	Do you experience a sense of discomfort and lack of peace of mind?					
13	Do you teasing against the others?					
14	Do you try to put the blame on others for your lapses?					
15	When you do not agree with others, do you start quarrelling with them?					
16	Do you feel yourself as exhausted?					
17	Is your behaviour more aggressive than your friends and others?					
18	Do you get lost in the world of imaginations?					
19	Do you feel that you are self-centred?					
20	Do you feel that you are dissatisfied with your self?					
21	Do you have a strained companionship with your friends and colleagues?					
22	Do you hate others?					
23	Do you praise yourself?					
24	Do you avoid joining in social gatherings?					
25	Do you spend much of your time for you own sake?					
26	Do you lie?					
27	Do you bluff?					
28	Do you like very much to be alone?					
29	Are you proud by nature?					
30	Do you shirk from work?					
31	Even though you know some work, do you pretends as if you don't know it?					
32	Even if you do not know about some work, do you pose as if you know it					
33	Knowing you are at fault, instead of accepting it, do you try to establish that you are right?					
34	Do You suffer from any kind of far?					

35	Do you lose your mental balance (poise)?					
36	Are you in the habit of stealing anything?					
37	Do you indulge freely without bothering about moral codes of conduct?					
38	Are you pessimistic about life?					
39	Do you have a weak will (self-will / determination)?					
40	Are you tolerant about the views of others					
41	Do people consider you as independent?					
42	Do people disagree with your views?					
43	Would you like to be a follower"					
44	Do you disagree with the opinions of your group?					
45	Do people think of you as an irresponsible person?					
46	Do you show interest in others' work?					
47	Do people hesitate to take your help in any work?					
48	Do you give more importance to your work than others' work?					

Read each statement carefully and put a tick(✓) any one option you find most appropriate. No answer is right or wrong. The information will be kept confidential and will be used only for research purpose.

Sl.no	STATEMENTS	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I'm always eager to enhance my knowledge and skills.					
2	Whatever we do in this institution works out to be the best.					
3	There's a good affinity between all the people here.					
4	We help and support one another whenever necessary.					
5	I am well conscious of my priorities.					
6	My life is progressing in a holistic manner.					
7	I understand and accept the vision of my institution					
8	I'm confident I can make richer contributions.					
9	I keep a blueprint of every project in my mind.					
10	I believe everyone has something to teach me.					
11	The Director and my colleagues are always willing to be my mentors.					
12	Our institution knows how to attain success					
13	I'm satisfied with the quality of my life					
14	I learn a lot from every failure.					

15	I get a lot of opportunities to participate in project- works					
16	Quality& Service are our chief obligations.					
17	The future of our organization is really bright					
18	I frequently re-examine my life's goals and progress accordingly					
19	Every day I learn / achieve something new.					
20	The Mission & Vision of our institution are very precious.					
21	Any differences between us are seen as our assets.					
22	I'm doing really what I want to do with my life.					
23	I take brief vacations to enhance my effectiveness.					
24	My contributions to this institution are appreciated by all.					
25	I am proud I could become a part of this institution					
26	I get full support from the governing body.					
27	I design everything before hand.					
28	We are conscious of the differences between us and we recognize their value.					
29	Our institution gives top priority to the quality of its services					
30	I feel I'm doing some thing valuable.					
31	I note and appreciate the incremental progress in my life.					
32	We work as a team, making a just distribution of the work-load					
33	Everyone in our team tries to actualize his/her full potential					
34	Everyone in our institution is trustworthy and reliable.					
35	I feel I'm using my talents for a noble cause.					
36	I can expect my colleagues' help at any time					
37	My colleagues extend their passionate support to me whenever it is needed.					
38	My progress is manifestly clear and generally satisfying					
39	I can excel only if my team excels.					
40	No matter how tough the challenge, we can face it.					

**SELF-CONTROL AND ACADEMIC ANXIETY AMONG
SCHOOL STUDENTS**

*Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment for the requirement
of Masters of Science in Psychology*

REVATHY JAYAPRASAD

Candidate Code: P1716007



**FATIMA MATA NATIONAL COLLEGE (AUTONOMOUS),
KOLLAM**
(Affiliated to the University of Kerala)

2019

Self-Control and Academic Anxiety among School Students

Abstract

The aim of this study was to examine self-control and academic anxiety among school students. School students were the target population of the study and it was conducted on a sample of 120 school students belonging to the age group 13 to 16, studying in various schools in the district of Kollam. Information about selected demographic variables such as age, sex, nature of family, board of study etc. was also collected. The measure used for present investigation was Academic Anxiety Scale for children (AASC) was developed by Dr.A.K.Singh and Dr.A.Sen Gupta and Self-Control Scale (SCS) was developed by Arun Kumar Singh and Alpana Sen Gupta. The data obtained were subjected to further analysis. The statistical tools like Correlation, t-test and ANOVA were used. The major finding of the study is that there exist a significant negative relationship between Self-control and Academic Anxiety.

KEYWORDS: *Self-control, Academic anxiety, Students, School, Board of study.*

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INTRODUCTION

A. SELF-CONTROL

B. ACADEMIC ANXIETY

C. NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

D. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

E. VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

F. OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Today's world is busy, there are so many things to remember, juggle and keep up with. Even young children have a lot of information to juggle, especially as their attention span is a moving target throughout their early development. This is especially difficult on young children who are still developing the skills they need to remember and manage everything on life's ever-growing to do list. The ability to focus and control involves the developing executive functioning skills including the ability to pay attention, learn and remember rules, and the self-control to not act on initial impulses. Studies have shown that children who have developed executive functioning skills often do better in school and are more likely to be able to achieve personal goals as the mature.

Academic anxiety is awful for children and heart wrenching for parents. It's so common, but it doesn't always look the same. Sometimes it will dress itself up as illness (headaches, tummy aches), sometimes as a tantrum or fierce defiance, and sometimes it looks exactly as you would expect, sometimes it is easy to identify when a child is feeling nervous before attested school other times and say it in the classroom can look like something else entirely and upset stomach destructive or angry behaviour or even a learning disorder there are many different kinds of anxiety which is one of the reason it can be hard to detect in the classroom. Self-control is interesting because this skill enables people to shape their own development.

The ability of young children to engage in self-control contributes positively to early elementary learning. I personally believe that development of positive and effective behavioural and social skills continues to be important throughout our academic and career lives. If our students can engage in behaviour and relationships that are appropriate in the classroom, careers, and rich variety of social settings, then they are likely to be able to effectively navigate the challenges that there that life inevitably brings. However, when students have difficulty engaging in self-restraint and self-control, the outcomes likely will be less positive for students throughout their academic and career lives. In a study (Miller, 2011) it is found that low levels of self-control experienced poorer physical health, increased prevalence of substance abuse, and increased levels of criminal conviction. Additionally, the study found that a

person with higher levels of self-control can experience increased levels of socioeconomic status, and better health relative to their age group peers with low levels of self-control.

There is a need to teach children to engage in self-control. As parents, sometimes the best thing that we can do for our children is to say “no” and to follow through with consequences. I know from experience that this is sometimes very hard to do, but it is also a very important way to teach our children to rise to expectations and to begin to learn self-control. In my opinion these lessons are best taught prior to school age. However, no matter how old our children are, parents can serve their children well by providing care, concern, discipline, accountability, guidance, and support to help reinforce behaviours that will lead to success in school and in life.

Teaching self-control is one of the most important things that parents can do for their kids, because these skills are some of the most important success later in life. By learning self-control, kids can make appropriate decisions and respond to stressful situations in ways that can yield positive outcomes. By now kids should be able to control most of their actions. But remind teens to think about long term consequences. Urge them to pause to evaluate upsetting situations before responding and talk through problems rather than losing control, slamming doors, or yelling. If necessary discipline is given to our teen by taking away certain privileges to reinforce the message that self-control is an important skill. Allow him or her to earn privilege by demonstrating self-controls.

A. SELF- CONTROL

Self-control is the ability to regulate and alter responses in order to avoid undesirable behaviours, increase desirable ones, and achieve long-term goals. Research has shown that possessing self-control can be important for health and well-being. Common goals such as losing weight, exercising regularly, eating healthy, not procrastinating, giving up bad habits, and saving money are just a few worthwhile ambitions that people believe require self-control.

People often use a variety of terms for self-control, including discipline, determination, grit, willpower, and fortitude. Psychologists typically define self-control as: The ability to control behaviours in order to avoid temptations and to achieve goals, the ability to delay gratification and resist unwanted behaviours or urges and a limited resource that can be depleted.

The term Self-control refers to the capacity for altering one's own responses, especially to bring them into line with standards such as ideals, values, morals, and social expectations, and to support the pursuit of long-term goals. Many writers use the terms self-control and self-regulation interchangeably, but those who make a distinction typically consider self-control to be the deliberate, conscious, effortful subset of self-regulation. In contrast, homeostatic processes such as maintaining a constant body temperature may be called self-regulation but not self-control. Self-control enables a person to restrain or override one response, thereby making a different response possible. It has attracted increasing attention from psychologists for two main reasons. At the theoretical level, self-control holds important keys to understanding the nature and functions of the self. Meanwhile, the practical applications of self-control have attracted study in many contexts. Inadequate self-control has been linked to behavioural and impulse-control problems, including overeating, alcohol and drug abuse, crime and violence, overspending, sexually impulsive behaviour, unwanted pregnancy, and smoking. It may also be linked to emotional problems, school underachievement, and lack of persistence, various failures at task performance, relationship problems and dissolution, and more.

A person might exert self-control, for example, by trying to stop thinking about Self-control measures to what many people refer to as self-discipline, willpower, or self-change. Although self-control can be regarded as an act, the capability for it is a personality trait. Some people are better at self-control than are others, not in every single occasion, but overall. Self-control measures are designed to identify which people are generally good at self-control and which ones are not. The ability to exert self-control is vital to maintaining a successful and healthy lifestyle. People must frequently exert self-control in many areas of their lives, such as when trying to diet,

quit smoking or drinking, control their spending, or refrain from engaging in undesirable sexual acts. Life requires constant self-change and adaptation, such as a new college student who must motivate himself or herself to study in the absence of parental supervision. Self-control is essential in this regard.

Likewise, people who are more capable than others at self-control experience numerous benefits as a result. For instance, they receive better grades, are more popular with peers, have better social relationships and mental health, and cope better with stress. They are also less likely to suffer from eating disorders or have substance problems. High self-control even helps people to follow the law and stay out of jail.

Researchers have developed several different ways to measure self-control. One method is to directly assess people's self-control behaviours. For instance, a researcher might give a person some delicious cookies or ice cream and measure how much the person eats. People typically try to limit how much of these foods they eat, and so eating a larger amount indicates a lack of self-control. One method commonly used with children is to assess the ability to delay gratification.

Self-control improves life in three ways:

- Individual well-being

Self-control relates to better health. Physically, self-controlled people sleep better, experience fewer physical sickness symptoms and live longer lives. They also enjoy better mental health. Self-control relates to lower anxiety and depression. Behaviours that relate to mental health problems, such as substance use and suicide, are less common among self-controlled people.

- Relationships:

Beyond wealth or good looks, people want self-controlled relationship partners. We want to spend our lives with people we can trust, who follow through on their promises and who will override their impulse to leave or lash out when things get tough. Self-controlled people are forgiving and react to conflict with benevolence rather than violence.

- Societies:

Self-control helps societies flourish. Self-controlled people, compared to their less-controlled counterparts, earn more money. Not only do self-controlled people enjoy greater wealth, they behave more generously. They override their selfish impulses and go out of their way to help others. On a broader level, societies that have clear-cut standards for appropriate behaviour tend to function better than do societies in which people do as they please. Societies also benefit from monitoring how their citizens behave.

Many students plan how they spend their time. Few students plan how they spend their limited self-control energy. Encourage students to spend the next week considering what they will do and how much self-control energy they will need to do it. Being mindful of when to spend and when to conserve their mental energy will help students navigate their environment and achieve their goals. Self-control relies on an all-purpose energy resource. We can strengthen our self-control by doing seemingly unrelated self-control tasks. For two weeks, encourage your students to use their non-dominant hand to complete everyday tasks (e.g., cleaning, brushing their teeth). Research indicates that this simple exercise increases self-control in other domains, such as reducing aggression (Denson et al., 2011).

It's our duty to show students that self-control will contribute to their success more than their smarts or family background. Self-control levels the playing field. It puts the keys to achievement in students' hands. By showing students what self-control is, how it works and why it is important, we will provide them with knowledge that can help them achieve their goals and have happy, productive and meaningful lives

B. ACADEMIC ANXIETY

Today, anxiety is a common phenomenon of everyday life. It plays a crucial role in human life because all of us are the victim of anxiety in different ways. (Goodstern&Layon, 1975) Generally anxiety can be either a trait or a state anxiety. A trait anxiety is a stable characteristic of the person. A state anxiety is one which is

aroused by some temporary condition of the environment such as examination, accident, punishment, etc. Academic anxiety is a kind of state anxiety which relates to the impending danger from the environments of the academic institutions including teacher, certain subjects like Mathematics English etc.

Gluck(2012) defined the term anxiety as the feelings of worry, nervousness, apprehension, or fear commonly experienced by people when faced with something they view as challenging a test, speaking in public, performing in public, a job interview, divorce, layoff, or any number of other stress-inducing events. Sometimes anxiety is characterized by vague, unsettling feelings of nervousness and apprehension, often with the person having no idea what he or she is anxious about.

Felman, (2018) stated that anxiety is a normal and often healthy emotion. However, when a person regularly feels disproportionate levels of anxiety, it might become a medical disorder. When an individual face potentially harmful or worrying triggers, feelings of anxiety are not only normal but necessary for survival.

Anxiety is body's way of telling you that there is something in the environment in need of attention. It is basically a series of biochemical changes in your brain and body, such as an increase in adrenaline (causing your heart to beat faster) and a decrease in dopamine (a brain chemical that helps to block pain). These changes result in a state of heightened attention to the source of the anxiety. High levels of anxiety cause your body to prepare to fight or run away from the perceived threat - commonly called the "fight-or-flight response."

Anxiety is not a bad thing. It is true that a high level of anxiety interferes with concentration and memory, which are critical for academic success. Without any anxiety, however, most of us would lack the motivation to study for exams, write papers, or do daily homework (especially in classes we find boring). A moderate amount of anxiety actually helps academic performance by creating motivation. The graph below illustrates the relationship between anxiety and performance.

Anxiety among kids is significant, especially in areas where there's a lot of pressure and competition for kids to perform well. Whether it's preparing for college

exams, book reports, or other homework, students are spending hours studying and trying to perfect their academic work. About 8% of kids have a diagnosed anxiety disorder, but many more have the symptoms associate with anxiety like rapid heartbeat, clammy palms, upset stomach and constant worry. Sometimes, this anxiety results in perfectionism, where kids want their school work to be perfect. So instead of writing an essay just once, if it's not good enough, they'll crumple their paper up and write it four more times. Other times, anxiety will cause them to shut off: either ignoring their schoolwork entirely, or simply putting it off as long as possible through procrastination. Either way, when kids become overly worried about school work, they don't have time for being a kid.

Academic anxiety is awful for children and heart wrenching for parents. It's so common, but it doesn't always look the same. Sometimes it will dress itself up as illness (headaches, tummy aches), sometimes as a tantrum or fierce defiance, and sometimes it looks exactly as you would expect. Academic anxiety isn't a case of 'won't', it's a case of 'can't'. It's anxiety. It's a physiological response from a brain that thinks there's danger. Sometimes the anxiety is driven by the fear that something will happen to the absent parent. Sometimes it's not driven by anything in particular. Whether the danger is real or not is irrelevant. Many kids with anxiety would know somewhere inside them that there is nothing to worry about, but they're being driven by a brain that thinks there's a threat and acts as though it's true.

When this happens, the fight or flight response is triggered and the body is automatically surged with neurochemicals to deal with the threat. That's why anxiety can look like a tantrum (fight) or resistance (flight). It's the physiological, neurochemical response of a brain on high alert. It's hard enough to control your own brain when it's on high alert, let alone someone else's, however much that someone else wants to do the 'right' thing.

We humans are wired towards keeping ourselves safe above everything else. It's instinctive, automatic, and powerful. This is why tough love, punishment or negotiation just won't work. If you were in quicksand, no amount of any of that would keep you there while you got sucked under. We'd fight for your life at any cost.

School is less dramatic than quicksand but to a brain and a body in fight or flight, it feels the same.

When we are dealing with an anxious child, we're dealing with a brain that will fight with warrior daring to keep him or her safe. It's not going to back down because of some tough words or tough consequences. The good news is that there are powerful ways to turn this around. Before we go further, it's important to make sure that the anxiety isn't from bullying, friendship problems or problems with schoolwork that might need their own response. Teachers generally know what's going on so it's always worth having a chat to get a clearer idea of what we're dealing with.

Anxiety has a way of making people feel like they have no control. It's inexplicable and feels as though it comes from nowhere. Explaining to your kids how anxiety works will demystify what they're going through and take away some of the punch. Anxiety has a really good reason for being there. Our brain is great at protecting us. It's been practicing for millions of years and is brilliant at it. If it thinks there's something to worry about, it will instantly surge our body with fuel – oxygen, adrenaline, hormones – to make us strong, fast and powerful, kind of like a superhero. This is the fight or flight response and it comes from a part at the back of your brain called the amygdala. This part of our brain is small and shaped like an almond. It's like a fierce (but very kind) warrior and its there to protect us.

When it thinks there's a threat, it doesn't stop to think about whether or not the threat is real it's all action and not a lot of thought. In fact, the part of your brain that is able to think clearly, calm things down and make great decisions about what to do next, is sent 'offline' if the brain senses a threat. That can actually be really handy and is another clever way to keep us safe. If there's a real danger, like an out of control bus screaming towards us, we don't want our brain to keep us in the path while it figures out whether or not to get out of there.

When it comes to school, our brain can sometimes read it as a threat, even though it isn't. That's because school is a bit different to home there are new people, different things and routines, we're away from your parents, sometimes it's noisy, and

sometimes we don't really know what to expect. To a brain whose job it is to protect us, that can feel like a really big deal.

Academic anxiety has four components – worry, emotionality, task-generated interference, and study skills deficits. The method of reducing your anxiety depends upon which of these we are experiencing.

- **Worry:** Thoughts that prevent you from focusing on and successfully completing academic work. For example, predictions of failure, self-degrading thoughts, or preoccupation with the consequences of doing poorly. Some effective techniques for managing this component include: using positive mental imagery, disputing negative and self-defeating thoughts with more productive, realistic thoughts, and self-hypnosis.
- **Emotionality:** Biological symptoms of anxiety. For example, fast heart-beat, sweaty palms, muscle tension. The most effective strategies for dealing with emotionality are muscle and breathing relaxation exercises.
- **Task-generated interference:** Behaviours related to the task at hand, but which are unproductive and prevent successful performance. For example, constantly checking the clock during an exam, or spending a lot of time on a test question you cannot answer. Since these behaviours can take on many forms, the best management technique is to work with a study skills instructor or a counsellor to identify the specific behaviours that cause problems and create a plan to reduce or change them.
- **Study skills deficits:** Problems with your current study methods which create anxiety. For example, last-minute cramming resulting in not knowing answers to test questions or poor note-taking during lecture resulting in confusion about a major assignment. Many students experience the first three components of academic anxiety as a result of study skills deficits. If this is the case, then your grades will not improve unless study skills are addressed.

If our anxiety level is too low we may be experiencing the same low level of academic performance as a student with an excessively high anxiety level. If we find ourselves falling weeks behind on our homework, spending little or no time preparing

for exams, and failing to turn in assignments, while not feeling particularly motivated to change, we may be suffering from too little anxiety. If this is the case, the best strategy is to figure out how your performance on daily coursework is related to the goals we have that we care the most about. One useful method for doing this is seeking career counselling.

Academic anxiety never just swipes at one person. It affects kids, parents, siblings and the teachers who also invest in the children in their care. One of the worst things about anxiety is the way it tends to show up without notice or a good reason. For kids (or anyone) who struggle with anxiety, it can feel like a barrelling it comes from nowhere, makes no sense and has a mind of its own. The truth is, the mind that anxiety has is there, and when they can understand their own power, they can start to establish themselves firmly as the ‘boss of their brain’. Understanding this will empower them, and will help them to draw on the strength, wisdom and courage that has been in them all along.

NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE

The major focus point of this study is Self-control and Academic Anxiety among school students. Both are influential in students’ performance and success. Anxiety is a normal reaction to certain situations or some extent anxiety is adaptive. A small level of anxiety prepares people for facing future threats and problems. But severe anxiety become a serious problem. It will negatively affect students’ performance. Teaching student’s self-regulation can reduce anxiety and increase academic performance (Ader&Erktin, 2010).

This study helps the teachers and parents to identify the student’s self-control and how it is influence on academic anxiety. Self-control relates lower anxiety and depression. According to Angele Duckworth and Martin Seligman (2005) if a student want to get better grades they need to stop trying to stop boost their IQ. The success depends on how hard he/she work and how much persist in the face of failure and how well overcome temptation.

This study is an important contribution in the field of psychology and the study will also help the development of the field. It also give a chance to researchers for more advanced studies.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The aim of the study is to determine the whether there exists any relationship between Self-control upon the students' academic anxiety. Self-control is the ability to subdue one's impulses, emotions and behaviours in order to achieve long term goals and anxiety is our body's way of telling us that there is something in the environment in need of our attention. Those who lack self-control may have high academic anxiety. This may affect their academic performances. The study amide at understanding relationship is thus entitled

Thus, the study entitled

“Self-Control and Academic Anxiety among School Students.”

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

The variables of the present study were the Self-control and Academic Anxiety. Apart from the study variables mentioned above, demographic variable such sex, age, nature of family, board of study etc. was also studied.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION

Self-control: The term“Self-control” means the ability to regulate and alter responses in order to avoid undesirable behaviours, increase desirable ones, and achieve long-term goals.

Academic anxiety: Academic anxiety is a kind of state anxiety which relates to the impending danger from the environments of the academic institutions including teacher, certain subjects like Mathematics English etc.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. STUDIES ON ACADEMIC ANXIETY

B. STUDIES ON SELF-CONTROL

**C. STUDIES RELATED TO ACADEMIC ANXIETY AND SELF-
CONTROL**

D. SUMMARY OF LITERATURE

E. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

F. HYPOTHESES

Review of relevant literatures includes analysis and synthesis of research sources to generate a picture of what is known about a particular situation and knowledge gap that exist in the situation. This chapter deals with relevant literature on academic anxiety and self-control among school students. A large number of studies have been conducted using these variables and those studies are conducted in various populations. The findings of these studies indicate that students can improve their academic performance by reducing their academic anxiety with self-control.

A. REVIEWS ON ACADEMIC ANXIETY

Eleanor (1996) conducted a survey at a small branch of a north-eastern university suggests that the question generates profound anxiety as it moves from the theoretical to the personal. Such anxiety about information technology can be seen as a communication problem. All 250 full-time faculty members of the branch campus were surveyed about their current and anticipated future uses of technologies, including computer labs, "smart classrooms," distance learning, local access networks, the Internet, etc. The survey contained 28 multiple-choice questions and a single open-ended question about any concerns the faculty member had about the use of computer technology in education. Returned surveys numbered 135, and 29 (21.5%) of these answered the "concerns" question. Respondents expressed two main areas of concern: they worried about the devaluation of the teaching profession, and with it, the loss of their jobs; and they were anxious about the dehumanization and alienation their students might face in a computer-dominated learning environment workplace. Although concerns voiced by respondents are not the exclusive domain of communication scholars, these respondents are the educators who teach others how to use communication media, and how to create and disseminate messages through them. Comments of the participants suggest that the expansion of the information economy is a cause for deep concern in higher education.

Milgram and Toubiana (1999) investigated the relationship between academic anxiety and procrastination in children and parents, and parents' direct involvement in

their children's schoolwork. Children reported their current anxiety and procrastination and parents reported their anxiety and procrastination when they were children (a measure of indirect influence on their children's schoolwork habits), and on their current involvement in their children's schoolwork (a measure of direct influence). Methods. Self-report measures were administered to 354 Israeli adolescents (ages 13, 14, and 16) and their parents. Results. Students were less anxious about homework than the other academic assignments. Older adolescents were less anxious about their schoolwork overall and procrastinated more than younger on homework. Parents of late adolescents were less involved in their children's schoolwork than parents of younger adolescents. Parents participated equally in school-related interactions that demanded high investment of time and effort, but mothers engaged more than fathers in low investment activities. These direct and indirect parental influences on their children's procrastination were of low magnitude overall, but appeared relatively stronger for mothers. Conclusions. The more students were anxious about preparing for examinations and writing papers, the more they procrastinated on these assignments, confirming the appraisal-anxiety avoidance (AAA) model. The inverse relationship of anxiety and procrastination with regard to homework led to our making a post hoc distinction between task-centred and consequence-centred anxiety.

Mohebi et al. (2012) found that academic anxiety is an important educational problem that affects millions of students in colleges and schools over the world each year. Although a low level of anxiety can cause positive motivation for improvement of educational functioning, high levels of it can cause a disturbance in concentration, attention, storage of knowledge, recall and educational reduction. It has also been recently determined that there is a relationship between anxiety and assertiveness. Therefore, this study is an attempt to determine the effect of assertiveness training on reducing anxiety levels in pre-college academic students in Gonabad city in 2008. In this clinical trial study, all the pre-college students of Gonabad city were invited to participate and 89 students were divided into experimental and control groups. There were 3 questionnaires, namely demographic, academic anxiety and assertiveness

Rathus questionnaires in which the validity and reliability were calculated and approved. The intervention for the experimental group was 5 sessions of assertiveness training using the PRECEDE model and 1 session for parents and teachers to help and support the intervention program. We had a post-test 8 weeks after the last training session for each group was conducted. The data was analysed by SPSS. The results showed that anxiety levels and decisiveness in the target group were moderate to high and it is seen as a significant reverse relationship between these two factors. The results also showed that there was a significant anxiety decrease in the experimental group after the intervention. On the one hand, there was a significant increase in decisiveness for both groups, but there was not a significant difference between academic anxiety and assertiveness in the control group before and after the intervention. Due to a significant decrease in anxiety and increased decisiveness in the experimental group, it can be claimed that assertiveness training is an effective non-pharmacological method for reducing academic anxiety and it can improve academic performance.

Isanejad, Heidary, Rudbari and Liaghatdar (2012) conducted a study that compares early maladaptive schemes in individuals with high and low academic anxiety. The method adopted in this study was causative-comparative. The samples consisted of 360 individuals randomly selected from college students. The instruments included the early maladaptive scheme questionnaire and the academic anxiety questionnaire. The results derived on the basis of variance analysis revealed that there is a significant difference between individuals with high academic anxiety and low academic anxiety in the early maladaptive schemes and those who experience high levels of anxiety report higher levels of early maladaptive schemes. Although the connection between these variables has not been explored, the results of the study are in line with the present theories. The results give more insight for academic planners and researchers and consultants into what goes on in the examinees minds other than the learned material during the exam session. On this basis, it seems essential to take into account the maladaptive schemes and to develop intervention and psychological educational plans in academic and college contexts.

Waring (2012) conducted a study to assesses the level and manner of parental influence on childhood academic anxiety. A total of fifty-four parent-teacher groups participated at a private Catholic elementary school in Georgia. Parents completed parent-report surveys measuring demographic information, parent involvement, parent instruction, parent work anxiety, and parenting style. Teachers completed the school anxiety scale. Results of the study support research of the trends related to anxiety content and the influence that parents have regarding this anxiety and will prove useful to the students themselves, parents, teachers, and school officials.

Nandini (2013) studied the impact of academic anxiety on academic achievement of secondary school students. Being a descriptive study, survey method was adopted for data collection to find out the results. Objectives of the study were to find out the 1) relationship between academic achievement and academic anxiety of secondary school students. 2) Effect of gender and type of school management on academic achievement of secondary school students. 3. Effect of different levels of academic anxiety on academic achievement of secondary school students. Hypotheses were formulated based on the objectives of the study. The sample comprised 300 secondary school students studying in Bangalore city. Appropriate tools were used to measure the variables. Correlation and t-test were computed. Results revealed that 1) there was a significant negative relationship between academic achievement and academic anxiety of secondary school students. 2) t-test results revealed that there was a significant difference between academic achievement of secondary school students belonging to low and moderate, low and high academic anxiety levels. 3) The study also indicates that there was significant difference in academic achievement between secondary school boys and girls. Similarly, students studying in private aided schools had better academic achievement in comparison to the students belonging private unaided schools. The study further reveals that secondary school students studying in government schools has better academic achievement in comparison to the students belonging private aided schools. It is also noteworthy that a moderate amount of anxiety actually helps an academic achievement by creating motivation.

Kumar (2013) investigated the relationship of academic anxiety and home environment. A sample of 120 subjects was randomly selected for the present study, out of which 60 students were from urban area and 60 from rural area. For the study Home environment inventory by Karuna Shankar Misra (1989) and academic anxiety (AASC) by A.K Singh and A. Gupta (1984) were used for data collection. The result revealed that the academic anxiety and home environment scores of adolescents correlated significantly.

Das, Halder and Mishra (2014) investigated the gender difference in relation to academic anxiety and academic achievement of the students of secondary level. The researchers also tried to find out the correlation between academic anxiety and academic achievement. A sample of 237 (128 boys and 109 girls) of secondary level students of class VIII were selected randomly. Analysing the data, the result shows that girls students has more academic anxiety than boys. It was also found that there is a negative and significant correlation between academic anxiety and academic achievement.

Shakir (2014) investigated the relationship and effects of academic anxiety on the academic achievements of students. A sample of 352 students of senior secondary school was taken through random sampling technique. A reliable and valid, Academic Anxiety Scale standardized by Dr. A.K. Singh and Dr. A Sen Gupta was used to collect the data. Mean SD, Correlation and t-test were used for the analysis of the data. Research findings revealed an inverse relationship (negative correlation) between the academic achievement and the academic anxiety of students. Significant differences were found between the academic achievement of high and low academic anxiety groups of students, between high and low academic anxiety groups of males, between high and low academic anxiety groups of females, between high academic anxiety groups of male and female students, and also between low academic anxiety groups of male and female students.

Bihari (2014) conducted a study on academic anxiety of secondary school students of North East Delhi. 114 secondary school students from 4 government and two private schools were drawn by employing simple random techniques. The value

of the sample was assessed using Academic Anxiety Scale for Children (AASC) constructed and standardized by Dr.A.K.Singh and Dr. A. Sen Gupta (2013). The objective of the study was to study the significant differences in the mean scores of secondary school students on the basis of gender, habitat and types of school. The obtained data were quantitatively analysed by using descriptive and inferential statistics. The study revealed that no significant difference were found between the overall mean scores of secondary school boys and girls and rural and urban students on their academic anxiety while significant difference was found between the mean scores of government and private secondary school students on their academic anxiety.

Von der Embse, Scott and Kilgus (2015) conducted a study to examine the sensitivity to change and concurrent validity of direct behaviour ratings of anxiety and traditional rating scales in measuring academic anxiety directly before, during, and after a potentially anxiety provoking stimulus. Research was conducted with 115 undergraduate students in a South-eastern university. Results indicated significant relationships between DBRs and pre- and post-measures of anxiety. Change metrics suggested an overall lack of correspondence between DBR and the criterion measure, with DBR scales detecting greater change both across the testing situation and participants. The use of DBR for anxiety is considered within a multitier, problem-solving framework. Feasibility and limitations associated with implementation are discussed.

Banga (2015) conducted a study on academic anxiety of secondary school students in relation to their type of family and social category. Main objectives were laid down for the present study: a) to study family-wise difference in the academic anxiety of secondary school students; and to study the difference in the academic anxiety of secondary school students belonging to different social-categories i.e. scheduled caste, other backward class and general category. This research is completed on senior secondary school students of Himachal Pradesh family type social category. The purposive sampling method is used for the selection of the sample. The three hundred students are selected for the study. This research gender

(boys and girls) is independent variable and Academic Anxiety is dependent variable. Academic Anxiety' Scale for Children (AASC): Developed by Dr. A.K. Singh and Dr. A. Sen Gupta is used. In short, Students coming from nuclear and joint families do not differ significantly in their academic anxiety. Students coming from nuclear families have slightly higher mean of academic anxiety score than their counterparts coming from joint families but this difference is not significant statistically. Students belonging to different social categories i.e. scheduled caste, other backward categories and general category do not differ significantly in their academic anxiety.

Mahajan (2015) investigated the relationship between academic anxiety of secondary school students and their parental encouragement. A total sample of 120 X grade students were selected through stratified sampling technique according to gender and type of school from 12 secondary schools for the present study. For the collection of data the investigator used Academic Anxiety Scale for Children by A. K. Singh and A. Sengupta (1998) and Parental Encouragement Scale by Kusum Aggarwal (1998). The results of the study showed that academic stress was significantly and negatively correlated with parental encouragement. No significant difference was found between academic anxiety of male and female secondary school students. A significant difference was found between academic anxiety of govt. and private secondary school teachers.

Banga and Sharma (2016) conducted a study on academic anxiety of secondary school students in relation to gender, locale and social category. The following objectives were laid down for the present study, to study and compare the academic anxiety among boys and girls secondary school students; to study and compare the academic anxiety among rural and urban secondary school students and to study and compare the academic anxiety of secondary school students belonging to general castes, other backward castes and scheduled castes/ scheduled tribes. The following hypotheses were formulated for the present study; there will be no significant difference in the academic anxiety among boys and girls secondary school students; there will be no significant difference in the academic anxiety among rural and urban secondary school students and there will be no significant difference in academic

anxiety of secondary school students belonging to general castes, other backward castes and scheduled castes/ scheduled tribes. In the present study the students studying in senior secondary schools of Kangra District constitute the population. In the present study, sample consisted of 200 senior secondary students. The purposive sampling technique was used to select the sample of students from senior secondary schools in Kangra District of Himachal Pradesh, India. These students are from rural, urban locale and General, OBC and SC/ST. For data collection, Academic Anxiety Scale for Children (AASC) by Singh and Gupta (2009) was used to measure the academic anxiety of Students. Descriptive statistical measure like mean and standard deviation were used in order to describe the nature of the sample taken. Inferential statistics t-test were used for the purpose of inferential analysis. There will be no significant difference in the academic anxiety among boys and girls secondary school students. There will be no significant difference in the academic anxiety among rural and urban secondary school students. There will be no significant difference in academic anxiety of secondary school students belonging to general castes, other backward castes and scheduled castes/ scheduled tribes.

Rehman (2016) found that higher education in itself is a big challenge mostly in developing and underdeveloped countries. Students' entering in higher education system of these countries comes across various issues like academic anxiety, academic depression, academic stress, socioeconomic hardships, anxious about uncertainty of future outcomes due to the lack of employment opportunities, lack of life management skills, law and order problems in a particular society so on and so forth. What measures are available in our country (India) for those students who suffer from severe academic anxiety has attracted the researcher to approach this problem. The basic aim of the study was to know various factors which lead higher education students towards severe academic anxiety. The researcher has reviewed the related literature of academic anxiety to find out the factors which lead students towards severe academic anxiety. Exploratory type of research design was used for qualitative analysis. Results show that personal, familial, institutional, social and political factors were identified as potential threat to provoke severe academic anxiety among students.

Various preventive measures are available both non-clinically and clinically for students who suffer from severe academic anxiety. The need of the hour is to create awareness among students, so they can take help of professional at the right time.

Siddiqui and Rehman (2016) investigated the relationship between academic anxiety, intelligence and study habits of total sample groups and sub-groups. To explore category (reserved & non-reserved) and gender (male & female) differences in academic anxiety, intelligence and study habits of total sample groups and sub-groups and to find out significance of difference in the mean scores of academic anxiety among all comparative groups under study. A sample of 537 students including 329 reserved categories and 208 non-reserved category students aged between 14-18 years were selected through stratified random sampling technique. Data was collected by administering self-constructed Academic Anxiety Scale bearing dependable validity and reliability, Standardised Group Test of Intelligence by DR. G.C. Ahuja. (2009) and Study Habits Inventory by Lajwanti, Chandel and Paliwal (2013). Academic anxiety was correlated with intelligence and study habits of total sample groups and sub-groups under study. On an average students belonging to non-reserved category were higher in academic anxiety scores but were possessing better study habits than reserved categories students. In terms of academic anxiety's mean score differences among all comparative groups under study, only reserved categories females were suffering more from academic anxiety than reserved categories males sample. More research on psychological health of reserved & non-reserved categories students especially in their socio-cultural and political context is needed so as to evolve effective and practical preventive measures.

Khemka and Rathod (2016) studied the academic anxiety of secondary school students. Purposive sampling technique was used for selecting the school and students were selected by stratified random sampling technique. The total sample was that of 400 students. Researcher used Survey Research method. The collected data were analysed by using the statistical technique of t-test and Percentage. Results Shows that 18.5% of students had low academic anxiety, 75% of students had average academic anxiety and about 6.5% of students had high academic anxiety. Female students were

more academic anxious than male students. Boys of government schools had more academic anxiety than boys of private schools. Girls of private schools had more academic anxiety than girls of government schools.

Rao and Chadurvedi (2017) studied the significant mean differences of academic anxiety among boys and girls, Class-IX students of secondary school situated in rural and urban area. A sample size of 500 class-IX Students were selected and taken up for the study. Academic Anxiety Scale developed by Singh and Gupta was used for the study. It has been found that, there is no significant mean difference of academic anxiety among boys and girls class-IX students of secondary school. But significant mean difference is found among class-IX students of secondary school situated in rural and urban area on their academic anxiety level. As a conclusion it is the responsibilities of the teachers to create a positive classroom learning environment at school and provides remedial class to the students coming from rural area that can contribute to good academic achievement by students. Parents have to consider various factors that influence the academic anxiety among boys and girls class-IX students of secondary school.

Sharma (2017) investigated the relationship between academic anxiety and mental health among adolescents. Descriptive survey method of research was adopted for the study. A sample of 100 adolescents with equal number of boys and girls of 13 to 16 years of age was taken through purposive sampling technique. The tools for data collection were Academic Anxiety' Scale for Children (AASC) and Mental Health Battery (MHB). The data were analysed using t-test and product moment method of correlation. Findings revealed that, Academic Anxiety is significantly but negatively correlated with mental health, for both male and female adolescents. Gender difference on Academic Anxiety among adolescents was found significant. Gender difference on mental health among adolescents was not found significant. The present study has implications in education as well as in social settings, because it provides an understanding into the manifestation of academic anxiety as related to mental health.

Khatun (2017) investigated the relationship between academic anxiety and academic achievement and to compare the level of academic anxiety between male

and female students. Sample consisted of 120 students of four secondary school students of Aligarh district. Out of which 73 students were male and 47 were female. Students were selected randomly. A reliable and valid academic anxiety scale for student (AASC) developed by Singh and Sengupta (2009) was used to collect the data. For the analysis of data Mean, t-test and Pearson correlation coefficient method were used. Result indicated that male and female students were showing significant difference in the academic achievement. Female students were found to achieve higher than male students in academics. It is also found that male students having low and high level of academic anxiety showing no significant difference in the academic achievement and similarly no significant difference were found in the academic achievement of female students having low and high level of academic anxiety. Result further indicated that male and female students having high level of anxiety differ significantly in the academic achievement. Female students were achieving higher in academics than their male counterparts

Alam (2017) conducted a study to know the various factors which lead students towards severe academic anxiety and the impact of academic anxiety on academic achievement. The researcher has reviewed the related literature of academic anxiety to find out its effect on achievement and also to identify the factors which lead students towards severe academic anxiety. Exploratory type of research design was used for qualitative analysis. Results show that personal, familial, institutional, social and political factors were identified as potential threat to provoke severe academic anxiety among students. The need of the hour is to create awareness among students, so they can take help of professional at the right time.

Kumari (2018) conducted a study on academic anxiety in relation to mental health of adolescent students of district Faridabad. For the present venture, descriptive survey was conducted on a sample of 100 senior secondary school students. The value of the sample was assessed using standardized tests namely Educational Anxiety Inventory by Sood and Anand and Mental Health Battery by Singh and Gupta. The objective of the study was to find out the relationship between academic anxiety and mental health of adolescents students. The obtained data were quantitatively analysed

by using descriptive and inferential statistics. The findings revealed that there is significant relationship between academic anxiety and mental health of adolescent boys and girls of secondary schools at 0.01 and 0.05 levels of significance and they are negatively correlated.

Njue and Anand (2018) investigated the relationship between academic anxiety and general wellbeing and compare the results of boys with girls. To do this Academic Anxiety Scale for Children (AASC) and PGI General Wellbeing Measure (PGIGWM) were administered to a sample of 204 high school students. Before that, it had been hypothesized that the correlation between academic anxiety and general wellbeing would be negative in both boys and girls and that there would be no significant difference between academic anxiety in boys as compared to girls and finally there would be no significant difference between general wellbeing of boys with that of girls. After the administration of the scales the data was analysed by computing Pearson correlation, mean and t-values. The results showed that the correlation between academic anxiety and general wellbeing was negative in both boys and girls proving the first two hypotheses true. In addition, the results also showed that there was no significant difference between academic anxieties in boys as compared to girls and there was be no significant difference between general wellbeing of boys with that of girls also proving the third and fourth hypotheses and null hypothesis true. All the findings have been shown and given meanings accordingly and some suggestions have been recommended for future research.

Azeem (2018) found that, the role of academic anxiety cannot be underestimated among the predictors of academic achievement. Anxiety is an excited state of nervous system as a result of which sense of tension, nervousness and worry is being inflicted on individual. In the modern time it is considered as a major predictor of academic performance. Reason being clear that world has become a place of great unnatural competition and academic achievements are seen as a bench mark of success in one's life. Sample of 340 secondary school students from various schools of Aligarh were selected for the study. A standardised tool was used to collect the anxiety scores and CGP of the students in their previous classes, obtained from school

records were taken as an index of their academic achievement. Later CGP was converted in to percentage marks. Present study is planned to find out difference as well as relationship in between the academic anxiety and academic achievement with respect to gender and religion respectively. Results of this study clearly revealed that, no significant difference is found in the academic anxiety and academic achievement of male and female students respectively. Similarly, no significant difference is found in the academic anxiety and academic achievement of Muslim and non-Muslim students respectively. Though, a significant and negative relationship is seen among the academic anxiety and the academic achievement. It is also inferred from the findings that a moderate level of anxiety is desired in order to excel in the academics, and when anxiety crosses the limit academic achievement decreases significantly.

Kaur and Chawla (2018) examined the level of academic anxiety and school adjustment among the school going adolescent girls and boys residing in orphanages and ones with their families. The gender differences were also examined. A total of 60 school going adolescent girls and boys aged 14-18 years residing in orphanages and a controlled group of adolescents living with families matched on the basis of age, gender and school were selected as sample for the study. A self-constructed interview schedule was used to examine the socio-demographic profile of the respondents, Academic Anxiety Scale for Children by Singh and Sengupta and Adjustment Inventory for school students by Sinha & Singh were used. The results showed that the adolescents residing in orphanages had lower academic anxiety than the ones living with their families and scores of adolescent girls were higher than the boys. The scores on school adjustment showed that the adolescents living with families had significantly better school adjustment than the ones living in the orphanages and overall the girls had lower adjustment level than the boys.

Yang, Asbury and Griffiths (2018) explored the prevalence and correlates of problematic smartphone use (PSU) among Chinese university students. Few studies have investigated relationships between PSU and factors such as academic anxiety, academic procrastination, self-regulation, and subjective wellbeing. The present study proposed and tested a hypothetical model of relationships between PSU and these

factors. A total of 475 Chinese university students completed a paper-based survey during class breaks. The survey comprised a battery of psychometric scales translated into Chinese translations examining the study variables (i.e., academic anxiety, academic procrastination, self-regulation, life satisfaction, and PSU). Path analysis was applied to test the hypothetical model. A good model fit was found in which PSU predicted academic procrastination and academic anxiety. Also, self-regulation predicted PSU, academic anxiety, academic procrastination and life satisfaction. PSU mediated the relationships between self-regulation, and both academic anxiety and academic procrastination. The present study enhances our understanding of the role of problematic smartphone use in relation to academic behaviour, mental health and wellbeing of college students.

Jyothi (2019) studied the effect of Cooperative Learning (Jigsaw Strategy) on academic anxiety of secondary school student. Total 105 students of class 9th studying in a school affiliated to Punjab School Education Board were taken as a sample. Data was collected by using Academic Anxiety Scale for Children developed by Singh and Gupta (2013). By employing 2x2 ANCOVA results showed that students taught through cooperative learning strategy(Jigsaw) (Mean=10.72,N=50) achieved significantly lower in academic anxiety as compared to traditional method of teaching (Mean=12.93,N=55). Cooperative learning (Jigsaw Strategy) was helpful in reducing academic anxiety.

B. STUDIES RELATED TO SELF CONTROL

Navarick and Fantino (1976) conducted a study on an immediate small reward and a delayed large reward, an organism may be said to exhibit self-control if it chooses the large reward. Given an opportunity to avoid this choice, pigeons may commit themselves to the large reward, but if the choice is encountered they will almost, select the immediate, small reward. This is compatible with some general theories of choice. The present study tested 1 such model, developed by Rachlin et al, which assumes that (a) relative choice responses "match" the relative values of the outcomes, and (b) outcome values equal the product of rate and amount of

reinforcement. Ss in 2 experiments were a total of 10 male naive White Carneaux and 2 experienced Silver King pigeons. Ss chose between 4.5 and 1.5 sec access to grain with equal or unequal delays of reinforcement. When delays consisted of unequal FI schedules the shorter delay terminated with the smaller reward, and preference for the large reward increased with the absolute size of the delays. However, preference for the large reward increased with delay size even when the delays were equal. It is shown that both findings are derivable from either models of choice based on gradients of reinforcing value or from a more general model which assumes preference to depend on the reduction in time to reinforcement correlated with the alternatives.

Denney and Rupert (1977) studied M. R. Goldfield's recommendations for enhancing the self-control features of desensitization by changing both the rationale and the procedure followed in this approach. 98 test-anxious (Test Anxiety Questionnaire) college students were assigned to 4 treatment groups, a placebo group, or an untreated control group. The 4 treatment groups resulted from the combination of 2 treatment rationales (active coping and passive reciprocal inhibition) and 2 treatment procedures (self-control and standard). The treatment groups were found to be equally effective in reducing debilitating test anxiety. However, the self-control variant of desensitization combining both the rationale and procedural modifications recommended by Goldfried required fewer scene exposures and treatment sessions than standard desensitization and yet was more effective at enhancing facilitative test anxiety and test performance. Finally, it appeared that the active rationale was more effective than the passive rationale in bringing about persistent changes in Ss' academic performance subsequent to treatment.

Snyder and Deffenbacher (1977) examined that relaxation, self-control and desensitization were compared to a waiting-list control in the reduction of test and other anxieties in 43 undergraduates. Neither active treatment differed significantly from the other, but they did differ significantly from the control treatment on several variables. Ss in both treatments reported less debilitating test anxiety, whereas desensitization Ss showed greater facilitating test anxiety. Under stressful conditions,

treated Ss were less worried and anxious, found the situation less aversive, and perceived themselves and their abilities more favourably than controls. Significant reductions in non-targeted anxieties suggested transfer of anxiety-management skills to areas other than test anxiety.

Kendall and Wilcox (1979) conducted 2 studies to develop a self-control rating scale (SCRS) for children. The 33-item CRS showed high internal consistency (0.98) and test-retest reliability (0.84). In a validation study of 110 normal 3rd–6th graders, the SCRS correlated significantly with latency and error scores from the matching familiar figures test, the Q score from the Portus mazes, and behavioural observations. These correlations remained significant when both MA and CA were partialled out. Discriminant validity was demonstrated by a very low and non-significant correlation with IQ and MA. An orthogonal factor analysis resulted in 1 major factor, which was labelled cognitive-behavioural self-control. The relationship of SCRS scores to age, the differences across grade levels, and the differences between boys and girls were also examined. The 2nd study compared 32 children referred for self-control training with 32 non-referred children matched on age (127.13 and 126.73 mo., respectively), sex, and IQ. Significant differences were found on the SCRS, matching familiar figures test latencies, and behavioural observations.

Deffenbacher, Michaels, Michaels and Daley (1980) compared the effects of anxiety management training (AMT) and self-control desensitization (SCD) in reducing targeted (test anxiety) and non-targeted anxieties. Comparisons revealed that AMT and SCD effectively reduced state (worry, emotionality, and state test anxiety) and trait (Debilitating scale of Alpert-Haber Achievement Anxiety Test and test items from the Fear Inventory) debilitating test anxiety and increased facilitating text anxiety (Facilitating scale of the Achievement Anxiety Test) relative to controls. A 6-wk follow-up demonstrated maintenance of debilitating test anxiety reduction. No performance differences were found in analog testing, but Ss receiving treatment had significantly higher psychology grades than those not receiving treatment. Post treatment findings reveal some non-targeted anxiety reduction for SCD; however, by follow-up both treatments evidenced significant non-targeted anxiety reduction. The

results are discussed in terms of remedial and preventive functions met by the self-control interventions; the possibility of treating diverse anxieties within a single AMT group is also considered.

Devito and Kubis (1983) examined the actual test anxiety, and the interrelationship of anxiety of certain personality variables. Sex differences in the variables and in the correlations among variables were studied. The A-State scale of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory was administered to a sample of college students ($N = 71$) under different conditions and instructions. Scales that measure trait anxiety, dependency, flexibility, and self control also were administered. Recalled test anxiety was significantly higher than actual TA. No significant sex differences were found in the means or correlations of the variables. A strong, positive relationship between A-Trait and dependency was found.

Sade, Bar-Eli, Bresler and Tenenbaum (1990) conducted a study on rifle shooters and 55 of them were administered state-trait anxiety and self-control questionnaires. Shooting performance was recorded on 7 competitive occasions. Analysis indicated shooting performance is dependent more on anxiety state than on anxiety trait and self-control. Highly skilled shooters were less anxious and performed better across all competitions than moderately skilled shooters but did not differ on self-control and anxiety trait. The assumption that increased anxiety negatively affects performance through the mediation of self-control should be further studied.

Hoch and Loewenstein (1991) addresses consumer impatience by developing a decision-theoretic model based on reference points. The model explains how and why consumers experience sudden increases in desire for a product, increases that can result in the temporary overriding of long-term preferences. Tactics that consumers use to control their own behaviour are also discussed. Consumer self-control is framed as a struggle between two psychological forces, desire and willpower. Finally, two general classes of self-control strategies are described: those that directly reduce desire, and those that overcome desire through will power.

Longshore, Rand and Stein (1996) find out a favourable evidence on the validity of the Grasmick et al. (1993) self-control scale which has been reported in studies using general population samples. However, the scale has never been tested among persons extensively involved in crime. We assessed the construct validity of this scale, slightly revised, in a heterogeneous sample of drug-using criminal offenders. Factor analyses identified five subscales, mostly congruent with existing formulations of the self-control construct. Also, recent crimes of force and fraud were more frequent among people scoring lower on self-control. However, the five-factor solution was not tenable among women, and the scale was no more closely related to crime than were three subscales representing more specific constructs already established in criminology.

Burton, Cullen, Evans, Alarid and Dunaway (1998) studied that the “general theory” of Gottfredson and Hirschi's which can account for the “gender gap” in crime and, when rival theories are included in the analysis, can explain criminal behaviour for both males and females. Based on a sample of 555 adults, the results indicate that the relationship of gender to crime becomes non-significant when self-control is introduced into the analysis. Further, when males and females are analysed separately, self-control is related, albeit differently, to males' and females' criminal involvement. These results suggest that Gottfredson and Hirschi's general theory should be incorporated into future empirical assessments of gender and crime.

Longshore and Turner (1998) tested two hypotheses drawn from the general theory of crime. The first hypothesis is that low self-control is a major individual-level cause of crime. The second that the effect of self-control is contingent on criminal opportunity. The measure of self-control used was a 23-item self-report index. To measure criminal opportunity, two proxy variables were used gender and crime-involved friends. Crime measures included number of criminal acts of force and number of criminal acts of fraud reported in a 6-month recall period by a sample of 522 criminal offenders. Self-control was lower among offenders reporting more crimes of force and fraud, but the variance explained by self-control was low in each case. The relationship between self-control and fraud crimes was contingent on

criminal opportunity, but the relationship between self-control and force crimes was not. Implications of these findings for the general theory of crime are reviewed.

Hamama, Ronen, and Feigin (2000) conducted a study which deals with sibling emotional response to the stress of childhood cancer in a brother or sister. Sixty-two healthy siblings aged 9 to 18 participated in the study. The children were asked to complete self-report questionnaires on state anxiety, loneliness, and self-control. The findings showed that the stress elicited emotional responses. Anxiety was related to the child's age and duration of the sibling's cancer, and loneliness was related to the child's sex and rank in the family. The outcomes also demonstrated a link between self-control as a coping skill and anxiety and loneliness as emotional distress responses. Healthy siblings' higher self-control rates were associated with their lower anxiety and loneliness reports. These findings support Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) theory on stress, appraisal, and coping. The results also highlight the need to train and impart children with learned resourcefulness in order to increase their self-control skills and improve their coping with and adjustment to siblings' serious illness.

Baumeister and Exline (2000) studied that self-control refers to the self's ability to alter its own states and responses, and hence it is both key to adaptive success and central to virtuous behaviour, especially insofar as the latter requires conforming to socially desirable standards instead of pursuing selfish goals. Recent evidence suggests that self-control operates like a strength. It is weaker after an exertion, replenishes with rest, and slowly becomes stronger with repeated exercise. It has multiple links to personal well-being and reduced social problems.

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Baumeister (2002) studied the ability of the self to alter its own responses, including thoughts, emotions, impulsive behaviours, and performances, is powerfully adaptive, and failures of self-control contribute to most personal and social problems. A program of laboratory studies suggests that self-control depends on a limited resource, akin to energy or strength. Acts of self-control and, more generally, of choice and volition deplete this resource, thereby impairing the self's ability to function. These effects appear after seemingly minor exertions because the self tries to conserve its remaining resources after any depletion. Rest and positive affect help restore the self's resources.

Baumeister (2002) investigated that self-control is a promising concept for consumer research, and self-control failure may be an important cause of impulsive purchasing. Three causes of self-control failure are described. First, conflicting goals and standards undermine control, such as when the goal of feeling better immediately conflicts with the goal of saving money. Second, failure to keep track of (monitor) one's own behaviour renders control difficult. Third, self-control depends on a resource that operates like strength or energy, and depletion of this resource makes self-control less effective. Trait differences in self-control predict many behaviours. Implications for theory and research in consumer behaviour are discussed.

Ariely and Wertenbroch (2002) studied that procrastination is all too familiar to most people. People delay writing up their research, repeatedly declare they will start their diets tomorrow, or postpone until next week doing odd jobs around the house. Yet people also sometimes attempt to control their procrastination by setting deadlines for themselves. In this article, we pose three questions: (a) Are people willing to self-impose meaningful deadlines to overcome procrastination (b) Are self-imposed deadlines effective in improving task performance (c) When self-imposing deadlines, do people set them optimally, for maximum performance enhancement A set of studies examined these issues experimentally, showing that the answer is "yes" to the first two questions, and "no" to the third. People have self-control problems, they recognize them, and they try to control them by self-imposing costly deadlines. These

deadlines help people control procrastination, but they are not as effective as some externally imposed deadlines in improving task performance.

Muraven, Collins and Neinhuis (2002) found that individuals whose self-control strength is depleted through the prior exertion of self-control may consume more alcohol in situations that demand restraint. Male social drinkers either exerted self-control by suppressing their thoughts or did not exert self-control while doing arithmetic. They then sampled beer. Participants expected a driving test after drinking and therefore were motivated to limit their intake. Individuals who suppressed their thoughts consumed more and achieved a higher blood alcohol content than those who did arithmetic. The groups did not differ in mood, arousal, or frustration. Individuals higher in trait temptation to drink consumed more after suppressing their thoughts relative to those lower in trait temptation. Alcohol intake may be a function of temptation to drink and self-control strength.

Unnever and Cornell (2003) investigated the influence of low self-control and Attention-Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) on bullying and bully victimization in a sample of 1,315 middle school students using a school survey. Students who reported taking medication for ADHD were at increased risk for bullying as well as victimization by bullies. The correlation between ADHD status and bullying could be explained by low self-control, a construct theorized by Gottfredson and Hirschi to be the most important determinant of criminality. In contrast, the correlation between ADHD status and bullying victimization was independent of self-control. Subsequent analyses found that self-control influenced bullying victimization through interactions with student gender and measures of physical size and strength. These findings identify low self-control and ADHD as potential risk factors for bullying and victimization and have implications for research on self-control in young adolescents.

Wills and Dishion (2004) studied that the conceptual framework linking the construct of temperament with environmental factors that covary with the onset and escalation of substance use. We propose that transactions between temperament characteristics of the child in family and peer contexts influence the development of self-control ability, a mediating factor for onset and possible transition to abuse in

later adolescence. Risk-promoting dimensions may influence the emergence of self-control by amplifying relationship processes that detract from competence development. Emergence of good self-control can serve as a resilience factor and is linked with health-promoting cognitions. We also suggest that temperament and self-control moderate links between parenting, peer associations, and substance use. Implications of the transactional model for clinical intervention and research are discussed.

Finkenauer, Engels and Baumeister (2005) investigated whether parenting behaviours are directly or indirectly (through building self-control) associated with emotional (depression, stress, low self-esteem) and behavioural (delinquency, aggression) problems among adolescents, for that they collected cross-sectional data from 1359 boys and girls aged 10-14 years. Replicating existing findings, both types of problems were directly, negatively related to adaptive parenting behaviour (high parental acceptance, strict control and monitoring, and little use of manipulative psychological control). Extending existing findings, self-control partially mediated the link between parenting behaviour and adolescent emotional and behavioural problems. Contrary to earlier suggestions, there was no sign that high self-control was associated with drawbacks or increased risk of psychosocial problems.

Gailliot, Schmeichel and Baumeister (2006) conducted nine studies and demonstrated that managing the threat of death requires self-regulation. Both trait and state self-control ability moderated the degree to which people experienced death-related thought and anxiety. Participants high (vs. low) in self-control generated fewer death-related thoughts after being primed with death, reported less death anxiety, were less likely to perceive death-related themes in ambiguous scenes, and reacted with less worldview defence when mortality was made salient. Further, coping with thoughts of death led to self-regulatory fatigue. After writing about death versus a control topic, participants performed worse on several measures of self-regulation that were irrelevant to death. These results suggest that self-regulation is a key intrapsychic mechanism for alleviating troublesome thoughts and feelings about mortality.

Trope, Fujita and Liberman (2006) found that self-control involves making decisions and behaving in a manner consistent with high-level versus low-level construals of a situation. Activation of high-level construals (which capture global, superordinate, primary features of an event) should lead to greater self-control than activation of low-level construals (which capture local, subordinate, secondary features). In 6 experiments using 3 different techniques, the authors manipulated construal levels and assessed their effects on self-control and underlying psychological processes. High-level construals led to decreased preferences for immediate over delayed outcomes, greater physical endurance, stronger intentions to exert self-control, and less positive evaluations of temptations that undermine self-control. These results support a construal-level analysis of self-control.

Stillman (2007) conducted three studies, supported the hypothesis that the psychological presence of family provides a temporary increase in self-control in three experiments. In Study 1, participants subliminally primed with the names of their family members subsequently performed better at an open-ended language task relative to participants primed with neutral words. Study 2 addressed two alternative ways of interpreting the results of Study 1. Participants in Study 2 who wrote a short essay about a family member with whom they had a good relationship demonstrated more self-control than those who wrote about a humorous episode or an enemy relationship, as measured by their performance on a simple but tedious math test. Study 3 was designed to demonstrate that self-control, rather than motivation, was affected by thoughts of the family. Participants primed with a visual cue of a family member ate fewer cookies than those not primed—when individual differences in eating restraint were controlled.

Gailliot, Baumeister and Schmeichel, (2007) found that self-control relies on glucose as a limited energy source. Laboratory tests of self-control (i.e., the Stroop task, thought suppression, emotion regulation, attention control) and of social behaviours (i.e., helping behaviour, coping with thoughts of death, stifling prejudice during an interracial interaction) showed that (a) acts of self-control reduced blood glucose levels, (b) low levels of blood glucose after an initial self-control task

predicted poor performance on a subsequent self-control task, and (c) initial acts of self-control impaired performance on subsequent self-control tasks, but consuming a glucose drink eliminated these impairments. Self-control requires a certain amount of glucose to operate unimpaired. A single act of self-control causes glucose to drop below optimal levels, thereby impairing subsequent attempts at self-control.

Piquero and Bouffard (2007) studied Gottfredson and Hirschi's general theory of crime has generated an impressive array of theoretical and empirical research. One particular area of research has concerned the definition and operationalization of self-control. Recently, Hirschi has redefined self-control as the tendency to consider the full range of potential costs of a particular act, and suggests that such inhibiting factors vary in both number and salience in how they relate to criminal activity. This study reports the results of an original data collection effort designed to measure Hirschi's redefined and reconceptualised self-control concept and compares its predictive ability to the most commonly used attitudinal measure of self-control. Results suggest that Hirschi's redefined self-control concept, and our measurement of it, is significantly and negatively associated with two types of criminal acts, and it eliminates the direct effect of a commonly used attitudinal measure of self-control. As a point of theoretical extension, we offer that self-control should be considered in a situational manner. Future theoretical and empirical directions are outlined.

Hare, Camerer and Rangel (2009) investigated that individuals make dozens of choices between an alternative with higher overall value and a more tempting but ultimately inferior option. Optimal decision-making requires self-control. They propose two hypotheses about the neurobiology of self-control: (i) Goal-directed decisions have their basis in a common value signal encoded in ventromedial prefrontal cortex (vmPFC), and (ii) exercising self-control involves the modulation of this value signal by dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC). They used functional magnetic resonance imaging to monitor brain activity while dieters engaged in real decisions about food consumption. Activity in vmPFC was correlated with goal values regardless of the amount of self-control. It incorporated both taste and health in self-

controllers but only taste in non-self-controllers. Activity in DLPFC increased when subjects exercised self-control and correlated with activity in vmPFC.

Ackerman, Goldstein, Shapiro and Bargh (2009) examined that acts of self-control may deplete an individual's self-regulatory resources and what are the consequences of perceiving other people's use of self-control. Mentally simulating the actions of others has been found to elicit psychological effects consistent with the actual performance of those actions. Here, they considered how simulating versus merely perceiving the use of willpower can affect self-control abilities. In Study1, participants who simulated the perspective of a person exercising self-control exhibited less restraint over spending on consumer products than did other participants. In Study2, participants who took the perspective of a person using self-control exerted less willpower on an unrelated lexical generation task than did participants who took the perspective of a person who did not use self-control. Conversely, participants who merely read about another person's self-control exerted more willpower than did those who read about actions not requiring self-control. These findings suggest that the actions of other people may either deplete or boost one's own self-control, depending on whether one mentally simulates those actions or merely perceives them.

Mehroof and Griffiths (2010) investigated that online gaming has steadily increased over the last decade, although relatively little research has examined the relationship between online gaming addiction and personality factors. This study examined the relationship between a number of personality traits (sensation seeking, self-control, aggression, neuroticism, state anxiety, and trait anxiety) and online gaming addiction. Data were collected over a 1-month period using an opportunity sample of 123 university students at an East Midlands university in the United Kingdom. Gamers completed all the online questionnaires. Results of a multiple linear regression indicated that five traits (neuroticism, sensation seeking, trait anxiety, state anxiety, and aggression) displayed significant associations with online gaming addiction. The study suggests that certain personality traits may be important in the

acquisition, development, and maintenance of online gaming addiction, although further research is needed to replicate the findings of the present study.

Kuhnle, Hofer and Kilian (2011) found that self-control, procrastination, motivational interference, and regret are regarded as determinants of school grades and of life balance. Dealing with tasks in the academic field and in various other life arenas is typical for adolescents. The predictors are regarded as relevant for handling multiple alternative activities. Self-control is seen as a resource associated with positive outcomes in people's lives. The other variables are seen as tightly associated with handling multiple alternative activities in goal conflicts. The sample consisted of 348 tenth graders who completed a questionnaire during regular school lessons. Results of regression analyses showed that self-control was a significant predictor of school grades and life balance, while procrastination was only related to school grades, and that motivational interference as well as regret were associated with life balance. The significance of this differential pattern for adolescents' lives is discussed.

Karim and Ghavam (2011) investigated that self-control is related to tendency academic cheating. The research regarding tendency academic cheating in Iran is not well developed, so there is an essential need to investigate the tendency towards academic cheating in universities as well as to determine the relationship between self-control, self-effectiveness and academic performance with tendency academic cheating amongst the students of a university in Iran. A randomly selected group of students (N = 286: 211 female and 75 male) participated in the survey in 2008. The survey tools consisted of academic cheating tendency scale, self-control, self-effectiveness scale and an academic performance based on average mark of the previous semester. Regression analysis revealed that there was a significant multiple correlation between predictor variables self-control, self-effectiveness and academic performance with tendency academic cheating. These predictors explained 160% standard variable variance. Self-control, self-effectiveness and academic performance also significantly explained the variance of tendency towards academic cheating. A negative correlation was found between self-control, self-effectiveness and academic achievement. Thus, in order to decrease the act of cheating amongst university

students, measures should be taken into account by selecting suitable teaching methods and learning activities, so that self-control and self-effectiveness will be promoted.

Kuhnle, Hofer and Kilian (2011) conducted a study to analyse the effects of self-control not only on school grades but also on the experience of life balance and flow. It is theorized that students with a higher level of self-control are better able to distribute their time in a satisfying way over academic and leisure matters, and are better able to shield their studying against distraction. A total of 697 eighth graders with a mean age of 13.4 years participated in the longitudinal study. Students completed a questionnaire containing measures of self-control, school grades, subjective life balance, and flow while studying at the beginning and at the end of the school year. Structural equation modelling was used to analyse the relationships between the constructs. Results of cross-lagged analyses show that self-control predicted school grades, life balance, and flow. The findings suggest that self-control may assist adolescents to be better prepared, not only for school, but also for coordinating their investments in different areas of their lives.

Zettler (2011) studied self-control affects, among individuals performance and criminal or deviant behaviour. Herein, the construct of self-control is linked to rather specific criteria in an academic context, as derived from findings in the area of organizational psychology. Specifically, it is assumed that students' self-control impacts university citizenship behaviour positively and counterproductive academic behaviour negatively. Two correlative field studies, at which one is predictive, using different questionnaires to assess self-control support both hypotheses.

Molden, Hui and Scholer (2012) investigated that self-control is critical for achievement and well-being. However, people's capacity for self-control is limited and becomes depleted through use. One prominent explanation for this depletion posits that self-control consumes energy through carbohydrate metabolization, which further suggests that ingesting carbohydrates improves self-control. Some evidence has supported this energy model, but because of its broad implications for efforts to improve self-control, we reevaluated the role of carbohydrates in self-control processes.

In four experiments, we found that (a) exerting self-control did not increase carbohydrate metabolism, as assessed with highly precise measurements of blood glucose levels under carefully standardized conditions; (b) rinsing one's mouth with, but not ingesting, carbohydrate solutions immediately bolstered self-control; and (c) carbohydrate rinsing did not increase blood glucose. These findings challenge metabolic explanations for the role of carbohydrates in self-control depletion; we therefore propose an alternative motivational model for these and other previously observed effects of carbohydrates on self-control.

Inzlicht and Schmeichel (2012) studied the process model of depletion, suggesting that exerting self-control at Time 1 causes temporary shifts in both motivation and attention that undermine self-control at Time 2. The article highlights evidence in support of this model but also highlights where evidence is lacking, thus providing a blueprint for future research. Though the process model of depletion may sacrifice the elegance of the resource metaphor, it paints a more precise picture of ego depletion and suggests several nuanced predictions for future research.

Bowlin and Baer (2012) investigated whether dispositional mindfulness (the tendency to be mindful in general daily life) accounts for variance in psychological symptoms and wellbeing after accounting for the influence of dispositional self-control (the tendency to be self-disciplined, reliable, hardworking, etc.). A large sample of undergraduate students ($N = 280$) completed self-report measures of mindfulness, self-control, psychological wellbeing, and general psychological distress (depression and anxiety, and stress). As expected, both mindfulness and self-control were positively correlated with wellbeing and negatively correlated with general distress. Mindfulness was found to account for significant variance in psychological wellbeing and general distress after accounting for self-control. In addition, mindfulness was a significant moderator of the relationship between self-control and psychological symptoms. Results show that although self-control predicts significant variance in psychological health, mindfulness predicts incremental variance, suggesting that a mindful approach to ongoing experience can contribute to mental health in persons who are highly self-disciplined and hardworking.

Casey and Caudle (2013) examined that adolescence refers to the transition from childhood to adulthood that begins with the onset of puberty and ends with successful independence from the parent. A paradox for human adolescence is why, during a time when the individual is probably faster, stronger, of higher reasoning capacity, and more resistant to disease, there is such an increase in mortality relative to childhood. This is due not to disease but, rather, to preventable forms of death (accidental fatalities, suicide, and homicide) associated with adolescents putting themselves in harm's way, in part because of diminished self-control—the ability to suppress inappropriate emotions, desires, and actions. This article highlights how self-control varies as a function of age, context, and the individual and delineates its neurobiological basis.

Wilcox and Stephen (2013) found that online social networks are used by hundreds of millions of people every day, but little is known about their effect on behaviour. In five experiments, the authors demonstrate that social network use enhances self-esteem in users who are focused on close friends while browsing their social network. This momentary increase in self-esteem reduces self-control, leading those focused on strong ties to display less self-control after browsing a social network. Additionally, the authors present evidence suggesting that greater social network use is associated with a higher body mass index and higher levels of credit card debt for individuals with strong ties to their social network. This research extends previous findings by demonstrating that social networks primarily enhance self-esteem for those focused on strong ties during social network use. Additionally, this research has implications for policy makers because self-control is an important mechanism for maintaining social order and well-being.

Casey and Caudle (2013) adolescence refers to the transition from childhood to adulthood that begins with the onset of puberty and ends with successful independence from the parent. A paradox for human adolescence is why, during a time when the individual is probably faster, stronger, of higher reasoning capacity, and more resistant to disease, there is such an increase in mortality relative to childhood. This is not due to disease but, rather, to preventable forms of death

(accidental fatalities, suicide, and homicide) associated with adolescents putting themselves in harm's way, in part because of diminished self-control—the ability to suppress inappropriate emotions, desires, and actions. This article highlights how self-control varies as a function of age, context, and the individual and delineates its neurobiological basis.

Hagbin, Shaterian, Hosseinzadh, and Griffiths (2013) conducted a study to examine the relationship between video game addiction, self-control, and academic achievement of normal and ADHD high school students. Based on previous research it was hypothesized that (i) there would be a relationship between video game addiction, self-control and academic achievement (ii) video game addiction, self-control and academic achievement would differ between male and female students, and (iii) the relationship between video game addiction, self-control and academic achievement would differ between normal students and ADHD students. Methods: The research population comprised first grade high school students of Khomeini-Shahr (a city in the central part of Iran). From this population, a sample group of 339 students participated in the study. The survey included the Game Addiction Scale, the self-control Scale and the ADHD Diagnostic checklist. In addition to questions relating to basic demographic information, students' Grade Point Average (GPA) for two terms was used for measuring their academic achievement. These hypotheses were examined using a regression analysis. Among Iranian students, the relationship between video game addiction, self-control, and academic achievement differed between male and female students. However, the relationship between video game addiction, self-control, academic achievement, and type of student was not statistically significant. Although the results cannot demonstrate a causal relationship between video game use, video game addiction, and academic achievement, they suggest that high involvement in playing video games leaves less time for engaging in academic work.

McEwan, Ginis, and Bray (2013) examined the effects of depleted self-control strength on skill-based sports task performance. Sixty-two participants completed the following: a baseline dart-tossing task (20 tosses), with measures of accuracy, reaction

time, and myoelectrical activity of the arms taken throughout; a self-control depletion (experimental) or a nondepletion (control) manipulation; and a second round of dart tossing. As hypothesized, participants in the experimental condition had poorer mean accuracy at Round 2 than control condition participants, and a significant decline in accuracy from Round 1 to Round 2. Experimental condition participants also demonstrated poorer consistency in accuracy compared with control condition participants at Round 2 and a significant deterioration in consistency from Round 1 to Round 2. In addition, consistency in reaction time improved significantly for the control group but not for the experimental group. The results of this study provide evidence that ego depletion effects occur in the performance of a skill-based sports task.

Lee, Moak and Walker, (2013) conducted a study titled “Effects of self-control, social control, and social learning on sexting behaviour among South Korean youths”. They collected data from 1,612 randomly selected youth in South Korea, this study begins the investigation into which criminological theory best explains sexting behaviours. Theories considered include self-control, social control, and social learning theories. Some variables of each of those theories were tested. Findings showed that peer pressure was the most important factor for two types of sexting behaviours (sexting own picture/video and sexting others’ picture/video), and that prior delinquency and positive attitude toward sexting were also significantly and positively related to both types of sexting behaviours. But social control was negatively related to only the second type of sexting behaviour, and self-control was not related to both types of behaviours. As sexting has only recently begun to be studied, we recommend that future research studies examine the phenomena within the framework of social learning theory.

Kuhn, (2013) tested dual-process decision-making models as predictors of between-person and within-person variation in risk-taking behaviour. Additionally, the study integrated trait perspectives on self-control and impulsivity with decision-making processes to explain risk taking. Participants were 580 college students ages 18 and older (M age = 20.45, range = 18 to 52 years). This study involved three parts.

First, participants completed a survey assessing decision-making processes, self-control, impulsivity and risk-taking behaviour. Second, a sub-set of participants completed laboratory-based measures of self-control and impulsivity. Third, participants completed a longitudinal online assessment of their risk-taking behaviour. Dual process models explained concurrent risk-taking, but only the reasoned decision-making process explained longitudinal risk-taking. The dual decision-making processes appear to operate through similar pathways, with components from each pathway exhibiting indirect effects through the other pathway. Impulsivity was linked to higher levels of risk-taking because of higher levels of behavioural intentions and willingness, whereas self-control was linked to lower levels of risk-taking because of lower levels of behavioural intentions. Between-person effects were as common as within-person effects, so future researchers are urged to consider decision-making processes averaged across forms of risk-taking and within each form of risk-taking. Altering decision-making pathways may be an effective way to intervene with individuals at high risk for engaging in risk-taking behaviour.

Watts and McNulty, (2014) found to predict a wide variety of criminal behaviours. In addition, studies have consistently shown that parenting is an important influence on both self-control and offending. However, few studies have examined the role that biological factors may play in moderating the relationship between parenting, self-control, and offending. Using a sample of adolescent males drawn from the national longitudinal study of adolescent health ($N = 3,610$), we explore whether variants of the monoamine oxidase A gene (MAOA) and the dopamine transporter (DAT1) gene interact with parenting to affect self-control and offending. Results reveal that parenting interacts with these genes to influence self-control and offending, and that the parenting-by-gene interaction effect on offending is mediated by self-control. The effects of parenting on self-control and offending are most pronounced for those who carry plasticity alleles for both MAOA and DAT1. Thus, MAOA and DAT1 may be implicated in offending because they increase the negative effects of parenting on self-control. Implications for theory are discussed.

Ronen, Hamama, Rosenbaum and Mishely-Yarlap, (2014) conducted a study focuses on adolescents' subjective well-being, and it comprised three parts. The first examined the role of two coping mechanisms, self-control and social support, in predicting subjective well-being. The second related to the role of age and gender in predicting adolescents' subjective well-being. The third raised the question of whether exposure to familial crisis would predict adolescents' subjective well-being and whether self-control and social support would moderate the link between crisis and adolescents' subjective well-being. Participants included 380 adolescents ages 13–17 years ($M = 15.32$, $SD = .98$; 194 boys, 176 girls, 10 unspecified), from six integrative junior-high and high schools in central Israel. All schools served a heterogeneous Jewish student population. Based on responses to a questionnaire identifying adolescents who reported experiencing a severe life crisis during the last year (e.g., severe illness in family, parent death or separation/divorce), the sample was divided into two groups: exposure to familial crisis ($n = 96$) and no exposure to familial crisis ($n = 284$). Outcomes revealed that both self-control and social support predicted adolescents' subjective well-being. As expected, older adolescents presented lower levels of subjective well-being than younger ones. In contrast to the hypothesis, gender did not predict subjective well-being. Although exposure to crisis did not predict higher negative affect or lower positive affect, an interaction emerged between self-control and crisis in predicting positive affect. Thus, among adolescents who experienced crisis, better self-control skills predicted higher levels of positive affect.

Moon and Alarid, (2014) conducted study, using a sample of nearly 300 youths, examined the effects of low self-control and opportunity factors on various types of bullying behaviours. Results indicated that youths with low self-control were likely to physically and psychologically bully, consistent with the theory's prediction. When opportunity measures were introduced, they were stronger explanations of bullying than low self-control, especially association with other bullies and youth who experienced disciplinary measures by their teacher. Negative school environment was a significant predictor of psychological bullying but not for physical bullying. Theoretical and policy implications are discussed.

Sullivan, Hutcherson, Harris and Rangel, (2014) proposed that self-control failures, and variation across individuals in self-control abilities, are partly due to differences in the speed with which the decision-making circuitry processes basic attributes, such as tastiness, versus more abstract attributes, such as healthfulness. They tested these hypotheses by combining a dietary-choice task with a novel form of mouse tracking that allowed us to pinpoint when different attributes were being integrated into the choice process with temporal resolution at the millisecond level. They found that, on average, tastiness was processed about 195 ms earlier than healthfulness during the choice process. They also found that 13% to 39% of observed individual differences in self-control ability could be explained by differences in the relative speed with which tastiness and healthfulness were processed.

Duckworth and Gross (2014) found that the important determinant of success is self-control the capacity to regulate attention, emotion, and behaviour in the presence of temptation. A second important determinant of success is grit—the tenacious pursuit of a dominant superordinate goal despite setbacks. Self-control and grit are strongly correlated, but not perfectly so. This means that some people with high levels of self-control capably handle temptations but do not consistently pursue a dominant goal. Likewise, some exceptional achievers are prodigiously gritty but succumb to temptations in domains other than their chosen life passion. Understanding how goals are hierarchically organized clarifies how self-control and grit are related but distinct: Self-control entails aligning actions with any valued goal despite momentarily more-alluring alternatives; grit, in contrast, entails having and working assiduously toward a single challenging superordinate goal through thick and thin, on a timescale of years or even decades. Although both self-control and grit entail aligning actions with intentions, they operate in different ways and over different timescales. This hierarchical goal framework suggests novel directions for basic and applied research on success.

Bray, Graham and Saville (2014) investigated the effects of two weeks of self-control strength training on maximum cardiovascular exercise performance. Forty-one participants completed a cognitive self-control depletion task (Stroop task) followed

by a maximal graded cycling test and were randomized to training (maximal endurance contractions of spring handgrip trainers, twice daily) or no-treatment control groups. At follow-up (2 weeks), half of each group completed either a time-matched or trial-matched Stroop task followed by another maximal graded cycling test. Results showed a significant 2-way (training X time) interaction ($P < 0.001$), and a trend for the 3-way (training X time X cognitive task) interaction ($P = 0.07$). Decomposition of the interactions revealed that across sessions cycling performance increased in both training groups, did not change in the trial-matched cognitive task control group, and declined in the time-matched control group. We conclude that isometric handgrip training leads to self-control strength adaptations that enhance maximal cardiovascular exercise performance or tolerance of exercise at maximal levels of effort.

Toering and Jordet (2015) investigated the concept of self-control in association with engagement in daily activities of professional soccer players and its relationship with soccer performance. Findings indicated that self-control scores of male professional soccer players ($N = 639$), representing the first squad of every club playing in the (Norwegian) premier and second league, were associated with their lifestyle and practice time. A small, positive relationship between self-control and soccer performance was found. In terms of expert performance, a possible explanation of our findings is that self-control helps individual stay on track on their pathways to excellence.

Błachnio and Przepiorka, (2015) conducted a study aimed to explore whether insufficient self-control and self-regulation resources in Facebook users are related to Facebook addiction. The participants in the study were 284 people. The Facebook Intrusion Questionnaire, the Brief Self-Control Scale, the Self-Regulation Scale, Action Control Scale, and the Multitasking Scale were used. We found that dysfunctional self-control system can be related to Facebook addiction. An insufficient self-control and low level of failure-related action orientation are those psychological characteristics that put Facebook users “at-risk” of Facebook addiction. The study reveals a picture showing that those Facebook users who are able to resist

an impulse or temptation, are more self-disciplined, and do not focus on negative emotions are less likely to develop Facebook addiction. The obtained findings may serve as a basis for prevention programs for people at risk of Facebook addiction.

Englert, Zwemmer, Bertrams and Oudejans (2015) investigated whether ego depletion negatively affects attention regulation under pressure in sports by assessing participants' dart throwing performance and accompanying gaze behaviour. According to the strength model of self-control, the most important aspect of self-control is attention regulation. Because higher levels of state anxiety are associated with impaired attention regulation, they chose a mixed design with ego depletion (yes vs. no) as between-subjects and anxiety level (high vs. low) as within-subjects factor. Participants performed a perceptual-motor task requiring selective attention, namely, dart throwing. In line with our expectations, depleted participants in the high-anxiety condition performed worse and displayed a shorter final fixation on bull's eye, demonstrating that when one's self-control strength is depleted, attention regulation under pressure cannot be maintained. This is the first study that directly supports the general assumption that ego depletion is a major factor in influencing attention regulation under pressure.

Job, Veronika, Friese, Bernecker, and Katherina (2015) conducted a research and suggested that regular practice can improve self-control, usually indicated by self-report measures assessed during or shortly after the practice intervention. The present study looked at objectively measured end-of-year grade point average (GPA) as the focal outcome of a self-control training intervention. Participants in the self-control training conditions squeezed a handgrip twice a day for 2 weeks. To isolate placebo effects, we manipulated expectations about the effect of the training. Compared to a no-treatment control condition, participants in both self-control training conditions earned higher GPAs, and they reported spending more hours with study-related activities 4 weeks prior to the exams. The effects were mediated by reduced study-related effort avoidance but not by increased inhibitory control or resistance to fatigue. The results indicate that practicing self-control may have long-term effects on academic performance and provide first evidence for a motivational mechanism.

Graham and Bray (2015) investigated the role of task self-efficacy as a psychological factor involved in the relationship between self-control depletion and physical endurance. Participants ($N = 37$) completed two isometric handgrip endurance trials, separated by a Stroop task, which was either congruent (control) or incongruent (causing depletion). Task self-efficacy for the second endurance trial was measured following the Stroop task. Participants in the depletion condition reported lower task self-efficacy and showed a greater reduction in performance on the second endurance trial when compared with controls. Task self-efficacy also mediated the relationship between self-control depletion and endurance performance. The results of this study provide evidence that task self-efficacy is negatively affected following self-control depletion. They recommend that task self-efficacy be further investigated as a psychological factor accounting for the negative change in self-control performance of physical endurance and sport tasks following self-control strength depletion.

Duckworth, White, Matteucci, Shearer and Gross, (2016) conducted a naturalistic investigation of self-control strategies (Study 1) and 2 field experiments (Studies 2 and 3). In Study 1, high school students described the strategies they use to manage interpersonal conflicts, get academic work done, eat healthfully, and manage other everyday self-control challenges. The majority of strategies in these self-nominated incidents as well as in 3 hypothetical academic scenarios (e.g., studying instead of texting friends) were reliably classified using the process model of self-control. As predicted by the process model, students rated strategies deployed early in the impulse-generation process (situation selection, situation modification) as being dramatically more effective than strategies deployed later (attentional deployment, cognitive change, response modulation). In Study 2, high school students randomly assigned to implement situation modification were more likely to meet their academic goals during the following week than students assigned either to implement response modulation or no strategy at all. In Study 3, college students randomly assigned to implement situation modification were also more successful in meeting their academic goals, and this effect was partially mediated by decreased feelings of temptation

throughout the week. Collectively, these findings suggest that students might benefit from learning to initiate self-control when their impulses are still nascent.

Zhu, Au and Yates, (2016) aims to report the influence of self-control and self-regulated learning on a group of tertiary students' learning outcomes in a blended learning environment. In this project, 74 second-year students who were enrolled in a blended course of ICT in Education completed a questionnaire survey on self-control and self-regulated learning skills at the beginning of the course and weekly reports about their learning experiences during the course. It was found that self-control (as a dispositional personality trait) and self-regulated learning (students' capability of using effective strategies to achieve their learning goals) would predict the participants' course outcomes that were indexed by their final grades in the course. The impact of self-control on the participants' learning outcomes was mediated through their self-regulated learning and course participation.

Paschke et al. (2016) conducted a study to test whether high self-reported self-control is related to successful emotion regulation on the behavioural and neural level. One hundred eight participants completed three self-control questionnaires and regulated their negative emotions during functional magnetic resonance imaging using reappraisal (distancing). Trait self-control correlated positively with successful emotion regulation both subjectively and neutrally, as indicated by online ratings of negative emotions and functional connectivity strength between the amygdala and prefrontal areas, respectively. This stronger overall connectivity of the left amygdala was related to more successful subjective emotion regulation. Comparing amygdala activity over time showed that high self-controllers successfully maintained down-regulation of the left amygdala over time, while low self-controllers failed to down-regulate towards the end of the experiment. This indicates that high self-controllers are better at maintaining a motivated state supporting emotion regulation over time. Our results support assumptions concerning a close relation of self-control and emotion regulation as two domains of behavioural control. The researchers further indicate that individual differences in functional connectivity between task-related brain areas directly relate to differences in trait self-control.

Honken, Raslton, and Tretter (2016) investigated the relationship between freshmen engineering students' scores on the Brief Self-Control Scale and first semester GPA. To identify the unique explanatory contribution of self-control beyond incoming academic performance differences, the effect of ACT Composite scores was statistically removed from the sample of three cohorts of freshmen engineering students (n=1295 total). The results showed the measure of self-control explained on average 4.2% of the residual variability in first semester GPA, after accounting for the variability explained by ACT scores. Based on results of this study, self-control predicted between 27%-42% as much of the variance in first semester GPA as did ACT scores, a much-used high stakes measure frequently used for decisions such as program admittance or mathematics course placement. Thus self-control is a nontrivial predictor of academic performance. Based on post hoc analysis, relevant self-control behaviours might manifest themselves in time and study management since there was a significant correlation between self-control scores and scores on the MSLQ time and study management measure. These results have implications for both how much of an impact positive self-control may have on freshmen engineering academic performance, while also offering potential avenues to support students in bolstering aspects of this personality trait through a focus on strengthening time and study management skills.

Judistira and Wijaya (2017) studied the role of self-control and self-adjustment on the academic achievement of junior high school students. There were 96 first year students of Islamic boarding school in Tasikmalaya enrolled this study, 48.96% of them were males and 51.04% females. Data were collected by using The Brief Self-Control Scale, Self-Adjustment Scale, and also the final grade of school report. Data analysis showed that both self-control and self-adjustment correlate with student academic achievement. For further analysis, multiple regression showed that only self-control could predict academic achievement. Also reported from data analysis that boys and girls are different significantly in academic achievement, self-control, and self-adjustment.

Tian, Schroeder, Häubl and Risen (2018) found that rituals are predefined sequences of actions characterized by rigidity and repetition. They proposed that enacting ritualized actions can enhance subjective feelings of self-discipline, such that rituals can be harnessed to improve behavioural self-control. They tested this hypothesis in 6 experiments. A field experiment showed that engaging in a pre-eating ritual over a 5-day period helped participants reduce calorie intake (Experiment 1). Pairing a ritual with healthy eating behaviour increased the likelihood of choosing healthy food in a subsequent decision (Experiment 2), and enacting a ritual before a food choice (i.e., without being integrated into the consumption process) promoted the choice of healthy food over unhealthy food (Experiments 3a and 3b). The positive effect of rituals on self-control held even when a set of ritualized gestures were not explicitly labelled as a ritual, and in other domains of behavioural self-control (i.e., prosocial decision-making; Experiments 4 and 5). Furthermore, Experiments 3a, 3b, 4, and 5 provided evidence for the psychological process underlying the effectiveness of rituals: heightened feelings of self-discipline. Finally, Experiment 5 showed that the absence of a self-control conflict eliminated the effect of rituals on behaviour, demonstrating that rituals affect behavioural self-control specifically because they alter responses to self-control conflicts. They concluded briefly by describing the results of a number of additional experiments examining rituals in other self-control domains. Our body of evidence suggests that rituals can have beneficial consequences for self-control.

Tangney, Boone, and Baumeister (2018) conducted a study to measure individual differences in self-control into two large investigations of a broad spectrum of behaviours. The new scale showed good internal consistency and retest reliability. Higher scores on self-control correlated with a higher grade point average, better adjustment (fewer reports of psychopathology, higher self-esteem), less binge eating and alcohol abuse, better relationships and interpersonal skills, secure attachment, and more optimal emotional responses. Tests for curvilinearity failed to indicate any drawbacks of so called over control, and the positive effects remained after controlling

for social desirability. Low self-control is thus a significant risk factor for a broad range of personal and interpersonal problems.

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Schilbach, (2019) studies alcohol consumption among low-income workers in India. In a 3-week field experiment, the majority of 229 cycle-rickshaw drivers were willing to forgo substantial monetary payments in order to set incentives for themselves to remain sober, thus exhibiting demand for commitment to sobriety. Randomly receiving sobriety incentives significantly reduced daytime drinking while leaving overall drinking unchanged. I find no evidence of higher daytime sobriety significantly changing labor supply, productivity, or earnings. In contrast, increasing sobriety raised savings by 50 percent, an effect that does not appear to be solely explained by changes in income net of alcohol expenditures.

Duckworth, Taxer, Eskreis, Galla and Gross (2019) examined that self-control refers to the alignment of thoughts, feelings, and actions with enduringly valued goals in the face of momentarily more alluring alternatives. In this review, we examine the role of self-control in academic achievement. We begin by defining self-control and distinguishing it from related constructs. Next, we summarize evidence that nearly all students experience conflict between academic goals that they value in the long run and non-academic goals that they find more gratifying in the moment. We then turn to longitudinal evidence relating self-control to academic attainment, course grades, and performance on standardized achievement tests. We use the process model of self-

control to illustrate how impulses are generated and regulated, emphasizing opportunities for students to deliberately strengthen impulses that are congruent with, and dampen impulses that are incongruent with, academic goals. Finally, we conclude with future directions for both science and practice.

C. STUDIES RELATED TO ACADEMIC ANXIETY AND SELF-CONTROL

Govindaraj and Anusudha (2014) conducted a study which focuses on parental involvement, self-control and academic anxiety among 9th standard students. The main objective of the study is to assess the parental involvement, self-control and academic anxiety of 9th standard students. The study adopted a descriptive survey method of research from 150 boys & 150 girls of students studying in Vellore district. Findings are based on the descriptive and differential analysis of data related to parental involvement, self-control and academic anxiety of 9th standard students. The findings are girl students studying in girls' schools having parental involvement, self-control and academic anxiety is more than boys.

D. SUMMARY OF LITERATURE

From the above literature review, it can be concluded that most of the studies are done in the western countries and only few studies were done in the Indian context. The studies were focused on different population. But comparatively less studies have been conducted in academic anxiety and self-control. So this research aims to fill the gap by having a study on both academic anxiety and self-control.

E. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To find out the relationship between Self-control and Academic Anxiety among school students.
- To find out the significant difference between boys and girls on self-control.

- To find out the significant difference between boys and girls on Academic anxiety.
- To find out the significant difference between students from nuclear and joint family on Self-control.
- To find out the significant mean difference between students from nuclear and joint family on Academic Anxiety.
- To find out the significant mean difference on Self-control between students attending and not attending tuitions.
- To find out the significant mean difference on Academic Anxiety between students attending and not attending tuitions
- To find out the significant difference on Self-control between students on the basis of their board of study.
- To find out the significant difference on Academic anxiety between students on the basis of their board of study.

F. HYPOTHESES

- There will be significant relationship between Self-control and Academic Anxiety among School students.
- There will be significant difference between boys and girls on Self-control
- There will be significant difference between boys and girls on Academic Anxiety
- There will be significant difference between students from nuclear and joint family on Self-control
- There will be significant difference between students from nuclear and joint family on Academic Anxiety.
- There will be significant difference on Self-control between students attending and not attending tuitions

- There will be significant difference on Academic Anxiety between students attending and not attending tuitions
- There will be significant difference on self-control between students on the basis of their board of study.
- There will be significant difference on Academic anxiety between students on the basis of their board of study.

METHOD

- A. RESEARCH DESIGN**
- B. THE PARTICIPANTS**
- C. THE VARIABLES**
- D. THE INSTRUMENTS**
- E. PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION**
- F. CONSOLIDATION OF DATA**
- G. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

Methodology is usually a guideline system for solving a problem, with specific components such as phases, tasks, methods, techniques and tools. Research methodology is considered as a systematic way to resolve the research issues. Generally, the process through which researchers proceed their work of explaining, predicting and describing is often known as research methodology. The method section is important because it provides the researcher with much need frame work and an outline of the steps to be followed and the importance of this section extends even when the research report is being prepared.

A. RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is a set of instructions provided to the investigator which enables him to gather and analyse the data in certain ways; it is therefore a control mechanism. The statistical principle that this mechanism is designed to maximize the systematic variance, to control extraneous variance systematically and to minimize error variance. The research design can be classified into four types such as explanatory, descriptive and exploratory (Neuman, 2003). Exploratory study is often utilized when there is insignificant knowledge with respect to certain occurrence. The main aim of exploratory study is to develop a better insight regarding specific aspect, to generate innovative data as well as to construct a base for future investigation (Sekaran, 2000). Initially, descriptive research starts with enhanced concept concerning to specific occurrence when compared to exploratory study. Descriptive statistics are often designed and structured to examine the characteristics depicted in research questions (Neumann, 2003). Finally, explanatory research knows the issue and has description of the issue. This method assists to determine the highlights of the complex inter relationship that exist within the issues proposed in the research questions (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

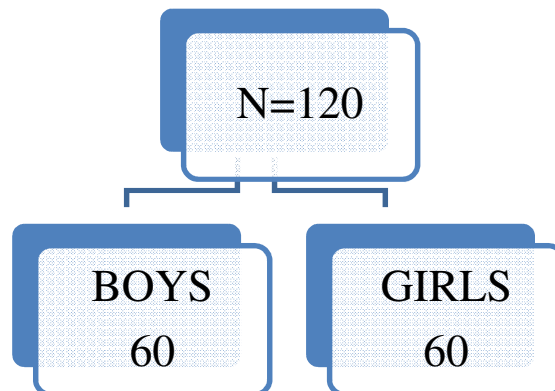
Descriptive research designs was used for this study, it helps to provide answers to the questions of who, what, when, where, and how associated with a particular research problem; a descriptive study cannot conclusively ascertain answers to why.

Descriptive research is used to obtain information concerning the current status of the phenomena and to describe "what exists" with respect to variables or conditions in a situation.

B. THE PARTICIPANTS

A sample is the representative part of the total population .Sampling means selection of individuals from the population in such a way that every individual has an equal chance of being selected into the sample population.

The sample consisted of 120 participants; the participants include both boys and girls. For the study, school students of the age group 13 to 16 were considered as sample and it was collected from various Schools in Kollam, Kerala.



Method of sampling

Sampling is a process used in statistical analysis in which a predetermined number of observations are taken from a larger population. The methodology used to sample from a larger population depends on the type of analysis being performed but may include simple random sampling or systematic sampling.

Stratified sampling method is employed to represent all groups or strata of the target population which offers accurate results and high degree of representativeness.

Stratified sampling is a type of sampling method in which the total population is divided into smaller groups or strata to complete the sampling process. The strata are formed based on some common characteristics in the population data. After dividing the population into strata's, the researcher randomly select the sample proportionally.

Inclusion criteria

- Students of age group 13 and 16 were included in the present study.
- School students who can read, write and speak either Malayalam or English fluently.
- Students who were free from any congenital, developmental or psychological illness were included.

Exclusion criteria

- All the age group except 13 to 16 were excluded from the study.
- School students who are not proficient in reading, writing and speak either Malayalam or English fluently are excluded.
- Students who having any congenital, developmental or psychological illness were excluded.

Distribution of the participants

For the purpose of performing different analyses, the participants were divided into different groups based on different criteria like Sex, religion, nature of family, board of study and whether they were attending tuitions or not. A breakdown of the sample is necessary for carrying out the analysis in a meaningful manner.

The details of the samples are given below.

1. Distribution of the participant based on sex

In the present sample, students of both the sexes were considered and the sex-wise sample representation is provided in the table below.

Table 3.1

Breakdown of the participants based on sex

Sex	No of school students	Percentage
Boys	60	50.0%
Girls	60	50.0%
Total	120	100

The table given above is the distribution of the participants segregated on the basis of sex, with 60 boys and 60 girls making up the total 120 participants of the study.

2. Distribution of the participants based on the nature of family

In the present sample, students of both the nuclear and joint families were considered and the family wise presentation is provided in the table below.

Table 3.2

Breakdown of the participants based on nature of family

Nature of family	No of students	percentage
Nuclear	91	76%
Joint	29	24%
Total	120	100.0%

The table given above indicates the distribution of the participants segregated on the basis of nature of family, with 91 nuclear family members and 29 joint family members making up the total 120 participants in the study.

3. Distribution of the participant based on them, attending tuitions

In the present sample, students who were attending tuition or not were considered and representation of the same is provided in the table below.

Table 3.3

Breakdown of the participants based on them, attending tuition

Students with and without tuition	No of students	Percentage
Tuition	103	85.83%
No tuition	17	14.17%
Total	120	100.0%

The table given above indicates distribution of the participants segregated on the basis of them attending tuition or not, and from that 103 students were attending tuition while 17 were not, thus making up the total 120 participants in the study.

4. Distribution of the participant based on religion

The study also considered religion of the participants to know if there was any link. Participant were segregated on the basis of the three major religions, Hindu, Christian, and Muslim.

Table 3.4

Breakdown of the participants based on religion

Religion	No of students	Percentage
Hindu	70	58.33%
Christian	23	19.17%
Muslim	27	22.5%
Total	120	100%

The table given above indicates the distribution of the participants segregated on the basis of religion with 70 Hindus, 23 Christians And 27 Muslims making up the total 120 participants in the study.

5. Distribution of the participant based on the board of study

The study also considered board of study of the participants to know if there was any link. Participants were segregated on the basis of ICSE, CBSE and SSLC.

Table 3.5

Breakdown of the participants based of board of study

Board of study	No of students	Percentage
ICSE	23	19.17%
CBSE	49	40.83%
SSLC	48	40%
Total	120	100%

The table given above indicates the distribution of the participants segregated on the basis of religion with 23 ICSE students, 49 CBSE students and 48 SSLC students making up the total 120 participants in the study.

C. THE VARIABLES

A variable is defined as anything that has a quantity or quality that varies. The dependent variable is the variable a researcher is interested in. An independent variable is a variable believed to affect the dependent variable.

The variables selected for the present study are:

Independent variable: Age, sex

Dependent variable: Self-control and Academic Anxiety.

D. THE MEASURES

The instruments used for the present study were the following.

1. **PERSONAL DATA SCHEDULE.**
2. **SELF-CONTROL SCALE (SCS)**
3. **ACADEMIC ANXIETY SCALE FOR CHILDREN (AASC)**

1. PERSONAL DATA SCHEDULE

A personal data schedule was used to collect the general information which are used in the present study to understand the sociodemographic details of the participants of the study. This include information regarding; age, sex, religion, nature of family, siblings, class, school (board) etc.

2. ACADEMIC ANXIETY SCALE FOR CHILDREN

Academic Anxiety Scale for children (AASC) was developed by Dr.A.K.Singh and Dr. (Km.) A.Sen Gupta. This scale has been developed for school students of class VII, IX and X (age range; 13-16 years) the preliminary form of the Academic Anxiety Scale for children has 30 items after carry out item analysis based upon Kelley technique (1939) only 20 items were retained and the remaining 10 were dropped. It consist of 20 items with two alternatives yes or no. Pearson r was 60 which was significant beyond .01 level for the split half reliability of test, it was administered on a fresh sample one hundred. Subsequently, test was splited by the odd even method. The resulting odd-even correlation coefficient was .433 ($p < .01$) which after being corrected for full length, became 0.65. The value of correlation coefficientis 0.41 and 0.57. On the basic of obtained correlation coefficients it can be said that academic anxiety scale for children (AASC) is a valid test.

3. SELF-CONTROL SCALE

Self-Control Scale (SCS) was developed by Arun Kumar Singh and Alpana Sen Gupta. This contains 30 items categorized into 3 dimensions namely; Self-Regulation, Freedom from Impulsivity, Freedom from Self-Centeredness. The purpose of split-half reliability which by odd even method, was found to be .92 significant at .01 level. The scale of assessing self-control (SCS) has satisfactorily concurrent validity.

E. PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION

The participants of the study were school students, and they were met in their respective educational institutions after obtaining the consent of the authorities concerned. The total population of the study is 120, among that 60 were boys and 60 were girls from different schools of Kollam district. Rapport was established and it helps to make the participants comfortable and co-operative to the study.

The scales were introduced one by one and the method of making the responses were carefully explained through the instructions provided in the beginning of each scale, a few general instructions were provided in prior to conduction, like the need for being honest in the response as there were no right or wrong answers, to be spontaneous and ensure that every item has been answered.

The confidentiality of the response was assured, putting the participants at ease even more further, and was also communicated not to discuss their opinions or responses while responding. Upon completion, the forms received were checked for possible items left unmarked, and the data was consolidated.

F. CONSOLIDATION OF DATA

The data collected from the participants were scored systematically. Scoring was done conveniently and each statement was scored with a "YES" or "NO". The relevant data obtained from the participants were consolidated in a coding sheet.

Personal information like that of school/tuition, age, sex, religion, area, nature of family, siblings, class were included, and the scores of the variables were also entered. After completion of scoring, the data were organized and tabulated for further analysis and interpretation.

G. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The following Statistical techniques are employed for analysing the data. They include:

- 1. Correlation Analysis**
- 2. t' test**
- 3. ANOVA**

CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Correlation analysis is a method of statistical evaluation used to study the strength of a relationship between two, numerically measured, continuous variables (e.g. height and weight). This particular type of analysis is useful when a researcher wants to establish if there are possible connections between variables. It is often misunderstood that correlation analysis determines cause and effect; however, this is not the case because other variables that are not present in the research may have impacted the results.

If correlation is found between two variables it means that when there is a systematic change in one variable, there is also a systematic change in the other; the variables alter together over a certain period of time. If there is correlation found, depending upon the numerical values measured, this can be either positive or negative.

- Positive correlation exists if one variable increases simultaneously with the other, i.e. the high numerical values of one variable relate to the high numerical values of the other.

- Negative correlation exists if one variable decreases when the other increases, i.e. the high numerical values of one variable relate to the low numerical values of the other.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is a parametric statistical technique used to compare datasets. This technique was invented by R.A. Fisher, and is thus often referred to as Fisher's ANOVA, as well. It is similar in application to techniques such as t-test and z-test, in that it is used to compare means and the relative variance between them. However, analysis of variance (ANOVA) is best applied where more than 2 populations or samples are meant to be compared.

One way analysis:

When we are comparing more than three groups based on one factor variable, then it said to be one way analysis of variance (ANOVA). For example, if we want to compare whether or not the mean output of three workers is the same based on the working hours of the three workers.

't' Test

The t-test or test of significance is the difference between means of large independent samples is used to compare the means between any two groups or any of the variables (Garrett, 1969). In other words, the independent samplet-test is used to test the null hypothesis that the means of two populations are the same (Landau &Everitt, 2004). This test, also commonly referred to as the Independent t-test, Student t-test, Unpaired t-test or the Independent Two-sample t-test, uses the independent or grouping variable to compare the mean difference of the Dependent variable, or test variable. If the obtained t-value exceeds the critical value (depending on the degrees of freedom), then the difference between the two groups will be statistically significant.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. CORRELATION

B. ANALYSIS USING 't' TEST

C. ANALYSIS USING ONE WAY ANOVA

SECTION: I

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION OF CORRELATION

Correlation analysis is a method of statistical evaluation used to study the strength of a relationship between two, numerically measured, continuous variables. This particular type of analysis is useful when a researcher wants to establish if there are possible connections between variables. It is often misunderstood that correlation analysis determines cause and effect; however, this is not the case because other variables that are not present in the research may have impacted on the results.

If correlation is found between two variables it means that when there is a systematic change in one variable, there is also a systematic change in the other; the variables alter together over a certain period of time. If there is correlation found, depending upon the numerical values measured, this can be either positive or negative.

- Positive correlation exists if one variable increases simultaneously with the other, i.e. the high numerical values of one variable relate to the high numerical values of the other.
- Negative correlation exists if one variable decreases when the other increases, i.e. the high numerical values of one variable relate to the low numerical values of the other.

Relationship between Self-control and Academic anxiety.

Pearson product moment coefficient correlation was used to find out the relationship existing between self-confidence and social competence among the sample collected. It is presented in table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Correlation to compare the relationship between self-control and academic anxiety

Sl.no		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Self-regulation	()	0.02	0.17	0.59**	0.12
2.	Freedom of impulsivity	--	()	0.12	0.63**	-0.22*
3.	Freedom of self-centeredness	--	--	()	0.67**	-0.27**
4.	Self-control	--	--	--	()	-0.20*
5	Academic Anxiety	--	--	--	--	()

**Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*Correlation is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results of the correlation analyses given in the Table 4.1 indicate that out of 10 correlation, 7 were positive and 3 were negative in their valence. Out of those correlations 4 were significant at 0.01 and 2 were significant at 0.05 levels; and the remaining 4 were found to be not significant.

The table (4.1) shows that the main variable of Self-control is positively correlated with the sub dimensions of self-regulation (0.59**), freedom of impulsivity (0.63**) and freedom of self-centeredness (0.67**). The correlations were significant at 0.01 levels.

The variables of Self-Control and Academic Anxiety were negatively correlated and found to be significant ($r = -0.20^*$) at 0.05 levels. It means that person with increased Academic Anxiety will portray a decreased level of Self-control and vice versa.

There were many researches have been done in the area of self-control and academic anxiety and it is found that Self-control can help a person to achieve their long term goals, because their self-control would help them to stay focused on the task at hand and keep away from temptations. But those who lacks Self-control may have high Academic anxiety.

The correlation between the main variable self-control has significant positive correlation with its sub-dimension, self-regulation ($r=0.59^{**}$) at 0.01 level. The positive correlation indicates that when self-control increases self-regulation also increases. As self-regulation is a sub dimension of self-control, the terms of self-control and self-regulation are used interchangeably, but those who make a distinction typically consider self-control to be the deliberate, conscious, effortful subset of self-regulation. The reason for the same may be that those who are high on self-regulation or the capacity to regulate their activities to a higher degree will have a greater control over their tasks.

Self - control is positively correlated with its sub dimension, freedom of impulsivity with an r value of 0.63^{**} significant at 0.01 level. It means that there exists a relationship between Self-control and freedom of impulsivity, according to which when Self-control increases the freedom of impulsivity also increases. Less studies have been conducted with these two variables.

The correlation between the main variable of Self-control and sub dimension of freedom of self-centeredness was found to be positive ($r=0.67^{**}$) and significant at 0.01 level. This indicate that there exist a relationship between self-control and freedom of self-centeredness, from this we can infer that when there is an increase in self-control there will also be an increase in self-centeredness.

The result of relationship between Academic Anxiety is positively correlated with the sub dimension of Self-control (self-regulations) is ($r=0.12$). This indicate that there is no relationship between Academic Anxiety and self-regulation.

The variable Academic anxiety was found to be negatively correlated with freedom of impulsivity, a sub dimension of Self-control ($r= -0.22^*$) at 0.05 level,

indicating a relationship that moves in the opposite direction; like where in academic anxiety increases freedom of impulsivity decreases.

Academic anxiety and freedom of self-centeredness were found to be negatively correlated ($r = -0.27^{**}$) and significant at 0.01 level, indicating that there is a relationship between them; a relationship wherein academic anxiety increases self-centeredness decreases.

Section II

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION OF 't' TEST

The t-test or test of significance is the difference between means of large independent variable is used to compare the means between any two groups or any of the variables. In the present study, t-test was used to compare the groups formed on the basis of sex, nature of family and whether they are attending tuitions or not.

Comparison of boys and girls on their Self-control and Academic Anxiety

The total sample consist of 120 participants with 60 boys constituting 50% of the whole and 60 girls constituting the remaining 50%. Independent sample t test was done in order to find out whether there exists any significant difference boys and girls on their self-control and academic anxiety. The result of the same are provided in the Table 4.2 and 4.3 respectively.

Table 4.2

t test to compare the mean difference between Boys and Girls on Self-control

Sl.no	Variable	Male		Female		t value
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1.	Self-control	18.15	3.39	16.85	2.98	2.23*

*Significant at 0.05 level

The result given in the table (4.2) indicate that there exists a significant difference between boys and girls on self-control. The t value (2.23) was found to be significant at 0.05 levels. The mean score obtained for self-control by boys was 18.15 while 16.85 was the score that the girls obtained, with corresponding deviations of 3.39 and 2.98 respectively. This indicate that there exists a sex wise difference in self-control.

Self-control is an area with ample amount of research happening, and a study that was conducted by Govindaraj and Anusudha (2014) has also provided evidence along the same grounds. In their study it was seen that the girl students studying in Girls schools were having better self-control than boys. Thus the hypothesis “There will be significant difference between boys and girls on Self-control” stand accepted.

Table 4.3

t test to compare the mean difference between Boys and Girls on Academic Anxiety

Sl.no	Variable	Male		Female		t value
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1.	Academic anxiety	11.02	2.89	10.5	2.68	1.01

The result given in the table indicate that there doesn't exist any significant difference between boys and girls on academic anxiety. The score obtained by the boys and girls students are indicated in the table 4.3. The t value was (1.01) found to be not significant at 0.05 levels. The mean score obtained for self-control by boys was 11.02 while 10.5 was the score that the girls obtained, with corresponding deviations of 2.89 and 2.68 respectively. The study showed no significant difference on academic anxiety between boys and girls.

Academic anxiety is an area where many researches have been done. Banga (2015) conducted a study on academic anxiety of secondary school students in relation to their type of family and social category. The researcher after completing the study was of the opinion that no difference could be found in academic anxiety; just like that of the current study. Thus, the hypothesis which states "There will be significant difference between boys and girls on Academic Anxiety" is not accepted.

Comparison based on the nature of family on Self-control and Academic Anxiety

The total sample consist of 120 participants 91 being members of nuclear family (75.8%) while 29 were from joint family contributing to 24.1% of the whole. Independent sample t test was done in order to find out whether there exists any

significant difference between nature of family constitution on self-control and academic anxiety. The result of the same are provided in table 4.4 and 4.5 respectively.

Table 4.4

t test to compare the mean difference between nuclear and joint family members on self-control

Sl.no	Variable	Nuclear		Joint		t value
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1.	self-control	17.60	3.19	17.17	3.46	0.62

Statistically significant difference was not observed to exist between the members of nuclear and joint family in their mean scores for self-control, as indicated in Table 4.4. The t value was (0.62) found to be not significant. The mean score obtained by the members of nuclear family was 17.60 and 17.17 for joint family, with corresponding deviations of 3.19 and 3.46 respectively. The findings indicated no family wise differences between the members on self-control.

When this scenario is explored the nature of family, as to whether joint or nuclear has no influence on the participants' self-control. The reason for this may be that they would have slowly segregated themselves from their family and give more importance to regulate and alter responses in order to avoid undesirable behaviours, increase desirable ones, and achieve long-term goals. Thus the hypothesis "There will be significant difference between students from nuclear and joint family on Self-control" stand rejected.

Table 4.5

t test to compare the mean difference between nuclear and joint family members on Academic Anxiety

Sl.no	Variable	Male		Female		t value
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1.	Academic Anxiety	10.89	2.90	10.35	2.39	.916

Statistically significant difference was not observed to exist between the members of nuclear and joint family in their mean scores for academic anxiety, as indicated in table 4.5. The test value was ($t=.916$) find to be not significant. The mean score obtained by the nuclear family was 10.89 and 10.35 with corresponding deviations of 2.90 and 2.39 respectively. The findings indicated no family wise difference between the members on academic anxiety.

When this scenario is explored the nature of family, as to whether joint or nuclear has no influence on the participants' academic anxiety. The reason for this may be that they would have slowly segregated themselves from their family because of the influence of academic activities and their academics. Thus the hypothesis "There will be significant difference between students from nuclear and joint family on Academic Anxiety" is not accepted.

Comparison based on the tuition going status on Self-control and Academic Anxiety

The total sample consist of 120 participants, where 103 of 120 were found to be attending tuition (85%) while 17 were not attending tuition which constituted to 24.1% of the whole. Independent sample t test was done in order to find out whether

there exist any significant difference between students with tuition or not on self-control and academic anxiety. The result of the same are provided table 4.6 and 4.7

Table 4.6

t test to compare the mean difference between students attending tuition or not onSelf-control

Sl.no	Variable	Tuition		No tuition		t value
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1.	Self-control	17.26	3.32	18.94	2.36	-1.99

Statistically significant difference was not observed to exist between the students who attending tuition and not in their mean scores for self-control, as indicated in Table 4.6. The t value was (-1.99) found to be not significant. The mean score obtained by the students who attending tuition was 17.26 and 18.94 for those who are not attending tuition, with corresponding deviations of 3.32 and 2.36 respectively. The findings indicated no tuition wise differences between the boys and girls on self-control. Thus the hypothesis “There will be significant difference on Self-control between students attending and not attending tuitions” is not accepted.

Table 4.7

t test to compare the mean difference between students attending tuition or not on Academic Anxiety

Sl.no	Variable	Tuition		No tuition		t value
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1.	Academic Anxiety	10.81	2.84	10.41	2.50	.551

Statistically significant difference was not observed to exist between the students who attended tuition and not, in their mean scores for academic anxiety, as indicated in Table 4.7. The t value was (.551) found to be not significant. The mean score obtained by the students who attend tuition was 10.81 and 10.41 for those who are not attending tuition, with corresponding deviations of 2.84 and 2.50 respectively. The findings indicated no tuition wise differences between the boys and girls on self-control. Thus the hypothesis “There will be significant difference on Academic Anxiety between students attending and not attending tuitions” is not accepted.

SECTION I II

Results and discussion of One-Way ANOVA

One-way ANOVA was used to compare the different groups of Self-control and Academic Anxiety based on board of study and religion. One-way ANOVA tests the significance of difference between two groups, categorized on the basis of a particular variable, for the different study variables.

The details of the same are provided below:

Table 4.8

Results of ANOVA for the group of participants categorized on the basis of board of study for study variable

Sl.no	Variable	Sum of squares		Mean sum of squares		F ratio
		Between	Within	Between	Within	
1.	Self-control	63.46	1192.54	31.73	10.19	3.11*
2.	Academic Anxiety	10.10	915.89	5.051	7.89	.645

The results of one-way ANOVA, is presented in the Table 4.8. From the table it can be seen that the study variables, when compared across the three groups varying in their relative board of study showed significant difference for the self-control dimension, and no significant difference for the academic anxiety. From the table it can be seen that the F ratio (3.11) obtained for self-control is significant at 0.05 level while academic anxiety (F ratio – 0.64) of the participants’ showed no significant differences across the different boards of study. Based on the results provided in the table (4.6). It can be seen that the hypotheses which states that “There will be significant difference on self-control between students on the basis of their board of study.” is accepted; while, the hypothesis stating “There will be significant difference on Academic anxiety between students on the basis of their board of study.” is not accepted. Though the F ratio of 3.11 is significant, it is not sufficient to state with specificity as to which board of study has comparatively greater levels of Self-control and to serve this purpose a post hoc test was used.

Table 4.9

Duncan test results for Self-control of the students across the different boards of study

Sl.no	BOARD	N	Mean	1	2	3
1	ICSE	23	16.26	()	--	*
2	CBSE	49	17.35		()	--
3	SSLC	48	18.25			()

The first group with the students from the ICSE board (mean score – 16.26) of study show a significant difference in the mean score that was obtained in comparison with the score that was obtained by the students from the SSLC board (mean score – 18.25). These two groups were not found to be differing significantly from that of the students from the CBSE stream, with a mean score of 17.35 for the self-control dimension. The findings as is observed indicate that the students from ICSE show a lesser level of self-control in comparison to that of the SSLC students and this may be owing to the fact that they have a comparatively bigger workload.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

A. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

B. VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

C. PARTICIPANTS

D. MEASURES USED FOR THE STUDY

E. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED

F. RE-STATEMENT AND TENABILITY OF THE HYPOTHESES

G. MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

H. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

I. SUGGESTIONS AND LIMITATIONS

A. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The aim of the study is to determine whether there exists any relationship between Self-control upon the students' academic anxiety. Self-control is the ability to subdue one's impulses, emotions and behaviours in order to achieve long term goals and anxiety is body's way of telling us that there is something in the environment that is in need of attention. Those who lack self-control may have high academic anxiety. This may affect their academic performances. The study aimed at understanding the relationship between the variables and is thus entitled

“Self-Control and Academic Anxiety among School Students.”

B. VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

The variable of prime importance in the study is Self-control and Academic Anxiety. Many studies have been conducted to evaluate these variables separately, but relatively fewer studies have been conducted focusing on these variables together. Several important demographic variables like age, sex, nature of family, board of study etc. were also studied. For the purpose of different analysis, the participants were divided into different groups based on different criteria like sex, nature of study, religion, board of study, whether the student is attending tuition or not etc.

C. PARTICIPANTS

The participants consisted of 120 students belonging to different schools in Kollam district. Among them, 60 were boys and 60 were girls. With regard to the age of the participants', those who were school going came under the focus of the study, chiefly between the ages of 13 to 16.

D. MEASURES USED FOR THE STUDY

The measures used for the present study were the following:

1. PERSONAL DATA SCHEDULE.
2. SELF-CONTROL SCALE (SCS)
3. ACADEMIC ANXIETY SCALE FOR CHILDREN (AASC)

E. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED

The following Statistical techniques are employed for analysing the data. They include:

1. Correlation Analysis
2. t' test
3. One-way ANOVA

F. RE-STATEMENT AND TENABILITY OF HYPOTHESES

1. There will be significant relationship between Self-control and Academic Anxiety among School students.

Analysis was using Pearson product moment correlation of coefficient and the result obtained indicate that there exists a negative correlation between Self-control and Academic Anxiety among school students. The hypothesis is accepted and is hence restated as;

“There is significant relationship between Self-control and Academic Anxiety among School students.”

2. There will be significant difference between boys and girls on Self-control.

Analysis was done using independent‘t’ test and the result obtained indicate that there is a significant difference between boys and girls on Self-control. Thus the hypothesis stands accepted and is restated as;

“There is significant difference between boys and girls on Self-control.”

3. There will be significant difference between boys and girls on Academic anxiety.

Analysis was done using independent ‘t’ test and the result obtained indicate that there exists no significant difference between boys and girls on Academic anxiety. The hypothesis is not accepted and is thus restated as;

“There is no significant difference between boys and girls on Academic anxiety.”

4. There will be significant difference between students from nuclear and joint family on Self-control.

Analysis was done using independent ‘t’ test and the result obtained indicate that there is no significant difference between participants on Self-control irrespective of the nature of family they hail from. The the hypothesis is not accepted and is restated as;

“There is no significant difference between students from nuclear and joint family on self-control.”

5. There will be significant difference between students from nuclear and joint family on Academic Anxiety.

Analysis was done using independent ‘t’ test and the result obtained indicate that there is no significant difference between participants on Academic anxiety based on their nature of family. Therefore, the hypothesis is not accepted and is restated as;

“There is no significant difference between students from nuclear and joint family on Academic Anxiety.”

6. There will be significant difference on Self-control between students attending and not attending tuitions.

Analysis was done using independent ‘t’ test and the results obtained indicate that there is no significant difference between the Self-control scores of students in respect of them attending tuition or not. Thus, the hypothesis is not accepted and is restated as;

“There is no significant difference on Self-control between students attending and not attending tuitions.”

7. There will be significant difference on Academic Anxiety between students attending and not attending tuitions

Analysis was done using independent ‘t’ test and the result obtained indicate that there is no significant difference between students on their Academic anxiety levels irrespective of the fact they have tuitions or not. Thus, the hypothesis is not accepted and is restated as;

“There is no significant difference on Academic Anxiety between students attending and not attending tuitions.”

8. There will be significant difference on self-control between students on the basis of their board of study.

Analysis was done using one-way ANOVA and the result obtained indicate that there is significant difference on Self-control levels between students on the

basis of their board of study. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is restated as;

“There is significant difference on self-control between students on the basis of their board of study”

9. There will be significant difference on Academic anxiety between students on the basis of their board of study.

Analysis was done using one-way ANOVA and the result obtained indicate that there is no significant difference on Academic Anxiety between students on the basis of their board of study. Thus, the hypothesis stands not accepted, and is restated as;

“There is no significant difference on Academic anxiety between students on the basis of their board of study.”

G. MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

1. There is inverse relationship between the Self-control and Academic Anxiety of School students.
2. An increase in self-control of a school student was found to correlate with a decreased level of academic anxiety.
3. The study found that there is sex-wise difference in Self-control among school students.
4. Boy students were found to have higher levels of self-control than girl students.
5. No difference was observed between boys and girls on their levels of academic anxiety.
6. Self-control and Academic anxiety was not found to differ irrespective of their family being nuclear or joint.
7. There is no difference in Self-control levels between students in respect to them having or not having tuitions.

8. There is no difference in Academic anxiety between students in respect to them having or not having tuitions.
9. There is significant difference on self-control among students on the basis of their board of study.
10. Students from the SSLC board of study were found to have higher levels of self-control than students from the other boards of study.

H. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

As students enter school, they are introduced to a new horizons. There are individual difference in almost all the areas of human life and the same can be observed in the case of Self-control. Academic anxiety is most commonly seen among students who deal with academics.

The major focus point of this study is Self-control and Academic Anxiety among school students. Both are influential in students' performance and success. Anxiety is a normal reaction to certain situations or some extent anxiety is adaptive. A small level of anxiety prepares people for facing future threats and problems. But, severe anxiety become a serious problem. It will negatively affect students' performance. Teaching student's self-regulation can reduce anxiety and increase academic performance (Ader&Erktin, 2010).

This study helps the teachers and parents to identify the student's self-control and how it is influence on academic anxiety. Self-control relates lower anxiety and depression. According to Angele Duckworth and Martin Seligman (2005) if a student want to get better grades they need to stop trying to stop boost their IQ. The success depends on how hard he/she work and how much persist in the face of failure and how well overcome temptation.

This study is an important contribution in the field of psychology and the study will also help the development of the filed. It also give a chance to researchers for more advanced studies.

I. LIMITATIONS

The short comings of the study are listed below

- The present study utilized a survey method for data collection rather than an experimental setting wherein each and every dimensions can be varied and accounted for
- The participants included were limited to School students.
- The study covered school students within Kollam district only. So the research findings may not be strong enough to be generalized to everyone.
- The sample size was small, limited to only 120 students.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- For future study it is recommended to include participants from all the walks of life.
- It is recommended to increase the sample size.
- Different demographic variables like mother's education, father's education, socioeconomic status etc. can be included for future study.
- The scales can also be standardized for population other than school students.
- An in-depth study of this topic can also be conducted.

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APPENDICES

APPENDICES

- **APPENDICES A: DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS**
- **APPENDICES B: SELF-CONTROL SCALE**
- **APPENDICES C: ACADEMIC ANXIETY SCALE FOR CHILDREN**

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS

Please provide the following information:

Name:		
Age:	Sex: Male/Female	Religion:
Area: Urban/Rural	Nature of Family: Nuclear/Joint	Siblings:
Class:	Board of Study:	Tuition: Yes/No

INSTRUCTIONS

Following are some of the statements that are related to your personality. Please read it carefully and tick either of the cells given below 'YES' or 'NO' answer. As there is no right or wrong statement, please feel free to respond on all items without hesitation. If you have any doubt, please ask. Don't consult your friends. Your answer and obtained score will always be kept confidential.

Sl. no	STATEMENTS	YES	NO
1	Do you study regularly in the morning and evening?		
2	Do you maintain patience in bad days when came suddenly?		
3	Do you do your works accurately and regularly?		
4	If you wants to do a dangerous work and if your parents asked you not to do so, do you agree with them?		
5	Do you maintain your study at your own effort?		
6	Do you take your parents advice when you want to do any work and whatever they say you do it accordingly?		
7	Do you give more importance to play than study?		
8	If you start any work in school are you able to finish it without anyones help?		
9	Do you give more importance to your friends opinion?		
10	Do you fully obey discipliness in your class?		
11	If anyone tell you something in badtaste do you immediately get out of control?		
12	Do you start weeping when monitor rebukes in class?		
13	Dou you feel nervous after seeing accedent on the road?		
14	Does your face go dry if the principal calls you in his chamber?		
15	Do you lose your balance if severly beaten by your parents?		

16	Do you start weeping after siblings quarel?		
17	Do you have a disturbed sleep when examination comes at hand?		
18	Do you go on weeping and weeping after after being scolded by parents?		
19	Do you easily agree with anyones opinion?		
20	Do you feel enthusiastic after listening to a leaders speech?		
21	Do you feel angry if your teacher gives more attention to your friend's ideas?		
22	Do you provide help to your poor friend by lending him a book?		
23	Do you try to have your maximum share in sweets brought to the home?		
24	Do you desire to have comparatively more costly clothes from your parents at the time of festivals?		
25	Do you give your clothes to the poor who are bearing from clothes?		
26	Do you take the best from among something brought to home?		
27	Do you give money to your poor friend during his illness?		
28	Do you gladly accept if your teacher gives more affection and love to your friend?		
29	Do you not feel sorry when your preferred cake meant for you is eaten by your siblings?		
30	Do you become nervous to the extent that you remain unable to answer the questions asked by your teacher during examination?		

Sl. no	STATEMENTS	YES	NO
1	When I am called by the principal of the school, I feel very nervous.		
2	I am occupied with mental tension as examination time comes nearer.		
3	When Class-teacher suddenly asks me to come in the staff-room I feel very much afraid.		
4	If I am late, I have no hesitation in going to the class.		
5	As a teacher of mathematics enters, I feel that I don't know anything and I have forgotten everything.		
6	Suddenly, if I have to go to the office of the school due to some work I feel afraid.		
7	If there is a conversation between parents and teachers then I feel anxious as to what they are be talking about me.		
8	I always think about my good results.		
9	Even if I haven't done my homework, I don't feel afraid to go to the class room.		
10	If I obtain low marks in any subjects, I feel ashamed to disclose or show it to my friends and members of the family.		
11	If Class-teacher ask any question after, being stood up, I feel afraid.		
12	If English teacher asks me suddenly in the class, I feel nervous.		
13	If it comes to my knowledge that any student or friend of mine is likely to be severely punished due to indiscipline, I become very much tense.		
14	During examination I often dream that I am unable to remember anything after getting question paper.		
15	While teaching in the class teacher comes and stands before be, I become conscious.		
16	While talking to the Principal, I don't feel any nervousness.		
17	Sometime before commencement of examination if I am unable to go to school, I become worried.		
18	I never sit on the first bench in class.		
19	When the examination will be commencing such curiously always persist in me.		
20	Study of Mathematics become the cause of my mental tension because I feel it is too much difficult.		

**PERCEIVED LONELINESS AND MOBILE PHONE
ADDICTION AMONG COLLEGE
STUDENTS**

*Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment for the requirement of
Masters of Science in Psychology*

RINTU.R

Candidate Code: P1716008



**FATIMA MATA NATIONAL COLLEGE (AUTONOMOUS),
KOLLAM**

(Affiliated to the University of Kerala)

2019

Perceived Loneliness and Mobile Phone Addiction among College Students

Abstract

The aim of this study was to examine Perceived loneliness and mobile phone addiction among college students. College students were the target population of the study and it was conducted on a sample of 120 college students belonging to the age group 18 to 22, studying in various colleges in the district of Kollam. Information about selected demographic variables such as age, sex, education and stream of study was also collected. The measures used for the present investigation was Perceived Loneliness Scale devised By Dr. Praveen Kumar Jha; and the Mobile Phone Addiction Scale devised By Dr. A. Velayudhan and Dr. S. Srividya. The data obtained were subjected to further analysis. Statistical tools like Correlation and t-test were used. The major finding of the study is that there exists significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and perceived loneliness of college students.

KEYWORDS: Perceived Loneliness, Mobile Phone Addiction, Education level, Stream of study

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INTRODUCTION

A. PERCEIVED LONELINESS

B. MOBILE PHONE ADDICTION

C. NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

D. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

E. VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

F. OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF KEYTERMS

Loneliness is the distressing experience that occurs when a person's social relationships are perceived by that person to be less in quantity, and especially in quality, than desired. Loneliness is one of the most common feelings that individuals could experience in their lives. Loneliness is a negative emotion that comes about through a discrepancy between desired and achieved levels of social contact (Perlman & Peplau, 1981). When studies are analysed on loneliness, it is seen that loneliness is associated with some variables. Loneliness is related to the variables of depression stress, internet addiction, shyness, self esteem, hopelessness. In recent years, the other variable which has studied together with loneliness is mobile phone addiction.

The world that we live in today is a world full of technological marvels. Everywhere we look and every aspect of our lives has been influenced and moulded by the plethora of gadgets and applications that have come up at an astounding pace to overwhelm and overhaul the economic, political, social and psychological fabric of our everyday lives. There is hardly an aspect of our lives and environment that technology has not touched and transformed. It is there in almost everything that we do in our daily life, the way we work and how we communicate with each other. For many of us it would be unfathomable to function without the conveniences that technology has brought about into our everyday lives. It is observed that the youth especially the college going students are the predominant users of mobile phones. They are usually the ones who are always curious and inquisitive about the latest developments in communication technology. They try to find out the different applications and features of a new technical invention. College students are at that age where they feel that they need to keep in touch with their friends every second, every minute and every hour. They want to know about the latest happening in their friends' life as well as share theirs. Mobile phones allow for easy, fast and convenient way to keep in touch with their friends and family. It enables them to keep in touch with their family and friends anywhere and anytime of the day.

Good effects of technology are providing such convenient daily life towards human beings. However, it also gives the people and society bad effects such as

technology addiction. Smartphone addiction is one of the severe technology addictions which had become serious problems these days especially to teenage (Park, Hyun, Kim, & Lee, 2014). Smartphone addiction drives people to check their smart phone frequently and compulsively, no matter what situations for example meetings, walking or even during eating (Davis, 2012). Smartphone addiction can be defined as a state of being locked up to smart phone and its facility (Davis, 2012). Smartphone addiction is closely related to internet addiction (Kwon, Kim, Hyun, & Yang, 2013). Internet and mobile phone addicts both have an unhealthy lifestyle and similar personalities (Chiu, Hong, & Chiu, 2013). Wang, Lee, and Chang (2003)'s finding shows that the degree of internet addiction has significant relationship with loneliness. Besides, study of Engelberg and Sjöberg (2004) found that internet usage is significant related to loneliness

There are some symptoms that will be showed by people who have smart phone addiction. Earlier studies of smart phone addiction shows three different characteristics of mobile phone addiction (Roos, 2001). The first one is people who are addicted to smart phone will make sure their smart phone always on. The second characteristic is tend to use Smart phones even their home have house telephone while the last characteristic is faced with financial and social problems due to their over usage of smart phone (Roos, 2001).

People with Smart phone addiction may experience maladaptive behavioural difficulties such as impulse control disorders in general or pathological gambling. It can also harm the physical health of users which included vision become blurring and pain at some body part such as wrist and neck (Mok et al., 2014). Findings of Van den Bulck (2003) had suggested that excessive use of mobile phones can cause disturbance in sleeping patterns of adolescent. Smartphone addiction also cause reduces in physical activity such as walking. It have adverse health consequences by increase fat mass of smart phone addicts people.

Loneliness also found to be significant link with smart phone addiction. As ones scored higher in loneliness, ones have higher chance to be smart phone addicts. This relationship shows clear implication for treatment and intervention. The attitude and

behaviour of participants can be much Different between individualistic and collectivistic cultures (Schultz, 2002). There are differences in the attitudes of participants even within countries (Schultz, 2002). According to Baron and Segerstad (2009), cultural differences between countries may form difference mobile phone activity. However, even when countries shared similar culture, it also report significant differences in mobile phone performance. As a result, it is important to examine the relationship of loneliness and smart phone addictions that are in Malaysia as Malaysia have different culture with other countries.

A. PERCEIVED LONELINESS

According to Lopata (1969), loneliness is an emotion experienced by an individual who wishes for a level of contact unlike from the one currently encountered. The multiplicity of social relations does not matter but the quality of them is important. However, having more social relations may not always derive individuals a profit in social life. According to Masi, Chen, Hawkley, and Cacioppo (2011), an individual may be lonely in a crowd or socially contented while alone.

The experience of loneliness is highly subjective; an individual can be alone without feeling lonely and can feel lonely even when with other people. Psychologists generally consider loneliness to be a stable trait, meaning that individuals have different set-points for feeling loneliness, and they fluctuate around these set-points depending on the circumstances in their lives. Individuals' levels of loneliness typically remain more or less constant during adulthood until 75 to 80 years of age, when they increase somewhat. Prolonged loneliness is associated with depression, poor social support, neuroticism, and introversion. Studies have shown that loneliness puts people at risk for physical disease and that it may contribute to a shortened life span.

To be lonely is an easy thing, being alone is another matter entirely. To understand this, first one must understand the difference between loneliness and being alone. Loneliness can happen anytime, anywhere. You can be lonely in a crowd, lonely

with friends, lonely with family. You can even be lonely while with loved ones. For feeling lonely, is in essence a feeling of being alone. As though you were one and you feel as though you will always be that way. Loneliness can be one of the most destructive feelings humans are capable of feeling.

Generally almost all loneliness can be traced back to low or below "average" self-esteem. Chronically lonely people will usually have low opinions of themselves. They may think of themselves as unintelligent, unattractive, broken, unwanted, not worthy of good things, no good, unable to do anything right, and/or socially isolated. Unlike many other emotionally hurting people, the chronically lonely usually know what is wrong, but like many others they don't believe they can do anything to fix it, or, circling back to the low self-esteem, they may also believe they are not worth of happiness. It takes the strong support of a good friend(s) or other loved one(s) to help the lonely conquer their feelings. Simply trying to counteract the low self-esteem verbally will not do it, though, for in their down state, they will see the person as just trying to be nice or spare their feelings.

One major challenge within happiness is loneliness. The more I've learned about happiness, the more I've come to believe that loneliness is a common and important obstacle to consider. To be happy, we need intimate bonds; we need to be able to confide, we need to feel like we belong, we need to be able to get and give support. In fact, strong relationships are key perhaps *the* key to a happy life. Of course, being alone and being lonely aren't the same. Loneliness feels draining, distracting, and upsetting; desired solitude feels peaceful, creative, and restorative.

It seems to me that there are several types of loneliness. Of course, not everyone experiences loneliness in the situations described — for instance, not everyone wants a romantic partner. But for some people, the lack of certain kinds of relationships brings loneliness. Once we've pinpointed the particular kind of loneliness we're experiencing, it may be easier to spot ways to address it.

7 Types of Loneliness

1. New-situation loneliness

You've moved to a new city where you don't know anyone, or you've started a new job, or you've started at a school full of unfamiliar faces. You're lonely.

2. I'm-different loneliness

You're in a place that's not unfamiliar, but you feel different from other people in an important way that makes you feel isolated. Maybe your faith is really important to you, and the people around you don't share that — or vice versa. Maybe everyone loves doing outdoor activities, but you don't — or vice versa. It feels hard to connect with others about the things you find important. Or maybe you're just hit with the loneliness that hits all of us sometimes — the loneliness that's part of the human condition.

3. No-sweetheart loneliness

Even if you have lots of family and friends, you feel lonely because you don't have the intimate attachment of a romantic partner. Or maybe you have a partner, but you don't feel a deep connection to that person.

4. No-animal loneliness

Many people have a deep need to connect with animals. If this describes you, you're sustained by these relationships in a way that human relationships don't replace. While I love my dog Barnaby, I don't feel this myself — but many people feel like something important is missing if they don't have a dog or cat (or less conveniently, a horse) in their lives.

5. No-time-for-me loneliness

Sometimes you're surrounded by people who seem friendly enough, but they don't want to make the jump from friendly to friends. Maybe they're too busy with their own lives, or they have lots of friends already, so while you'd like a deeper connection, they don't seem interested. Or maybe your existing friends have entered a new phase that means they no longer have time for the things you all used to do — everyone has started working very long hours, or has started a family, so that your social scene has changed.

6. Untrustworthy-friends loneliness

Sometimes, you get in a situation where you begin to doubt whether your friends are truly well-intentioned, kind, and helpful. You're "friends" with people but don't quite trust them. An important element of friendship is the ability to confide and trust, so if that's missing, you may feel lonely, even if you have fun with your friends.

7. Quiet-presence loneliness

Sometimes, you may feel lonely because you miss having someone else's quiet presence. You may have an active social circle at work, or have plenty of friends and family, but you miss having someone to hang out with at home — whether that would mean living with a roommate, a family member, or a sweetheart.

Theories of Loneliness

Although loneliness has always been part of human existence, it has a relatively short history as a subject of psychological investigation. As developed by the psychiatrist John Bowlby during the second half of the 20th century, attachment theory emphasizes the importance of a strong emotional bond between the infant and the caregiver; it stands as a forerunner to contemporary theories of loneliness. From that perspective, loneliness occurs when children with insecure attachment patterns behave in ways that result in their being rejected by their peers. Those rejections

hinder their development of social skills and increase their distrust of other people, thereby fostering ongoing loneliness.

Attachment theory was the foundation for an influential psychological theory of loneliness developed by the sociologist Robert S. Weiss. Weiss identified six social needs that, if unmet, contribute to feelings of loneliness. Those needs are attachment, social integration, nurturance, reassurance of worth, sense of reliable alliance, and guidance in stressful situations. As would be predicted by attachment theory, Weiss maintained that friendships complement but do not substitute for a close, intimate relationship with a partner in staving off loneliness.

Another theoretical perspective, the behavioural approach, holds that loneliness is characterized by personality traits that are associated with, and possibly contribute to, harmful patterns of interpersonal interaction. For instance, loneliness is correlated with social anxiety, social inhibition (shyness), sadness, hostility, distrust, and low self-esteem, characteristics that hamper one's ability to interact in skill full and rewarding ways. Indeed, lonely individuals have been shown to have difficulty forming and maintaining meaningful relationships. They are also less likely to share information about themselves with their peers, and that helps to explain why they report a lack of intimacy with close friends.

The cognitive approach to loneliness is based on the fact that loneliness is characterized by distinct differences in perceptions and attributions. Lonely individuals tend to have a pessimistic general outlook: they are more negative than are individuals who are not lonely about the people, events, and circumstances in their lives, and they tend to blame themselves for not being able to achieve satisfactory social relationships. In addition, the cognitive approach largely takes account of the attachment and behavioural perspectives by explaining how (a) failure to meet the need for attachment, social integration, nurturance, and other social needs results in perceived relationship discrepancies that are experienced as loneliness, and (b) loneliness is perpetuated by way of a self-fulfilling prophecy in which poor social skills result in unsatisfactory personal relationships that in turn result in negative self-attributions that lead to further social isolation and relationship dissatisfaction.

B. MOBILE PHONE ADDICTION

Psychiatrists proclaim that in the 21st century mobile phone addiction has become one of the major non-drug addictions and is widely seen among people of different age groups. A mobile phone addict can be defined as a person who constantly checks his/her phone every now and then, and the urge to check their mobile phones becomes so strong that they can't stop themselves even if they wish to, they become extremely attached with their mobile phone that they even starts hallucinating that their phone is ringing even when it is not. A mobile phone addict carries their phone wherever they go and use it while doing other things like studying, eating, driving and also using it in inappropriate places like church, class, lavatory and danger zone areas like petrol pumps. A mobile phone addict use the cell phone for an increasing amount of time in order to achieve satisfaction; repeat unsuccessful efforts to control, cut back, or stop cell phone use; feel lost, restless, anxious, moody, depressed, or irritable when attempting to cut down cell phone use; stay on the cell phone longer than originally intended; hide from family and friends or others to conceal the extent of involvement with the cell phone; and use the cell phone as a way of escape from problems or to relieve a dysphoric mood e.g., feeling of isolation, anxiety, loneliness, and depression (Leung, 2013)

For a mobile phone addict the device becomes a part of them, an extension of themselves which they literally cannot do without. In a study from the UK, researchers found that mobile phone users felt that they were physically attached to the mobile phone. Many of the subjects reported that they felt they could not leave home without the mobile phone (Srivastava, 2005). Peele (1985) argues that addictive behaviour stems from three primary motives: escape (a perceived means of diminishing awareness, tension and pain); ritual (association with an experience that has immediacy, simplicity and predictability); and compensation (elevated sense of control, power and self). Mobile phone users tend to focus on the mobile phone interface when communicating, shutting out the surrounding environment to varying degrees (escape); they control the time, place and content of the texting

(compensation); and engage in frequent daily SMS sessions (ritual) (Perry, S. D. and Lee, K. C, 2007).

Mobile phones have become such an essential part of our life causing good & adverse effects both on our daily routine. The use of smart phones has become indispensable among the youngsters. The younger age group is becoming so dependent upon the smart phones as they are having so many features as Internet access, social networking sites like Facebook, what's up, Instagram, Youtube all are consuming their maximum time and leading to psychological dependency and distraction from studies causing sleep deprivation too. Increased cultural and social changes in society have been much discussed in relation to this. Due to quick development in technology and widespread use of smart phones and their effect on communication and interaction in our professional and personal life, it is important to study the positive as well as negative effect of the smart phone uses. The mobile phones create an Electro Magnetic Field (EMF) around us and exposure to this EMF can lead to many health hazards. Some symptoms documented with the mobile users are headache, earache and warmth sensation, concentration difficulty and fatigue.^{3,4} As such exposure to EMF is currently not known to have any major health problem.

In addition to being a means of communication and having rapidly spreading use around the world, mobile phones, in particular the new generation of smart mobile phones, are technological tools due to offering many functions, such as providing short message service (SMS) to users, taking photos, playing games, using the Internet, connecting to social networks, providing navigation services, having a video player functionality, watching TV and shopping. Arslan and Unal (2013) indicated in their study that Faculty of Education students have widely used their mobile phones for the purpose of talking, messages, MP3/music, game, photo / camera and the Internet. They also remarked that students have taken quite a lot of time to use their mobile phones. Considering the facilities that a mobile phone provides to individuals as mentioned above, these facilities can be handled at the same time as the needs of individuals. While normal use of mobile phones is to restrict individuals' use of mobile phones in accordance with their needs, problematic use of mobile phones

occurs due to the fact that individuals aren't able to restrict their use in accordance with the needs. The findings of some studies have indicated that problematic use of mobile phones has negative effects.. Ha, Chin, Park, Ryu ve Yu (2008) found that the excessive user group experienced more depressive symptoms, difficulty in expression of emotion than the comparison group did. Furthermore, excessive user group had higher interpersonal anxiety, lower self-esteem, higher score on the Internet Addiction Scale (IAS) than the comparison group. In ar's (2013) study, the problematic phone use increases as talking time increases, however increase of talking time decreases loneliness level in teenagers. Jin and Park (2012) found that more face-to-face interactions were associated with lower levels of loneliness; however, more cell phone calling was associated with greater loneliness. Reid and Reid (2007) revealed that lonely people preferred calls and rated text such as short message service (SMS, or text messaging) as a less intimate method of contact. According to Takao, et al. (2009) it is conceivable that lonely people are eager to maintain contact with their peers through frequent calls so as to full fill their loneliness. We therefore would expect that higher or problematic phone use is predicted by loneliness.

Mobile phones offer many possibilities presented by the Internet and computers. While computers and the Internet may cause loneliness of individuals, may mobile phone cause loneliness of individuals? In this context the purpose of the study is to examine loneliness of university students in terms of daily use of mobile phone, mobile phone addiction and gender.

Characteristics of mobile phone addiction

The youth are the most susceptible to developing mobile phone addiction because they are considered to be the heaviest users of information and technology with an increased usage of smart phones throughout the day. They use their mobile phones not only to make phone calls but also to send text messages, to take photos, to listen to music, to watch video, to feel safe and secure, to interact, to connect with family and friends, to browse, to manage their everyday life and to learn. Furthermore, apart from the amount of communication or time spent on the mobile phone, Benessere, M.T. hypothesized an existence of addiction to a mobile phone when a

person shows some of the following symptoms: • Dedicating large amounts of time to activities related to using the phone (phone calls, text messages, games, consultations, use of the camera for photos and videos, etcetera) carried out exclusively or in combination with other activities;

The victim experiences a sense of dizziness, headache, vertigo eye or ear ache or other physical symptoms that can be related to abusing the mobile phone;

- Extreme affection shown towards the mobile phone which is mainly seen through not wanting to be far away from the phone, even for small amounts of time;
- The victim tends to get anxious, panics or experiences unpleasant emotions in general when the telephone's battery is dead or if the phone does not work;
- The victim is inclined to use the mobile phone as instrument of control in sentimental and affectionate relationships;
- Tendency to use the mobile phone to keep fears and insecurities under control (fear of solitude, particular phobias, anxiety attacks);
- Tendency to use more than one mobile phone, often using separate lines for different uses (work/friends);
- The victim is in the habit of keeping the phone on at night so as to wake up at night and check for messages or calls.
- The victim spend more money on accessories than the phone costs
- The victim runs out of power battery everyday
- The victim answer call and text while driving
- The victim is in the habit of answering cell phone while in an intimate embrace with a loved one.

C. NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE

The significance of this study in the field is help to provide the information on how severe mobile phone addiction influences our day-to-day lifestyle. Since there are few studies about the relationship of mobile phone addiction and loneliness to be referenced by researchers who are going to have further study on relevant topic, therefore she decided to study on this topic. She is hoping this study can be referencing and beneficial to who are going to have future study on relevant topic. Other than that, this study would be beneficial to society as this study provide us the information on the relationship between smart phone addiction and loneliness. Besides, she hopes this study able to deliver knowledge to the public and society so that they have the opportunity to know the significance of smart phone addiction as well as loneliness.

To find that college students feel lonelier because of the mobile phone use, it will benefit the community too. By excessive use of mobile phone, it is one of the reasons for loneliness in college students, and thus we can find the people who are feeling lonely in society, and the societies do their best for them. Society can make a control over mobile phone usage and also it is important to understand how to use mobile phone without being slave. It is important to find that boys and girls, which are more lonely by the excessive use of the mobile phone. Because of loneliness, it is impossible to get a good relationship even with family and friends. This study can helps to reduce the suicide rate and reduced suicidal thought due to the loneliness. Through this study to teaches the society how to use mobile phones without harming personal relationships. Through this study, we expect can heighten the awareness of public and figure out the strategies and interventions to help those with mobile phone addiction to reduce their sense of loneliness. One of the purposes of this study is to bring out the awareness of how serious is the mobile phone addiction problems in our country.

Throughout this study, hope to be able to spread out the knowledge and information to the public and society so that they realize the consequences and the importance of reduce mobile phone addiction as well as taking suitable action at the same time receive proper treatment from professional psychologist.

D. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The aim of the study is to determine whether there is any relationship between mobile phone addiction and perceived loneliness. The same was also studied in relation to sex, education and stream among college students.

E. VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

The variables of the present study are perceived loneliness and mobile phone addiction.

Apart from the study variables mentioned above, demographic variables such as sex, education and stream was also studied.

F. OPERATIONAL DEFINITION

Perceived Loneliness: The term “Perceived Loneliness” can be defined as a social deficiency. Perceived loneliness is an undesirable feeling that derives from inconsistency between wished and accomplished levels of social connection. Loneliness is the displeasure experience and feelings that take place when an individual's social relation networking is incomplete.

Mobile phone addiction: The terms mobile phone addiction has been used to define a phenomenon, which is individual engrossed in their mobile phone use to the degree that they are neglecting the other life’s important areas. It is a situation where a person would over rely on his or her mobile phone for all the numerous day to day activities and not aware or concentrating on anyone else who near to him or her. The person who is involving in mobile phone addiction can be predicted by the amount of phone bills and the unforeseen behaviour in case when his or her phone is missing or losing

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. STUDIES ON MOBILE PHONE ADDICTION

B. STUDIES ON PERCEIVED LONELINESS

**C. COMBINED STUDIES ON MOBILE PHONE ADDICTION AND
PERCEIVED LONELINESS**

D. SUMMARY OF LITERATURE

E. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

F. HYPOTHESES

This part of the research deals with the relevant studies. Review of relevant literature includes analysis and synthesis of research sources to generate a picture of what is known about a particular situation and the knowledge gaps that exist in terms of the situation being considered. The notable studies and existing literature on the topic is dealt with, to attain proper idea about the research gap. As research proceeds' the review is what helps the researcher to stay away from unnecessary duplication, and also to set the delimitations of the study. This chapter deals with the relevant literature on mobile phone addiction and perceived loneliness among college students in relation to mobile phone usage, time and gender.

A. STUDIES RELATED TO MOBILE PHONE ADDICTION

Srivastava, Mishra, Sharma and Verma (2001) conducted a study on mobile phone addiction among MBBS students of a Medical College leading to sleep cycle disturbances. The aim was to see the effects of mobile addiction and sleep cycle disturbances in today's life among medical students. The study was carried out among 218 MBBS students age group of 18 to 25 years, out of which 108 were females & 110 were male. Internet addiction Test and PSQI Scale was used to assess the subjects and Chi square test was done for statistical analysis and p value (0.05) is taken as significant. The results are as follows: 218 undergraduate medical students participated in the study out of which 108 (49.5%) were females and 110 (50.5%) were male's age group between 18 to 25 years. Majority of them, were smart mobile phone users and 75 (34.4%) uses phone for near 2 hours per day, (34.4%) slept for less than 5 hours at night, 61(28%) reported ringxiety, i.e., false perception of ring. his study concludes that mobile use in present scenario affects sleep disturbances of the students. Identifying it early in life and motivating the students to indulge more in outdoor sports and activities to refresh them.

Weilenmann and Larsson (2001) conducted field studies on public use of mobile phones among teenagers in Sweden. Their study shed light on how the mobile phone has come to be used as a tool for local social interaction, rather than merely as a

device for communication with dislocated others. Their observations pointed towards the collaborative nature of mobile phone use. The researchers examined how phones were shared and how their field data could be of use when designing new mobile technology and services for the youth.

Bianchi and Phillips (2005) drawing potential predictors from the addiction literature, this study sought to predict usage and, specifically, problematic mobile phone use from extraversion, self-esteem, neuroticism, gender, and age. To measure problem use, the Mobile Phone Problem Use Scale was devised and validated as a reliable self-report instrument, against the Addiction Potential Scale and overall mobile phone usage levels. Problem use was a function of age, extraversion, and low self-esteem, but not neuroticism. As extraverts are more likely to take risks, and young drivers feature prominently in automobile accidents, this study supports community concerns about mobile phone use, and identifies groups that should be targeted in any intervention campaigns.

Leena, Tomi and Arja (2005) studied the intensity of mobile phone use and health compromising behaviours. The association of mobile phone use with health compromising behaviours (smoking, snuffing, alcohol) was studied in a survey comprising a representative sample of 14–16-year-olds (N=3485) in 2001. Mobile phone was used by 89% of respondents and by 13% for at least 1 h daily. The results of this study showed that the intensity of use was positively associated with health compromising behaviours. The associations remained, although somewhat reduced, after including weekly spending money in the models. This study concludes that, at least in the present developmental level of communication technologies, intensive mobile phone use seems to be part of the same health-related lifestyle as health compromising behaviours.

Toda, Monden, Kubo and Morimoto (2006) investigated the associations between the intensity of mobile phone use and health-related lifestyle. For 275 university students, they evaluated health-related lifestyle using the health practice index and analyzed responses to a questionnaire designed, with a self-rating scale, to

gauge mobile phone dependence. For males, there was a significant relationship between smoking habits and mobile phone dependence. The researchers also found that male respondents with low HPI scores were significantly higher for mobile phone dependence. These findings suggest that, particularly for males, the intensity of mobile phone use may be related to healthy lifestyle.

Laramie and Beckman (2007) described here was conducted as an initial foray into this area in order to determine whether some people evidence problematic mobile phone use and whether there is a predictive pattern of personality or demographic traits. As the topic is largely a new one, concepts from the literature on Internet use and behaviour were used as guiding models. An online survey was completed by 320 adult mobile phone users, who were primarily recruited online through advertising, postings, and email. The survey consisted of measures for loneliness, social anxiety, impulsivity, mobile phone use for affect regulation, and problematic mobile phone use. As expected, the research variables varied strongly with age, though little difference was found between genders. Results indicated that people who prefer to use their phones for text messaging, rather than talking, evidence higher levels of loneliness, social anxiety, and problematic phone use. Additionally, impulsivity showed a strong and positive correlation with problem phone use. Both loneliness and social anxiety correlated significantly with problematic mobile phone use, though the effect of social anxiety was fully mediated by phone use to modulate affect. Finally, two-thirds of the sample reported that they had experienced a 'phantom ring.' That is, they had 'heard' their phone ring even though it had not actually rung. The scale for problematic mobile phone use was factor analyzed and examined for construct validity. It was determined that the scale measures heavy use of and reliance upon mobile phones. Though 2-8% of the sample endorsed items related to potentially problematic use, the scale does not effectively discern severity of use and negative consequences. Though only preliminary, these findings suggest that some people evidence particularly heavy use of their mobile phone and certain personality and demographic variables can be used to predict this use. Further research with better instruments will be required to clarify whether this heavy use has aspects of dependency

Leung (2008) conducted a study on “Linking psychological attributes to addiction and improper use of the mobile phone among adolescents in Hong Kong”. The purpose of this study is to (1) identify addiction symptoms that are uniquely associated with mobile phone use among adolescents in Hong Kong; (2) examine how demographics and psychological attributes (such as leisure boredom, sensation seeking, and self-esteem) of individuals are related to the addiction symptoms; and (3) explore how these attributes, mobile phone addiction symptoms, and social capital can predict improper use of the mobile phone. Data were gathered from a probability sample of 402 teenagers and young adults aged 14–20 in Hong Kong. Exploratory factor analysis identified four addiction symptoms: “losing control and receiving complaints,” “anxiety and craving,” “withdrawal/escape,” and “productivity loss.” Results show that the higher one scored on leisure boredom and sensation seeking, the higher the likelihood one was addicted. Conversely, subjects who scored high on self-esteem demonstrated less of such tendency. As hypothesized, subjects who scored low on self-esteem but high on sensation seeking reported the most *improper use* of the mobile phone (especially in snapping pictures stealthily when nobody notices).

Yu et al (2008) studied characteristics of excessive cellular phone use in Korean adolescents. The objective of this study was to evaluate the possible psychological problems related to excessive cellular phone use in adolescents. Results from 595 participants showed that the potentially excessive user group had a tendency to identify themselves with their cellular phones and to have difficulties in controlling usage. They expressed more depressive symptoms, higher interpersonal anxiety, and lower self-esteem. A positive correlation was also observed between excessive cellular phone use and Internet addiction.

Billieux et.al, (2008) investigated the risks arising from the growth in mobile phone use (e.g. debts incurred by young people). The aims of the present study are (1) to validate a new questionnaire assessing problematic mobile phone use: the Problematic Mobile Phone Use Questionnaire (PMPUQ), and (2) to investigate the relationships between the PMPUQ and the multi-faceted construct of impulsivity. With these aims, 339 subjects were screened using the PMPUQ and the UPPS

Impulsive Behaviour Scale (UPPS) which assesses four distinct components associated with impulsive behaviours (urgency, lack of premeditation, lack of perseverance and sensation seeking). The results showed that the PMPUQ has an acceptable fit and assesses four different dimensions of problematic mobile phone use (prohibited use, dangerous use, dependence, financial problems). While each facet of impulsivity played a specific role in mobile phones use, urgency appeared to be the strongest predictor of problematic use.

Toda et.al (2008) a written questionnaire was surveyed a sample population of 155 female students, and investigated the associations between mobile phone dependence and perceived parental rearing attitudes. Participants completed the Mobile Phone Dependence Questionnaire and the Parental bonding instrument. In relation to maternal rearing attitudes, analysis of responses revealed a statistically significant difference in MPDQ scores between respondents who fell in the categories for high care/high protection and low care/low protection. In relation to paternal rearing attitudes, no such difference was apparent. These findings suggest that the childhood relationship with the mother may be associated with mobile phone dependence. Furthermore, loneliness may contribute to this association.

Mustafa (2008) analyzed loneliness of university students according to mobile phone addiction, daily phone use time and gender. Survey model has used for this research. To collect data; personal information form, problematic mobile phone use scale, and UCLA-loneliness scale were applied for 527 students who are from different Departments of Faculty of Education at Frat University. To analyze these data; correlation, t test, one way variance (ANOVA) analysis and Scheffe test were used. Results revealed that loneliness was significantly associated with problematic mobile phone use($r=.35$).

Ha, chin, Park, Ryu and Yu (2008) conducted a study on characteristics of excessive cellular phone use in Korean adolescents. The objective of this study was to evaluate the possible psychological problems related to excessive cellular phone use in adolescents. Results from 595 participants showed that the potentially excessive

user group had a tendency to identify themselves with their cellular phones and to have difficulties in controlling usage. They expressed more depressive symptoms, higher interpersonal anxiety, and lower self-esteem. A positive correlation was also observed between excessive cellular phone use and Internet addiction

Beranuy, Oberst, Carbonell and Chamarro (2009) deal with maladaptive use of the Internet and the mobile phone and its relationship to symptoms of psychological distress and mental disorder, as well as to the possible role of Perceived Emotional Intelligence in this relationship. Three hundred and sixty-five undergraduate university freshmen at Ramon Lull University, Barcelona (Spain), majoring in four different studies (Psychology, Education, Journalism and Broadcasting, and Health Studies) replied to scales assessing the negative consequences of maladaptive use of both the Internet (CERI) and the mobile phone (CERM), a self-report scale on Perceived Emotional Intelligence (TMMS-24), and a clinical instrument to check for complaints related to the presence of psychological distress. Results indicate that psychological distress is related to maladaptive use of both the Internet and the mobile phone; females scored higher than males on the mobile phone questionnaire, showing more negative consequences of its maladaptive use. With respect to major study, students of Journalism and Broadcasting showed a more maladaptive pattern of Internet use than students of other majors. The components of Perceived Emotional Intelligence contributed to the explanation of the variance of the general indicators of psychological distress, but to a lesser degree than maladaptive use of Internet and mobile phone.

Takao, Takahashi and Kitamura (2009) studied the relationship between addictive personality and problematic mobile phone use. Mobile phone use is banned or regulated in some circumstances. Despite recognized safety concerns and legal regulations, some people do not refrain from using mobile phones. Such problematic mobile phone use can be considered to be an addiction-like behaviour. To find the potential predictors, they examined the correlation between problematic mobile phone use and personality traits reported in addiction literature, which indicated that problematic mobile phone use was a function of gender, self-monitoring, and approval

motivation but not of loneliness. These findings suggest that the measurements of these addictive personality traits would be helpful in the screening and intervention of potential problematic users of mobile phones.

Jin and Pena (2010) examined the associations between mobile phone use and relational uncertainty, love and commitment, and attachment styles. A survey of 197 college students revealed that greater use of mobile voice calls with a romantic partner was associated with lower relational uncertainty and more love and commitment. Also, the higher the avoidance, the less the participants used voice calls, and an interaction effect was found between avoidance and anxiety on voice call use. However, there were no significant results in relation to the use of text messaging. Overall, more mobile calls in romantic relationships are associated with positive relationship qualities.

Pawłowska and Potembska (2011) examined the gender differences in severity of symptoms of mobile phone addiction and the different between women and men in the severity of symptoms of mobile phone addiction. This research involved 493 participants from 13 to 22 years old to complete the socio-demographic questionnaires and Mobile Phone Addiction Assessment Questionnaire (KBUTK). T-test was used to analyze data. Pawłowska and Potembska research found that women have higher severity of symptoms of addiction to voice calls and text messages. Besides, woman were significant frequently use mobile phone to satisfy the desire to be accepted and intimacy, establish and maintain social relationships and to express their emotions whereas men higher severity symptoms of addiction to listen to music, take pictures, play games, and connect to Internet.

Lu et.al, (2011) solicited participation in this questionnaire-based study from the employees of a city office in Kumamoto. A total of 92 men and 54 women filled in the Internet Addiction Questionnaire (IAQ), the Self-perception of Text-message Dependency Scale (STDS), and the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS). The prevalence of “light Internet addiction” and “severe Internet addiction” were 33.7% and 6.1% for men whereas they were 24.6% and 1.8% for women. The prevalence of “light mobile phone text-message addiction” was 3.1% for men and

5.4% for women. There were no cases of “sever text-message addiction”. The researchers found a two-factor structure for the IAQ and a three-factor structure for the STDS. They also performed an EFA of the IAQ and STDS subscales, and this revealed a two-factor structure – Internet Dependency and Text-message Dependency. An STDS subscale, Relationship Maintenance, showed a moderate factor loading of the factor that reflected unhealthy Internet use. In a path analysis, Depression was associated with both Internet Dependency and Text-message Dependency whereas Anxiety was associated negatively with Text-message Dependency. These results suggest applicability of the IAQ and STDS and that Internet and Text-message Dependences are factorials distinct.

Guzeller and Cosguner (2012) evaluated the psychometric properties of the Problematic Mobile Phone Use Scale (PMPUS) for Turkish Adolescents. The psychometric properties of PMPUS were tested in two separate sample groups that consisted of 950 Turkish high school students. The first sample group ($n=309$) was used to determine the factor structure of the scale. The second sample group ($n=461$) was used to test data conformity with the identified structure, discriminant validity and concurrent scale validity, internal consistency reliability calculations, and item statistics calculations. The results of exploratory factor analyses indicated that the scale had three factors: interference with negative effect, compulsion/persistence, and withdrawal/tolerance. The results showed that item and construct reliability values yielded satisfactory rates in general for the three-factor construct. On the other hand, the average variance extracted value remained below the scale value for three subscales. The scores for the scale significantly correlated with depression and loneliness. In addition, the discriminant validity value was above the scale in all sub-dimensions except one. Based on these data, the reliability of the PMPUS scale appears to be satisfactory and provides good internal consistency. Therefore, with limited exception, the PMPUS was found to be reliable and valid in the context of Turkish adolescents.

Hong et.al, (2012) investigated the relationship between psychological characteristics, mobile phone addiction and use of mobile phones for 269 Taiwanese

female university students who were administered Rosenberg's self-esteem scale, Lai's personality inventory, and a mobile phone usage questionnaire and mobile phone addiction scale. The result showing that: (1) social extraversion and anxiety have positive effects on mobile phone addiction, and self-esteem has negative effects on mobile phone addiction. (2) Mobile phone addiction has a positive predictive effect on mobile phone usage behaviour. The results of this study identify personal psychological characteristics of Taiwanese female university students which can significantly predict mobile phone addiction; female university students with mobile phone addiction will make more phone calls and send more text messages. These results are discussed and suggestions for future research for school and university students are provided.

Osman et.al, (2012) found that most of the mobile phone are called as smart phone now as it provide more application such as allow users access to online activities at any time (Bolle, 2014). Previous study found that young age group reported greatest problematic use in mobile phone (Griffiths, 2013; Bianchi & Phillips, 2005). Young people increasing dependent or addicted to smart phone (Casey, 2012). They use smart phone for the initial function of mobile phone such as interpersonal communication and also use smart phone as a tool for other functions such as access internet (Casey, 2012). Some psychology factor can be predictor of smart phone addiction. For instance, loneliness and shyness are found have positive relationship with smart phone addiction (Casey, 2012)

Kim (2013) investigated the effect of smart-phone addiction on youth's sociality development. This study examined effects of smart-phone addiction on the youth's sociality development empirically by questionnaire survey. To conduct this study, 339 high school students participated in the survey. The results of this study revealed that Smart-phone addiction had a significant influence on sociality development in negative way. Specifically, sub-domain of smart-phone addiction (disturbance of adaptive, virtual life orientation, tolerance) affect on sociality development in negative. Interesting smart phone using time affect on sociality development in positive.

Quinn and Oldmeadow (2013) examined the effect refers to being constantly connected to people through mobile devices; research into mobile phone use reports that its use may be related to feelings of connectedness. Social Networking Sites (SNSs) are becoming increasingly popular among early adolescents with the majority using them to stay in contact with existing friends. In addition, many adolescents use a range of mobile devices to access these sites. The present study compared feelings of belonging to the friendship group between SNS users who used a mobile device and those who did not. A self-report questionnaire was completed by 337 early adolescent SNS users (11–13 years, mean age = 12.28 years, $SD = 0.73$). Mobile device users were found to have significantly higher levels of belonging than non-mobile device users and this relationship was partially mediated by the frequency of use of SNSs. It is suggested that these mobile devices not only afford an opportunity for increased use of SNSs and therefore increased interaction with friends but that mobile device SNS users feel constantly connected to their friends.

Chiu, Hong and Chiu (2013) examined in their research objective is to construct a correlative model between internet addiction and mobile phone addiction. 448 students in Taipei College of Maritime Technology and Aletheia University were involved with 61.2% of them were males and 38.8% of them were females. Mobile Phone Addiction Scale and Internet Addiction Scale were used to obtain the addictive level of participants. Structural equation model were adopted to process the collected data. T-test, bivariate correlations and invariance are used to analysis data in this research. The results found significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and internet addiction. Besides, female college student shows higher scored in mobile addiction than male (Chiu, Hong, & Chiu, 2013)

Salehan and Negahban (2013) studied as the penetration of mobile phones in society's increases; there is a large growth in the use of mobile phones especially among the youth. This trend is followed by the fast growth in use of online social networking services (SNS). Extensive use of technology can lead to addiction. This study finds that the use of SNS mobile applications is a significant predictor of mobile addiction. The result also shows that the use of SNS mobile applications is affected by

both SNS network size and SNS intensity of the user. This study has implications for academia as well as governmental and non-for-profit organizations regarding the effect of mobile phones on individual's and public health.

Chan (2013) examines how different uses of the mobile phone are related to individuals' subjective well-being and social capital. Findings from a national survey showed that both voice and online communication with the mobile phone is positively related to various indicators of subjective well-being and bonding and bridging capital. Moreover, both bonding and bridging capital mediated the relationship between mobile phone use and subjective well-being. On the other hand, non-communicative uses, such as information seeking activities, were negatively related to positive affect and passing time activities were positively related to negative effect.

Yang (2013) investigated the relationship between mobile phone dependence and loneliness of college students. Through investigating 304 college students with the UCLA and the Self-designed inventory about Mobile phone dependence. Results,(1) There were significant differences in gender variable among the human communications and the time management dimensions($F=3.881, P0.05; F=7.546, P0.01$), significant differences could be found in grade variable among the total share of mobile phone dependence and the tolerance dimension($F=2.941, P0.05; F=3.082, P0.05$);(2) there was a significant correlations between mobile phone dependence and loneliness($r=0.263, 0.206, 0.311, 0.242, 0.195; P0.05$);(3) the human communication dimension of the mobile may could forecast the mobile phone dependence($F=7.791, P0.001$). The finding of this study was to the mobile phone dependence has some prediction on loneliness of college students.

Ali et al. (2014) studied the cell phone mania and Pakistani youth: exploring the cell phone usage patterns among teenagers of south Punjab. This study aimed to expound the cell phone usage patterns among teenager students. The sample was consisted of, 317 boys and 310 girls from various schools, college and university. It was explored that cell phones have become indispensable for the teenagers. It is one

of the effective tools of interaction among teenagers. The cell phone companies have utilized mainstream print and electronic media, by specifically targeted the teenagers for to widen the cell phone usage. The study would conclude that cell phones are a source of satisfaction for the teenagers whether it is for interaction or for fun. The study would unfold the ironic revelation regarding the cell phones utilization that how the users justify their own cell phones usage on the exigency basis while condemn the other usage of cell phones on the charge of misusing.

Al-Barashdi, Bouazza and Jabur (2014) examined the relationship between smart phone addiction among undergraduates and their academic achievement. Finally, significant differences in addiction among undergraduates according to their gender, field of study, parent's educational level and family income level will be examined. While some studies have shown gender differences in Smartphone addictive use, others have proved that gender and Smartphone use are not significantly related. A few studies have examined the relationship between addiction and students' field of study. Some of these have found that humanities students have a higher addiction level than physical science students. The results regarding Smartphone usage and family income had showed contrary indications.

Dal Fiore, Mokhtarian, Salomon and Singer (2014) proposed a set of perspectives on how mobile phones and computers might affect travel: by tapping into basic needs of travellers; by affecting some preconditions for its spatial configuration; and by altering its costs and benefits. In the age of "digital nomadism," mobile technology is likely to play an important role for the new mobility and work-life arrangements put into practice by a multitude of creative knowledge professionals. What emerges from our multi-perspective exploration is the realisation that mobile technology might offer people numerous new reasons to be mobile: by making them more informed; more capable of using a larger variety of physical spaces and re-negotiating obligations in real-time; and potentially more efficient in the allocation of their travel time and resources. On the other hand, it also appears that mobile technology can impose new burdens on travellers and make travel *less* appealing in

some ways. Additional research is called for to improve our understanding of the circumstances under which each of these opposing outcomes occurs. The findings from such research could be used to better calibrate traffic simulation models, as well as to weigh the implications of emerging forms of travel behaviour for the environment.

Pourrazavi, Allahverdipour, Jafarabadi and Matlabi (2014) examined the predictive ability of selected demographic and socio-psychological characteristics in explaining excessive mobile phone use (EMPU) behaviour and problematic use in a sample of university students on the basis of the social cognitive theory. The sample consisted of 476 randomly selected university students in Tabriz, Iran. The study was cross-sectional in nature. A researcher-designed questionnaire was used for the purpose of data collection. No causal inferences were drawn due to non-experimental nature of the study. It was found that having boyfriend/girlfriend increases the likelihood of EMPU while self-efficacy to avoid EMPU decreases it. Self-efficacy to avoid EMPU, self-regulation, observational learning, self-control, and attitude toward EMPU were predictors of mobile phone problematic use. The results provided a proper fit for a conceptual model of reciprocal determinism. Although social cognitive constructs may predict mobile phone problematic use, they are not useful in predicting the behaviour of EMPU.

Tavakolizadeh, Atarodi, Ahmadpour and Pourgheisar (2014) determined the prevalence of excessive mobile phone use and its relationship with mental health status and demographic factors on the students of Gonabad University of Medical Sciences in 2011-2012. Patients and Methods: In this cross-sectional study, all 700 students in the university were surveyed and completed demographic information form, GHQ-28, mobile phone addiction scale (MPAI). The data were analyzed in SPSS-18 software and by Chi-square test; student t-test and ANOVA were used at the significant level of $P < 0.05$. Results: The prevalence of excessive mobile phone use was 36.7% on the students. There was a significant relation between the prevalence of excessive mobile phone use and mental health status in general ($P > 0.05$), and also somatisation ($P < 0.05$), anxiety and depression specifically ($P < 0.05$), but no significant relation was found between the excessive mobile phone use and social

dysfunction ($P < 0.05$), and also sex, age, marital status, settlement, and academic achievement ($P < 0.05$). But there was also a significant relation between education degree (in MSc and doctoral degree students) and the prevalence of excessive mobile phone ($P > 0.05$). Conclusions: According to rather high prevalence of excessive use of mobile phone and existence of significant relation between the prevalence of excessive mobile phone use and mental health problems, it is recommended to improve their mental health status and acceptable social relationship instead of dependency on mobile phone use that can in return reduce the negative effects of excessive mobile phone use.

Pettegrew and Day (2015) investigated smart phones and mediated relationships: the changing face of relational communication. This exploratory study provides an initial empirical base for communication scholars to reconsider their reliance on the treatment of computer mediated communication and mobile technology (MT) as an addendum to communication, and instead to recognize that individuals use mobile communication to develop close relationships across a wide variety of interrelated and converging contexts. Survey data collected from 526 undergraduate students. This is true for both close relationships and intimate relationships. They call for researchers to consider the transformational implications of this new communication phenomenon, how it transforms interpersonal and relational development and specific research agendas that should be undertaken. The communication has quickly grown more complex and messier.

Tossell, Kortum, Shepard, Rahmat and Zhong (2015) examined smart phone user behaviours and their relation to self-reported smart phone addiction. Thirty-four users who did not own Smart phones were given instrumented iPhones that logged all phone use over the course of the year-long study. At the conclusion of the study, users were asked to rate their level of addiction to the device. Sixty-two percent agreed or strongly agreed that they were addicted to their iPhones. These users showed differentiated smart phone use as compared to those users who did not indicate an addiction. Addicted users spent twice as much time on their phone and launched applications much more frequently (nearly twice as often) as compared to the non-addicted user. mail, messaging, facebook and the Web drove this use. Surprisingly,

Games did not show any difference between addicted and non addicted users. Addicted users showed significantly lower time-per-interaction than did non-addicted users for mail, facebook and messaging applications. One addicted user reported that his addiction was problematic, and his use data was beyond three standard deviations from the upper hinge. The implications of the relationship between the logged and self report data are discussed.

Dr. Bhardwaj and Ashok (2015) examined mobile phone addiction and loneliness among teenagers. Random sampling method was used by researchers to select the sample which were 100 teenagers from different colleges in Mumbai city, Maharashtra. Out of the sample, there were 50 male students and 50 female students. The age range was 13 to 17 years. Survey model has used to administer the subjects. The survey is designed to evaluate the mobile phone addiction scale (Mobile Phone Addiction Scale (2012)), loneliness score (Loneliness Inventory (2010)), and personal information form. Correlation and T-test were calculated to analyse the data. Results revealed that there was a significant correlation found between the mobile phone addiction and loneliness among college students. Mobile phone addiction was significantly related with loneliness. Besides, there was no any significant difference found in the study when loneliness and mobile phone addiction among college students were examined according to gender. Gokcearslan et.al (2016) studied modelling smart phone addiction: The role of smart phone usage, self-regulation, general self-efficacy and cyber loafing in university students. This study investigates the roles of smart phone usage, self-regulation, general self-efficacy and cyber loafing in smart phone addiction. An online survey was conducted which received responses from 598 participants attending a public university in Ankara, Turkey. The results showed that both the duration of smart phone usage and cyber loafing positively affected smart phone addiction. The effect of self-regulation on smart phone addiction was negative and significant. In addition, neither self-regulation nor general self-efficacy had an effect on cyber loafing.

Jeong et.al, (2016) examine the predictor of smart phone addiction and the user characteristics and media content types that can lead to addiction. The sample

consisted of 944 respondents who were recruited from 20 elementary schools. Results showed that those who have lower self-control and those who have greater stress were more likely to be addicted to smart phones. For media content types, those who use smart phones for SNS, games, and entertainment were more likely to be addicted to smart phones, whereas those who use smart phones for study-related purposes were not. Although both SNS use and game use were positive predictors of smart phone addiction, SNS use was a stronger predictor of smart phone addiction than game use.

Bhutia and Tariang (2016) aimed to find out the mobile phone addiction based on gender and the stream of study. The data was collected from a sample of 159 college students by using the Mobile Phone Addiction Scale (MPAS) developed by A. Velayudhan and S. Srividya. Mean, SD, t-test and Pearson's Product-moment correlations were the statistical techniques used. It was found that the college going students of Shillong are moderately addicted to mobile phone and gender and stream has no impact on the mobile phone addiction of the college going students of Shillong. Another finding of this study is that there is no significant relationship between availability of pocket money and mobile phone addiction.

Saberi, Kashani and Badi (2016) evaluated the phone addiction in Shahid Beheshti hospital nurses in Kashan. Excessive use of communication technologies such as mobile phones can lead to addiction; in this research, the prevalence of mental disorders among nursing staff dealt with the situation has been examined. This descriptive study has been implemented on 222 nurses Shahid Beheshti Hospital of Kashan in 2016. Data of mobile-phone addiction were assessed using a Persian questionnaire with standard reliability validity. The questionnaire included demographic information, including age, sex, marital status, education, and information about the possibilities of mobile features. The data analyzed by software SPSS and descriptive and analytical statistical methods were used. Totally, 32 cases (14.4%) had scores higher than the overall mean score of the questionnaire, in addition to there was a significant difference regarding the sex, time, stress, difficulty in concentrating, error in clinical practice, and the mean score of mobile addiction ($P = 0.001, <0.001, 0.003, >0.001, \text{ and } 0.027$). In addition, there was a significant

relationship between the accident, job performance, speed, accuracy, and overall mean addiction to mobile-phone addiction. This study revealed that lots of people suffer from addiction to mobile phones, their work indexes are affected in some cases.

Chen et.al, (2016) evaluated the mediating role of interpersonal problems in the link between mobile phone addiction levels and negative emotions among mobile phone addicts and possible-mobile phone addicts respectively. The purpose of this study was to address two gaps in research. First, previous research has revealed that a positive association existed between mobile phone addiction levels and negative emotions, especially among those with interpersonal problems. The present study extended research by exploring the mechanisms underlying these associations. Second, Mobile phone addicts as a particular group has received much attention, however, research concerning the possible mobile phone addicts as another particular group is limited. A total of 1089 young adults in China were surveyed by using cluster sampling. Results showed that compared with non addicts, mobile phone addicts or possible mobile phone addicts spent more money and time on mobile phone use and were more vulnerable to have negative emotions. The effects of the possible mobile phone addiction on negative emotions were significant but weaker than those of the mobile phone addiction. Further, interpersonal problem was a significant mediator between mobile phone addiction levels and negative emotions.

Gutiérrez, Fonseca, and Rubio (2016) analyze the concept of cell-phone addiction as well as its prevalence, study methodologies, psychological features, and associated psychiatric co morbidities. Research in this field has generally evolved from a global view of the cell phone as a device to its analysis via applications and contents. The diversity of criteria and methodological approaches that have been used is notable, as is a certain lack of conceptual delimitation that has resulted in a broad spread of prevalent data. There is a consensus about the existence of cell-phone addiction, but the delimitation and criteria used by various researchers vary. Cell-phone addiction shows a distinct user profile that differentiates it from Internet addiction. Without evidence pointing to the influence of cultural level and socioeconomic status, the pattern of abuse is greatest among young people, primarily

females. Intercultural and geographical differences have not been sufficiently studied. The problematic use of cell phones has been associated with personality variables, such as extraversion, neuroticism, self-esteem, impulsivity, self-identity, and self-image. Similarly, sleep disturbance, anxiety, stress, and, to a lesser extent, depression, which are also associated with Internet abuse, have been associated with problematic cell-phone use. In addition, the present review reveals the coexistence relationship between problematic cell-phone use and substance use such as tobacco and alcohol.

Han, Geng, Jou, Gao and Yang (2017) conducted a study on “Relationship between shyness and mobile phone addiction in Chinese young adults: Mediating roles of self-control and attachment anxiety”. This study further explored this association, its underlying mechanisms, and the mediating effects of self-control and attachment anxiety of mobile phone addiction. Investigational methods included a cross-sectional design and multiple questionnaires, namely the college students' Shyness Scale, Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory, College Students' Self-Control Scale, and Mobile Phone Addiction Index. Correlation analysis indicated that shyness, attachment anxiety, and mobile phone addiction have significant, positive correlations with each other, as well as significant, negative correlations with self-control. Hayes's PROCESS macro revealed that self-control and attachment anxiety played multiple mediation roles in the relationship between shyness and mobile phone addiction. In other words, (1) shyness was negatively associated with mobile phone addiction, (2) both attachment anxiety and self-control played partial and parallel mediating roles between shyness and mobile phone addiction, and (3) attachment anxiety and self-control mediated the link between shyness and mobile phone addiction sequentially. The results of this study indicate that mobile phone addiction among shy young adults can be eliminated through the development of self-control and alleviation of attachment anxiety.

Lopez-Fernandez et al., (2017) conducted a study on “Self-reported dependence on mobile phones in young adults: A European cross-cultural empirical survey”. The aim of this study was twofold: to examine (a) cross-cultural patterns of perceived dependence on mobile phones in ten European countries, first, grouped in

four different regions (North: Finland and UK; South: Spain and Italy; East: Hungary and Poland; West: France, Belgium, Germany, and Switzerland), and second by country, and (b) how socio-demographics, geographic differences, mobile phone usage patterns, and associated activities predicted this perceived dependence. A sample of 2775 young adults (aged 18–29 years) was recruited in different European Universities who participated in an online survey. Measures included socio-demographic variables, patterns of mobile phone use, and the dependence subscale of a short version of the Problematic Mobile Phone Use Questionnaire (PMKUQ). The young adults from the Northern and Southern regions reported the heaviest use of mobile phones, whereas perceived dependence was less prevalent in the Eastern region. However, the proportion of highly dependent mobile phone users was more elevated in Belgium, UK, and France. Regression analysis identified several risk factors for increased scores on the PMPUQ dependence subscale, namely using mobile phones daily, being female, engaging in social networking, playing video games, shopping and viewing TV shows through the Internet, chatting and messaging, and using mobile phones for downloading-related activities. Self-reported dependence on mobile phone use is influenced by frequency and specific application usage.

Cha and Seo (2018) aimed to examine smart phone use patterns, smart phone addiction characteristics, and the predictive factors of the smart phone addiction in middle school students in South Korea. According to the Smartphone Addiction Proneness Scale scores, 563 (30.9%) were classified as a risk group for smart phone addiction and 1261 (69.1%) were identified as a normal user group. The adolescents used mobile messengers for the longest, followed by Internet surfing, gaming, and social networking service use. The two groups showed significant differences in smart phone use duration, awareness of game overuse, and purposes of playing games. The predictive factors of smart phone addiction were daily smart phone and social networking service use duration, and the awareness of game overuse.

Yang et.al (2019) studied have documented that mobile phone addiction is linked to anxiety and depression. However, the underlying processes that might moderate these associations remain unclear. The present research tested whether

mindfulness moderated the relations between mobile phone addiction and both anxiety and depression in adolescents. A sample of 1258 high school students (mean age = 16.76, SD = .94) in China completed the measures regarding their mobile phone addiction, anxiety, depression, and mindfulness. Results of multiple regression analyses indicated that after controlling for gender and grade, mobile phone addiction was positively associated with adolescents' anxiety and depression. In addition, the relationships between mobile phone addiction and both anxiety and depression were moderated by mindfulness, in that they were stronger for adolescents with lower levels of mindfulness. The present research contributes to a deeper understanding of whether the links between mobile phone addiction and mental health problems (i.e., anxiety, depression) are moderated by important personality traits such as mindfulness. Limitations and research implications of these findings are discussed.

Li G et.al (2019) investigated college students' mobile phone addiction is negatively associated with physical and mental health and academic performance. Many self-made questionnaires are currently being administered to Chinese college students to evaluate the mobile phone addiction tendency. Using the univariate generalizability theory and multivariate generalizability theory, this study investigated the psychometric properties and the internal structure of the Mobile Phone Addiction Tendency Scale (MPATS), the most widely used survey questionnaire assessing the status of Chinese college students' mobile addiction. Data were a sample of 1,253 college students from the southwest of China. Primary analytic approaches included the generalizability design of univariate random measurement mode $p \times (i:h)$ and multivariate random measurement mode $p' \times i^{\circ}$. Results showed that the variance component of the participants and the variation related to the participants explained most of the variation of the scale, while the variance component of the items was small, and the generalizability coefficient and dependability index of the scale were 0.88 and 0.85. In the multivariate generalizability analysis, the variance component of the participants and the variation related to the participants accounted for most of the variation of the scale and the variance component of the items was small. The generalizability coefficients of withdrawal symptoms, salience, social comfort, and mood changes were 0.64-0.80

and the dependability indexes were 0.63-0.77. However, the generalizability coefficient and reliability index of universe score were 0.91 and 0.90. In addition, the contribution ratio of the four dimensions to the universe score variance was different from the assignment intention of the initial scale. Recommendations were discussed on the improvement of the test reliability for each dimension.

B. STUDIES RELATED TO PERCEIVED LONELINESS

Goswick and Jones (1981) investigated the relationship between loneliness and self-concept and adjustment. College students completed the UCLA Loneliness Scale, the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, and an inventory which assessed the degree of other-focused attention. Results indicated that loneliness was related to more negative self-concepts, possibly less adjustment, and more self-focus. Discussion canters on the relationship between loneliness and self-concept; the possible role of attention in maintaining the negative self-image of lonely people is suggested.

Spitzberg and Canary (1985) found that loneliness is seen as a common social experience, best understood through the mechanisms whereby actors attribute causes for their loneliness. From an attributional perspective, the effects of loneliness chronicity on relational, or communicative, competence are delineated in three hypotheses and empirically tested among dyads involved in a conversational exercise. The hypotheses are generally supported, revealing that chronically lonely people generally do not perceive themselves or others as relationally competent and are perceived as incompetent by others as well.

Levin and Stokes (1986) suggested that there are two processes that can explain why loneliness occur the social network mediation model and the cognitive bias model. The former suggests that certain personality traits make it difficult to form and maintain social relationships with others; consequently, social networks are sparse, leading to loneliness. The latter suggests that negative perceptions toward the self and others lead people to underestimate their social networks: consequently, they feel lonely regardless of the reality of the social networks.

Schultz and Moore (1986) examined sex differences among college students in the quantitative and qualitative aspects of loneliness. Measurements of loneliness, emotional reactivity, and social risk taking were administered to 112 undergraduates. Males evidenced greater self-reported loneliness than females. Generally, affective and social risk-taking measures were more highly related to loneliness among males than females. The results suggest that loneliness is more likely to be associated with negative personal and affective self-evaluations for males than for females. Males may react to loneliness more negatively than females because of a tendency to attribute loneliness to personal failure rather than external, uncontrollable causes. Evidence also suggests that having difficulty in initiating social risks may contribute to loneliness for males more than females.

Solomon, Waysman and Mikulincer (1990) investigated the effects of external sources of perceived social support (family, society) and feelings of loneliness on combat-related psychopathology following a breakdown in war. A sample of Israeli soldiers who fought in the 1982 Lebanon war and suffered from combat stress reaction were given a battery of questionnaires assessing social support, loneliness, and psychopathology 2 years after the war. Results indicate that external sources of perceived social support and loneliness were significantly associated with various dimensions of psychopathology. It was also found that the external sources of perceived social support influenced psychopathology indirectly via their impact on feelings of loneliness. In addition, loneliness was found to be the only direct antecedent of combat-related psychopathology. The multifaceted nature of social support and the differential contributions of its components to mental health are discussed.

Mahon et.al (1995) determined the dimensionality of the revised UCLA Loneliness Scale for adolescents through factor-analytic techniques, and to provide construct validity for the instrument by testing four theoretically derived hypotheses in 333 adolescents, ages 12 to 21. Using prior criteria, a two-factor structure, resulting from a principal components analysis with an orthogonal rotation, best represented the dimensionality of the instrument for adolescents. The two factors demonstrated

acceptable coefficient alpha reliabilities. Evidence of construct validity for the total scale was provided by three statistically significant correlations found between the scale and the theoretically relevant variables of future time perspective, close friend solidarity, and dependency. Contrary to expectation, slow tempo was not appreciably related to loneliness. The results support the use of the revised UCLA Loneliness Scale in future research concerning loneliness in adolescents.

Stack (1998) researched on loneliness has often neglected the role of marriage and family ties, comparative analysis, and cohabitation. It is not clear if the married/parent - loneliness relationship is consistent across nations, is stronger than a cohabitant-loneliness relationship, and applies to both genders. The present study addresses these issues. Data are from 17 nations in the World Values Survey. The results of multiple regression analyses determined that (1) Marriage is associated with substantially less loneliness, but parenthood is not (2) being married was considerably more predictive of loneliness than cohabitation, indicating that companionship alone does not account for the protective nature of marriage (3) both marriage and parental status were associated with lower levels of loneliness among men than women, (4) marriage is associated with decreased loneliness independent of two intervening processes: marriage's association with both health and financial satisfaction, (5) the strength of the marriage-loneliness relationship is constant across 16 of the 17 nations. Theoretically, the results are consistent with a social causation hypothesis on marriage and well-being, but also suggest possible support for a social selection thesis. The findings provide wide sweeping, strong, and largely consistent support for the married-loneliness thesis, but only weak support for a relationship between parenting and loneliness.

Roux (1998) was to investigate the relationship between loneliness and the Christian faith. Questionnaires were completed by a sample of 100 third-year psychology students at the University of the Orange Free State. The results reflect a highly significant negative relationship between loneliness and the Christian faith. This may imply that the lonelier the student is, the weaker his faith is in Jesus as the Redeemer, and vice versa. These findings support the views held by many authors

who maintain that the deepest cause of loneliness may be sought in the individual's religious uprootment and severance of their vertical relationship with God.

Holmen and Furukawa (2002) describe and follow up the existence of experienced loneliness, subjective health and social network among elderly people during a period of 10 years. The study is based on interviews (with structured questions) with persons, aged 75 years and over, performed by trained nurses at a baseline (in 1987) and three follow-ups. Descriptive statistics (frequency) and χ^2 tests were used to study significant differences of the variables experienced loneliness, subjective health, housing, satisfaction with friend contacts and having a good friend to talk to, over time. The results showed that most elderly people tended to report high satisfaction with friend contacts over the study time, despite the decrease in having a good friend to talk to. The satisfaction with social contacts was very close connected with feelings of loneliness. Therefore, a greater understanding for the meaning of having good friend/friends to talk to (meaningful contacts) seems to be important in caring for elderly people.

Shaw and Gant (2002) examined the effects of Internet use on users' psychological health. Due in part to a study released by Kraut and colleagues in 1998, which concluded that Internet use is positively correlated with depression, loneliness, and stress, public opinion about the internet, has been decidedly negative. In contrast, the present study was designed to test the hypothesis that Internet usage can affect users beneficially. Participants engaged in five chat sessions with an anonymous partner. At three different intervals they were administered scales measuring depression, loneliness, self-esteem, and social support. Changes in their scores were tracked over time. Internet use was found to decrease loneliness and depression significantly, while perceived social support and self-esteem increased significantly.

Prezza, Pacilli, and Dinelli (2004) explored the relationships among type of class (computer science or not), gender and socio-economic status and frequency and modality of using the computer, Internet and the mobile phone. The second aim was to explore the relationship between the use of Internet and feelings of loneliness. Two

instruments were administered: a questionnaire to explore some of the social habits of adolescents and their use of the three technologies considered, and the UCLA Loneliness Scale. The results confirmed that those with a higher socio-economic status use Internet more; the computer is used more by those who frequent a computer science section and by those with a higher socio-economic status. Loneliness emerged in relation to gender (higher in females), but not in relation to socio-economic status. Moreover it emerged at both the univariate and multivariate level in relation to the use of Internet and in negative relation to frequenting an informal peer group. A positive relationship between feelings of loneliness and number of friends who go on-line emerged only at the univariate level. The use of the mobile phone was almost completely independent of the variables examined here

Caplan (2007) examined the relations among loneliness, social anxiety, and problematic internet use. The model of problematic internet use advanced and tested in the current study proposes that individuals' psychosocial well-being, along with their beliefs about interpersonal communication (both face-to-face and online) are important cognitive predictors of negative outcomes arising from Internet use. The study examined the extent to which social anxiety explains results previously attributed to loneliness as a predictor of preference for online social interaction and problematic Internet use. The results support the hypothesis that the relationship between loneliness and preference for online social interaction is spurious, and that social anxiety is the confounding variable.

Shin (2007) was to investigate how different forms of peer relationships offer children unique support for loneliness and to examine the direct as well as indirect effects of social behaviours and academic performance through the mediation of peer relationships on the prediction of loneliness in Korean children. Four hundred and sixty-six children were recruited from a primary school in Korea. Peer nomination, self-reports, and teacher ratings were used to measure social behaviours, peer relationships, academic performance, and loneliness. The results showed that peer relationships, including peer acceptance, the number of friends, and positive friendship quality, uniquely contributed to loneliness. Peer relationships partially

mediated between withdrawal and loneliness. Peer acceptance and friendship quality fully mediated the link between academic functioning and loneliness. The findings were discussed with respect to how the social behaviours and academic performance are perceived and valued in Korean culture.

Sawir et.al, (2007) conducted a study of international student security, consisting of 200 intensive interviews with students, resident onshore in Australia, it was found that two thirds of the group had experienced problems of loneliness and/or isolation, especially in the early months. According to Weiss, students experience both personal loneliness because of the loss of contact with families and social loneliness because of the loss of networks. Both forms of loneliness are at times exacerbated by their experiences in institutional sites. The article discusses the coping mechanisms that students use. It identifies a third kind of loneliness experienced by international students, cultural loneliness, triggered by the absence of the preferred cultural and/or linguistic environment. This can affect even students with adequate personal and social support. Thus, same-culture networks are often crucial for international students. Yet same-culture networks are not a universal panacea: They cannot substitute for adequate pastoral care by universities or ensure satisfactory engagement with local cultures, so some causes of cultural loneliness often remain. The article concludes that the creation of stronger bonds between international and local students in the educational setting, helping international students to remake their own cultural maps on their own terms, is key' to a forward move on loneliness.

Most (2007) examined the sense of coherence and loneliness of 19 children aged 12–14 years with severe to profound hearing loss. These feelings and their interrelations with speech intelligibility (SI) were examined in 2 settings: in special classes within regular schools (group inclusion) or individuals integrated into regular classes (individual inclusion). Two self-report measures (Loneliness Questionnaire and Sense of Coherence Scale) and one SI measure were utilized. Results indicated no significant differences between sense of coherence and loneliness scores of children in the 2 settings. Children in group inclusion received a significantly lower average SI score than did children who were in individual inclusion. Examination of the relations

between SI and loneliness and coherence in each educational setting revealed no significant relations among these measures for the children in the group inclusion, whereas significant correlations did emerge for the children who were in individual inclusion. The study emphasized the importance of good SI not only for basic communication but also as a factor that affects the child's social and emotional feelings. In selecting a school setting, it is important to look beyond academic factors and not to ignore the significant effect of SI on the child's well being in school.

Reid and Reid (2007) investigated whether social anxiety and loneliness lead to contrasting beliefs and preferences among cell phone users towards texting and talking on their cell phones. Three hypotheses are examined: (1) that social anxiety and loneliness are differentially associated with generalized preferences either for texting or for talking on the cell phone, (2) that these preferences are linked to contrasting beliefs concerning the social functionality of the short message service (SMS), and (3) that these divergent beliefs mediate the effects of social anxiety and loneliness on cell phone users' generalized preferences for texting or talking. Results from an Internet questionnaire ($N = 158$) showed that, whilst lonely participants preferred making voice calls and rated texting as a less intimate method of contact, anxious participants preferred to text, and rated it a superior medium for expressive and intimate contact. These divergent beliefs accounted for 36% and 16% of the variance in preference for texting and voice calls, respectively, and significantly attenuated the influence of loneliness and social anxiety when they were added to the regression equations for these measures. Results are discussed in terms of the hyper personal possibilities of mobile communications technologies.

Ceyhan and Ceyhan (2008) investigated whether university students' levels of loneliness, depression, and computer self-efficacy were significant predictors of their problematic Internet use levels. The study was carried out with 559 Turkish university students. The research data were analyzed by multiple regression analysis. The findings indicated that loneliness, depression, and computer self-efficacy were significant predictors of problematic Internet use. Loneliness was found as the most

important predictive variable. Depression predicted problematic Internet use on the second rank, and computer self-efficacy on the third rank.

Hawkley et.al, (2008) tested a conceptual model of loneliness in which social structural factors are posited to operate through proximal factors to influence perceptions of relationship quality and loneliness. The study was used a population-based sample of 225 White, Black, and Hispanic men and women aged 50 through 68 from the Chicago Health, Aging, and Social Relations Study to examine the extent to which associations between socio demographic factors and loneliness were explained by socioeconomic status, physical health, social roles, stress exposure, and, ultimately, by network size and subjective relationship quality. Education and income were negatively associated with loneliness and explained racial/ethnic differences in loneliness. Being married largely explained the association between income and loneliness, with positive marital relationships offering the greatest degree of protection against loneliness. Independent risk factors for loneliness included male gender, physical health symptoms, chronic work and/or social stress, small social network, lack of a spousal confidant, and poor-quality social relationships. Longitudinal research is needed to evaluate the causal role of social structural and proximal factors in explaining changes in loneliness.

Sum, Mathews, Hughes, and Campbell (2008) conducted a study on use of the internet by seniors as a communication technology may lead to changes in older adult social relationships. This study used an online questionnaire to survey 222 Australians over 55 years of age on Internet use. Respondents primarily used the Internet for communication, seeking information, and commercial purposes. The results showed negative correlations between loneliness and well-being. Multiple regression analyses revealed that greater use of the Internet as a communication tool was associated with a lower level of social loneliness. In contrast, greater use of the Internet to find new people was associated with a higher level of emotional loneliness.

Cacioppo and Hawley (2009) tested predictions about social species, from *Drosophila melanogaster* to *homo sapiens*, fare poorly when isolated. *Homo sapiens*, an irrepressibly meaning-making species, are, in normal circumstances, dramatically affected by perceived social isolation. Research indicates that perceived social

isolation (i.e. loneliness) is a risk factor for, and may contribute to, poorer overall cognitive performance, faster cognitive decline, poorer executive functioning, increased negativity and depressive cognition, heightened sensitivity to social threats.

Cooper, Balandin and Trembath (2009) examined that young adults with cerebral palsy who use augmentative and alternative communication (AAC) systems may be at increased risk of loneliness due to the additional challenges they experience with communication. Six young adults, aged 24–30 years, who used AAC and had cerebral palsy, participated in in-depth interviews to explore their experiences of loneliness as they made the transition into adulthood. A total of five major themes in the data were identified using the constant comparative method of analysis. Three of these themes were discussed by all participants: (a) Support Networks, (b) AAC System Use, and (c) Technology. The authors concluded that these three themes were most important in understanding the experiences of loneliness of the young adults with cerebral palsy who participated in this study.

De Jong Gierveld, Broese van Groenou, Hoogendoorn and Smit (2009) examined the extent of emotional and social loneliness among older people and how the evaluation of the functioning and quality of marriages plays a role. Data on 755 respondents aged 64–92 are taken from the Longitudinal Aging Study Amsterdam (Wave 2001–2002). Hierarchical negative binomial regression analysis is used. Between 1 in 4 and 5 older adults who are married exhibit moderate or strong emotional or social loneliness. Stronger emotional and social loneliness is observed in adults whose spouse has health problems, who do not often receive emotional support from the spouse, who have non frequent conversations or are in disagreement, or who evaluate their current sex life as not (very) pleasant or not applicable. Emotional loneliness is stronger among women in second marriages, whereas marked social loneliness is especially characteristic of older men with disabled spouses. Moreover, smaller social networks and less contact with children also increase emotional and social loneliness in later life. Differentiating marital quality and gender provides greater insight into emotional and social loneliness in married older people.

Qualter, Quinton, Wagner and Brown (2009) conducted a study on “Loneliness, Interpersonal Distrust, and Alexithymia in University Students”. Loneliness has been linked to emotional knowledge and interpersonal distrust, but it is unknown whether it is mediated or moderated by these variables. Using self-report measures, the relationship between loneliness, interpersonal distrust, and alexithymia was investigated in undergraduate students ($N = 224$). Analyses showed a direct relationship between alexithymia and social, family, and romantic loneliness. We also found that interpersonal distrust partly mediates this relationship, and that alexithymia and interpersonal distrust interacted to predict social and family loneliness. These findings suggest that links between the different facets of alexithymia, interpersonal distrust, and loneliness are complex and multifaceted, and they are discussed with regard to interventions for young adults.

Benner (2010) examined Latino adolescents’ feelings of loneliness and the repercussions of loneliness for later educational success. Participants were 640 Latino students (56% girls, 62% Mexican/Mexican–American) who reported on loneliness across the first 2 years of high school. Growth mixture modelling identified three distinct loneliness trajectory classes for the Latino adolescents—consistently low, chronically high, and low but increasing. Language brokering, language use, and school mobility emerged as predictors of class membership. Increasingly and chronically lonely youth experienced academic difficulty, both in terms of academic progress and exit exam success, but support from friends served as a buffer of the negative relationship between loneliness and academic success. This study highlights the pernicious effects of loneliness and suggests promoting prosocial friendship support as a means of facilitating more positive academic outcomes for Latino youth.

Bonetti, Campbell and Gilmore (2010) investigated the differences in usage of online communication patterns between children and adolescents with and without self-reported loneliness and social anxiety. Six hundred twenty-six student’s ages 10 to 16 years completed a survey on the amount of time they spent communicating online, the topics they discussed, the partners they engaged with, and their purposes for communicating over the Internet. Participants were administered a shortened

version of the UCLA Loneliness Scale and an abbreviated subscale of the Social Anxiety Scale for Adolescents (SAS-A). Additionally, age and gender differences in usage of the online communication patterns were examined across the entire sample. Findings revealed that children and adolescents who self-reported being lonely communicated online significantly more frequently about personal and intimate topics than did those who did not self-report being lonely. The former were motivated to use online communication significantly more frequently to compensate for their weaker social skills to meet new people. Results suggest that Internet usage allows them to fulfill critical needs of social interactions, self-disclosure, and identity exploration. Future research, however, should explore whether or not the benefits derived from online communication may also facilitate lonely children's and adolescents' offline social relationships.

Gentzler, Oberhauser, Westerman and Nadorff (2011) studied the use of new communication technologies; gaps in our knowledge remain regarding who is likely to rely on particular technologies and potential ramifications of these forms of communication on individuals' relationships and adjustment. In an online survey, 211 college students reported on their use of electronic communication with a parent who they identified as their closest family member. Results indicated that students who report more frequent phone conversations with parents also report more satisfying, intimate, and supportive parental relationships, but those students who use a social-networking site to communicate with parents report higher levels of loneliness, anxious attachment, as well as conflict within the parental relationship. The findings offer new evidence on how electronic communication technology with parents is related to adjustment in college students. Our study also suggests that further research is needed using longitudinal designs to understand better young adults' use of technology to communicate in today's society.

Salimi (2011) examined "Social-Emotional Loneliness and Life Satisfaction" had been conducted on a sample of 396 university students which 172 are male students and 224 are female students from Shiraz University by Salimi (2011). In this study, Salimi (2011) was using the Demographic Information Form; (SWLS) the

Satisfaction with Life Scale and (SELSA-S) the short version of Social and Emotional Loneliness Scale for Adults to examine gender differences in loneliness and also how life satisfaction been affected by social and emotional loneliness. The data collected was analysed by using independent t-test and the result revealed there are gender differences in level of loneliness in students. The result showed that female students' emotional loneliness level of were significantly lower than male students (Salimi, 2011). Salimi (2011) explained that female students will discuss the feelings and share with their friends more regularly compare to male students who keep their feelings under control. On the other hand, compare with female students, male students do not express their sadness such as crying and experience the higher level of loneliness. Female students are easier in self-disclosure and it is needed to develop close and intimate relationships (Salimi, 2011). Therefore, males have more emotional loneliness than females

Rote, Hill and Ellison (2012) suggested that religious involvement can protect against loneliness, explanations for this general pattern are underdeveloped and under tested. In this paper, propose and test a theoretical model, which suggests that social integration and social support are key mechanisms that link religious attendance and loneliness. To formally test theoretical model, for use data from the National Social Life Health and Aging Project (2005/2006), a large national probability sample of older adults aged 57–85 years. The study find that religious attendance is associated with higher levels of social integration and social support and that social integration and social support are associated with lower levels of loneliness.

Sahin (2012) focused on the relationship between the concepts of cyber bullying/cyber victimization and loneliness. The subjects of the study were 389 secondary school students, of whom 159 were boys and 230 were girls, from various schools in the city of Trabzon. The study was carried out in the fall semester of the 2009–2010 academic years. The Loneliness Scale (UCLA) and the Cyber bullying Scale were used in the study. Correlation technique, multiple regression analysis and independent *t* test, were employed for statistical analysis. The study concluded that there was a significant correlation between becoming a cyber victim and loneliness

among adolescents. Loneliness predicted by cyber victimization. These results were discussed and some conclusions were made.

VanderWeele, Hawkey and Cacioppo (2012) conducted a study on “On the Reciprocal Association between Loneliness and Subjective Well-being”. Loneliness has been shown to longitudinally predict subjective well-being. The authors used data from a longitudinal population-based study (2002–2006) of non-Hispanic white, African-American, and nonblack Latino-American persons born between 1935 and 1952 and living in Cook County, Illinois. They applied marginal structural models for time-varying exposures to examine the magnitude and persistence of the effects of loneliness on subjective well-being and of subjective well-being on loneliness. Their results indicate that, if interventions on loneliness were made 1 and 2 years prior to assessing final subjective well-being, then only the intervention 1 year prior would have an effect (standardized effect = -0.29). In contrast, increases in subjective well-being 1 year prior (standardized effect = -0.26) and 2 years prior (standardized effect = -0.13) to assessing final loneliness would both have an effect on an individual's final loneliness. These effects persist even after control is made for depressive symptoms, social support, and psychiatric conditions and medications as time-varying confounders. Results from this study indicate an asymmetrical and persistent feedback of fairly substantial magnitude between loneliness and subjective well-being. Mechanisms responsible for the asymmetry are discussed. Developing interventions for loneliness and subjective well-being could have substantial psychological and health benefits.

Al Khatib (2012) entitled “Exploring the relationship among loneliness, self-esteem, self-efficacy and gender in United Arab Emirates College students”, the researcher Al Khatib (2012) had studied the relationship between loneliness, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and gender among the college students. Al Khatib (2012) had selected a sample of 495 college students, which consist of 292 female students and 203 male students from Al Ain University of Science and Technology. Gender stratified sampling was used to select the sample. The loneliness level was measured by using University of California Los Angeles Loneliness Scale (UCLA loneliness

scale), while Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (1965) was used to measure self-esteem. The General Self-efficacy Scale (1979) was used to measure self-efficacy (Al Khatib, 2012). In order to compare females' and males' scores on main variables, Al Khatib (2012) had used T-test to analyse the data. The relationships between loneliness, self-esteem and social self-efficacy were analysed by using Pearson correlation. Male

Bozoglan, Demirer and Sahin (2013) investigated the relationship among loneliness, self-esteem, life satisfaction, and Internet addiction. Participants were 384 university students (114 males, 270 females) from 18 to 24 years old from the faculty of education in Turkey. The Internet Addiction, UCLA Loneliness, Self-esteem, and Life Satisfaction scales were distributed to about 1000 university students, and 38.4% completed the survey (see Appendix A and B). It was found that loneliness, self-esteem, and life satisfaction explained 38% of the total variance in Internet addiction. Loneliness was the most important variable associated with Internet addiction and its subscales. Loneliness and self-esteem together explained time-management problems and interpersonal and health problems while loneliness, self-esteem, and life satisfaction together explained only the interpersonal and health problems subscales.

Myers (2013) examined the levels of social isolation in terms of the state of loneliness and trait of shyness and their correlations with academic achievement in 206 community college and university students to examine the connection between social isolation, GPA and cell phone use in college students. Two instruments used in the collection of data were the Revised Cheek and Buss Shyness Scale (RCBS) and the DeJong Gierveld Loneliness Scale. Correlation analysis was used to examine the relationships between variables. Hypothesis 1 proposed a significant negative relationship between higher levels of cell phone use and academic achievement as measured by self-reported GPA. This was partially supported by the research findings. Hypothesis 2 proposed a significant negative relationship between shyness and higher levels of cell phone use. This was also partially supported by the research findings. Hypothesis 3 proposed a significant positive relationship between loneliness and higher levels of cell phone use. This was not supported by research findings.

Implications for further research include examining non-college populations for greater generalization of results and examining additional personality traits.

Ezoel and Toda (2013) investigated factors contributing to internet addiction in 105 Japanese medical students. The subjects were administered by a self-reporting questionnaire designed to evaluate demographic factors, Internet addiction, loneliness, health-related lifestyle factors, depressive state, patterns of behaviour, and mobile phone dependence. The possible associations between Internet addiction and each factor such as demographic characteristics, loneliness, depressive state, health-related lifestyle, patterns of behaviour, and mobile phone dependence were identified by using Univariate and subsequent multivariate logistic regression analyses. According to the study, there was a significant positive correlation between Internet addiction and mobile phone dependence. Besides that, it was a significant positive correlation between loneliness and Internet addiction. As the result, the research showed that mobile phone dependence and loneliness were positively associated to level of addiction. The outcome of this study is showing that Internet addiction is associated with mobile phone dependence and loneliness among Japanese students. However, their multivariate logistic regression analysis results showed that depressive state was not significantly related to Internet addiction.

Singh and Kiran (2013) examined the relationship between loneliness, depression; alcoholism, child abuse, and bereavement are discussed. Studies of the relationship of loneliness with other psychiatric disorders are lacking. There are data relating loneliness to physical disease and possible mechanisms for this relationship are reviewed. The loss of a spouse in elderly women is the most disorganizing life event they can ever with stand. The purpose of the present study is to understand the concept of loneliness among elderly women by reviewing the popular theories proposed by the researches. It also aims at examining the relationship of loneliness with their quality of life and other demographic issues through review of related researches. Findings revealed that loneliness is a particularly relevant issue in relation to elderly widows, whose rates of mortality illness and depression exceed those of their married counterparts, every woman who loses a husband through death experiences a painful period of bereavement, often accompanied by severe loneliness,

obsessive thoughts of the deceased, restlessness, insomnia, somatic complaints, and even hallucinations of the deceased, and poor mental wellbeing. Older women report more loneliness than male peers. Loneliness is an area of concern related to the wellbeing of older women because it is a cause of emotional distress and is linked to a variety of health problems in older individuals. Life changes, including widowhood and relocation, are associated with increased vulnerability to loneliness. Gender, social, and cultural factors influence the experience of loneliness in older women. Cognitive and interactionist theoretical approaches to loneliness have utility for nursing practice and research with older women who experience loneliness. However with structured interventions widows may be able to eventually recover from the loss and stand on their feet again.

Chen, Wang, Li and Liu (2014) examined loneliness and its associations with social functioning in children across different historical times and contexts in China. They collected data from urban and rural groups of school-age children (N = 2,588; M age = 10 years) using self-reports and peer assessments. The results indicated that children in 2002 and 2005 urban groups had lower scores on loneliness than did children in 1992 and 1998 urban groups, suggesting that as urban China became a more modernized, self-oriented society, children tended to report lower levels of loneliness. Consistent with this trend, urban children reported lower levels of loneliness than did their rural counterparts in recent years. The analysis of associations between social functioning and loneliness revealed that across groups, sociability was negatively associated with loneliness, and aggression was positively associated with loneliness. The association between shyness and loneliness differed among the groups; it was negative in the 1992 urban group, positive in the 2002 and 2005 urban groups, and non significant in the 1998 urban and 2007 rural groups. The different associations suggest that whether shy children feel lonely might depend on context.

Luo and Waite (2014) examined the relationships between loneliness, social and health behaviours, health, and mortality among older adults in China. Data came from a nationally representative sample of 14,072 adults aged 65 and older from the 2002, 2005, and 2008 waves of the Chinese Longitudinal Healthy Longevity Survey.

A cross-lagged model combined with survival analysis was used to assess the relationships between loneliness, behavioural and health outcomes, and risk of mortality. About 28% of older Chinese adults reported feeling lonely, and lonely adults faced increased risks of dying over the subsequent years. Some of the effect was explained by social and health behaviours, but most of the effect was explained by health outcomes. Loneliness both affects and is affected by social activities, solitary leisure activities, physical exercise, emotional health, self-rated health, and functional limitations over a 3-year period. Loneliness is part of a constellation of poor social, emotional, and health outcomes for Chinese older adults. Interventions to increase the social involvement of lonely individuals may improve well-being and lengthen life.

Cacophony et.al (2015) review evidence suggesting that loneliness is not a uniquely human phenomenon, but, instead, as a scientific construct, it represents a generally adaptive predisposition that can be found across phylogeny. Central to this argument is the premise that the brain is the key organ of social connections and processes. Comparative studies and animal models, particularly when integrated with human studies, have much to contribute to the understanding of loneliness and its underlying principles, mechanisms, consequences, and potential treatments.

Matook, Cummings and Bala (2015) found that in contemporary society, many people move away from their personal networks for extended periods to reach professional and/or educational goals. This separation can often lead to feelings of loneliness, which can be stressful and sometimes debilitating for the individual. They seek to understand how a person's use of online social networks (OSNs)—technology-enabled tools that assist users with creating and maintaining their relationships—might affect their perceptions of loneliness. Prior research has offered mixed results about how OSNs affect loneliness—reporting both positive and negative effects. They argue in this study that a clearer perspective can be gained by taking a closer look at how individuals approach their relationship management in OSNs. Building on theoretical works on loneliness, they develop a model to explain the effects of relationship characteristics (i.e., relationship orientation, self-disclosure, and

networking ability) and OSN features (i.e., active or passive) on perceived loneliness. The findings show that OSN can be linked to both more and less perceived loneliness, that is, individuals' relationship orientation significantly affects their feelings of loneliness, which are further moderated by their degree of self-disclosure within the OSN. Furthermore, how users engage in the OSN (either actively or passively) influences their perceptions of loneliness. Practical implications regarding perceived loneliness include recommendations for firms to encourage mobile workers to utilize OSNs when separated from others, for education providers to connect with their new students before they arrive, and for users to utilize OSNs as a social bridge to others they feel close with.

Pittman (2015) explored the relationship between social media attitudes and behaviours and loneliness among college students. The study looks at the interaction of loneliness with three popular social media platforms (facebook, twitter, and instagram), as well as how often those students create and/or consume content within each platform. A survey administered to 432 undergraduates at two universities in the Pacific Northwest identified a significant relationship between social media attitudes and behaviours and offline loneliness. In particular, as students' affinity for twitter and instagram increased, their self-reported loneliness decreased. Similarly, the more they both created and consumed content within twitter and instagram, the more reported loneliness decreased. No significant correlations among attitudes, behaviours and loneliness were found for facebook usage.

Ye (2016) suggested that shyness only had direct effects on loneliness but had no mediating effects on their social networks, regardless of FTF, IM or email. Currently people transmit information to a large number of people via social media, while also sending text messages and or making voice or video calls to a specific person using "messengers". These allow as supposing that if individual's social networks via IM are large enough as a result of FTH interactions, this will help them decrease loneliness. On the other hand, as younger people seldom send emails to connect with intimate friends, social networks via email might have weaker effects than those developed via IM.

Zhong, Chen and Conwell (2016) conducted a study on the relationship between loneliness and cognitive function and to explore the mediating role of physical health on the loneliness–cognition relationship in Chinese older adults (OAs). Data came from a nationally representative sample of 14,199 Chinese OAs (aged 65+) from 2002, 2005, 2008, and 2011 waves of the Chinese Longitudinal Healthy Longevity Survey. A latent variable cross-lagged panel model combined with mediation analysis was used to determine the relationship between loneliness and cognitive function and the mediating effect of increase in the number of chronic conditions on the ascertained loneliness–cognition relationship. Severe loneliness at prior assessment points was significantly associated with poorer cognitive function at subsequent assessments, and vice versa. The Δ NCCs partially mediated these prospective reciprocal relationships, accounting for 2.58% of the total effect of loneliness on cognition and 4.44% of the total effect of cognition on loneliness, respectively. Loneliness may predict subsequent cognitive decline, and vice versa. This loneliness–cognition relationship is partially explained by their impact on physical health. Multidisciplinary interventions aimed at reducing loneliness and cognitive decline per se and their associated risk factors as well as improving chronic illness management would be beneficial for emotional well-being and cognitive health in OAs.

D’Agostino, Kattan, and Canli (2017) conducted a functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) study of loneliness in younger and older female adults. Compared to younger adults, older adults were less lonely and dwelled longer on faces, regardless of valence. Previous studies in younger adults found that loneliness was negatively correlated with ventral striatal (VS) activation to pleasant social pictures of strangers yet positively correlated with VS activation to faces of close others. In the present study, we observed no association between loneliness and VS activation to social pictures of strangers in either age group. Further, unlike previous studies, we observed no association between social network size and amygdale activation to social stimuli. Additional research is needed to examine the effect of loneliness and social network size on neural processing of different dimensions of social stimuli.

Mund M et.al (2019) found that individuals experience loneliness when they perceive a deficiency in the quality or quantity of their social relationships. In the present meta-analysis, we compiled data from 75 longitudinal studies conducted in Asia, Australia, Europe, and North America (N = 83, 679) to examine the rank-order and mean-level development of loneliness across the life span. Data were analyzed using two- and three-level meta-analyses and generalized additive mixed models. The results indicate that the rank order of loneliness is as stable as the rank order of personality traits and follows an inverted U-shaped trajectory across the life span. Regarding mean-level development, loneliness was found to decrease throughout childhood and to remain essentially stable from adolescence to oldest old age. Thus, in contrast to other personality characteristics, changes in loneliness are not generally related to age.

C. COMBINED STUDIES ON MOBILE PHONE ADDICTION AND PERCEIVED LONELINESS

Wei and Lo (2006) examined the relationship between shyness, loneliness and cell phone use. Together, loneliness and shyness were considered by the authors to be a measure of a lack of “Social Connectedness”, a term defined as a lack of “interpersonal, community, and general social ties.” Loneliness was defined as “a self-perceived state that a person’s network of relationships is either smaller or less satisfying than desired”, and shyness as “discomfort and inhibition that may occur in the presence of others.” Results found significant negative correlations between shyness and total use of cell phone daily ($r = -.29$), number of social uses ($r = -.29$), average call time ($r = -.12$), number of owned mobile phones ($r = -.11$), and length of time of cell phone ownership ($r = -.24$). Further, loneliness was negatively correlated to “frequency of social-oriented use” ($r = -.21$), total use daily ($r = -.15$), and length of cell phone ownership ($r = -.14$).

Farah and Fariba (2009) evaluated the relationship between impulsivity, loneliness and the mobile phone usage rate in male and female students of Ahwaz

Islamic Azad University. The research samples consisted of 200 subjects (100 males 100 females). They were selected based on stratified random sampling procedures from enrolled students of Ahwaz I.A.U for 2008-2009 academic year. The instrument used in this research were Barrat Impulsivity Scale (BIS-11), Loneliness Inventory (UCLA), Mobile Phone Addiction Index (MPAI). The results showed that, there were positive and multiple relations between impulsivity, loneliness and the mobile phone usage rate. The results of regression analysis also revealed that, the significant predicting variable in determining the mobile phone usage rate was the impulsivity.

Jin and Park (2010) examined how cell-phone use is related to interpersonal motives for using cell phones, face-to-face communication, and loneliness. A survey of 232 college students who owned a cell phone revealed that affection and inclusion were relatively strong motivations for using voice calls and text messaging, and that interpersonal motives were positively related to the amount of cell-phone use, including calling and texting. The amount of face-to-face interaction was positively associated with the participants' cell-phone use and their interpersonal motives for using cell phones: the more the participants engaged in face-to-face interaction with other people, the higher their motives were and the more frequent cell-phone use was. Loneliness did not have a direct relation to cell-phone use. Instead, the participants with higher levels of loneliness were less likely to engage in face-to-face social interaction, which led them to use cell phones less and to be less motivated to use cell phones for interpersonal purposes.

Casey (2012) studied the linking psychological attributes to smart phone addiction, face-to-face communication, present absence and social capital. The sample consisted of 414 university students. The results of this study showed that the higher one scored on loneliness and shyness, the higher the likelihood one would be addicted. Students who reported the greater amount of smart phone used the higher level of face-to-face communication and present absence they would report. The study also found that the smart phone addiction symptoms are significantly and negatively related to the level of face-to-face communication and positively related to present absence. Furthermore, the most powerful factors affect bonding social capital were

gender, grade, and loneliness; while the most powerful factor affecting bridging social capital was face-to-face communication with friends.

Tan, Pamuk, and Donder, (2013) studied the loneliness and mobile phone. This study was aimed to analyses loneliness of university students according to mobile phone addiction, daily phone use time and gender. Survey model is used for this research. To collect data; personal information form, problematic mobile phone use scale, and UCLA-loneliness scale were applied for 527 students who are from different Departments of Faculty of Education at Firat University. To analyses these data; correlation, t test, one way variance (ANOVA) analysis and Scheffe test were used. Results revealed that loneliness was significantly associated with problematic mobile phone use ($r=.35$) Furthermore, there were significant differences between loneliness and independent variables (gender, mobile phone addiction and daily phone use time).

Jin and Park, (2013) developed a research model of mobile voice communication on the basis of the social skills deficit hypothesis. In the model, poor social skills were related to less face-to-face and mobile voice communication, which was linked to greater loneliness. Structural equation modelling analyses of survey responses from 374 adults supported the social skills deficit hypothesis in that poor social skills were related to less involvement in face-to-face communication and greater loneliness. Also, as expected, more face-to-face interactions were associated with lower levels of loneliness; however, more cell phone calling was associated with greater loneliness. Additional regression analyses revealed that the positive relationship between mobile voice communication and loneliness was more pronounced for those who have more friends than those who have fewer friends.

Arslan's (2013) studied the problematic phone use increases as talking time increases; however increase of talking time decreases loneliness level in teenagers. Jin and Park (2012) found that more face-to-face interactions were associated with lower levels of loneliness; however, more cell phone calling was associated with greater

loneliness. Reid (2007) revealed that lonely people preferred calls and rated text such as short message service (SMS, or text messaging) as a less intimate method of contact. According to Takao, et al. (2009) it is conceivable that lonely people are eager to maintain contact with their peers through frequent calls so as to full fills their loneliness.

Oztunc (2013) determined the effect of several variables on problematic mobile phone use, and the feelings of shyness and loneliness. In this research conducted on university students, T-test and ANOVAs test, which approaches one of the variables as dependent and others as independent, have been used. In the study, Problematic Mobile Phone Use levels of university students and their shyness and loneliness levels were taken as dependent variables, whereas gender, grade level, internet use and place of residence were taken as independent variables. In the research, Problematic Mobile Phone Usage Scale, UCLA Loneliness Scale and Shyness Scale were used. According to research findings, significant relationship were found between dependent variables, discussed as problematic mobile phone use and shyness and loneliness level, and some independent variables. It was seen that male students used more problematic mobile phones than female students, female students feel more sense of loneliness than male students, and students staying at dormitories use more problematic mobile phones than students staying at home and carry more sense of shyness. In addition, it was also discovered that students, who do not use internet, feel lone liner than students who use internet. In our study, those who come from villages to study at university are shyer than those who come from cities.

Bian and Leung (2014) explored the roles of psychological attributes (such as shyness and loneliness) and smart phone usage patterns in predicting smart phone addiction symptoms and social capital. Data were gathered from a sample of 414 university students using online survey in mainland China. Results from exploratory factor analysis identified five smart Phone addiction symptoms: disregard of harmful and lost, which formed the Smartphone Addiction Scale. Results show that the higher one scored in loneliness and shyness, the higher the likelihood one would be addicted to smart phone. Furthermore, this study shows the most powerful predictor inversely

affecting both bonding and bridging social capital was loneliness. Moreover, this study presents clear evidence that the use of smart phones for different purposes (especially for information seeking, sociability, and utility) and the exhibition of different addiction symptoms (such as preoccupation and feeling anxious and lost) significantly impacted social capital building. The significant links between smart phone addiction and smart phone usage, loneliness, and shyness have clear implications for treatment and intervention for parents, educators, and policy makers.

Bhardwaj and Ashok (2015) conducted a study on mobile phone addiction & loneliness among teenagers. Survey research is used for this study. To collect data; personal information form, mobile phone addiction scale, and -loneliness scale were applied for 40 students who are from different colleges in Mumbai city. To analyze these data; correlation, t test were calculated. Results revealed that mobile phone addiction was significantly associated with loneliness. Furthermore, no significant gender differences were found in terms of loneliness and mobile phone addiction.

Chern, Lan, and Ning (2015) examined the relationship of smart phone addiction, loneliness and gender differences. To collect data; demographic questionnaire, Smartphone Addiction Scale–Short Version (SAS-SV) and UCLA-Loneliness (Version 3) were applied for among 297 undergraduate's students in University Tunku Abdul Rahman, Kampar campus. To analyze these data; correlation and t test were used. Results revealed that smart phone addiction was significantly related with loneliness. Furthermore, there were no significant gender difference in smart phone addiction and loneliness. However smart phone addiction is positively related to loneliness. While the study shows that smart phone addiction are positively related to loneliness in females undergraduates, on the other hand it has no correlation in males undergraduates. The higher smart phone addiction levels will lead to higher loneliness level. The results of the study were discussed together with the results of different studies and the limitations and recommendations were made.

Chen and Leung (2016) explored the relation of psychological factors (including perceived gratifications, loneliness, leisure boredom, and self-control) to mobile social game use and addiction. The study data were gathered from 409 respondents in China. The exploratory factor analysis yielded a gratification structure of five factors (mobility, entertainment, sociability, achievement, and relaxation). According to Young's (1998) classic definition, 7.3% of the participants in the study sample were considered addicts. They were characterized as lonely, leisurely bored, and motivated by the mobile nature of the game. As expected, frequent players had a higher tendency to become addicts. In particular, loneliness and self-control were significant predictors of mobile social game addiction, whereas leisure boredom was linked to the intensity of game use. The limitations of the study and its implications for future research are discussed.

Enez Darcin et.al (2016) studied the smart phone addiction and its relationship with social anxiety and loneliness. The study aimed to determine the relationship of smart phone addiction with social phobia and loneliness. The sample consisted of three hundred and sixty-seven students who owned smart phones. The results of this study indicate that social phobia was associated with the risk for smart phone addiction in young people. Younger individuals who primarily use their smart phones to access social networking sites also have an excessive pattern of smart phone use.

Dikeç, Yalnız, Bektaş, Turhan and Çevik (2017) examined the relationship between smart phone addiction and loneliness in a group of high school students in Izmir. The study found that students who feel a sense of loneliness tend to use smart phones a lot and are at risk of smart phone addiction. It is recommended that addiction community mental health nurses take preventive measures against smart phone addiction to protect and improve the mental health of the students.

Gezin, Hamutoglu, Sezen-Gultekin and Ayas (2018) looked the relationship between nomophobia and loneliness, and the effects of smart phone and mobile internet use among adolescents. A total of 301 adolescents were employed for the study and the data were collected via nomophobia (NMP-Q) and UCLA Loneliness Short-Form (ULS-8) Scales. The study was conducted in a relational survey model

using descriptive statistics, ANOVA, Pearson correlation, and linear regression. According to the findings the levels of nomophobic behaviours of adolescents were at a moderate level. While there was not a statistically significant correlation in terms of the duration of smart phone ownership and monthly mobile internet GSM quota, a significant difference was found in terms of the duration of mobile internet ownership, the duration of daily mobile internet use, and daily smart phone checking time. Finally, there was a statistically significant relationship between nomophobia and loneliness, and it can be ascertained that loneliness of adolescents predicts their nomophobia levels to a certain extent.

Jiang, Lisa, and Shypenka (2018) examined the relationship between individualism, loneliness, smart phone use, and smart phone addiction. In total, 438 international students voluntarily participated in the survey. The participants were from 67 countries and have been studying in China for months. The results show international students in China as a high-risk population for both severe loneliness and smart phone addiction, with 5.3 percent of the participants experiencing severe loneliness and more than half of the participants exhibiting smart phone addiction symptoms. This study reveals predicting power of cultural individualism in explaining loneliness and significant mediation effects of loneliness and smart phone use. Those international students with lower degree of individualism showed higher degree of loneliness which led to higher degree of smart phone use and smart phone addiction. Loneliness was found to be the strongest predictor for smart phone addiction. These findings should be noticed for prevention, intervention, and treatment for smart phone addiction among international students.

D. SUMMARY OF LITERATURE

From the above literature review, many studies have been done in the western countries and only a few studies done in the Indian context. The studies were focused on almost all areas of population like males, females, college students, professionals, employees, medical students, etc. There are also comparative studies are present. The purpose of this particular study is to examine the perceived loneliness of college students in terms of mobile phone use, mobile phone addiction and gender.

E. OBJECTIVES

1. To identify relationship between mobile phone addiction and perceived loneliness among college students.
2. To find out the sex-wise differences among college students on mobile phone addiction and perceived loneliness.
3. To find out the level of education wise differences among college students on mobile phone addiction and perceived loneliness.
4. To find out the stream of study wise differences among college students on mobile phone addiction and perceived loneliness.

F. HYPOTHESIS

1. There will be significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and Perceived loneliness among college students.
 - a) There will be significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and maladaptive usage dimension among college students.
 - b) There will be significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and self expression dimension among college students.
 - c) There will be significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and 'peer relationship and mobile phones' dimension among college students.
 - d) There will be significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and interpersonal relationship dimension among college students.

- e) There will be significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and usage time dimension among college students.
 - f) There will be significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and impulsivity dimension among college students.
 - g) There will be significant relationship between perceived loneliness and maladaptive usage dimension among college students.
 - h) There will be significant relationship between perceived loneliness and self expression dimension among college students.
 - i) There will be significant relationship between perceived loneliness and the 'peer relationship and mobile phones' dimension among college students.
 - j) There will be significant relationship between perceived loneliness and interpersonal relationship dimension among college students.
 - k) There will be significant relationship between perceived loneliness and usage time dimension among college students.
 - l) There will be significant relationship between perceived loneliness and impulsivity dimension among college students.
2. There will be significant difference on perceived loneliness between male and female college students.
 3. There will be significant difference on mobile phone addiction between male and female college students.
 4. There will be significant differences on perceived loneliness between college students based on their education level.
 5. There will be significant differences on mobile phone addiction between college students based on their education level.
 6. There will be significant differences on perceived loneliness between college students based on their stream of study.
 7. There will be significant differences on mobile phone addiction between college students based on their stream of study.

METHOD

A. RESEARCH DESIGN

B. THE PARTICIPANTS

C. THE VARIABLES

D. THE MEASURES

E. PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION

F. CONSOLIDATION OF DATA

G. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

Method is an established, habitual, logical or prescribed practice or systematic process of achieving certain ends with accuracy and efficiency usually in an ordered sequence of mixed steps. The method section is important because it provides the researcher with the much need framework and an outline of the steps to be followed and the importance of this section extends even when the research report is being prepared. The term method refers to the rules applicable to the study which includes research design, the participants, the variables, the instruments, procedure for data collection, consolidation of data, statistical techniques. A detailed account of the method by which the study was carried out is given under different subtitles.

A. RESEARCH DESIGN

B. THE PARTICIPANTS

C. THE VARIABLES

D. THE MEASURES

E. PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION

F. CONSOLIDATION OF DATA

G. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

A. RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design refers to the overall strategy that you choose to integrate the different components of the study in a coherent and logical way, thereby, ensuring you will effectively address the research problem.

Descriptive research design was used for this study. Descriptive research designs help to provide answers to the questions of who, what, where, and how associated with a particular research problem. Descriptive research is used to obtain information concerning the current status of the phenomena and to describe “what exists” with respect to variables or conditions in a situation.

Advantages of descriptive research design,

- The subject is being observed in a natural and unchanged environment. True experiments, whilst giving analyzable data, often adversely influence the normal behaviour of the subject.
- Descriptive research is often used as a pre-cursor to more quantitative research designs with the general overview giving some valuable pointers as to what variables are worth testing quantitatively.
- Descriptive studies can yield rich data that lead to important recommendations in practice.
- If the limitations are understood, they can be a useful tool in developing a more focused study.
- Approaches collect a large amount of data for detailed analysis.

Disadvantage of descriptive research design,

- The result from a descriptive research cannot be used to discover a definite answer or disprove a hypothesis.
- Because descriptive design often utilizes observational methods (as opposed to quantitative methods), the result cannot be replicated.
- The descriptive function of research is heavily dependent on instrumentation for measurement and observation.

B. THE PARTICIPANTS

According to Kothari (2004), sample is a small group which represents all the traits, and characteristics of the population. In the present study, the sample consisted of 120 participants; the participants include both male and female students studying in PG/UG. For the study, college students of the age group 18 to 22 were considered as participants, among students from various colleges in Kollam, Kerala.

Method of sampling

The way in which we select a sample of individuals to be research participants is critical. The term sampling is defined as the process by which a relatively small number of individuals or measures for individuals, objects or events are selected or analyzed in order to find out something about the entire population or universe from which it is selected. (Garrett, 2010).

According to Guilford, an optimum sample is one which fulfills the requirements of efficiency, representativeness, reliability and flexibility. For the present study, stratified sampling method was used. Stratified sampling method is employed to represent all groups or strata of the target population which offers accurate results and high degree of representativeness. Stratified sampling is a type of sampling method in which the total population is divided into smaller groups or strata to complete the sampling process. The strata are formed based on some common characteristics in the population data.

After dividing the population into strata's, the researchers randomly select the sample proportionally.

Inclusion Criteria

- College students of age group 18 to 22 were included in this present study.
- Only college students, Mobile / Smart phone users were included in the present study.

Exclusion Criteria

- All the age group except 18 to 22 was excluded in the study.
- Those who were free from any congenital, developmental or psychological illness are excluded in the present study.
- College students, who cannot read, write and speak either Malayalam or English fluently.

- Those who were not using mobile phone.

Distribution of the participants

For the purpose of different analyses, the participants were divided into different groups based on different criteria like Sex, education, and stream.

The details of the participants are given below,

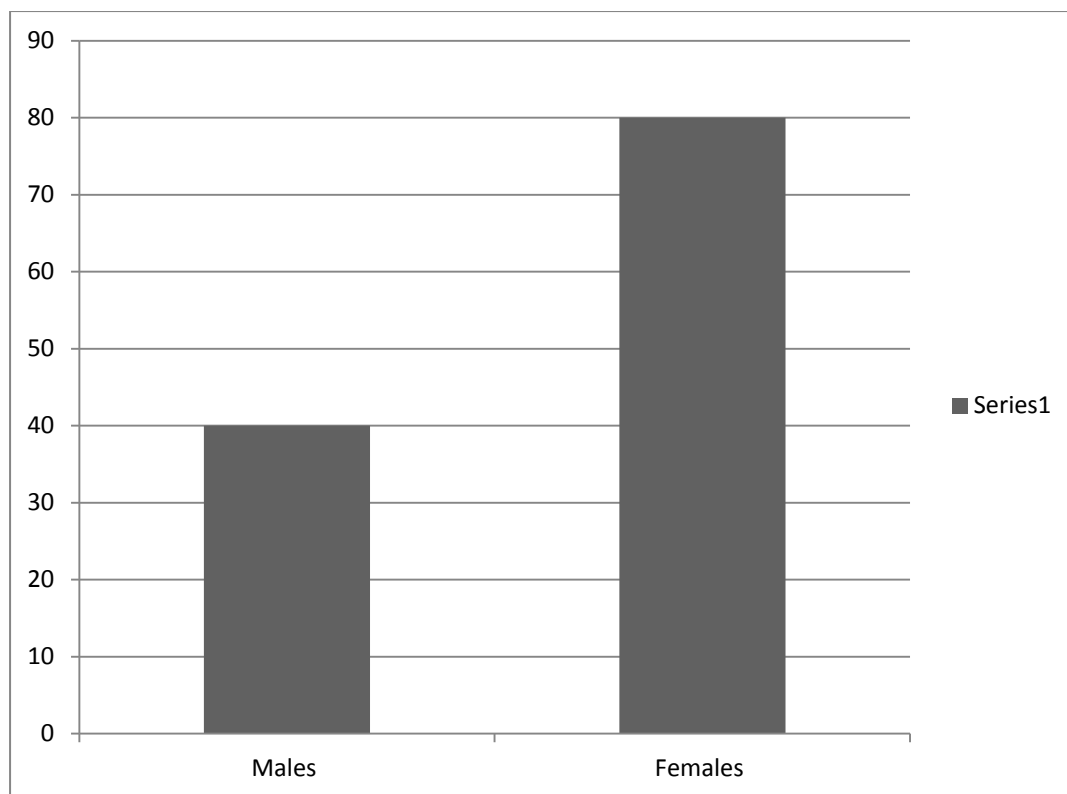
1. Distribution of the participants based on Sex

In the present sample, college students of both the sexes were considered and sex-wise sample representation is provided in the table below.

Table 3.1
Distribution of the participants based on Sex.

Sex	No of college students	Percentage
Male	40	33.3%
Female	80	66.7%
Total	120	100%

The table given above indicates the distribution of the participants segregated on the basis of sex, with 40 males and 80 females making up the total 120 participants of the study.



2. Distribution of the participants based on education.

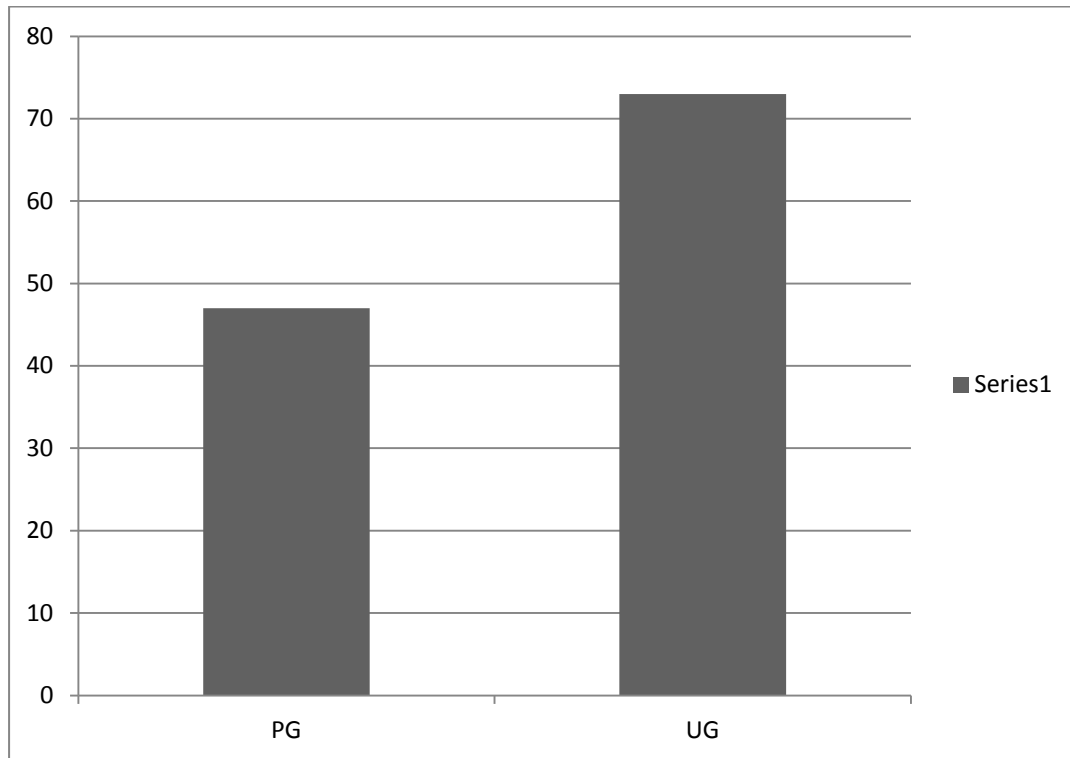
The study also considered education of the participants to know if there was any link between Mobile Phone Addiction and Perceived Loneliness on the bases of education.

Participants were segregated on the basis of being UG and PG.

Table 3.2
Distribution of the participants based on education.

Education	No of students	Percentage
PG	47	39.2%
UG	73	61.8%
Total	120	100%

The table given above indicates the distribution of the participants segregated on the basis of education.



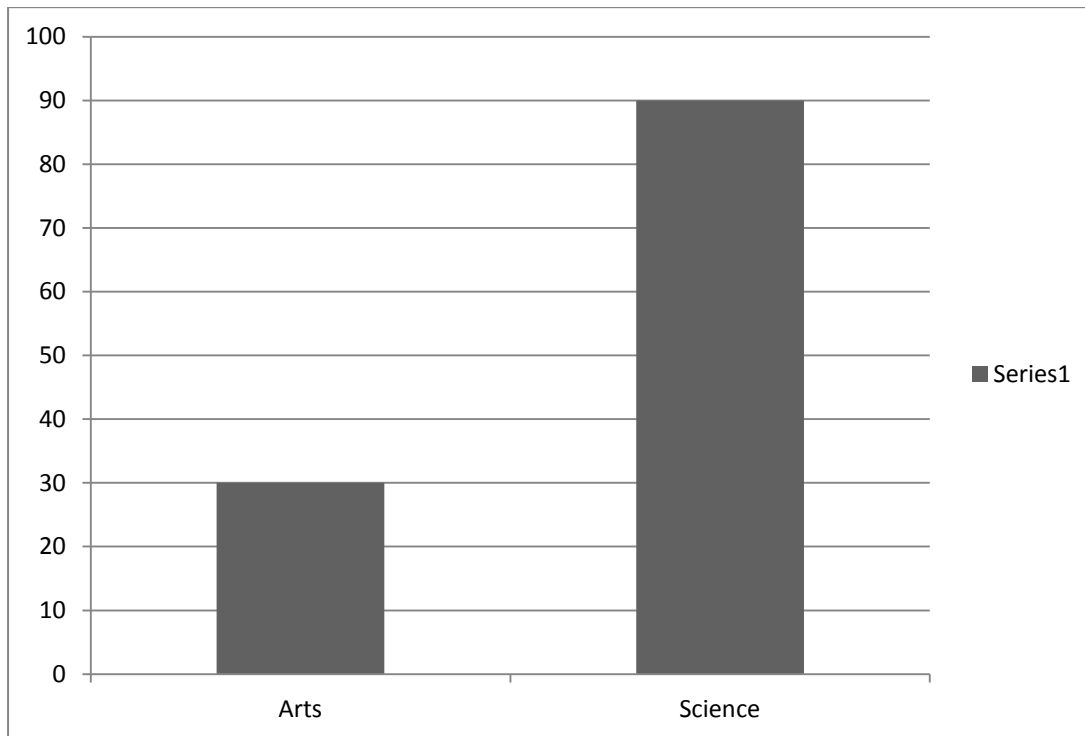
3. Distribution of the participants based on stream.

The present study also considered stream of the participants to know if there was any link between Mobile Phone Addiction and Perceived Loneliness on the bases of stream. Participants were segregated on the basis of being arts and science.

Table 3.3
Distribution of the participants based on stream.

Stream	No of students	Percentage
Arts	30	25.0%
Science	90	75.0%
Total	120	100%

The table given above indicates the distribution of the participants segregated on the basis of stream.



C. THE VARIABLES

A variable is anything that can vary, i.e. changed or be changed. Variable are given a special name that only applies to experimental investigations. One is called the independent variable and the other the dependent variable.

The independent variable is the variable the experimenter manipulates (i.e. changes) – assumed to have a direct effect on the dependent variable.

The dependent variable is the variable the experimenter measures in their experiment.

The variables selected for the present investigation are as follows:

Independent variable: Age, Sex

Dependent variable: Mobile phone addiction and Perceived loneliness.

Operational Definitions

Mobile Phone Addiction: The terms mobile phone addiction has been used to define a phenomenon, which is individual engrossed in their mobile phone use to the degree that they are neglecting the other life's important areas. It is a situation where a person would over rely on his or her mobile phone for all the numerous day to day activities and not aware or concentrating on anyone else who near to him or her.

Perceived Loneliness: The term "Perceived Loneliness" can be defined as a social deficiency. Perceived loneliness is an undesirable feeling that derives from inconsistency between wished and accomplished levels of social connection. Loneliness is the displeasure experience and feelings that take place when an individual's social relation networking is incomplete.

D. THE MEASURES

The Measures used for the present investigation were the following:

1. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET.
2. PERCEIVED LONELINESS SCALE DEvised BY DR. PRAVEEN KUMAR JHA.
3. MOBILE PHONE ADDICTION SCALE DEvised BY DR. A.VELAYUDHAN AND DR. S.SRIVIDYA.

Brief descriptions of the measures are given below:

Demographic data sheet

A demographic data sheet was used to collect the information from participant such as; age, sex, education, stream and living area of the participant.

Perceived Loneliness Scale:

Perceived Loneliness Scale (PLS) was developed by Dr.Praveen Kumar Jha (1971). It is a general measure for perceived loneliness in general age group and uses Likert technique. It consisted of 36 items with five alternative options likewise “Strongly agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, Strongly Disagree”. There are 8 negative items. In scoring phase, the experimenter was instructed to give 5 score for fully agree, 4 score for agree, 3 score for undecided, 2 score for disagree and 1 for fully disagree. The minimum and maximum possible range of score is 36 to 180. High score is be interpreted as high loneliness and low score as low loneliness of the respondent. The loneliness scale possesses fairly high reliability. It was determined by Kuder Richardson formula and test-retest reliabilities were found to be .84 and .82 respectively. The validity of this scale was examined in three ways i.e., content validity, predictive validity and concurrent validity. Validities obtained were significantly high.

Mobile Phone Addiction Scale:

The Mobile Phone Addiction Scale (MPAS) was developed by Dr. A.Velayudhan and DR. S.Srividya (2012). It is a general measure for mobile phone addiction general age group and uses Likert technique. It consisted of 37 items with five alternative options likewise “Strongly agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, Strongly Disagree”. The test-retest method showed a reliability of 0.79 and the split half reliability method showed a value of 0.75 and internal consistency method showed a consistency value of 0.89.

E. PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION

The study population consisted of 120 college students among 40 were boys and 80 were girls, from different colleges in Kollam. Permission was obtained from the college authority and consent was collected from the participating students before collecting the data. The scales were introduced one by one, and the method of marking

the responses was carefully explained. Though the instructions were provided in the beginning of each scale, a few general instructions were provided in prior to conduction, like the need for being honest in the responses as there are no right or wrong answers, to be spontaneous and to ensure that every item has been answered.

The socio demographic data sheet was used to collect personal and social details. Demographic data sheet used to satisfy the purpose of collecting background information to facilitate a deeper understanding to the findings, after the analysis is complete. The confidentiality of the responses was assured, putting the participant at ease even more further, and was also communicated not to discuss their opinions or responses while responding. Upon completion, the forms received were checked for possible items left unmarked, and the data was consolidated.

F. CONSOLIDATION OF DATA

The data collected from the participants are scored systematically. The data collected from the participants on mobile phone addiction are scored systematically, scores are: 5 for Strongly agree, 4 for Agree, 3 for Undecided, 2 for Disagree, 1 for Strongly Disagree. For item numbered 10, 11 and 26 are reverse scoring was applied, as 1 for Strongly agree, 2 for Agree, 3 for Undecided, 4 for Disagree, 5 for Strongly Disagree. Scoring was done conveniently each statement or item was scored as perceived loneliness: 5 for Strongly agree, 4 for Agree, 3 for Undecided, 2 for Disagree, 1 for Strongly Disagree. For item numbered 4, 12, 14, 18, 21, 26, 29, and 35 are reverse scoring was applied, as 1 for Strongly agree, 2 for Agree, 3 for Undecided, 4 for Disagree, 5 for Strongly Disagree. The relevant data obtained from the subjects were consolidated in a coding sheet.

G. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

A brief note on the main statistical techniques employed to test the various hypotheses formulated for the study are given in the following section;

Correlation analysis

A coefficient of correlation is a single number that tells us to what extent two things are related, or in other words, to what extent variation in the one go with the variation in the other. The present study used Pearson Product Moment coefficient of correlation. Karl Pearson's coefficient of correlation is also known as the product moment correlation coefficient. The value of ' r ' lies between ± 1 . Positive values of r indicate positive correlation between the two variables (i.e., changes in both variables take place in the same direction), where as negative values of ' r ' indicate negative correlation i.e., changes in the two variables taking place in the opposite directions. A zero value of ' r ' indicates that there is no association between the two variables. When $r = (+) 1$, it indicates perfect positive correlation and when it is $(-) 1$, it indicates perfect negative correlation, meaning thereby that variations in independent variable (X) explain 100% of the variations in the dependent variable (Y). We can also say that for a unit change in independent variable, if there happens to be a constant change in the dependent variable in the same direction, then correlation will be termed as perfect positive. But if such change occurs in the opposite direction, the correlation will be termed as perfect negative. The value of ' r ' nearer to $+1$ or -1 indicates high degree of correlation between the two variables.

The t-Test

The test of significance (t-test) for difference between means for large independent samples (Garrett, 1981) is used to compare the means obtained by any two groups of subjects on any of the variables. The t-test is based on t- distribution and is considered as an appropriate test for judging the significance of difference between the means of two samples, in case of small samples, when population variance is not known (in which case we use variance of the sample as estimate of the population variance) (Kothari, 1985).The t-test for large independent samples have been applied (two tailed tests) as the sample size in each of the categories exceeding 30.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. ANALYSIS USING CORRELATION

B. ANALYSIS USING t TEST

The information gathered from the sample was coded and was subjected to appropriate statistical analysis. Pearson product moment coefficient of correlation was used to find out the significant correlation between the variables under study. t-test was used to finalise the significant difference between groups.

A. ANALYSIS USING CORRELATION

Pearson product moment coefficient of correlation can be used to tell us how strong the correlations between two variables are. A positive value indicates a positive correlation and the higher the value, the stronger the correlation. Similarly, a negative value indicates a negative correlation and the lower the value the stronger the correlation.

If there is a perfect positive correlation (in other words the points all lie on a straight line that goes up from left to right), then $r = 1$. If there is a perfect negative correlation, then $r = -1$. If there is no correlation, then $r = 0$. r would also be equal to zero if the variables were related in a non-linear way (they might lie on a quadratic curve rather than a straight line)

In order to test the first hypothesis, Pearson Product Moment coefficient of correlation was done. The result of the correlation analysis given in the table 4.1

Table 4.1**Result of the correlation analysis.**

Sl. no		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Maladaptive usage	()	0.85**	0.69**	0.66**	0.34**	0.78**	0.92**	0.36**
2	Self expression	--	()	0.69**	0.65**	0.34**	0.75**	0.95**	0.39**
3	Peer relationship and mobile phone	--	--	()	0.74**	0.29**	0.65**	0.85**	0.55**
4	Interpersonal relationship	--	--	--	()	0.38**	0.62**	0.81**	0.46**
5	Usage time	--	--	--	--	()	0.41**	0.48**	0.03
6	Impulsivity	--	--	--	--	--	()	0.86**	0.35**
7	Mobile phone addiction	--	--	--	--	--	--	()	0.45**
8	Perceived loneliness	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	()

**correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The result of the correlation analyses given in the table 4.1, indicate that out of the total 28 correlations found, 27 were found to be significant at 0.01 levels and positively correlated.

From the table 4.1 it can be seen that Mobile phone addiction is positively correlated with its sub dimensions of Maladaptive Usage, Self Expression, Peer Relationship and Mobile Phone, Interpersonal Relationship, Usage Time, and Impulsivity. All the correlations were significant at 0.01 levels and the correlation coefficients for the different sub-dimensions are as follows - Self-expression 0.85**, Peer relationship and mobile phones' 0.69**, Interpersonal relationship 0.66**, Usage time 0.34**, Impulsivity 0.78**, Mobile phone addiction 0.92**, and for Perceived loneliness, 0.36**.

The correlation of Mobile phone addiction and Perceived loneliness is positive and found to be significant ($r=0.45^{**}$). It means that an increase in mobile phone addiction of a person will be directly related to a visible increase in the perceived loneliness of an individual.

Many studies have evaluated mobile phone addiction and loneliness. Loneliness of university students in relation to mobile phone addiction was explored by Tan, Pamuk and Donder (2013) and has provided evidence along the same grounds. Results revealed that loneliness was significantly associated with problematic mobile phone use ($r=.35$) Furthermore, there were significant differences between loneliness and independent variables.

The correlation coefficient of mobile addiction has significant positive correlation with its sub-dimension of maladaptive usage ($r=0.92^{**}$). This indicates that a shift in the mobile phone addiction dimension is directly related to a shift of similar nature in the maladaptive usage among college students.

Addictive Personality and Problematic Mobile Phone Use was studied by Takao, Takahashi and Kitamura (2009), and they suggest that the measurements of these addictive personality traits would be helpful in the screening and intervention of potential problematic users of mobile phones.

The correlation of Mobile phone addiction has significant positive correlation with its sub-dimension of self expression ($r=0.95^{**}$). This means that an individual who is addicted to the use of mobile phones will be more self-expressive by comparison to that of a college student who is not.

No studies were available in relation to these variables. From the table it can be seen that there is a strong relationship between mobile phone addiction and self expression. This can be applied to infer that when there is an increase in mobile phone addiction, it will be equally represented by an increase in self expression.

Peer Relationship and Mobile Phone sub-dimension has significant positive correlation with mobile phone addiction with an r value of 0.85^{**} . This positive correlation of significance is indicative of the fact that peer relationships will be impacted across the same levels as mobile phone addiction happens to be several research has happened across these variables and they indicate contradictory evidences, with some researchers showcasing positive impact, while the others are indicating a negative relationship.

The correlation coefficient obtained for mobile addiction was found to be significant and positively correlated with its sub-dimension of Interpersonal Relationship ($r=0.81^{**}$). This is usually the expected outcome as the sub-dimension scores are the different factors that result in the total score and has resulted in the total score.

Studies have been found that there exists a relationship between mobile phone addiction and interpersonal relationship. From this we can infer that when there is an increase in mobile phone addiction it will be followed by an increase in interpersonal relationship.

Usage Time sub-dimension was also found to have significant positive correlation with that of Mobile Phone Addiction ($r=0.48^{**}$). It means that an increase in the Mobile Phone Addiction of a person will be directly related to a visible increase in the Usage Time of an individual. The total usage time can be found to be largely

contributed by that of those from the addicted category of people as they will be the ones who are using mobile phones to a greater extent than those who are not.

The score obtained for Mobile Phone Addiction was found to be positively correlated with its sub-dimension of Impulsivity ($r=0.86^{**}$) significant at 0.01 levels. It means that an increase in mobile phone addiction of a person will be directly related to a visible increase in the impulsivity of an individual.

Billieux et.al (2008) conducted a study on the role of impulsivity in actual and problematic use of the mobile phone. The results showed that the PMPUQ has an acceptable fit and assesses four different dimensions of problematic mobile phone use (prohibited use, dangerous use, dependence, financial problems). While each facet of impulsivity played a specific role in mobile phones use, urgency appeared to be the strongest predictor of problematic use. Urgency is most often used interchangeably with the term impulsivity as well

The variable of Perceived Loneliness was found to be positively correlated with the sub dimension of Maladaptive Usage ($r = 0.36^{**}$) at 0.01 levels of significance. It means that an increase in the Perceived Loneliness is directly related to an increase in the Maladaptive Usage of Mobile Phone. The reason for this may be that, those who perceive themselves to be lonely may try to cope with the loneliness felt and wedge the gap by using the mobile phones in a manner that is maladaptive.

The sub dimension of Self Expression was found to be positively correlated with Perceived Loneliness ($r = 0.39^{**}$) significant at 0.01 levels. It indicates that an increase in the level of Perceived Loneliness of a person will be directly related to Self-Expression of an individual. This may be a resultant of the fact that negative emotions usually promote greater impact than that of the positive emotions and there is a need to vent out in the case of negative emotions. Owing to this need for venting, people may find different ways to express themselves, and this may be one of the reasons why there is such a relation between self-expression and perceived loneliness.

The correlation of Perceived Loneliness has significant positive correlation with sub-dimension of Peer Relationship and Mobile Phones' ($r=0.55^{**}$). It means

that an increase in the level Perceived Loneliness of a person will be related to Peer Relationship and Mobile Phones' of an individual.

Shin (2007) conducted a study of similar nature, measuring Peer Relationships, Social Behaviours, Academic Performance and Loneliness in Korean Primary School Children. The results showed that peer relationships, including peer acceptance, the number of friends, and positive friendship quality, uniquely contributed to loneliness. Peer relationships partially mediated between withdrawal and loneliness. Peer acceptance and friendship quality fully mediated the link between academic functioning and loneliness.

The correlation coefficient of Perceived Loneliness was found to have significant positive correlation with the sub-dimension of Interpersonal Relationship ($r=0.46^{**}$). It means that an increase in level of Perceived Loneliness of a person will be related to increases of similar nature with the Interpersonal Relationship of an individual.

Studies have yielded results of contradicting nature for interpersonal relationships and that too with variation across the sexes. Rotenberg et.al., (2004) conducted a study on the relationship between loneliness and interpersonal trust during middle childhood. The researcher found that, across gender, loneliness was negatively correlated with each measure of trust beliefs and trusting behaviour. As expected, the relationship between children's loneliness and trust, specifically trust beliefs in same-gender peers, was stronger for girls than for boys. In support of an additive risk model, the researcher found low trust beliefs in same-gender peers and low reciprocal trusting behaviour with peers each statistically contributed to loneliness in girls.

The variable of Perceived Loneliness positively correlated with the sub dimension of Usage time. The correlation coefficient yielded was found to be not significant ($r=0.03$). This indicates that there is no evidence for the existence of any relationship between Perceived Loneliness and Usage time of an individual.

The variable of Perceived Loneliness was found to be positively correlated with sub-dimension of Impulsivity ($r=0.35^{**}$) at a significant level of 0.01. It indicates that an increase in the level Perceived Loneliness of a person will be related to an increase of similar nature in the Impulsivity of an individual.

Savci (2016) conducted a study of similar nature and analysed the relationship between impulsivity, social media usage and loneliness. It was observed that impulsivity directly, positively and significantly predicts social media usage; and that social media usage directly, positively and significantly predicts loneliness; and that impulsivity indirectly, positively and significantly predicts loneliness..

B. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF ‘t’ Test

The t-test or test of significance is the difference between means of large independent sample is used to compare the means between any two groups on any of the variables. In the present study, t-test was used to compare the group formed the basis of sex, education, stream, and total usage time of mobile phone.

The total sample consisted of 120 participants with 80 females constituting 67% of the whole and 40 males constituting the remaining 33%. Independent sample t- test was done in order to find out whether there exists any significant difference between males and females on their mobile phone addiction and perceived loneliness. The result of the same are provided in the Table 4.2 and 4.3 respectively.

Table 4.2

t test comparing the mean difference between Males and Females on their perceived loneliness.

Sl.no	Variable	Male		Female		t value
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1	Perceived loneliness	100.60	19.96	100.86	14.55	-.082

The t value was ($t=-.082$) found to be not significant. 100.60 were the mean score obtained by males while 100.86 was the score that females obtained, with corresponding deviations of 19.60 and 14.55 respectively on their perceived loneliness. This indicates that there is no sex wise difference in the perceived loneliness of college students.

Salimi (2011) studied the social and emotional loneliness scale for adults to examine gender differences in loneliness and also how life satisfaction been affected by social and emotional loneliness. The data collected was analysed by using independent t-test and the result revealed there are gender differences in level of loneliness in students. The result showed that female students' emotional loneliness level of were significantly lower than male students.

According to these findings no sex wise differences could be found in perceived loneliness. This finding in part, may be due to the fact that the modern-day generation may be bridging the so-called gender gap. This may be a result of the gender friendly approaches and increased number of unisex outlets that intend to reduce gender discrimination across multiple forays.

Table 4.3:

t test comparing the mean difference between Males and Females on their mobile phone addiction.

Sl.no	Variable	Male		Female		t value
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1	Mobile Phone Addiction	114.37	30.47	91.58	22.34	4.65**

**Significant at 0.01 level

The results given in table indicate that there exists a significant difference between males and females on their mobile phone addiction. The t value ($t=4.65$) was found to be significant at 0.01 levels. 114.37 was the mean score obtained by males while 91.58 was the score that females obtained, with corresponding deviations of 30.47 and 22.34 respectively on their mobile phone addiction. This indicates that there is sex wise difference in the mobile phone addiction with the males showing a higher mobile phone addiction than that of females.

Chiu, Hong and Chiu (2013) used Mobile Phone Addiction Scale and Internet Addiction Scale to conduct surveys on the participants and adopted the structural equation model to process the collected data. According to the study result, mobile phone addiction and Internet addiction were positively related, female college students score higher than male ones in the aspect of mobile addiction. Lastly, this study proposes relevant suggestions to serve as a reference for schools, college students, and future studies based on the study results.

Table 4.4:

t test comparing the mean difference between post graduate and under graduate students on perceived loneliness.

Sl.no	Variable	Post graduate		Under graduate		t value
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1	Perceived loneliness	103.02	14.85	99.32	17.34	1.203

The results given in the table 4.4 indicates that there is no significant difference between post graduate and under graduate level of education based on their perceived loneliness. The t value was ($t=1.203$) found to be not significant. 103.02 was the mean score obtained by post graduate while 99.32 was the score that under graduate obtained, with corresponding deviations of 14.85 and 17.34 respectively on their perceived loneliness. This indicates that there is no difference in perceived loneliness with respect to the education level of the participants.

Kim (2017) examined students' feelings of stress, loneliness, and levels of learning burnout in order to determine if these factors are related to students' academic experience, including academic coping ability, overall academic performance, and educational engagement. There were no significant gender differences in academic stress; however, females showed higher levels of social support coping. Feelings of loneliness and learning burnout negatively influenced students' overall academic experience and their perceptions of stress. Academic coping ability did not have a mediating effect on the relation between feelings of loneliness and learning burnout; however, avoidance and approach coping ability mediated the relation between loneliness and academic performance among students. Findings from this study may inform the development of intervention and prevention programs to help students more effectively manage academic stressors, which may affect their educational experience.

Table 4.5:

t test comparing the mean difference between post graduate and under graduate students on mobile phone addiction.

Sl.no	Variable	Post graduate		Under graduate		t value
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1	Mobile phone addiction	98.36	23.62	99.71	29.75	-.262

The results given in the table 4.5 indicates that there is no significant difference between post graduate and under graduate level of education based on their mobile phone addiction. The t value was ($t=-.262$) found to be not significant. 98.36 was the mean score obtained by post graduate students while 99.71 was the score that under graduates obtained, on mobile phone addiction with corresponding deviations of 23.62 and 29.75 respectively. This indicates that there is no difference in mobile phone addiction with respect to the level of education of the participant.

Boumosleh and Jaalouk (2017) examined the relationship between Smartphone addiction among undergraduates and their academic achievement. Finally, significant differences in addiction among undergraduates according to their gender, field of study, parent's educational level and family income level will be examined. While some studies have shown gender differences in Smartphone addictive use, others have proved that gender and Smartphone use are not significantly related.

Table 4.6

t test comparing the mean difference between arts and science college students based on perceived loneliness.

Sl.no	Variable	Arts		Science		t value
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1	Perceived Loneliness	100.43	16.25	100.88	16.60	-0.13

The results given in the table 4.6 indicates that there is no significant difference between arts and science college students based on perceived loneliness. The t value obtained ($t = -0.13$) was found to be not significant. 100.43 was the mean score obtained by arts while 100.88 was the score that science obtained, with corresponding deviations of 16.25 and 16.60 respectively on their perceived loneliness This indicates that there exist no stream wise differences in perceived loneliness.

This study aims to fill an empirical void in our understanding of how doctoral students, both domestic and international, cope with loneliness and isolation, and what types of tactic they use during different phases of their doctoral studies to overcome such issues. Data gathered through a net no graphic study show that loneliness is a major problem for both domestic and international students and that it occurs at different stages of the doctoral study. Tactics used by participants to deal with this issue include multiple forms of (face to face and online) social interaction, professional development and escape from the doctorate. The paper discusses avenues for further research alongside some practical recommendations that might be implemented at universities to decrease feelings of isolation among students and further reduce drop-out rates.

Table 4.7

t test comparing the mean difference between arts and science college students based on mobile phone addiction.

Sl.no	Variable	Arts		Science		t value
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1	Mobile phone addiction	114.33	29.41	94.13	24.91	3.67**

**Significant at 0.01 level

The results given in table indicate that there exists a significant mean difference between arts and science college students on mobile phone addiction.

The score obtained by male students on their mobile phone addiction and perceived loneliness are indicated in the table. The t value ($t=3.67$) was found to be significant at 0.01 levels. 114.33 was the mean score obtained by arts while 94.13 was the score that females obtained, with corresponding deviations of 29.41 and 24.91 respectively on their mobile phone addiction. This indicates that there is stream wise difference in the mobile phone addiction with the arts students showing a higher mobile phone addiction than that of science students.

Study of similar nature was conducted by Ezoë and Toda (2013) in which factors contributing to Internet addiction in 105 Japanese medical students were investigated. The subjects were administered by a self-reporting questionnaire designed to evaluate demographic factors, Internet addiction, loneliness, health related lifestyle factors, depressive state, patterns of behaviour, and mobile phone dependence. Results of multivariate logistic regression analysis indicated that loneliness and mobile phone dependence were positively related to degree of addiction. The findings suggest that Internet addiction is associated with loneliness and mobile phone dependence in Japanese students.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

B. VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

C. PARTICIPANTS

D. MEASURES USED FOR THIS STUDY

E. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED

F. RESTATEMENT AND TENABILITY OF THE HYPOTHESES

G. MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

H. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

I. SUGGESIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Loneliness is the distressing experience that occurs when a person's social relationships are perceived by that person to be less in quantity, and especially in quality, than desired. Loneliness is one of the most common feelings that individuals could experience in their lives. Loneliness is a negative emotion that comes about through a discrepancy between desired and achieved levels of social contact. Smartphone addiction is one of the severe technology addictions which had become serious problems these days especially to teenage. Smartphone addiction drives people to check their smart phone frequently and compulsively, no matter what situations for example meetings, walking or even during eating. Smartphone addiction can be defined as a state of being locked up to smart phone and its facility. Loneliness also found to be significant link with smart phone addiction. As ones scored higher in loneliness, ones have higher chance to be smart phone addicts. This relationship shows clear implication for treatment and intervention.

A. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The aim of the study is to determine whether there is any relationship between mobile phone addiction and perceived loneliness. The same was also studied in relation to sex, education and stream among college students.

B. VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

The variables of the present study are perceived loneliness and mobile phone addiction. Apart from the study variables mentioned above, demographic variables such as sex, education and stream was also studied.

C. PARTICIPANTS

In the present study, the sample consisted of 120 participants; the participants include both male and female students studying in PG/UG. For the study, college students of the age group 18 to 22 were considered as participants, among students from various colleges in Kollam, Kerala.

D. MEASURES USED FOR THIS STUDY

The Instruments used for the present investigation were the following:

4. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET.
5. PERCEIVED LONELINESS SCALE DEvised BY DR. PRAVEEN KUMAR JHA.
6. MOBILE PHONE ADDICTION SCALE DEvised BY DR. A.VELAYUDHAN AND DR. S.SRIVIDYA.

E. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED

Major statistical techniques used for the analysis of data were as follows.

- Correlation analysis
- 't' Test

F. RESTATEMENT AND TENABILITY OF THE HYPOTHESES

1. There will be significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and perceived loneliness among college students.

Analysis was done using Pearson product moment coefficient of correlation and the results obtained indicate that there is positive relationship between the variables mobile phone addiction and perceived loneliness. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is re stated as;

There is significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and perceived loneliness among college students.

- a. There will be significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and maladaptive usage dimension among college students.

The correlation coefficient value shows there exists significant positive relationship between mobile phone addiction and maladaptive usage. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is re stated as;

There is significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and maladaptive usage dimension among college students.

- b. There will be a significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and self expression dimension among college students.

The correlation coefficient value shows there exists significant positive relationship between mobile phone addiction and self expression. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is re stated as;

There is significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and self expression dimension among college students.

- c. There will be a significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and peer relationship and mobile phones' dimension among college students.

The correlation coefficient value shows there exists significant positive relationship between mobile phone addiction and peer relationship and mobile phones'. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is re stated as;

There is significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and peer relationship and mobile phones' dimension among college students.

- d. There will be a significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and interpersonal relationship dimension among college students.

The correlation coefficient value shows there exists' significant positive relationship between mobile phone addiction and interpersonal relationship. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is re stated as;

There is significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and interpersonal relationship dimension among college students.

- e. There will be a significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and usage time dimension among college students.

The correlation coefficient value shows there exists significant positive relationship between mobile phone addiction and usage time. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is re stated as;

There is significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and positive relationship dimension among college students.

- f. There will be a significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and impulsivity dimension among college students.

The correlation coefficient value shows there exists significant positive relationship between mobile phone addiction and impulsivity. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is re stated as;

There is significant relationship between mobile phone addiction and impulsivity dimension among college students.

- g. There will be a significant relationship between perceived loneliness and maladaptive usage dimension among college students.

The correlation coefficient value shows there exists significant positive relationship between perceived loneliness and maladaptive usage. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is re stated as;

There is significant relationship between perceived loneliness and maladaptive usage dimension among college students.

- h. There will be a significant relationship between perceived loneliness and self expression dimension among college students.

The correlation coefficient value shows there exists significant positive relationship between perceived loneliness and self expression. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is re stated as;

There is significant relationship between perceived loneliness and self expression dimension among college students.

- i. There will be a significant relationship between perceived loneliness and peer relationship and mobile phones' dimension among college students.

The correlation coefficient value shows there exists significant positive relationship between perceived loneliness and peer relationship. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is re stated as;

There is significant relationship between perceived loneliness and relationship and mobile phones' dimension among college students.

- j. There will be a significant relationship between perceived loneliness and interpersonal relationship dimension among college students.

The correlation coefficient value shows there exists significant positive relationship between perceived loneliness and interpersonal relationship. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is re stated as;

There is significant relationship between perceived loneliness and interpersonal relationship dimension among college students.

- k. There will be a significant relationship between perceived loneliness and usage time' dimension among college students.

The correlation coefficient value shows there exists significant positive relationship between perceived loneliness and usage time. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is re stated as;

There is significant relationship between perceived loneliness and usage time dimension among college students.

1. There will be a significant relationship between perceived loneliness and impulsivity dimension among college students.

The correlation coefficient value shows there exists significant positive relationship between perceived loneliness and impulsivity. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is re stated as;

There is significant relationship between perceived loneliness and impulsivity dimension among college students.

2. There will be significant difference on perceived loneliness between male and female college students.

Independent t test was done to identify if there exists no sex-wise differences on perceived loneliness among male and female college students. Though no significant difference was observed, the hypothesis is not accepted and is re stated as;

There is no significant difference on perceived loneliness between male and female college students.

3. There will be significant difference on mobile phone addiction between male and female college students.

Independent t test was done to identify if there exists sex-wise differences on mobile phone addiction among male and female college students. Though there is a significant difference was observed. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is re stated as;

There is significant difference on mobile phone addiction between male and female college students.

4. There will be significant differences on perceived loneliness between college students based on their education level.

Independent t test was done to identify if there exists no education-wise differences on perceived loneliness among post graduate and under graduate college students. Though no significant difference was observed, the hypothesis is not accepted and is re stated as;

There is no significant difference on perceived loneliness between college students based on their education level.

5. There will be significant differences on mobile phone addiction between college students based on their education level.

Independent t test was done to identify if there exists no education-wise differences on mobile phone addiction among post graduate and under graduate college students. Though no significant difference was observed, the hypothesis is not accepted and is re stated as;

There is no significant difference on mobile phone addiction between college students based on their education level.

6. There will be significant differences on perceived loneliness between college students based on their stream of study.

Independent t test was done to identify if there exists no stream-wise differences on perceived loneliness among arts and science college students. Though no significant difference was observed, the hypothesis is not accepted and is re stated as;

There is no significant difference on perceived loneliness between college students based on their stream of study.

7. There will be significant differences on mobile phone addiction between college students based on their stream of study.

Independent t test was done to identify if there exists stream-wise differences on mobile phone addiction among arts and science college students. Though, significant difference was observed. Thus, the hypothesis stands accepted and is re stated as;

There is significant difference on mobile phone addiction between college students based on their stream of study.

G. MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

- There is relationship between mobile phone addiction and perceived loneliness of college students.
- There is sex-wise difference in mobile phone addiction among college students.
- There is no sex-wise difference in perceived loneliness among college students.
- Males are more addicted to mobile phones than females by comparison.
- There is no difference between undergraduate and postgraduate students on perceived loneliness and mobile phone addiction.
- There is no difference between students from arts and science streams on perceived loneliness.
- There is difference between students from arts and science streams on mobile phone addiction, with those students from the arts stream being more addicted to mobile phones in comparison with the science students.

H. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are individual differences in all most all area of human interactions and the same can be observed in the case of perceived loneliness and mobile phone addiction. To find that college students feel lonelier because of the mobile phone use, it will benefit the community too. By excessive use of mobile phone, it is one of the reasons for loneliness in college students, and thus we can find the people who are feeling lonely in society, and the societies do their best for them. Society can make a control over mobile phone usage and also it is important to understand how to use mobile phone without being slave. It is important to find that boys and girls, which are more lonely by the excessive use of the mobile phone. Because of loneliness, it is impossible to get a good relationship even with family and friends. This study can helps to reduce the suicide rate and reduced suicidal thought due to the loneliness. Through this study to teaches the society how to use mobile phones without harming personal relationships.

This study is an eye opener into how individuals deal with affecting perceived loneliness and mobile phone addiction. Through this study, we expect can heighten the awareness of public and figure out the strategies and interventions to help those with mobile phone addiction to reduce their sense of loneliness. One of the purposes of this study is to bring out the awareness of how serious is the mobile phone addiction problems in our country.

I. LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Limitations

- The focus of study was narrowed to include only college students from Kollam district.
- The present study utilized a survey method for data collection rather than an experimental setting where in each and every dimension can be varied and accounted for.
- The study focused only on mobile phone addiction and its six dimension and perceived loneliness.
- Other than sex, education and stream no other socio demographic variable were considered for the present study.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

- For further study, it is suggested to increase the number of participants, by increasing the sample size to a greater number in order to enhance the external validity and reliability of the study.
- Studies might investigate the causes of gender differences in the relationship of smart/ mobile phone addiction and loneliness, it can give more comprehensive understanding about this topic.
- Study could have included a wider geographical region so that the power and generalization of the study could be improved.
- More longitudinal designs need to be conducted.
- Different demographic variables such as socio-economic status, religion, family structure and type and the like can be considered for future studies.

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APPENDICES

APPENDICES

- **APPENDICES A: DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS**
- **APPENDICES B: PERCEIVED LONELINESS SCALE**
- **APPENDICES C: MOBILE PHONE ADDICTION SCALE**

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Dear participant, you are invited to participate in this research study. Your personal details and responses will be kept confidential. Your participation is entirely voluntary. And that your information will be used only for the purpose of this study.

Please provide the following information.

Name:		Age:	
Sex:	Male / Female	Education:	PG / UG
Stream:	Arts / Science	Area:	Urban / Rural

INSTRUCTIONS

On the following pages 36 statements concerning Social Behaviour have been given. These statements are based on your daily behaviour. Kindly read each statement carefully and decide your answer in that particular situation, how do you behave/ react and decide on the five point alternative answers, viz., **Fully Agree**, **Agree**, **Undecided**, **Disagree**, and **Fully Disagree** and whichever alternative is nearer to your answer, put a tick mark in the appropriate column. Kindly give your responses for all the 36 statements.

Sl. No.	STATEMENTS	Fully Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Fully Disagree
1	Do you pass by a familiar person pretending that you are unacquainted with him?					
2	Do you feel that nobody understands you?					
3	Are you afraid of starting any piece of work in right earnest lest you would fail?					
4	Are you able to read with concentration where there is noise?					
5	Do you regret Alas! You couldn't achieve anything successful substantial?					
6	Is it a fact that you feel helpless?					
7	Do you think that creative work can be performed only in isolation?					
8	Do you lose your patience easily?					

9	Are you afraid of sleeping alone in the room?					
10	Are you reluctant to visit your friends?					
11	Do you think that your surrounding is meaningless?					
12	Does your progress remain satisfactory in spite of difficulties?					
13	Don't you like to remain aloof from your domestic surroundings?					
14	Do you think that you have a moral responsibility towards the society?					
15	Do you feel alienated?					
16	Do you often wish to weep in isolation?					
17	Do you generally suffer from conflicts or indecisions?					
18	Do you enjoy your criticisms?					
19	Do you feel shy before others?					
20	Do you keep on worrying about what lies in your fate?					
21	Are you prompt in performing your pre-planned job?					
22	Do you always find yourself in the midst of problems?					
23	Do you wake-up at night frequently?					
24	Is your sentiment or feeling hurt easily?					
25	Is it that you do not want to talk before others lest you should be scoffed at?					
26	Do you share miseries of your friends?					
27	Do you often anticipate imminent calamity on you?					

28	Do you feel frustrated with the work performed by you?					
29	Do you imagine or plan a thing wholly before you start writing over it?					
30	Does a lot of nonsense occur to your mind which disturbs you?					
31	Do you afraid of sleeping alone in the room?					
32	Do you keep yourself away from fairs or crowd?					
33	Is your routine full of such work in which you remain involved?					
34	Do you feel difficulty in taking interest in any job or business?					
35	Do you enjoy facing any challenge?					
36	Did days, weeks and months pass away during which you could not look after any job since you were unable to do anything during that period?					

INSTRUCTIONS

The following are some statements regarding your mobile phone usage. Read the statements carefully and mark the opinion that comes to your mind first by a tick (✓) on one of the five alternatives for each of the statement. Please do not leave any statement unanswered.

Do you use mobile phone: Yes No

Is it a smart phone: Yes No

How long do you use mobile/smart phone at a time (hours/minutes):

How often do you use mobile/smart phone in a day (in numbers):

Sl. No	STATEMENTS	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Missed calls often worry me.					
2	I feel irritated when someone asks me to switch off the mobile phone.					
3	I feel offended when someone indicates that I am spending more time talking on the mobile phone.					
4	I would quarrel with others who take my cell phone.					
5	I feel irritated when I stay away from my cell phone.					
6	I do not have control number of calls I make on a mobile.					
7	I feel restless when I do not receive a call on a mobile for some time.					
8	I spend more time sending SMS rather than any other activity of the day.					
9	I am able to explain myself better through a mobile phone.					

10	Most of the times I think that the call that was made or received was unnecessary.					
11	I feel nagged by my cell phone.					
12	Talking through mobile phone is more pleasurable than a face to face conversation.					
13	I get more calls during the late hours of the day.					
14	I think I can make more friends through a cell phone call.					
15	I am able to maintain the friendship I had cultivated through a cell phone.					
16	I have been scolded by my family members or professors for being more attentive to my cell phone.					
17	My parents point out long hours of cell phone usage.					
18	Mobile phone has changed my relationship with my brothers/sisters.					
19	I feel neglected or rejected when my friends do not speak to me over the cell phone.					
20	I feel that my friend is closer when I speak to him/her over the cell phone.					
21	Sending SMS is an interesting act.					
22	I have a sense of urgency in checking the missed calls immediately when I return to switch on mode.					
23	I have a sense of urgency in checking the missed SMS immediately when I return to switch on mode.					
24	My cell phone always remains switched on.					
25	I do not mind making a call while driving.					
26	Cell phone bill makes me reduce the number of calls I make.					
27	My mobile phone bill increases every month.					
28	I ask for more money to phone recharge.					

29	I spend most of my pocket money on phone recharging.					
30	I spend the money meant for other purposes such as buying books for recharging the phone.					
31	I have been hurt or met with an accident because I was concentrating on a cell phone talk.					
32	I would not mind talking in a cell phone while eating, crossing a road or writing an assignment.					
33	I would like to spend more time on downloading or changing ring tones frequently.					
34	I feel that my self esteem is enhanced because my mobile is of a latest model.					
35	My image and confidence level is boosted when I show the latest model mobile. I have among my friends.					
36	I feel that the mobile is a part of my personality.					
37	I feel people admire me carrying my mobile.					

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

- **Personality**
- **Achievement Motivation**
- **Birth Order**
- **Significance of the Study**
- **Statement of the Problem**
- **Definition of Key Terms**
- **Hypotheses**
- **Methods in Brief**
- **Organisation of Report**

Personality can be defined as the dynamic organization with in an individual of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment. Each individual poses different sets of personality characteristics. Family is one of the main factor that play a major role in the development of the personality of an individual. Achievement motivation refers to the ability of the child to achieve something. In this competitive world, it is important that each individual should maintain a high level of achievement motivation. Based on the birth order, support and the motivation that the individual gets form the family and the society, the level of achievement motivation varies according to each individual. Birth order refers to the order in which a child is born into a family. Birth order can make a difference in the personality and achievement motivation level of an individual.

1.1 Personality

Personality is the defined as the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment' (Allport, 1937). The study of personality focuses on two broad areas: One is understanding individual differences in particular personality characteristics, such as sociability or irritability. The other understands how the various parts of a person come together as a whole. The personality implies psychological and social character that an individual acquires by hereditary biological endowment which provides him the basis for development and social growth of environment within which he springs forth.

The continuing process whereby the child is influenced by others (especially the parents) is called socialisation. It is a course of learning whereby the child comes to act in accordance with the special demands that membership in a certain society imposes upon him.

The term personality is used in various senses. Generally, it is used to indicate the external outlook of an individual. In philosophy it means the internal quality. But in social psychology the term personality indicates neither the external or outward pattern nor does it indicate the internal quality. It means an integrated whole. The term 'persona' was used to indicate the actions of an individual. In the modern world and psychology it has come to indicate the sum total of an individual's characteristics and qualities. Various thinkers, social psychologists and others have defined personality in various ways.

According to K. Young, "Personality is a patterned body of habits, traits, attitudes and ideas of an individual's, as these are organised externally into roles and statues and as they relate internally to motivation, goals, and various aspects of selfhood.

By personality Ogburn means "the integration of the socio-psychological behaviour of the human being, represented by habits of action and feeling, attitudes and opinions."

According to Lundberg and others, “The term personality refers to the habits, attitudes and other social traits that are characteristic of a given individual’s behaviour”.

“Personality represents those structural and dynamic properties of an individual or individuals as they reflect themselves in characteristic responses to situations”.

1.1.1 Types of personality

There are actually 4 different personality types that have been classified into major categories. They have been designated as types A, B, C, and D. Each personality type has certain traits and characteristics which set it apart from the others. It is important to note that people can have traits and characteristics from all four classifications. The type of personality that they are assigned when tested is based on the majority of characteristics and traits that are on display.

Type A- People who has a Type A personality tends to focus on competition. They love to achieve greatness and they don’t like it when it takes a lot of time to experience success. People with these personalities are often working on multiple projects at the same time because they have an almost desperate need to be seen as a winner. They sometimes feel insecure, especially if they aren’t seen as being successful, and push themselves to the breaking point on a regular basis for the chance to reach their goals quickly.

Type B- People who have a Type B personality tend to be more relaxed. They don't take stressful situations personally. They can still be highly competitive, but they don't have the same urgency to see a successful outcome happen. You'll find that this personality trait tends to procrastinate a lot, waiting until the last possible second to submit work – and if there isn't a firm deadline in place, they'll just submit the work on their own time. If given the choice between working and chilling with their friends, they'll likely choose the latter.

Type C - People who have a Type C personality like to focus on the fine details of any given situation. They like to get lost in whatever information is available to them to glean out new opinions from the data. Instead of being assertive about what they want to do, this personality type tends to let other people follow their own path and set their desires aside for a later time. This tends to cause higher levels of stress in these folks and often regret: "If I had only been a little more assertive."

Type D - People who have a Type D personality tend to see the world in a very negative way. Although there may be situations that most people would find to be optimistic, this personality type will always be pessimistic about any potential outcome. Their outlook toward life itself can be severely negative as well. There is a constant fear of rejection in some way, which often causes this personality type to live a fairly isolated life. This is the personality type that has the highest risk of suffering from depression at some point during their lifetime.

Just because you are one personality type today doesn't mean that you're stuck with that personality forever. Your personality is based on several different factors and isn't part of your genetic code. Your experiences, your relationships, and even the foods you eat can all have an impact on your personality.

1.1.2 Personality determinants

Personality is not determined by a single factor, but by an accumulation of many factors. Some of those factors are psychological, while others are physical, biological, and hereditary.

Brain: The brain is one of the most important personality determinants. It is generally believed the father and the child adopt almost the same type of brain stimulation. Later differences are the result of the environment in which the child has grown

Physical Characteristics: One of the most important factors in determining personality are an individual's physical characteristics. These factors play a vital role in determining one's behaviour in a social organization. Physical characteristics include, but are not limited to: Height, Skin tone, Weight, Hair colour, Beauty. These factors influence interactions with other people, contributing to personality development.

Social Experiences: Social experiences play a vital role in determining one's personality. The things that occur around a person on a regular basis determine how that person will behave and perceive themselves. A person's social

experiences affect Coordination, Cooperation, Family relationships, Organizational relationships, Workplaces relationships, Involvement in communities

Culture and Religion: The culture in which one lives almost always involves Traditional practices, Norms, Customs, Procedures, Rules and regulations, Precedents, Values. These are all highly influential determinants of personality.

Heredity: Perhaps the most surprising and astonishing personality determinant is heredity. Researchers in my many different countries have studied thousands of sets of identical twins who were separated at birth and raised separately. For instance, one set of twins who had been separated for 39 years and raised 45 miles apart, were found to drive the same model and colour car. They also chain-smoked the same brand of cigarette, owned dogs with the same name, and regularly enjoyed vacations within three blocks of each other in a beach community 1,500 miles away. Heredity is perhaps the most important factor in determining personality, since mostly all other determinants, such as physical characteristics, gender, psychology, and more, are passed down through genes

1.2 Achievement Motivation

Achievement motivation can be understood simply as the tendency to strive for success or to attain a desirable goal. Embedded within this definition are a number of important implications. First, it is suggested that achievement motivation involves an inclination on the part of the individual. Historically,

this has included a consideration of the individual's personality and how that personality influences a motivational state, given the presence of certain environmental factors. Since the 1980s, the focus of achievement motivation research has shifted from individual differences in personality to the cognitive, situational, and contextual determinants of achievement. Second, achievement usually involves a task-oriented behaviour that can be evaluated. Third, the task orientation usually involves some standard of excellence that may be either internally or externally imposed.

1.2.1 Features of Achievement Motivation

- a. It is lateral personal disposition to strive for a particular goal
- b. It's person's deep and driving desire to do something important to attain the feelings of personal accomplishment.
- c. It is personal disposition to achieve something difficult and bigger.

Thus, it becomes clear that achievement motivation is basically the predisposition or inner urge or inclination of an entrepreneur to accomplish something important and unique to attain a feelings of self-accomplishment and satisfaction.

Achievement motivation typically refers to the level of one's motivation to engage in achievement behaviours, based on the interaction of such parameters as need for achievement, expectancy of success, and the incentive value of

success. Our construct of motivational orientation refers to the type of motivational stance which the child adopts toward classroom learning. Thus, one may engage in schoolwork for intrinsic reasons, because work is challenging, enjoyable, and piques one's curiosity, or alternatively, one may engage in schoolwork for extrinsic reasons, either to obtain external approval or because the educational system requires it.

Achievement is task-oriented behaviour that allows the individual's performance to be evaluated according to some internally or externally imposed criterion that involves the individual in competing with others, or that otherwise involves some standard of excellence. Behaviour is ordinarily described as intrinsically motivated if it is pleasurable in its own right and is not being undertaken merely to obtain some external reward; the reward for performing is inherent in the performance itself. When the individual's goal is more specifically to meet some standard of performance excellence and part of the reward for indulging in the activity is striving toward and reaching this goal, we refer to intrinsic achievement motivation. Successful achievement often brings about consequences that are gratifying to their recipients, such as a pay raise and social recognition. Achievement-oriented behaviours whose goal is to obtain these external or extrinsic rewards can be described as extrinsically motivated. It is possible, of course, for a single set of behaviours to be driven simultaneously by both intrinsic and extrinsic motives.

Achievement motivation consists of a varied and complex set of assumptions, assessments, predictions, inferences, values, standards, and affective reactions that may be irrational, inaccurate, and contradictory.

1.2.3 The Hierarchal Model of Achievement Motivation

Achievement motivation has been conceptualized in many different ways. Our understanding of achievement-relevant effects, cognition, and behaviour has improved. Despite being similar in nature, many achievement motivation approaches have been developed separately, suggesting that most achievement motivation theories are in concordance with one another instead of competing. Motivational researchers have sought to promote a hierarchal model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation by incorporating the two prominent theories: the achievement motive approach and the achievement goal approach. Achievement motives include the need for achievement and the fear of failure. These are the more predominant motives that direct our behaviour toward positive and negative outcomes. Achievement goals are viewed as more solid cognitive representations pointing individuals toward a specific end. There are three types of these achievement goals: a performance-approach goal, a performance-avoidance goal, and a mastery goal. A performance-approach goal is focused on attaining competence relative to others, a performance-avoidance goal is focused on avoiding incompetence relative to others, and a mastery goal is focused on the development of competence itself and of task mastery. Achievement motives can be seen as direct predictors of achievement-relevant

circumstances. Thus, achievement motives are said to have an indirect or distal influence, and achievement goals are said to have a direct or proximal influence on achievement-relevant outcomes

These motives and goals are viewed as working together to regulate achievement behaviour. The hierarchical model presents achievement goals as predictors for performance outcomes. The model is being further conceptualized to include more approaches to achievement motivation. One weakness of the model is that it does not provide an account of the processes responsible for the link between achievement goals and performance. As this model is enhanced, it becomes more useful in predicting the outcomes of achievement-based behaviours

1.3 Birth Order

Birth order is the chronological order of sibling births in a family. It's an individual's rank by age among siblings, has long been of interest to psychologists as well as lay-people.

1.3.1 Common Birth Order Characteristics

Only Child

The unique position of the only child in a household of adults often results in a number of common personality traits.

- Close relationship with parents
- Natural born leaders
- Possess a high level of self-control
- Communicate and get along well with adults
- Can be demanding
- Can be spoiled and self-absorbed
- May feel a sense of "specialness"
- May feel they are being treated unfairly if they don't get their own way
- May be quite sensitive
- Often mature and dependable
- Often very private in nature
- Likes being the centre of attention
- Will often "divide and conquer" parents in order to get what they want
- May relate better to adults than peers

Famous only children include Robin Williams, Natalie Portman, Tipper Gore, Rudy Giuliani, Alan Greenspan, Franklin D. Roosevelt and Kareem-Abdul Jabbar.

Oldest Child

The oldest child is the only child for a period of time and can often show similar traits to only children; however, being the oldest of a group of siblings also may bring about other personality traits including the following:

- People pleasers
- Natural leaders
- High achievers
- Conformist
- May be bossy or a know-it-all
- Are often very organized and prompt
- May be overachievers
- They may behave in a very authoritarian manner, especially towards younger siblings
- May seek attention - in both positive and negative ways
- Often controlling
- May become compliant and nurturing

Middle Child

Middle children generally display similar personality characteristics, although the middle child traits are more likely to appear in children who are in the

middle of three than in middle children of larger families. Some middle child characteristics include the following:

- Flexible
- Easy-going
- Independent
- May be an excellent mediator or negotiator
- May feel that life is unfair
- May feel unloved or squeezed out by siblings
- Can be highly adaptable
- Often generous and sociable
- May try to differentiate themselves from the eldest sibling through behaviours and interests
- May perceive that the oldest and youngest child are the parents' "favourites"
- May be rebellious
- Engage in attention-seeking behaviours
- May be extremely competitive

Youngest Child

The baby of the family is often looked on as a carefree and spoiled position in the family. Characteristics of youngest children include:

- Often silly or funny
- Can display risk-taking behaviours
- Are often creative
- Can be very self-centred
- Often feels inferior as if everyone else is bigger and more capable
- Is highly competitive
- Can become bored easily
- Are usually friendly and outgoing with a terrific sense of humour
- Expects others to care for them and take responsibility for them
- Will often ally with the oldest sibling against the middle sibling (if three children)
- Can be equal parts charming and manipulative
- May be very idealistic

1.3.2 Factors That Can Alter Traditional Birth Order Roles

- **Gender:** Gender can throw off the typical birth order structure if the first two children born are different genders. When this happens, they often

both have personality traits of the oldest child. As for a large family, if there is one boy (or one girl) in the family, that child will not be in their typical birth order role. Or if a family displays favouritism or places more value on one gender over another, the dynamic will be different as well.

- **Age Difference between Siblings:** If there are five or more years between siblings, the birth order role will not apply. Since the age between siblings is so great, it is considered a new start or 'new family' with a 'new firstborn'. When siblings are born one to two years apart, there may be more conflict and competition especially if they are the same gender. The ideal age difference between siblings tends to be three to four years. They are still close in age but can still have their own identity and interests.
- **Physical Attributes:** The older sibling naturally tends to be domineering and bossy towards their younger siblings. But if they are close in age and the younger sibling eventually outgrows or outsmarts their older sibling, the dynamic can change.
- **Disposition:** When a younger sibling has a stronger, more confident disposition or temperament than their older sibling, this may throw off the birth order role.

- **Special Qualities:** If a younger sibling is an overachiever in school or excels exponentially in sports or music, they tend to get special, even priority treatment and birth order tends to shift. Another scenario is a sibling who has a disability and needs special care. Often these situations will alter the birth order role as well.
- **Twins:** The birth order role doesn't typically apply to twins. They have a special position in the family and tend to operate independently of the traditional birth order roles.
- **Blended Families:** When families are blended due to remarriage, the sibling dynamic can be incredibly confusing and complicated depending on the ages of the children. It's not unusual for the children to need some time to establish themselves in their new family hierarchy.

1.3.3 Birth order and Personality

Birth order has a powerful impact upon children's emotions, behaviour and personality development. By a twist of fate a child is born into a particular spot in the family, and from this position, he will have unique emotional experiences. Each spot in the order has its advantages and challenges.

The firstborn child basks in her parents' undivided love and attention for a period of time, and often benefits emotionally from this experience. She can emerge feeling loved with a sense of security and self-confidence. This will

help her to go out into the world and become a responsible leader. Many of our presidents and heads of corporations have been firstborns. A firstborn child experiences terrible feelings of loss when she gives up her old crib to the new baby, and must now share her parents' love and attention. She feels jealous because of the special care and attention her adorable little sibling gets; feels intruded upon because the younger one tends to mess up whatever she is doing ; and is resentful because she is generally required to behave better and do more for the family. However, one of the most positive experiences she receives as a first born, is nurturing a younger sibling. This experience expands her ability to love and to be sensitive to other people's needs.

The second born child benefits from calmer, more self-confident parents and enjoys special attention as the baby. He also has the advantage of learning from, and modelling, his idolized older sibling. As a result, he may be able to read at an earlier age. However, the second born child often feels terribly inadequate as he sits on a tricycle and his older sibling whizzes by on a two wheeler. Unfortunately, he lacks the understanding that the problem has to do with the children's' age difference. The second born is always rushing to catch up to the firstborn in order to feel that he is valuable.

The middle child shares the positives of being both a younger sibling and an older one. He has an older sibling to learn from, who can watch over him, and he has a younger sibling who looks up to him, whom he can nurture. But as

the middle child, he faces some of his own unique challenges. He feels upset about losing his role as the baby, and often feels left out and jealous because both his older and younger siblings command so much attention. It's not unusual for one parent to be helping the older child with her homework, while the other parent gets the baby ready for bed while the middle child sits alone waiting for attention.

1.4 Need and Significance of the Study

Birth Order have an adverse impact on the personality and achievement motivation among the students. Personality is one of the main factor that an individual needs to develop. The development of an individual's personality begins from their family and that the family play an important role in the development of the personality. Different birth orders to which the individual falls can make the personality of the individual different from the others. Thus the first borns, second borns and the third borns not possess the same type of personality. They maintain different types of personalities. The child rearing practices can also influence this.

In the modern era, we are living in a competitive world and the academic motivation of the children are highly valued in the societies, families and their lives. Children does not have the capabilities to meet the challenges in their lives. Achievement motivation is one of the key factors in the life of a student. The achievement students make in their academics and various other fields play

a major role in the development and progress of a nation. The family and the society should provide a proper motivation for the students to achieve their dreams. The motivation level of students will be different based on the birth order in which they falls. So the parents and the teachers should provide a proper guiding pattern to guide the students for the proper achievement.

This study helps us to understand the personality and the achievement motivation level that each of the birth orders possess so that the parents and other family members can adopt proper parenting styles based on the personalities of the students and can also the level of motivation can be identified so that the parents and teachers can give proper attention towards them for achieving their dreams.

1.5 Statement of the problem

The present study focuses to assess the personality and achievement motivation among the higher secondary students in relation to their birth order (first born, second born, and third born)

1.6 Definition of Key Terms

- **Personality:** Personality refers to the different behaviour patterns that is shown by the students in relation to their birth order. Different birth orders possess different personality characteristics

- **Achievement Motivation:** Achievement motivation is defined as the level of motivation that each birth order positions possess. Same as personality varies on the basis of birth order, the achievement motivation can also be found to be different among different birth orders
- **Birth Order:** The birth position into which the students falls i.e. First borns, Second borns and Third borns.

1.7 Hypotheses

- There will be significant difference on variable achievement motivation and birth order groups (i.e., First born, Second born, Third born) among Higher Secondary Students
- There will be significant difference on variable personality and birth order groups (i.e., First born, Second born, Third born) among Higher Secondary Students

1.8 Objectives of the Study

- To assesses the relationship between personality and birth order among higher secondary students.
- To find out the relationship between achievement motivation and birth order in higher secondary students.

1.9 METHODS IN BRIEF

A brief outline of the procedure followed for the investigation is presented below. Detailed description is given in chapter III.

1.9.1 Sample

The sample consist of 90 higher secondary students from different schools in Kollam district. The sample consist of both males and females studying in both plus one and plus two

1.9.2 Tools

The following tools were used in this study

- Big Five Personality Inventory (Goldberg, 1993)
- Achievement Motivation Inventory (Muthee & Thomas, 2009)

1.9.3 Data Collection Procedure

The data were collected according to the instructions given in the manual of the instrument. Demographic data of the students were collected. The birth order of the students were collected form the students.

1.9.4 Statistical Techniques

In order to analyse the data, the following statistical techniques were used.

- ANOVA (One way)
- Duncan's Multiple Range Test

1.10 ORGANIZATION OF THE REPORT

The report of the investigation has been presented in five chapters. Chapter I presents the introduction, significance of the study and brief description of the procedure. Chapter II gives the related theoretical background and the studies related to personality, achievement motivation and birth order. Methodology is presented in chapter III. Chapter IV gives the results, discussions, objectives and the Hypothesis. Chapter V contains the summary and conclusion.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

- **Theoretical Views**
 - a) **Personality**
 - b) **Achievement Motivation**
 - c) **Birth Order**
- **Related studies on Personality, Achievement motivation and birth order**
- **Summary and conclusion of the studies**

A literature review is a search and evaluation of the available literature in your given subject or chosen topic area. It documents the state of the art with respect to the subject or topic you are writing about. A literature review shows your readers that you have an in-depth grasp of your subject; and that you understand where your own research fits into and adds to an existing body of agreed knowledge. A literature review has four main objectives, it surveys the literature in your chosen area of study, it synthesises the information in that literature into a summary, it critically analyses the information gathered by identifying gaps in current knowledge; by showing limitations of theories and points of view; and by formulating areas for further research and reviewing areas of controversy, it presents the literature in an organised way.

The present chapter has three sections,

- I. Theoretical views
- II. Studies related to Personality, Achievement motivation and Birth order
- III. Summary and conclusion of the study

2.1 Theories of Personality

2.1.1 Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory

This theory is based on the belief that man is encouraged more by unforeseen forces than the conscious and logical thought. Freud believed that most of the things in life are not present at the conscious level but they are present at an unconscious level. The features of Freud's theory include three attributes – Id, Ego, and Superego (McLoed, 2017)

Id – It defines the innate component of personality. It is the impulsive and unconscious part of mind that seeks immediate satisfaction.

Ego – It is derived from Id and assists in dealing with the external world. It also helps in translating the inner needs into expressions. It deals with practical and rational thinking process.

Superego – It is different from ego and is partially unconscious. It includes the traditional values of society as interpreted by our parents. It also helps in the integral vision of punishment.

2.1.2 Erikson's Theory

This theory states that personality is groomed throughout lifetime. He presents eight distinct stages each with two possible outcomes. Successful completion of each stage leads to a healthy personality.(Cherry, 2005) These stages are –

Infancy – It is the period between 0-1 years of age. In this stage, children learn the ability to trust others depending on their caregivers. Unsuccessful completion in this stage results in anxiety and insecurity.

Early Childhood – It is the period between 1-3 years of age. In this stage, children learn to be independent. If given support, they become more confident else they become dependent over others.

Play Age – It is the period between 3-6 years of age. In this stage, children assert themselves frequently. The failure leads to development of a sense of guilt among them.

School Age – It is the period between 6 years of age till puberty. In this stage, children become more innovative. They feel confident and want to achieve their goals. If not encouraged they may feel inferior.

Adolescence – This stage is a transformation from childhood to adulthood. Here children find their own identity and should be guided and supported in order to help them choose the right direction.

Young Childhood – This stage is also known as young adulthood. Here, they begin to open up and become more intimate with others.

Adulthood – In this stage, they focus on establishing career and settling down with relationships that are important.

Mature Adulthood – In this stage, a person is old and thus in this stage the productivity slows down.

2.1.3 Sheldon's Physiognomy Theory

This theory was proposed by William Sheldon. He presents personalities by classifying individuals into convenient categories based on their body shapes. They are: Endomorph, Mesomorphs and Ectomorph (Bernard,2003)

Endomorphs- In this category, the body is soft and spherical. People with this kind of personality love comfort, eat a lot, like to be around people and desire affection. Some common endomorph features are large amount of fat accumulation, insatiable appetite, larger frame etc.

Mesomorphs - In this category, the body is hard and rectangular physique. People with this kind of personality like to take risk, are courageous and have power. Some common Mesomorphs features are wide shoulders, small waist, low body fat.

Ectomorph - In this category, the body is fragile, flat chest and delicate body. People with this kind of personality are anxious, ambitious and dedicated. Some common ectomorph features are narrow frame, low body fat, etc. (Bernard, 2003)

2.1.4 Carl Jung's Theory of personality

- Theory of the Libido

Jung (1948) disagreed with Freud regarding the role of sexuality. He believed the libido was not just sexual energy, but instead generalized psychic energy.

For Jung the purpose of psychic energy was to motivate the individual in a number of important ways, including spiritually, intellectually, and creatively. It was also an individual's motivational source for seeking pleasure and reducing conflict

- Theory of the Unconscious

Jung regarded the psyche as made up of a number of separate but interacting systems. The three main ones were the ego, the personal unconscious, and the collective unconscious. According to Jung, the ego represents the conscious mind as it comprises the thoughts, memories, and emotions a person is aware of. The ego is largely responsible for feelings of identity and continuity. According to Jung, the ego represents the conscious mind as it comprises the thoughts, memories, and emotions a person is aware of. The ego is largely responsible for feelings of identity and continuity. (McLeod, 2018)

Jung emphasized the importance of the unconscious in relation to personality. However, he proposed that the unconscious consists of two layers. The first layer called the personal unconscious is essentially the same as Freud's version

of the unconscious. The personal unconscious contains temporality forgotten information and well as repressed memories.

The most important difference between Jung and Freud is Jung's notion of the **collective unconscious**. This is his most original and controversial contribution to personality theory. This is a level of unconscious shared with other members of the human species comprising latent memories from our ancestral and evolutionary past. 'The form of the world into which is born is already inborn in him, as a virtual image. According to Jung, the human mind has innate characteristics "imprinted" on it as a result of evolution. These universal predispositions stem from our ancestral past. Fear of the dark, or of snakes and spiders might be examples, and it is interesting that this idea has recently been revived in the theory of prepared conditioning. However, more important than isolated tendencies are those aspects of the collective unconscious that have developed into separate sub-systems of the personality. Jung called these ancestral memories and images archetypes (McLeod, 2018)

- Archetypes : Archetypes (Jung, 1947) are images and thoughts which have universal meanings across cultures which may show up I dreams, literature, art or religion. Jung claimed to identify a large number of archetypes but paid special attention to four.
- The **"persona"** (or mask) is the outward face we present to the world. It conceals our real self and Jung describes it as the "conformity"

archetype. This is the public face or role a person presents to others as someone different to who we really are

- Another archetype is the **anima/animus**. The “anima/animus” is the mirror image of our biological sex, that is, the unconscious feminine side in males and the masculine tendencies in women. Each sex manifests attitudes and behavior of the other by virtue of centuries of living together. The psyche of a woman contains masculine aspects (the animus archetype), and the psyche of a man contains feminine aspects
- Next is the **shadow**. This is the animal side of our personality. It is the source of both our creative and destructive energies. In line with evolutionary theory, it may be that Jung’s archetypes reflect predispositions that once had survival value.
- Finally, there is the **self** which provides a sense of unity in experience. For Jung, the ultimate aim of every individual is to achieve a state of selfhood (similar to self-actualisation), and in this respect, Jung is moving in the direction of a more humanist orientation.

2.1.5 Eysenck's Personality Theory

Eysenck was a theorist who focused on personality traits. **Traits** are broad behavioural elements that define who you are, like calm or easily excited. Eysenck described one's personality as a hierarchy of traits. At the top of that hierarchy we see broad primary characteristics, known as higher-order traits.

The few broad higher-order traits then determine several lower-order traits. The lower-order traits help to make up our habitual behaviours and our specific responses. According to Eysenck, personality traits are genetically inherited. Eysenck's theory of personality focused on two dimensions of higher-order traits, **extraversion vs. introversion** and **emotional stability vs. neuroticism**, or emotional instability (McLeod, 2018)

2.1.5.1 Extraversion and Introversion

Extraverts are commonly known as being loud and outgoing while **introverts** are often thought of as quiet and reserved. Eysenck described extraversion and introversion differently, looking at their natural states of arousal. In psychology, the term *arousal* refers to any excitation. According to Eysenck, introverts have a higher natural base level of excitation and therefore do not need to seek out stimulating environments. Extraverts have a lower base arousal and choose environments that provide more stimulation

2.1.5.2 Neuroticism-Emotional Stability

Eysenck also proposed a second dimension: emotional stability to emotional instability, or neuroticism. Individuals scoring highly on neuroticism measures tend to experience higher levels of stress and anxiety. They worry about relatively insignificant matters, exaggerating their significance and feeling unable to cope with life stressors. A focus on negative aspects of a situation, rather than the positives, can lead to a person to adopt a

disproportionately negative outlook. They may feel envious or jealous of others who they feel are in a more advantaged position. Neuroticism is also characterised by perfectionism, and a tendency to feel dissatisfied, angry or frustrated with others when their desires are not fulfilled, or when their expectations are not met.(McLeod,2018)

2.1.6 Cattell's 16PF Trait Theory

Cattell (1965) disagreed with Eysenck's view that personality can be understood by looking at only two or three dimensions of behaviour. Instead, he argued that that is was necessary to look at a much larger number of traits in order to get a complete picture of someone's personality. Cattell collected data from a range of people through three different sources of data.

- **L-data** - this is life record data such as school grades, absence from work, etc.
- **Q-data** - this was a questionnaire designed to rate an individual's personality (known as the 16PF).
- **T-data** - this is data from objective tests designed to 'tap' into a personality construct.

Cattell analysed the T-data and Q-data using a mathematical technique called factor analysis to look at which types of behaviour tended to be grouped

together in the same people. He identified 16 personality traits / factors common to all people.

Cattell made a distinction between source and surface traits. Surface traits are very obvious and can be easily identified by other people, whereas source traits are less visible to other people and appear to underlie several different aspects of behaviour. Cattell regarded source traits are more important in describing personality than surface traits.(McLeod,2018)

2.1.7 Allport's Trait Theory

Allport is perhaps best known for his trait theory of personality. He began developing this theory by going through a dictionary and noting every term he found that described a personality trait. (McLeod, 2018) After compiling a list of 4,500 different traits, he organized them into three different trait categories, including:

- Cardinal traits: These are traits that dominate an individual's entire personality. Cardinal traits are thought to be quite rare.
- Central traits: Common traits that make up our personalities. Traits such as kindness, honesty, and friendliness are all examples of central traits.
- Secondary traits: These are traits that are only present under certain conditions and circumstances. An example of a secondary trait would be getting nervous before delivering a speech to a large group of people.

2.2 Theories on Achievement Motivation

2.2.1 McClelland Achievement Motivation Theory

Achievement Motivation Theory is one of the famous works of American psychologist David Clarence McClelland. This theory is also widely recognized as Need Achievement Theory, Need Theory and Three Needs Theory. According to David McClelland, people have motivating drivers that are directly linked to need regardless of age, gender, culture or race. (Maharjan, 2018) As a result of the McClelland Achievement Motivation Theory, identified four types of motivational need:

- Need for achievement: The need for achievement as the name itself suggests is the urge to achieve something in what you do. People who possess high achievement needs are people who always work to excel by particularly avoiding low reward low risk situations and difficult to achieve high risk situations. The individuals motivated by needs for achievement usually have a strong desire of setting up difficult objectives and accomplishing them. Their preference is to work in the result oriented work environment and always appreciate any feedback on their work. Achievement based individuals take calculated risks to reach their goals and may circumvent both high-risk and low-risk situations. They often prefer working alone.

- Need for power: The need for power is the desire within a person to hold control and authority over another person and influence and change their decision in accordance with his own needs or desires. The need to enhance their self-esteem and reputation drives these people and they desire their views and ideas to be accepted and implemented over the views and ideas over others. These people are strong leaders and can be best suited to leading positions. They either belong to Personal or Institutional power motivator groups. If they are a personal power motivator they would have the need to control others and a institutional power motivator seeks to lead and coordinate a team towards an end. The individuals motivated by needs for power have a desire to control and influence others.
- Need for affiliation: The need for affiliation is urge of a person to have interpersonal and social relationships with others or a particular set of people. They seek to work in groups by creating friendly and lasting relationships and has the urge to be liked by others. They tend to like collaborating with others to competing with them and usually avoids high risk situations and uncertainty. The individuals motivated by needs for affiliation prefer being part of a group. They like spending their time socializing and maintaining relationships and possess strong desire to be loved and accepted. These individuals stick to basics and play by the

books without feeling a need to change things, primarily due to a fear of being rejected (Maharjan, 2018).

2.3 Theory of Birth Order

2.3.1 Adler's Birth Order Theory

Alfred Adler developed theories of personality that focused on a therapist's need to understand an individual within the context of social environment. According to Adler, character traits and behaviours derive primarily from developmental issues, including birth order. (Topness, 2017)

First-Born Children: Adler believed that when a child is born impacts personality. Based on his theory, for example, the oldest child -- prone to perfectionism and need for affirmation -- tends to become intellectual, conscientious and dominant in social settings. Adler attributes this to the child losing the parents' undivided attention and compensating throughout life by working to get it back. In addition, this child may be expected to set an example and be given responsibility for younger siblings

Second and Middle Children: Adler describes the second-born child as someone who has a "pacemaker." Since there is always someone who was there first, this child may grow to be more competitive, rebellious and consistent in attempting to be best. Middle children may struggle with figuring out their place in the family and, later, in the world. They are eager for parental praise

and thus tend to develop gifts in the arts or academia in order to accomplish this goal. Due to their "middle" status, they also may be the most flexible and diplomatic members of the family.

Youngest and Only Children: In Adler's theory, the youngest child may be dependent and selfish due to always being taken care of by family members. However, this child may also possess positive traits of confidence, ability to have fun and comfort at entertaining others. Only children do not have to share their parents' attention. They may have a hard time when they are told no, and school may be a difficult transition as they are not the sole focus of the teacher. On a positive note, Adler believed that, compared to others their age, only children tend to be more mature, feel more comfortable around adults and even do better in intellectual and creative pursuits.(Topness,2017)

2.4 Studies related to Personality

MacDonald (1971) conducted a study on Birth order and Personality. It investigated 6 personality variables for birth order differences in 339 male and 447 female and 210 male and 266 female undergraduates. Students in the former were studied for dogmatism, ambiguity tolerance, and rigidity. Measures of internal-external locus of control and social responsibility were administered to the later born. Both samples were given the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. Data were analysed in 2 * 3 factorial analysis of variance designs: 2 levels of sex and 3 levels of birth order (only child, 1st born, and

later born). It was found that (a) later borns from 2-child families were more external than those from larger families; (b) later borns from 2-child families were more external than only children or 1st borns from 2-child families; (c) only children and 1st borns were more socially responsible than later borns; (d) 1st borns were more rigid than only-child and later-born and (e) only-female students manifested higher need for approval than only males.

Jefferson, Herbert and McCrae (1998) conducted a study on “Associations between Birth Order and Personality Traits: Evidence from Self-Reports and Observer Ratings”. Birth-order effects on traits within the five-factor model of personality were studied in this research. Self-reports on brief measures of Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Openness in a national sample (N= 9664) were unrelated to birth order. Self-reports on the 30 facet scales of the Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) in an adult sample (N= 612) showed only small effects for Altruism and Tender-Mindedness. Peer ratings (N= 166) supported the hypotheses that later born children would be higher in facets of Openness and Agreeableness, but spouse ratings (N= 88) did not replicate those findings. Birth order may have subtle effects on perceived personality, but it is unlikely that this effect mediates associations with scientific radicalism.

Paulhus, Trapnell and Chen (1998) conducted a study on “Birth Order Effects on Personality and Achievement within Families.” The study was conducted among 1022 families including both student and adult samples.

Participants were compared with their siblings and themselves on a variety of personality and achievement dimensions. Across four diverse data sets, first-borns were nominated as most achieving and most conscientious. Later born's were nominated as most rebellious, liberal, and agreeable. The same results obtained whether or not birth order was made salient during the personality ratings.

Marinia and Kurtzb (2011) conducted a study on "Birth order differences in normal personality traits: Perspectives from within and outside the family" among college students. 231 data's were collected. Data were collected from three sources (self, peer, and parent) to systematically evaluate previous observations that birth order differences are more commonly found when ratings are obtained from family members than from observers outside the family. Using a between-family design, students were selected only from families with two or three full biological siblings and no half-siblings, step-siblings, or adopted siblings. 103 Firstborn and 128 later born students were compared using NEO-FFI ratings by the self, by a same-sex college peer, and by a biological parent. No birth order differences were found for any of the five NEO-FFI scores using any of the three rating sources. Effect sizes (Cohen's d) were less than .20 for all comparisons.

Ha and Tam (2011), conducted a study of Birth Order, Academic Performance, and Personality among college students. This single survey study recruited 30 firstborns, 30 middle children, 30 lastborns, and 30 only children

from Klang valley, mostly from Sunway University College. Participants' age ranged from 17 to 24 years. Scale used in this study was Ten Item Personality Inventory. ANOVA was used to analyze the data's. Results indicated that firstborn and only child had the highest mean scores for agreeableness and conscientiousness. However, the effect of birth orders on agreeableness and conscientiousness was not statistically significant. In addition, participants of different birth orders did not differ significantly in terms of extraversion, openness to experience and emotional stability

Rohrer, Egloff and Schmukle (2015) conducted a study on the topic "Examining the effects of birth order on personality". This study examined the long-standing question of whether a person's position among siblings has a lasting impact on that person's life course. They used data from three large national panels from the United States 5240, Great Britain 4489, and Germany 10457 to resolve this open research question. This database allowed them to identify even very small effects of birth order on personality with sufficiently high statistical power and to investigate whether effects emerge across different samples. They used two different analytical strategies by comparing siblings with different birth-order positions (i) within the same family (within-family design) and (ii) between different families (between-family design). In their analyses, they confirmed the expected birth-order effect on intelligence. They observed a significant decline of a self-reported intellect with increasing birth-order position, and this effect persisted after controlling for objectively

measured intelligence. They also found out that no birth-order effects on extraversion, emotional stability, agreeableness, conscientiousness, or imagination. On the basis of the high statistical power and the consistent results across samples and analytical designs, they conclude that birth order does not have a lasting effect on broad personality traits outside of the intellectual domain.

Volkom, Guerguis and Kramer (2017) conducted a study on “Sibling Relationships, Birth Order, and Personality among Emerging Adults”. The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of birth order on self-perceptions of various personality traits as well as the effects of both sex and birth order on perceptions of the sibling relationship during emerging adulthood. The study consisted of a total of 296 participants, derived from a convenience sample at a private North-eastern University. Of these participants, 64 were male and 232 were female. The participants ranged in age from 18 to 25. The materials that were used in this study included a demographics questionnaire and a sibling relationship and personality traits questionnaire. The study was a multi-group, between-subjects design. There were three levels to the main independent variable of birth order. The levels were youngest, middle, and oldest. The dependent variables included how emotionally close the participant was to their siblings and how often they communicate with their siblings. The findings that middle children rated themselves higher on the trait of aggressiveness than oldest children were approaching significance. This

study yielded were no statistically significant differences among the three birth orders in self-perceptions of various personality traits, ranging from creativity to empathy.

Dixon, Reyes, Leppert and Pappas (2008) conducted a study on the Personality and Birth order in larger families. The influence of birth order on the personality traits of siblings belonging to large families (≥ 6 siblings) was investigated using 361 sibling members (190 females, 171 males, mean age 32 ± 9.14) belonging to 42 large families. The personality traits of Psychoticism, Extraversion and Neuroticism were quantified for each participant who completed the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire. Overall, the youngest and three youngest siblings significantly differed from the oldest and oldest three siblings for Extraversion within and across families. The effects of age, gender and family size category on these personality traits were examined based on a hierarchical linear model. An age effect was detected for Extraversion in the model, whereas gender and family size did not have an impact. The age effect held for the two sensitivity analyses and is suggestive of a birth order

Damian and Roberts (2015) conducted a study on the associations of birth order with personality and intelligence in a representative sample of U.S. high school students. They tested birth order associations with personality traits and intelligence using Project Talent, a representative sample

($N = 377,000$) of U.S. high school students. Using a between-family design and several background factors (i.e., age, sex, sib ship size, parental socio-economic status, and family structure), they were able to control for potential confounds, and estimate the links between birth order and outcomes across several different social categories. In addition to differences between firstborns and later born across the entire sample, they also tested birth rank trends in a sub-sample of targets from sib ships of three, raised by two parents. Overall, the average absolute association between birth order and personality traits was .02, whereas the one between birth order and intelligence was .04.

Birth order, conscientiousness, and openness to experience: Tests of the family-niche model of personality using a within-family methodology, a study conducted by Healey and Ellis (2007), investigated differences between firstborn and second born siblings on major dimensions of personality, in the context of the proposal of Sulloway that personality is influenced by the specialized niches siblings adopt in the quest for access to parental resources. Using a within-family methodology, they tested two predictions from Sulloway's model: that firstborns are more achieving and conscientious than second borns and that second borns are more rebellious and open to new experiences than firstborns. To test an alternative prenatal hypo masculinization theory proposed by Beer and Horn . The influence of rearing order on personality development within two adoption cohorts. They also examined the size of birth-order effects in sister–sister versus brother–

brother pairs. The hypothesized effects of birth order on personality were found in both Study 1 ($n=161$ sibling pairs) and Study 2 ($n=174$ sibling pairs) and provided support for Sulloway's family-niche model. No support was found for Beer and Horn's hypo masculinization model.

Reчек and Kelley (2014) conducted a study on Birth order and personality: A within-family test using independent self-reports from both firstborn and later born siblings. Assumptions about the effects of birth order on personality abound in popular culture and self-help books. Indeed, when one sibling is asked to compare themselves to others in their family, birth order shows weak-to-moderate effects on personality. No study to date, however, has utilized a complete within-family design that includes independent self-reports from both firstborn and later born siblings in the same family. To fill this gap, they collected Big Five personality data on 69 young adult firstborn–later born sibling pairs. They also obtained data from parents of the sibling pairs and peer ratings of original participants' personality traits. Within-family analyses revealed that neither siblings' independent self-reported personality traits, nor parents' reports of their children's personality traits, differed systematically as a function of birth order. Their findings were consistent with results from between-family designs and they provide further evidence, employing a within-family design that utilizes data from multiple family members, that birth order does not have enduring effects on personality.

Beck, Burnet and Vosper (2006) had done a study on the Birth-order effects on facets of extraversion. The study investigated the reasons for inconsistent findings concerning birth-order effects and extraversion. According to Sulloway, one would expect first-born siblings to rate higher on one of the facets, dominance, and later-born siblings to rate higher on the other facet, sociability. In a within-family design, 96 undergraduate and graduate students rated themselves and their siblings on a 12-item extraversion scale taken from the NEO Five-Factor Inventory. One-sample *t*-tests revealed, as predicted, that first-borns rated significantly higher than later-borns on the facet of dominance and later-borns rated significantly higher on the facet of sociability. Various alternative explanations of the results were ruled out and the contribution of the within-family method to the study of birth-order effects in personality was discussed.

Badger and Reddy (2009) conducted a study on The Effects of Birth Order on Personality Traits and Feelings of Academic Sibling Rivalry. This study considered the interaction of all three factors. Firstborns (N=22) and last borns (N=24) completed online personality tests and an Academic Sibling Rivalry Questionnaire. Last borns were found to experience more academic sibling rivalry: $t=2.33$, $DF=44$; p less than 0.05, whereas firstborns are more likely to be conscientious: $F(1,44)=3.58$; p less than 0.05, and dutiful: $F(1,44)=5.39$; p less than 0.05. This raises possible implications in domains including education, health and psychotherapy. Further research could be

conducted to expand these findings in terms of variables and geographical location.

Szobiova (2008) conducted a study on Birth order, sibling constellation, and creativity and personality dimensions of adolescents. The study focuses on the connection between the birth-order in a sibling constellation and the creativity and personality traits of adolescents. The study searches for the answer to questions of whether creativity is connected with the birth-order in the sibling constellation and what personality traits it is connected to. The personality traits of the individual positions in the birth-order (first-born, second-born, the middle, the youngest and the only child) are compared. The Torrance Test of Creative Thinking (TTCT) and the Urban Creative Thinking Test (TSD-Z) were applied for creativity identification. To measure personality dimensions, the NEO Five-Factor Inventory was applied to a sample of 158 adolescents - University students of humanities and artistic-technical departments (mean age 19.91 years). The data on family constellation (birth-order, size of family, family and sibling constellation, age differences, etc.) were gathered, based on our own Questionnaire of Family Constellation. Our results confirmed the higher performance of the second-born adolescents in the Torrance Creative Thinking Test. The adolescents that grew up with a sibling of the same gender were more conscientious and more extravert. The creativity performance of a woman was higher if she grew up with a brother and a sister.

The men growing up with a brother and a sister were more agreeable than the women in the same sibling constellation.

Collins (2006) conducted a study on The Relationship between Birth Order and Personality and Career Choices. One hundred subjects from a private liberal arts New England College were surveyed and asked to report their birth order, perceived traits, career choice, and college major. Analysis revealed there is statistically significant data regarding the relationship between first children and predicted, typical first child personality traits. The second hypothesis pertaining to birth order and chosen college majors was not statistically significant. However, there does exist a significant relationship between those subjects that tended to select personality traits that are identified as last children and the association with selected college majors. This could imply that psychological birth order may in fact play a significant responsibility in shaping a child's career choice. The findings of this analytical study are intended to encourage further investigation.

Shao, Yao, Li and Huang (2013) conducted a study on Personality and life satisfaction in China: The birth order effect under the influence of national policy. The current research examined the relation of birth order to personality and life satisfaction in China, where only children have become the majority because of national policy. Across two studies with both between-family data ($N = 1468$) and within-family data ($N = 171$), only borns and later borns surpassed firstborns on openness to experience. In addition, only-child

participants were more satisfied with their own lives than were sibling participants, especially later borns. The results offer new insights into the dynamic relations between ecology and personality.

Kiedaisch (2006) conducted a study on The effects of psychological birth order on Goldberg's "big 5" personality traits. The purpose of this study was to explore whether or not birth order had any influence on personality traits. Based on the theories of Alfred Adler, that position in the family effects our perceptions and roles within the family, they surveyed seventy-two undergraduate students at Rowan University using two questionnaires. The first questionnaire was the Campbell-White PBOI which looks at the relationship between birth order and psychological birth order. The results of the questionnaire, using Pearson Chi Square, showed no significance between birth order and psychological birth order. The second questionnaire looked at birth order and the five personality traits of Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability and Intellect. Although there were some interesting trends that emerged, the overall findings did not support any link between birth order position and specific traits that have been ascribed to those positions.

Connor and Paunonen (2007) conducted a study on Big Five personality predictors of post-secondary academic performance. They reviewed the recent empirical literature on the relations between the Big Five personality dimensions and post-secondary academic achievement, and found some

consistent results. A meta-analysis showed Conscientiousness, in particular, to be most strongly and consistently associated with academic success. In addition, Openness to Experience was sometimes positively associated with scholastic achievement, whereas Extraversion was sometimes negatively related to the same criterion, although the empirical evidence regarding these latter two dimensions was somewhat mixed. Importantly, the literature indicates that the narrow personality traits or facets presumed to underlie the broad Big Five personality factors are generally stronger predictors of academic performance than are the Big Five personality factors themselves. Furthermore, personality predictors can account for variance in academic performance beyond that accounted for by measures of cognitive ability. A template for future research on this topic is proposed, which aims to improve the prediction of scholastic achievement by overcoming identifiable and easily correctable limitations of past studies.

Personality and Prejudice: A Meta-Analysis and Theoretical Review, a study conducted by Sibley and Duckitt (2008). Despite a substantial literature examining personality, prejudice, and related constructs such as Right-Wing Authoritarianism (RWA) and Social Dominance Orientation (SDO), there have been no systematic reviews in this area. The authors reviewed and meta-analysed 71 studies (N = 22,068 participants) investigating relationships between Big Five dimensions of personality, RWA, SDO, and prejudice. RWA was predicted by low Openness to Experience but also Conscientiousness,

whereas SDO was predicted by low Agreeableness and also weakly by low Openness to Experience. Consistent with a dual-process motivational model of ideology and prejudice, the effects of Agreeableness on prejudice were fully mediated by SDO, and those of Openness to Experience were largely mediated by RWA. Finally, the effects of Agreeableness and Openness to Experience were robust and consistent across samples, although subtle moderating factors were identified, including differences in personality inventory (NEO Personality Inventory—Revised vs. Big Five Inventory), differences across prejudice domain, and cross-cultural differences in Conscientiousness and Neuroticism. Implications for the study of personality and prejudice are discussed.

Petrides, Pita and Kokkinaki (2010) conducted a study on The location of trait emotional intelligence in personality factor space. The construct of trait emotional intelligence (trait EI or trait emotional self-efficacy) provides a comprehensive operationalization of emotion-related self-perceptions and dispositions. In the first part of the present study ($N = 274$, 92 males), we performed two joint factor analyses to determine the location of trait EI in Eysenckian and Big Five factor space. The results showed that trait EI is a compound personality construct located at the lower levels of the two taxonomies. In the second part of the study, we performed six two-step hierarchical regressions to investigate the incremental validity of trait EI in predicting, over and above the Giant Three and Big Five personality

dimensions, six distinct criteria (life satisfaction, rumination, two adaptive and two maladaptive coping styles). Trait EI incrementally predicted four criteria over the Giant Three and five criteria over the Big Five. The discussion addresses common questions about the operationalization of emotional intelligence as a personality trait.

Zhao, Seibert and Scott (2006) conducted a study on The Big Five personality dimensions and entrepreneurial status: A meta-analytical review. In this study, the authors used meta-analytical techniques to examine the relationship between personality and entrepreneurial status. Personality variables used in previous studies were categorized according to the five-factor model of personality. Results indicate significant differences between entrepreneurs and managers on 4 personality dimensions such that entrepreneurs scored higher on Conscientiousness and Openness to Experience and lower on Neuroticism and Agreeableness. No difference was found for Extraversion. Effect sizes for each personality dimension were small, although the multivariate relationship for the full set of personality variables was moderate ($R = .37$). Considerable heterogeneity existed for all of the personality variables except Agreeableness, suggesting that future research should explore possible moderators of the personality-entrepreneurial status relationship.

Kokkinos (2011) conducted a study on the Job stressors, personality and burnout in primary school teachers. This cross-sectional study sought to investigate the association between burnout, personality characteristics and job

stressors in primary school teachers from Cyprus. The study also investigates the relative contribution of these variables on the three facets of burnout – emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. A representative sample of 447 primary school teachers participated in the study. Teachers completed measures of burnout, personality and job stressors along with demographic and professional data. Surveys were delivered by courier to schools, and were distributed at faculty meetings. Results showed that both personality and work-related stressors were associated with burnout dimensions. Neuroticism was a common predictor of all dimensions of burnout although in personal accomplishment had a different direction. Managing student misbehaviour and time constraints were found to systematically predict dimensions of burnout. Teachers' individual characteristics as well as job related stressors should be taken into consideration when studying the burnout phenomenon. The fact that each dimension of the syndrome is predicted by different variables should not remain unnoticed especially when designing and implementing intervention programmes to reduce burnout in teachers.

Sills, Cohen and Stein (2006) conducted a study on the Relationship of resilience to personality, coping, and psychiatric symptoms in young adults. The study investigated the relationship of resilience to personality traits, coping styles, and psychiatric symptoms in a sample of college students. Measures included the Connor–Davidson Resilience Scale, NEO Five Factor Inventory, and Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations, and Brief Symptom Inventory.

Results supported hypotheses regarding the relationship of resilience to personality dimensions and coping styles. Resilience was negatively associated with neuroticism, and positively related to extraversion and conscientiousness. Coping styles also predicted variance in resilience above and beyond the contributions of these personality traits. Task-oriented coping was positively related to resilience, and mediated the relationship between conscientiousness and resilience. Emotion-oriented coping was associated with low resilience. Finally, resilience was shown to moderate the relationship between a form of childhood maltreatment (emotional neglect) and current psychiatric symptoms. These results augment the literature that seeks to better define resilience and provide evidence for the construct validity of the Connor–Davidson Resilience Scale.

Robert and Watson (2006) conducted a study on the Patterns of mean-level change in personality traits across the life course: A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. This study used meta-analytic techniques (number of samples = 92) to determine the patterns of mean-level change in personality traits across the life course. Results showed that people increase in measures of social dominance (a facet of extraversion), conscientiousness, and emotional stability, especially in young adulthood (age 20 to 40). In contrast, people increase on measures of social vitality (a 2nd facet of extraversion) and openness in adolescence but then decrease in both of these domains in old age. Agreeableness changed only in old age. Of the 6 trait categories, 4

demonstrated significant change in middle and old age. Gender and attrition had minimal effects on change, whereas longer studies and studies based on younger cohorts showed greater change.

2.5 Studies related to Achievement motivation

Wolkon and Levinger (1965) conducted a study on “Birth Order and need for achievement. This paper examines the hypothesis that first-borns have higher need Achievement than later-born. The data were collected as part of three larger studies. The first dealt with 60 married couples participating in a research project. Each sample took a symbol sustention test from which a level of aspiration index was derived; it pertained to the score that sample predicted for himself on the first trial. Forty-nine of these couples took two 12-need adaptations of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule—a general and marital form 3 and also gave a direct self-rating of his need for achievement. The second sample included 72 couples who were applicants for divorce. They completed the marital adaptation of the EPPS. In the third sample were 38 men and 64 women about to be released from psychiatric hospitals and judged appropriate for referral to a post-hospital rehabilitation centre. They responded to a sentence-completion test (Stotsky 8: Weinberg, 1956), which had in it an index of need Achievement. Analyses were performed separately for each sex for each of the six measurements. None of 12 separate t tests contrasting scores of first- and later-born’s was statistically significant. In fact, fewer than half were in the predicted direction. The result then indicates that, despite

differences in level of achievement between first- and later-born persons, there is no difference in need for achievement between occupants of these ordinal positions

Bradley (1968) conducted a study on “Birth order and school-related behaviour: A heuristic review” among adolescents. Evidence indicates a formidable link between birth order and college matriculation. Overwhelming evidence shows that 1st-borns of both sexes attend college in greater numbers than later-born peers. While explanations of this phenomenon were tenuous, substantial evidence exists indicating that early personality factors favouring 1st-borns are substantiated and extended while in school. 1st-borns more frequently: (1) meet teachers' expectations, (2) show more susceptibility to social pressure, and (3) exhibit greater information-seeking behaviour and seem more sensitive to tension-producing situations. These behaviours may strengthen achievement motivation and enhance academic performance.

Munz, Smouse and Letchworth (1968) conducted a study on “Achievement Motivation and Ordinal Position of Birth”. Study investigated the relationship between birth order, sex, and achievement motivation. Two studies were conducted using Costello's (1967) non-projective instrument which measures two aspects of the achievement motivation construct: Scale I, the need to achieve on a task and Scale II, the need to be a success. Neither study revealed a significant relationship between birth order and achievement motivation, nor were there any significant interactions involving the birth order

factor. There was, a significant sex main effect found in both studies, but in one study there was a significant difference on Scale II between males and females, with females scoring higher, while in the other study females scored significantly higher than males on both Scales I and II.

To examine “Birth order and achievement motivation configurations in women and men” Hargrove, Snell and Falbo (1986) conducted a study. They explored the birth category effects of achievement motivation configurations, using 1,979 undergraduates. Students completed a questionnaire measuring achievement motivation. Data were analyzed for 5 variables: birth category, gender, work orientation, mastery orientation, and competitiveness. Findings showed a significant interaction among birth category, mastery, and work variables, due to the achievement motivation configuration of the lastborn children. Last borns, relative to other birth categories, were significantly more often characterized by an achievement motivation configuration of low mastery/low competitiveness. Male only born’s characterized by a significant achievement motivation configuration involving high competitiveness and low work, while female only born’s were characterized by high competitiveness and high work patterns of achievement motivation. Results support the prediction that women's and men's birth category position is related to particular achievement motivation constellations.

“Motivational and Achievement Differences among Children of Various Ordinal Birth Positions” was the research topic which was studied by Adams

and Philips (1972). It was a 2 year study of 370 elementary-school students were carried out in an attempt to study consistent motivation, achievement, and intellectual differences between firstborn and later born. Firstborn were significantly higher than later born on 4 different measures of intellectual and academic performance and on 1 measure of school motivation. With 1 exception, the dependent measure represented an average of 4 scores separately obtained during the fall and spring semester of 2 consecutive years. When differences in level of motivation between the 2 groups were controlled, all of the previously found differences between firstborn and later born disappeared. This finding was interpreted as adding empirical support to Altus's theoretical explanation of the birth-order effect.

Dailey (2006) conducted a research on “Birth Order and Its Effect on Motivation and Academic Achievement” among 40 students from Missouri Western State University. These participants consist of students in different level Psychology courses. The purpose of this study was to compare first born and later born participants to determine if birth order has a significant effect on academic motivation. It was hypothesized in this study that being first born would have a significant effect on academic motivation. The measure used in this study was the Academic Motivation Scale (Baker, 1984), with questions included involving birth order and grade point average. The independent variables of this study are academic motivation and the participants’ birth order- only, first, middle, or last. However, first born and only children will be put into

the same group because of their similar experiences. The independent variable had two levels- first born or only child, or later born. Birth order effects are so small that many more participants would be needed to find a significant effect in this study.

Birth Order and the Academic and Social Success of College Students were a study conducted by Nissenbaum (2012). The purpose of the study of Birth Order and the Academic and Social Success of College Students was to examine the relationship between birth order and the academic and social experiences that students have during their college years. An ideal college experience involves students being actively engaged in what they are learning and having positive social interactions and support networks. Unfortunately, the college experiences of many students fall short of these expectations and they struggle to continue their pursuit of higher education. Depression has become a serious concern on college campuses. Understanding the birth orders that may create challenges in achieving academic or social success could reduce the number of college students having negative college experiences. There were 505 responses to the survey from undergraduate students at Syracuse University. It was found that only-born's and middle-born's who have the same gender as all of their siblings held the lowest scores for academic and social success. It was also found that these two populations were least likely to view their birth orders favourably.

Personality, Self-Esteem and Academic Achievement Motivation in Children Relation to Their Social Economic Status and Birth Order” was a study conducted by Doshi (2015). It was to examine the impact of birth order and socio economic status on the personality, self-esteem and academic achievement in children. The variables of the study were sex birth order and socio economic status. To examine main and internal impact of three independent variable 2 x 2 x 3 factorial design was used as a sample. In the present study 600 boys and girls were selected. Age range of sample is 8 to 12 years (according to CPQ Manual) out of 600, 480 boys and girls were taken by randomization. Out of 480 samples 240 boys and 240 girls were selected. Out of 240 boys and girls, 120 boys and girls were select who’s the first child of their parents and 120 boys and girls were selected who second child of their parents. Out of 120 boys and girls, 40 boys and girls were select who have a high social economic status, 40 boys and girls were selected who have a medium social economic status and 40 boys and girls were select who have a low social economic status. The tools used for this research was Children's Personality Questionnaire (CPQ), Self Esteem scale by A. M. Egly (1973) and Academic Achievement Motivation scale was by Dr. T. R. Sharma (1984). ANOVA and Correlation was used for the analysis of data. The results showed that there was a significant impact of birth order and socio economic status on the personality, self – esteem and academic achievement motivation in children.

Draughn (2016) conducted a study on “The impact of psychological birth order on academic achievement and motivation”. The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine if psychological birth order directly impacts student achievement and motivation. The resource dilution theory and confluence model were used to investigate the relationship between sibling perception of family roles within familial settings and academic performance and motivation within the college setting. The quantitative study used an online survey to assess psychological birth order, assess motivation, and obtain demographic information including academic achievement measures. This study yields potentially helpful insight into the arena of differentiation of instruction by introducing a new variable for educators to take into consideration. Criterion sampling was employed with a sample of 183 students in community, public and private colleges. This study found that psychological birth order (first born, middle born, youngest, only child) predicted student motivation in the area of fun seeking (part of the motivation scales). Also, psychological birth order (first born, middle born, youngest child) predicted student motivation in the area of reward responsiveness (another subscale of motivation scales). To initiate positive social change for individual students and address their specific needs, teachers and administrators can use these results to understand student motivation and design strategies to motivate students to reach their full potential.

Louis and Kumar (2016) conducted a study entitled “Does Birth Order and Academic Proficiency Influence Perfectionist Self-presentation among Undergraduate Engineering Students? A Descriptive Analysis”. The study was an attempt to understand if engineering students possess perfectionist orientation and whether it influences self-efficacy, social connectedness, and achievement motivation. Study was conducted at Vellore Institute of Technology (VIT) University, Vellore Study. The study adopted a random sampling design to evaluate the presence of perfectionism as a personality trait among undergraduate engineering students. 320 engineering students between the ages of 17 and 23 years were randomly contacted to complete an online personality survey. Standardized inventories such as Almost Perfect Scale-Revised were administered first to identify perfectionists and second to differentiate the adaptive from the maladaptive perfectionists. Scheduled interviews were conducted with students to obtain information regarding birth order and family functioning. Findings from the study revealed that there were a significant number of maladaptive perfectionists and that they experienced higher levels of personal and societal demands leading to a negative emotional well-being in comparison to the adaptive perfectionists. They also observed that first-born children were more likely to display a perfectionist self-presentation and from scheduled interviews, they understood that paternal influences were stronger when it came to decision-making and display of conscientiousness. The study draws on important implications for helping students to understand

perfectionism and to respond to demands of the family and societal subsystems in a positive and an adaptive manner.

Tripathy (2018) conducted a study on the “Effect of Birth Orders on Achievement Motivation among Adolescent”. This study was aimed to determine the effect the birth orders on achievement motivation among adolescents. The sample for the study consisted of students from Swami Satyamitranand Giri Inter College Haripur Kalan, Dehradun, and Uttarakhand. This is selected from three groups i.e. 30 from first birth order, 30 from second birth order and 30 from third birth order. For measurement of achievement motivation researcher used Rao Achievement Motivation test developed by G. Gopal Rao (1974). Analysis of data was done by using, mean, SD, and „t” test. The study revealed that there was no significant difference between first born children and second born children on achievement motivation. There was no significant difference between first born children and third born children on achievement motivation. There was no significant difference between second born children and third born children achievement motivation. This study aimed to examine the relationship between the birth orders on achievement motivation among adolescents. It is recognized by the result that the level of achievement motivation both variables have been effected by the birth order.

Barkur, Govindan and Kamath (2013) conducted a study on “Correlation between academic achievement goal orientation and the performance of Malaysian students in an Indian medical school”. The objective of this study

was to understand the goal orientation of second year undergraduate medical students and how this correlates with their academic performance. The study population consisted of 244 second year Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery (MBBS) students of Melaka Manipal Medical Colleges. Students were categorised as high performers and low performers based on their first year university examination marks. Their goal orientations were assessed through a validated questionnaire developed by Was et al. These components were analysed by independent sample t-test and correlated to their first year university examination marks. Confirmatory component factor analysis extracted four factors of the total variance in goal orientation. A strong positive correlation was shown between performance approach, performance avoidance and work avoidance orientations. Of the four goal orientations, only the mean scores in work avoidance orientation differed for low performers and high performers. Work avoidance type of goal orientation among the low performer group may account for their lower performance compared with high performer group. This indicates that academic achievement goal orientation may play a role in the performance of undergraduate medical students.

Carette, Anseel and Yperen (2011) conducted a study on Born to learn or born to win? Birth order effects on achievement goals. Using different analytic approaches, they show that birth order lies at the heart of people's goal preferences as they consistently found that firstborns have developed a preference for mastery goals (which are based on *self*-referenced standards of

competence), whereas second borns have developed a preference for performance goals (which are based on *other*-referenced standards of competence). These findings may help explain why people differently define, experience, and respond to competence-relevant situations, including the workplace, the classroom, and the ball field.

Birth order effects on young students' academic achievement was a study conducted by Bonesronning and Massih (2011). They examined birth order effects on academic achievement for ten-year-old students using data for the entire population of fifth graders in Norway 2007/2008. The analysis thus adds to a thin empirical literature focusing on birth order effects among young children. They found that being firstborn confers a significant advantage in families with two, three and four children. The analysis makes two other contributions. First, they provided evidence that unless mother's age at childbirth is included among the control variables, only small and imprecise birth order effects are revealed in families with low socioeconomic status. Second, they provided some evidence that the birth order effects differ across families with highly educated and less educated mothers, which lend support to the resource dilution model over the confluence model.

Colston (2008) conducted a study on The relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement: implications of birth order based on social rank for non-traditional adult learners. The main purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and

academic achievement based on the birth order of non-traditional adult learners in a private liberal arts university based in Phoenix, Arizona. For the purpose of this correlational study, a convenience sample, of 115 male and female adult non-traditional undergraduate learners at Ottawa University-Arizona during or after the Proseminar class, was selected. Measures for emotional intelligence, gender, and age were operationalized by the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (BarOn EQ-i) survey instrument. Birth order was operationally defined as the sequence in which children are born into a family, such as first born, middle child, last born, and including only children. Social rank was included in this definition. Grade point average was based on a 4.0 scale reflecting all semester hours attempted by students, including transfer credits within the last five years from other institutions from the point of entry to Ottawa University. The statistical findings showed that there was a weak positive relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement of the adult learner in that the higher the participant's emotional intelligence, the more likely the participant will have a high grade point average; similarly for the converse. Further analysis showed that the relationship between EQ and GPA did not vary across individuals with different birth order. However, one test revealed that the measures for Birth Order and Emotional Intelligence were significantly related to the GPA measures for academic achievement. One implication of the research findings is that liberal arts education curricula may need to be redesigned or strengthened to better accommodate emotional

intelligence instruction to ensure a holistic approach to adult learning. Future studies should consider using a larger representative sample with a balanced mix of genders and a more representative sample in terms of GPA

The Relationship of Achievement Motivation to Entrepreneurial Behaviour: A Meta-Analysis a research done by Collins, Hanges and Locke (2004) conducted a meta-analysis of the relationship between achievement motivation and variables associated with entrepreneurial behaviour. They found that achievement motivation was significantly correlated with both choice of an entrepreneurial career and entrepreneurial performance. Further, they found that both projective and self-report measures of achievement motivation were valid. Finally, known group studies yielded a higher validity coefficient than did individual difference studies.

The social-cognitive model of achievement motivation and the 2×2 achievement goal framework a study conducted by Cury, Fonseca, Elliot and Arlen (2006). Two studies examined hypotheses drawn from a proposed modification of the social-cognitive model of achievement motivation that centered on the 2×2 achievement goal framework. Implicit theories of ability were shown to be direct predictors of performance attainment and intrinsic motivation, and the goals of the 2×2 framework were shown to account for these direct relations. Perceived competence was shown to be a direct predictor of achievement goals, not a moderator of relations implicit theory or achievement goal effects. The results highlight the utility of attending to the

approach-avoidance distinction in conceptual models of achievement motivation and are fully in line with the hierarchical model of achievement motivation.

Komarraju, Karau and Schmeck (2009) conducted a study on the Role of the Big Five personality traits in predicting college students' academic motivation and achievement. In this research college students (308 undergraduates) completed the Five Factor Inventory and the Academic Motivations Scale, and reported their college grade point average (GPA). A correlation analysis revealed an interesting pattern of significant relationships. Further, regression analyses indicated that conscientiousness and openness explained 17% of the variance in intrinsic motivation; conscientiousness and extraversion explained 13% of the variance in extrinsic motivation; and conscientiousness and agreeableness explained 11% of the variance in a motivation. Further, four personality traits (conscientiousness, openness, neuroticism, and agreeableness) explained 14% of the variance in GPA; and intrinsic motivation to accomplish things explained 5% of the variance in GPA. Finally, conscientiousness emerged as a partial mediator of the relationship between intrinsic motivation to accomplish and GPA. These results are interpreted within the context of what educators could do to encourage and nurture student motivation and achievement.

Nelson and DeBacker (2008) conducted a study on Achievement Motivation in Adolescents: The Role of Peer Climate and Best Friends. Middle

school and high school students ($N = 253$) completed a self-report questionnaire assessing peer classroom climate, achievement-related beliefs and values of a best friend, achievement goals, social goals, and self-efficacy. Regression analyses indicated that perceived peer relationship variables explained variance in achievement motivation. Adolescents who perceived being valued and respected by classmates were more likely to report adaptive achievement motivation. Reports of adaptive achievement motivation were also related to having a good quality friendship and a best friend who values academics. Having a poor quality friendship and perceiving classmates to be resistant to school norms were related to reports of maladaptive achievement motivation.

Turner, Chandler and Heffer (2009) conducted a study on The Influence of Parenting Styles, Achievement Motivation, and Self-Efficacy on Academic Performance in College Students. Parenting styles have consistently been shown to relate to various outcomes such as youth psychopathology, behaviour problems, and academic performance. Building on the research in the parenting style literature, along with examining components of self-determination theory, the present study examined the relations among authoritative parenting style, academic performance, self-efficacy, and achievement motivation using a sample of college students ($N = 264$). Results indicated that authoritative parenting continues to influence the academic performance of college students, and both intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy predicted academic performance. Additionally, the study tested the interaction between self-efficacy and

authoritative parenting, but the interaction was not significant. Implications for future research and applications are discussed.

A Meta-Analysis of Achievement Motivation Differences between Entrepreneurs and Managers a study conducted by Stewart and Roth (2007). As a result of conflicting conclusions in primary studies, most narrative reviews have questioned the role of personality in explaining entrepreneurial behaviour. We examine one stream of this research by conducting a meta-analysis of studies that contrast the achievement motivation of entrepreneurs and managers. The results indicate that entrepreneur's exhibit higher achievement motivation than managers and that these differences are influenced by the entrepreneur's venture goals, by the use of U.S. or foreign samples, and, to a less clear extent, by projective or objective instrumentation. Moreover, when the analysis is restricted to venture founders, the difference between entrepreneurs and managers on achievement motivation is substantially larger and the credibility intervals do not include zero.

The Impact of Motivation on Student's Academic Achievement and Learning Outcomes in Mathematics among Secondary School Students in Nigeria a study conducted by Tella (2007). This study investigated the impact of motivation on students' school academic achievement in mathematics in secondary schools using motivation for academic preference scale ($\alpha = 0.82$) as a measuring instrument and achievement test in mathematics (ATM) Two hypotheses were tested for significant at 0.05 margin of error using t-test and

analysis of variance (ANOVA) Results showed that gender difference were significant when impact of motivation on academic achievement was compared in male and female students. Also other result indicates significant difference when extent of motivation was taken as variable of interest on academic achievement in mathematics based on the degree of their motivation. Implications, suggestions and recommendations on students, parents, government, counsellors, educational stakeholders, etc were discussed

Sex differences in school achievement: what are the roles of personality and achievement motivation a study conducted by Steinmayr and Spinath (2008). This study examined sex differences in school achievement and some of the most important personality and motivational constructs in a sample of 204 females and 138 adolescent males (mean age $M=16.94$ years; $SD=0.71$). Grades in Math and German as well as grade point average (GPA) served as achievement criteria. Intelligence, the Big Five of personality and motivational variables (achievement motives, goal orientation, task values and ability self-concepts) served as predictors. After controlling for intelligence, girls' grades were significantly better than boys'. Mean sex differences were found for most variables. There were no gender-specific associations between predictors and grades. Agreeableness, work avoidance, ability self-concepts and values ascribed to German mediated the association between sex and grades in German. Controlling for ability self-concepts and values ascribed to Math enhanced the association between sex and math grades. We concluded that

personality and motivation play important roles in explaining sex differences in school attainment. Results are discussed against the background of practical and methodological implications.

Elias, Noordin and Mahyuddin (2010) conducted a study on Achievement Motivation and Self-Efficacy in Relation to Adjustment among University Students. A study was conducted to examine some psychological characteristics of university students which may have bearing on students' adjustment in university environment. How students adjust themselves especially in the initial years at university may have impact on how successful they will be in tertiary education. An on line survey was conducted on 178 students from junior to senior students enrolled in education courses in a university in Malaysia. Achievement motivation, self-efficacy and student adjustment were measured using questionnaires available on-line. Results: The results showed that overall the students' level of adjustment was moderate suggesting that they are facing some problems in adjusting to the campus environment. The senior students were better adjusted compared to the junior students. Achievement motivation and self-efficacy range from moderate to high levels indicating that they have the potentials to succeed. The three variables namely adjustment, achievement motivation and self-efficacy were found to be correlated positively with one another. Conclusion: The implications of the findings are discussed in terms of teaching and learning in higher education. Recommendations include providing

the relevant courses and counselling sessions especially for the first year students.

Achievement Motivation and Perceived Academic Climate Among Latino Youth a study conducted by Wilkins and Kuperminc (2009) used 2×2 model of achievement motivation (mastery approach, mastery-avoidance, performance-approach and performance-avoidance) among 143 Latino adolescents to examine how achievement motivation changes over time, and whether perception of academic climate influences eventual academic outcomes. A series of hierarchical regressions revealed that perception of a task-focused academic climate moderated the association between mastery-approach achievement motivation and teacher-rated academic outcomes. A Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance (RM-ANOVA) also revealed that eighth graders reported an increase in mastery-approach achievement motivation and task-focused academic climate as they transitioned to high school. Findings suggest 1) that perception of a task-performance focused academic climate plays an important role in Latino adolescents' academic achievement, and 2) that Latino adolescents' achievement motivation and perception of academic climate may be influenced by their transition to high school.

Mansour and Martin (2009) conducted a study on Home, Parents, and Achievement Motivation: A Study of Key Home and Parental Factors that Predict Student Motivation and Engagement. The study investigated the

achievement motivation of high school students, in the context of parental and home factors such as home resources, in- and out-of-home parental assistance, parenting style, and parental involvement in the school. Among a sample of 100 Australian high school students, hierarchical multiple linear regression analyses were performed in order to determine the relative salience of the proposed home and parental factors predicting students' achievement motivation. Results demonstrated that over and above demographic factors such as age, gender and ethnicity, home and parental factors do indeed play a critical function in predicting student motivation and engagement. Specifically, the study reveals that home resources and parenting style are the most salient home and parental factors associated with key aspects of achievement motivation and engagement (planning, task management, teacher–student relationships — positively, and self-handicapping — negatively). These findings affirm the role of the home and parents in students' academic development. Implications for future research and practice harnessing the present findings are discussed.

Resilience and Emotional Intelligence: which role in achievement motivation a study conducted by Magnano, Craparo and Paolillo (2015). In the framework of Positive Organizational Behavior, the construct of Psychological Capital identifies four psychological capacities that affect motivation and performance in the workplace: self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience. Emotional Intelligence, then, addresses self-regulatory processes of emotions and motivation that enable people to make adjustments to achieve individual,

group, and organizational goals; Emotional Intelligence is strongly correlated with individual advancement and success in an organizational setting and with individual performance. Moreover, Emotional Intelligence is considered an antecedent to resilience. The present study aims to investigate the role of resilience and emotional intelligence in achievement motivation, verifying if emotional intelligence mediates the relationship among resilience and achievement motivation. Participants are 488 Italian workers, aged between 18 and 55 years. The findings confirm the significant role played by emotional intelligence on resilience and on motivation to achievement.

King and McInerney (2012) conducted a study on Including social goals in achievement motivation research: Examples from the Philippines. This paper focused on social goal as a key construct and argues for the need to include social goals in the research agenda. This is especially important when conducting research among collectivist societies where the interdependent self-construal is more salient. Examples of social goal research done within one collectivist culture, the Philippines, are provided. Overall, social goal research in the Philippines supports the inclusion of social goals when examining students' motivational dynamics.

The Relationship among Achievement Motivation Orientations, Achievement Goals, and Academic Achievement and Interest: A Multiple Mediation Analysis a study conducted by Fattah, Sabry and Rosan (2011). The study aimed at examining the relationships among achievement motivation

orientations and academic achievement and interest and whether achievement goals mediate these relationships. A sample of 503 students aged 14-16 years from 8 secondary schools in two Australia cities responded to a questionnaire package, comprising measures of individual-oriented achievement motivation (IOAM), social-oriented achievement motivation (SOAM), achievement goals, and academic interest. Results of the study showed IOAM and SOAM correlated positively. Students endorsed higher levels of IOAM than SOAM. IOAM correlated positively with a mastery-approach goal whereas SOAM correlated positively with mastery-approach, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance goals. Performance-approach and performance-avoidance goals mediated the relationship between SOAM and academic achievement. Mastery-approach goals mediated the relationship between IOAM and SOAM and academic interest.

Achievement Motivation and Memory: Achievement Goals Differentially Influence Immediate and Delayed Remember-Know Recognition Memory a study conducted by Murayama and Elliot (2011). Little research has been conducted on achievement motivation and memory and, more specifically, on achievement goals and memory. In the present research, the authors conducted two experiments designed to examine the influence of mastery-approach and performance-approach goals on immediate and delayed remember-know recognition memory. The experiments revealed differential effects for achievement goals over time: Performance-approach goals showed

higher correct remember responding on an immediate recognition test, whereas mastery-approach goals showed higher correct remember responding on a delayed recognition test. Achievement goals had no influence on overall recognition memory and no consistent influence on known responding across experiments. These findings indicate that it is important to consider quality, not just quantity, in both motivation and memory, when studying relations between these constructs.

Bipp and Dam (2014) conducted a study on Extending hierarchical achievement motivation models: The role of motivational needs for achievement goals and academic performance. They investigated the role of three basic motivational needs (need for power, affiliation, achievement) as antecedents of goals within the 2×2 achievement goal framework, and examined their combined predictive validity with regard to academic performance in a sample of 120 university students. Structural equation modelling analysis largely supported our postulated model, linking motivational needs indirectly to course grades through goals. Achievement goals were formed by a combination of different motives: need for achievement was a positive predictor of all four achievement goals, and need for affiliation was negatively related to performance-approach and performance-avoidance goals. Additionally, need for power was a positive predictor of performance-avoidance goals. Performance-approach goals had a direct (positive) effect on performance outcomes. In sum, their results integrate basic motivational needs with the

achievement goals literature and extend therefore hierarchical achievement motivation models, by showing how basic human motives of achievement, affiliation, and power are related to goal striving motivation and performance outcomes in an academic setting.

Bakhtiarvand, Ahmadian, Delrooz and Farahanj (2011) conducted a study on The Moderating Effect of Achievement Motivation on Relationship of Learning Approaches and Academic Achievement. The purpose of this study was to study the moderating role of achievement motivation on relationship of learning approaches and academic achievement. In order to the research 200 college students (100 female and 100 male) including psychology and educational sciences students were selected randomly using simple random sampling. Learning approaches and achievement motivation questionnaire were administered, the last academic averages were gathered as academic achievement. The findings revealed that the achievement motivation moderated relationship of learning approaches and academic achievement significantly ($p < 0.05$). Achievement motivation affect the selection of learning approaches and it will have considerable effect on academic achievements, that is, level of academic motivation affect the impact of learning approaches on academic achievement.

2.5 Studies related to Birth Order

Black, Devereux and Salvanes (2004) conducted a study on *The More the Merrier? The Effect of Family Size and Birth Order on Children's Education*. They examine the effects of family size and birth order on the educational attainment of children. We find a negative correlation between family size and children's education, but when we include indicators for birth order or use twin births as an instrument, family size effects become negligible. In addition, higher birth order has a significant and large negative effect on children's education. We also study adult earnings, employment, and teenage childbearing and find strong evidence for birth order effects with these outcomes, particularly among women. These findings suggest the need to revisit economic models of fertility and child "production," focusing not only on differences across families but differences within families as well.

Physical Performance in Relation to Age, Sex, Birth Order, Social Class, and Sports Activities of Preschool Children a study conducted by Kromholz (2006). Study focused on the Physical performance of 1,194 preschool children, ages 43 to 84 mo. was related to characteristics of physical growth, cognitive performance, and social variables. Correlations between measures of physical growth and physical performance and between motor and cognitive performance were positive and significant. Physical fitness, body coordination, and manual dexterity improved across age groups. Significant sex differences were found, although boys exceeded on some measures and girls on others.

Children with older sisters or brothers performed better than only or firstborn children, and children who participated in sports activities outside school outperformed those who did not.

Swamy, Edwards, Gelfand, James and Mirnada (2010) conducted a study on Maternal age, birth order, and race: differential effects on birth weight. Studies examining the influence of maternal age and birth order on birth weight have not effectively disentangled the relative contributions of each factor to birth weight, especially as they may differ by race. A population-based, cross-sectional study of North Carolina births from 1999 to 2003 was performed. Analysis was restricted to 510 288 singleton births from 28 to 42 weeks' gestation with no congenital anomalies. Multivariable linear regression was used to model maternal age and birth order on birth weight, adjusting for infant sex, education, marital status, tobacco use and race. A population-based, cross-sectional study of North Carolina births from 1999 to 2003 was performed. Analysis was restricted to 510 288 singleton births from 28 to 42 weeks' gestation with no congenital anomalies. Multivariable linear regression was used to model maternal age and birth order on birth weight, adjusting for infant sex, education, marital status, tobacco use and race. Mean birth weight was lower for non-Hispanic black individuals (NHB, 3166 g) compared with non-Hispanic white individuals (NHW, 3409 g) and Hispanic individuals (3348 g). Controlling for covariates, birth weight increased with maternal age until the early 30s. Race-specific modelling showed that the upper extremes of maternal

age had a significant depressive effect on birth weight for NHW and NHB (35+ years, $p < 0.001$), but only age less than 25 years was a significant contributor to lower birth weights for Hispanic individuals, $p < 0.0001$. Among all racial subgroups, birth order had a greater influence on birth weight than maternal age, with the largest incremental increase from first to second births. Among NHB, birth order accounted for a smaller increment in birth weight than for NHW and Hispanic women. Birth order exerts a greater influence on birth weight than maternal age, with significantly different effects across racial subgroups.

Smith, Fleming and White (2007) conducted a study on the Birth order of twins and risk of perinatal death related to delivery in England, Northern Ireland, and Wales, 1994-2003: retrospective cohort study. The objective of the study was to determine the effect of birth order on the risk of perinatal death in twin pregnancies. Retrospective cohort study was the design used for this study. Participants were 1377 twin pregnancies with one intrapartum stillbirth or neonatal death from causes other than congenital abnormality and one surviving infant. Results showed that there was no association between birth order and the risk of death overall. However, there was a highly significant interaction with gestational age ($P < 0.001$). There was no association between birth order and the risk of death among infants born before 36 weeks' gestation but there was an increased risk of death among second twins born at term, which was stronger for deaths caused by intrapartum anoxia or trauma. Among term births, there

was a trend ($P=0.1$) towards a greater risk of the second twin dying from anoxia among those delivered vaginally compared with those delivered by caesarean section. In this cohort, compared with first twins, second twins born at term were at increased risk of perinatal death related to delivery. Vaginally delivered second twins had a fourfold risk of death caused by intrapartum anoxia.

Birth order and risk of childhood cancer: A pooled analysis from five US States a study conducted by Von Behren, Spector, Mueller, Carozza, Chow, Fox and Reynolds (2010). They investigated the association between birth order and childhood cancers in a pooled case-control dataset. The subjects were drawn from population-based registries of cancers and births in California, Minnesota, New York, Texas and Washington. They included 17,672 cases <15 years of age who were diagnosed from 1980 to 2004 and 57,966 randomly selected controls born 1970–2004, excluding children with Down syndrome. They calculated odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals using logistic regression, adjusted for sex, birth year, maternal race, maternal age, multiple birth, gestational age and birth weight. Overall, they found an inverse relationship between childhood cancer risk and birth order. For children in the fourth or higher birth order category compared to first-born children, the adjusted OR was 0.87 for all cancers combined. When we examined risks by cancer type, a decreasing risk with increasing birth order was seen in the central nervous system tumors, neuroblastoma, bilateral retinoblastoma, Wilms tumor and rhabdomyosarcoma. They observed increased risks with increasing birth order

for acute myeloid leukaemia but a slight decrease in risk for acute lymphoid leukaemia. These risk estimates were based on a very large sample size, which allowed us to examine rare cancer types with greater statistical power than in most previous studies, however the biologic mechanisms remain to be elucidated.

Multiple sclerosis and birth order: a longitudinal cohort study conducted by Sadovnick, Yee and Ebers (. They aimed to study the effect of birth order on MS risk. A longitudinal, population-based sample of individuals with MS and their healthy siblings were identified from the Canadian Collaborative Project on Genetic Susceptibility to MS. Data were grouped according to single (simplex) or multiple (multiplex) siblings with MS in a sibship. Separate analyses were done for each sib ship size. They studied 10 995 individuals with MS and 26 336 healthy siblings, and found no relation between MS risk and birth-order position. In simplex sib ships of at least seven siblings, slightly more siblings who were born late in the birth order had MS; the same was found for the first-born sibling with MS in a multiplex sib ship. Siblings with MS were slightly younger ($p < 0.0001$) than those without MS, contrary to the expected age at onset bias. These findings do not support the hygiene hypothesis and could be due to a cohort effect resulting from increasing MS incidence. Birth order has no effect on MS risk in most families, and there is no support for the hypothesis that having older siblings protects against MS.

Dayioglu, Kirdar and Tansel(2009) conducted a study on the Impact of Sib ship Size, Birth Order and Sex Composition on School Enrolment in Urban Turkey. This paper investigated, in a unified framework, the effects of sib ship size, birth order and sibling sex composition on children's school enrolment in urban Turkey. They utilize an instrumental variable estimation method to address parents' joint fertility and schooling decisions using twin births as instruments. We find no causal impact of sib ship size on school enrolment. However, there is evidence for a parabolic impact of birth order where middle-born children fare worse. Sex composition of siblings matters only for female children. Our finding that birth order and sibling sex composition matter more for poorer households suggests that scarce financial resources play an important role in bringing about the sibling composition effects.

Harkonen (2013) conducted a study on Birth Order Effects on Educational Attainment and Educational Transitions in West Germany. They used sibling data from the German Life History Study and fixed-effects models, I find that birth order has a strong negative effect on educational attainment in West Germany—being born later translates to less education. The strength of the birth order effect is comparable to those of many commonly used family background indicators. This finding contrasts many sceptical accounts of birth order found in the sociological and psychological literatures. The results of this study also show the sensitivity of birth order estimates to model specification, pointing to a likely cause for conflicting results in the previous literature. Birth

order effects are weaker for females and in larger families, but do not vary according to families' socioeconomic characteristics. The effects are likewise strong at transition from compulsory school to Gymnasium, but not significant on the transition from Gymnasium to university. Overall, the results do not support theories emphasizing the dilution of socioeconomic resources, nor do they support theories on age-crossovers in birth order effects at around age 11. However, the dilution of other family resources such as parental time and attention is a possible candidate. The weaker birth order effects among females can reflect the traditionally gender unequal returns to education, in which intellectual and school performance advantages to lower birth order do not translate into better educational attainment among German women. Overall, these findings underline the importance of birth order in shaping socioeconomic achievement and, more generally, of the factors that affect the experiences and inequalities of children growing up in the same family.

Fergusson, Horwood and Boden(2006) conducted a study on Birth Order and Educational Achievement in Adolescence and Young Adulthood. This paper examined the relationship between birth order and later educational outcomes in a birth cohort of more than 1,000 New Zealand young adults studied to the age of twenty-five. Being later born was associated with gaining fewer educational qualifications at secondary level and beyond. The use of nested models to control for the confounding effects of family size on birth order revealed that birth order effects on educational attainment were not

disguised by family size effects. Following adjustment for potentially confounding factors, there remained a statistically significant association between being later born and a lower likelihood of obtaining educational qualifications. It was concluded that the intra family dynamics initiated by birth order may have a lasting effect on the individual in terms of later educational and achievement outcomes.

Wells, Hallal, Reichert, Dumith, Menezes and Victoria (2011) conducted a study on the Associations of Birth Order With Early Growth and Adolescent Height, Body Composition, and Blood Pressure: Prospective Birth Cohort From Brazil. The study objective was to investigate differences between firstborn and later-born individuals in early growth patterns, body composition, and blood pressure in Brazilian adolescents. The authors studied 453 adolescents aged 13.3 years from the prospective 1993 Pelotas Birth Cohort. Anthropometry, blood pressure, physical activity by accelerometer, and body composition by deuterium were measured. Firstborns (n = 143) had significantly lower birth weight than later borns (n = 310). At 4 years, firstborns had significantly greater weight and height, indicating a substantial overshoot in catch-up growth. In adolescence, firstborns had significantly greater height and blood pressure and a lower activity level. The difference in systolic blood pressure could be attributed to variability in early growth and that in diastolic blood pressure to reduced physical activity. The magnitude of increased blood pressure is clinically significant; hence, birth order is an important developmental predictor

of cardiovascular risk in this population. Firstborns may be more sensitive to environmental factors that promote catch-up growth, and this information could potentially be used in nutritional management to prevent catch-up “overshoot.”

Intelligence, Birth Order, and Family Size a study conducted by Kanazawa (2012). The analysis of the National Child Development Study in the United Kingdom ($n = 17,419$) replicates some earlier findings and shows that genuine within-family data are not necessary to make the apparent birth-order effect on intelligence disappear. Birth order is not associated with intelligence in between-family data once the number of siblings is statistically controlled. The analyses support the admixture hypothesis, which avers that the apparent birth-order effect on intelligence is an artifact of family size, and cast doubt on the confluence and resource dilution models, both of which claim that birth order has a causal influence on children’s cognitive development. The analyses suggest that birth order has no genuine causal effect on general intelligence.

Salmon, Shackelford, Michalski (2012) conducted a study on Birth order, sex of child, and perceptions of parental favouritism. Sex, birth order, and age of the mother are a few factors demonstrated to influence levels of parental investment (especially as measured by offspring self-report). One indicator of a high level of parental investment is being a parental favourite. Using self-reports from a sample of several hundred young adults, we secured support for two hypotheses related to the influence of birth order and sex on

parental favouritism. Fathers are not perceived as having a favourite child more often than are mothers, but are more likely to favour female children than are mothers. Mothers are perceived to be more likely to favour female children in blended sibships. Both mothers and fathers are perceived as favouring genetically-related children. The results also suggest that the birth order of the parental favourite varies with the birth order of the participant. Firstborns and last borns report a pattern of favouritism that suggests parents favour firstborn and lastborn children. The discussion addresses limitations of the methodology and presents directions for future research.

Pollet and Nettle (2009) conducted a study on Birth order and adult family relationships: Firstborns have better sibling relationships than later borns. They investigated the effect of birth order on self-reported family and friend relationships among a large sample of Dutch adults ($n = 794$). Middle borns did not differ from other birth orders in relationships with their father, mother, sibling or close friend. Middle borns do not prefer a friend over their father, mother or sibling more than other birth orders. Evidence for a “neglected middle born effect” appeared only in a within-family design for siblings. Firstborns were more likely to report very good sibling relationships and preferred a sibling over a friend. The results are discussed in terms of kin competition and inclusive fitness.

Birth order: Self-injurious and suicidal behaviour among adolescents a study conducted by Kirkcaldy, Vejlgard and Siefen (2007). A sample of 2553 children and adolescents in a psychiatry clinic in Germany were assessed using a structured interview inventory that included history of self-injurious behaviour, suicidal intent and socially disruptive and threatening behaviour, and diverse socio-demographic variables (the basis documentation or 'Ba-Do'). Birth order was associated with both suicidal and self-injurious behaviour, middle children being most likely to exhibit such behaviour. Females were more than twice as likely to have self-injured as males. Comparisons of birth order groups within gender found no significant differences in suicidal behaviour between birth positions for males, however among females, middle children were much more likely to have attempted suicide. Conversely, there was no difference in self-injurious behaviour among birth positions in females, but among males, middle children were significantly more likely to have self-injured than firstborns, only children or last borns. The number of siblings in the family was significantly correlated with both suicidal history and self-injurious behaviour. The risk of suicidal behaviour was highest for those with four or more siblings.

Barclay (2015) conducted a study on the A within-family analysis of birth order and intelligence using population conscription data on Swedish men. This study examined the relationship between birth order and intelligence in Sweden. This research question has been of interest for decades, but only one

study using a sibling comparison design has found that birth order has a negative effect on intelligence. The data used in this study is Swedish administrative register data, with data on cognitive ability drawn from the military conscription register for men born 1965 to 1977. Within-family comparison linear regression models are used to estimate the difference in cognitive ability by birth order amongst brothers. I find that there is a negative relationship between birth order and cognitive ability. This is consistent in sibling-group-size-specific analyses of sibling groups with two through to six children. Further analyses demonstrate that this negative relationship between birth order and intelligence is consistent in different socioeconomic status groups, and amongst individuals born in the 1960s and 1970s. Analyses of brothers in two-child sibling groups show that the relationship between birth order and intelligence varies by the birth interval. Second borns have a statistically significantly lower cognitive ability score if the birth interval is up to six years, but not if it is longer.

Birth Order and Child Outcomes: Does Maternal Quality Time Matter?

A study conducted by Monfardini and See (2012) investigate whether the birth order effects in their outcomes are due to unequal allocation of the particular resource represented by maternal quality time. OLS regressions show that the negative birth order effects on various test scores are only slightly diminished when maternal time is included among the repressors. This result is confirmed when we account for unobserved heterogeneity at the household level,

exploiting the presence of siblings in the data. Our evidence therefore suggests that birth order effects are not due to differences in maternal quality time received.

Birth Order and Sibship Sex Composition as Instruments in the Study of Education and Earnings a study conducted by Bobo, Picard and Prieto (2006) presented an empirical study of birth-order and sibship sex-composition effects on educational achievement, and uses these variables as instruments to estimate returns to education, with the help of a rich set of individual data. Our sample includes more than 12,000 men and 10,000 women, who all left school in 1992, in France. The wages and educational achievements of individuals, as well as many aspects of family background, including birth order, number of sisters and brothers, are observed. An Ordered Probit model explains educational achievements. Sibship sex composition is shown to have an impact. Brothers and sisters have significant, non-negligible and different effects on educational achievement. A higher number of siblings has a negative effect in general, holding birth order constant, except when parents belong to the highest occupational groups; in other words, it is good to have many brothers and sisters if one's parents are well-to-do (the "rich daddy effect"). On average, girls suffer significantly more from an additional brother than boys. Birth-order effects are both significant and substantial, even when many controls are included in the regressions. A high rank among siblings is detrimental for educational attainment (all other things equal), except in the case of fatherless

children. Finally, a two stage method is used to estimate log-wage equations, taking care of education endogeneity, using birth order and the number of siblings as instruments. The OLS estimates of returns to education are biased downwards, when females are considered, but do not seem to be biased in the male sub-sample, given that many controls have been added in the wage equation.

Lambi and Nordblom (2010) conducted a study on Money and success – Sibling and birth-order effects on positional concerns. Survey data was used to investigate how birth order and presence/absence of siblings affect positional concerns in terms of success at work and of earned income. They found that people's positional concerns in terms of work-related issues generally are weak, but there are some differences in this regard: they found that only-children are the most concerned with relative position. Moreover, even if birth order itself has very small effects, the positional concern increases with the number of siblings among those who grew up together with siblings. Furthermore, people whose parents often compared them with their siblings generally have stronger positional concerns. They also found that younger respondents are far more concerned with relative position than older in all studied situations.

Pollet, Dijkstra, Barelds and Buun(2010) conducted a study on Birth order and the dominance aspect of extraversion: Are firstborns more extraverted, in the sense of being dominant, than later borns? This study set out

to examine the relationship between birth order and the dominance facet of extraversion in a community sample of around 1500 participants. In contrast, to Sulloway's (1995) predictions, the present study, using a between-family design, found firstborns to be less extraverted, in the sense of being less dominant, than later borns. This effect was found while controlling for potential confounds, such as age, and using a constant sibship size. Results are discussed with reference to the current literature on birth order and personality

2.6 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION OF STUDIES

The studies which are related to personality, achievement motivation and birth order are given in this part. Most of these studies shows that birth order affects the personality and achievement motivation among the students. Other psychological and social status that influence the personality and achievement motivation are also found in some of the studies. In most of the studies it is revealed that the first born students are having

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

- RESEARCH DESIGN
- SAMPLE
- TOOLS
- STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

A detailed account of the method by which the study was carried out is given under different subtitles.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is defined as a framework of methods and techniques chosen by a researcher to combine various components of research in a reasonably logical manner so that the research problem is efficiently handled. The function of a research design is to ensure that the evidence obtained enables you to effectively address the research problem as unambiguously as possible. Research Design can be classified into three types; exploratory, descriptive and explanatory.

Descriptive design was used for this study, it helps to provide answers to questions of what, when, where and how associated with a particular problem.

3.2 SAMPLE

A sample is defined as a smaller set of data that is chosen and/or selected from a larger population by using a predefined selection method. These elements are known as sample points, sampling units or observations (Bhat, 2018)

The sample of the study consist of 90 plus one and plus two students from higher secondary Schools in Kollam district. The subjects include both male and female students belonging to different birth orders.

The details of the classification of the subjects selected for the present study are given in Table 3.1

Table 3.1

Distribution of Sample

Total	90
First Borns	30
Second Borns	30
Third Borns	30

3.3 TOOLS

Following are the tools used for collecting data from the subjects.

1. Big Five personality Inventory (Goldberg, 1993)
2. Achievement Motivation Inventory (Muthee & Thomas, 2009)

3.3.1 Big Five Personality Inventory

A remarkably strong consensus of what traits are basic has emerged over the last 20 years. Five super ordinate factors have emerged and are referred to as the Big Five Model of Personality or the Big Five Personality traits or the Five-Factor Model. Numerous amounts of research have been carried out to determine the basic personality traits. And the big five factor is supported by most of them. The earliest evidence supporting the 5-factor model was published in 1949 by Fiske. Massive amount of researches were conducted and combined in the 1980s and 90s to support the 5-factor model. However, as with all theories, not everyone agrees with the naming of the 5 traits hundred percent. The five super traits are generally described as follows, as developed by Costa and McCrae in 1985 along with test tool. (Shrestha, 2017)

- Openness to Experience (Closed to Experiences)
- Conscientiousness (Lack of Conscientiousness)
- Extraversion (Introversion)
- Agreeableness (Disagreeableness)
- Neuroticism (Emotional Stability)

It is important to keep in mind that each of the big five traits represent a range between two extreme personality traits. For instance, neuroticism signifies a continuum between extreme neuroticism and extreme emotional stability.

Similarly, what these five traits suggest is that most people fall under one of

these categories. An average person lies somewhere between the two polar ends of each dimension.

- **Openness to Experience:** Openness suggests characteristics that include having broad range of interests and willing to try out even most unusual ideas. They are intellectually curious, sensitive to beauty, and tend to hold unconventional beliefs. On the other hand, people with low score on openness tend to be more straightforward and prefer familiarity rather than novelty. They are rather conservative with no desire of changing.
- **Conscientiousness:** People with higher score on conscientiousness tend to be self-disciplined, dutiful and prefer planned behaviour to a spontaneous one. Lack of conscientiousness refers to a personality trait exactly in contrast. They refer to opposite kinds of behaviours.
- **Extraversion:** People with high score on extraversion gain energy when exposed to the external world. They tend to be action-oriented, enthusiastic, visible to people, and are capable of asserting themselves. People low on the trait is classified as Introverts, who tend to be exactly opposite to extraverts. They tend to be low-key, less involved in the social world, and like to keep to themselves.
- **Agreeableness:** People with high score on this trait are trustworthy, helpful, kind, considerate, generous and do not hesitate to compromise their interests with others. Self-interest is the key for people with low interest on agreeableness. Those with high disagreeableness are not

willing to compromise their interests with others and can be considered unfriendly.

- **Neuroticism:** The tendency to experience anger, depression, anxiety and other forms of negative emotions are seen in people with high score on neuroticism. It is also called emotional instability. It is similar to being neurotic in the Freudian sense. But, keep in mind that it doesn't provide an identical meaning. The opposite polar dimension of neuroticism is emotional stability. People low on neuroticism is seen to have contrast characteristics that make them calm, stable (emotionally) and free from negative feelings.(Shesthra, 2017)

Several independent sets of researchers discovered and defined the five broad traits based on empirical, data-driven research. Ernest Tupes and Raymond Christal advanced the initial model, based on work done at the U.S. Air Force Personnel Laboratory in the late 1950s. J.M. Digman proposed his five factor model of personality in 1990, and Goldberg extended it to the highest level of organizations in 1993. In a personality test, the Five Factor Model or FFM⁴ and the Global Factors of personality⁵ may also be used to reference the Big Five traits. (Thiel, 2018)

3.3.2 Achievement motivation Inventory

The scale is intended to assess the achievement motivation among learners. The responses to the items were marked using a five point Likert

format. 32 items with t-values ranging from 6.955 to 2.615 produced statistically significant t- values. All these items were retained in the final scale. The remaining eight items were dropped from the scale as they could not discriminate between those with low and high levels of achievement motivation. Among the 32 items retained in the final scale, 18 were positively worded and 14 were negatively worded. Items with positive and negative wording were arranged randomly in the final scale. The serial numbers of the items with positive wording are the following: 3, 4, 5, 6, 11, 13, 14, 16, 17, 20, 23, 24, 26, 28, 29, 30, 31, and 32. The serial number of items with negative wordings are: 1, 2, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 15, 18, 19, 21, 22, 25 and 27. The points are, completely agree, mostly agree, agree to some extent, mostly disagree and completely disagree. The scoring weights given to these responses were 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively for positively worded items and 1,2,3,4 and 5 respectively for a negatively worded item. This scoring scheme ensured that higher scores indicate higher levels of achievement motivation, and lower scores indicate low levels of achievement motivation. The reliability of the scale has been computed using Cronbach's alpha, which was found to be 0.749. At the same time, validity for the scale is claimed on the basis of the systematic methodology followed by the researcher during development and standardization of the test. It may be recalled that items for the draft scale were meticulously prepared on basis of an exhaustive review of related literature, which included perusal of all available measurement devices. Moreover, the

items were selected on the basis of item analysis which ensured discriminatory power of the items. (Muthee & Thomas, 2009)

3.4 STATISTICAL TEST USED FOR ANALYSIS

3.4.1 Analysis of Variance

Analysis of variance is a class of statistical analysis to determine the significance of the difference among the means of three or more groups. The analysis is of the square of standard deviation (variance) rather than the standard deviation itself (variability). The groups used in the analysis may result from a single classificatory variable or more than one classificatory variable. In the former case, the analysis is labeled one way analysis of variance and in the later, two way or multiple way analysis of variance according to the number of classificatory variables involved. When subgroups are formed on the basis of two or more classificatory variables, the interaction between the independent variables affecting the dependent variable can also be studied.

Variance is made up of two components – between groups (due to actual differences) and within groups (due to the operation of chance factors). The ratio of between groups variance to the within groups variance (F-ratio) follows Fisher's F distribution. A critical value of F therefore exists depending upon the size of a sample, against which the calculated F may be compared. If the

calculated value exceeds the critical F, the difference among the means is significant and not due to chance factors (Robinson, 1981). The present study one way analysis used for finding the difference between socio-economic statuses on the variable of parenting style.

3.4.2 Duncan Multiple Range Test

When the investigator uses the analysis of variance with more than two groups, there is a question as to which means are significantly from which other means. This leads to the problem of multiple comparison. Here the suitable comparison techniques, Duncan Multiple Range Test is used.

The results obtained from analyzing the data and their discussions are included in the next chapter

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

- **Analysis of Variance**
- **Duncan's Multiple Range Test**
- **Test of Tenability of Hypothesis**

The information gathered from the sample was coded and was subjected to appropriate statistical analysis. One way analysis was made to find out if there is any significant relation among the variables under the study. Post hoc test were sought to find out group wise difference among the variables.

4.1 Analysis of Variance

In this analysis one way ANOVA was used to test the personality wise difference in Birth orders. The personality is found to be significant so the Multiple Range Test is used to find out the significant difference. The summary of ANOVA for the variables Personality, achievement motivation and birth order is presented on the Table 4.1

Table 4.1

Summary of ANOVA for the variable Personality and Achievement motivation

Variable	Group	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Big 5 Personality	Between Groups	1111.267	2	555.633	3.900*	.024
	Within Groups	12394.833	87	142.469		
	Total	13506.100	89			
Achievement Motivation	Between Groups	1707.467	2	853.733	6.235**	.003
	Within Groups	11912.933	87	136.930		
	Total	13620.400	89			

Note: ** indicates significance at 0.05 level

*indicates significance at 0.01 level

There are statistically significant difference among the variables personality and achievement motivation in relation to the birth order. Table 1 shows that the F value is significant at 0.05 level for the personality. In a study titled Examining the Effects of Birth Order on Personality Rohrera, Egloffb and Schmukle (2015) consistently found no birth-order has an adverse effect on the personality. On the basis of the high statistical power and the consistent results across samples and analytical designs, they conclude that birth order does not

have a lasting effect on broad personality traits outside of the intellectual domain. But in this study it is a new finding that the personality and birth order is having a significant difference.

The F value is significant at 0.01 level for achievement motivation. Therefore the achievement motivation varies according to the birth order. A study conducted by Tripathy (2017) titled To Study The Effect of Birth Orders On Achievement Motivation Among Adolescent found out that There is no significant difference between first born children and second born children on achievement motivation. There is no significant difference between first born children and third born children on achievement motivation. There is no significant difference on between second born children and third born children achievement motivation. It is recognized by the result that the level of achievement motivation both variables have been effected by the birth order. In this study the results shows that there is difference in birth order in relation to the birth order.

The F value is found significant so Duncan's multiple range test is used to find the difference between different in personality and achievement motivation among different birth orders.

4.2 Results of Duncan's Multiple Range test

The results of Duncan's Multiple Range Test is given in Table 4.2 and Table 4.3

Table 4.2

Score of Multiple Range Test (Duncan's method) obtained by three groups on the variable Personality.

Birth Order	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Third Born	30	142.17	
First Born	30	144.60	144.60
Second Born	30		150.53
Sig.		.432	.057

The Table 4.2 shows that Third borns possess low personality and the second borns possess high personality. The mean scores of First born and Second born (144.60 and 150.53 respectively) shows that there is no difference between them and the mean score of third and first borns also shows no difference. The mean scores of Third born and Second Born (142.17 and 150.33 respectively) shows that there is difference in personality on the basis of birth order.

Table 4.3

**Score of Multiple Range Test (Duncan's method) obtained
by three groups on the variable Achievement Motivation**

BO	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Third Born	30	142.17	
First Born	30	144.60	144.60
Second Born	30		150.53
Sig.		.432	.057

The Table 4.3 shows that the First borns are having High achievement motivation and the 3rd borns are having low achievement motivation. The mean score obtained for second born is 150.53 and for first born is 144.60 which indicates that there is no difference among them in relation to achievement motivation. They both possess the same level of achievement motivation. The mean score for third born is 142.17 and first born is 144.60 which shows that there is difference among them in relation to achievement motivation.

4.3 Test of Tenability of Hypothesis

The results presented above provide an adequate light on the hypothesis formulated for the presented study. The tenability of hypothesis is stated below.

The first hypothesis that “There will be significant difference on variable achievement motivation and birth order groups (i.e., First born, Second born, Third born) among Higher Secondary Students”. The result of the study indicates that the relation between achievement motivation and birth order is statistically significant, so the hypothesis is accepted.

- The second hypothesis is that “There will be significant difference on variable personality and birth order groups (i.e., First born, Second born, Third born) among Higher Secondary Students”. The results of the study indicates that the relation between personality and birth order are statistically significant, so the hypothesis is accepted.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

- Resume of the investigation
- Major findings
- Implication of the study
- Limitations of the present study
- Scope for future research

5.1 RESUME OF THE INVESTIGATION

The present study is aimed to investigate the personality and achievement motivation among higher secondary students in relation to the birth order. Birth orders i.e. students who fall into birth position first born, second born and third born are being analysed. The sample for the study consist of 90 students (both male and female) selected from different higher secondary schools in Kollam districts. The tools used for the study were Big Five personality inventory (Goldberg, 1993) and Achievement motivation Inventory ((Muthee & Thomas, 2009) and personal data sheet. Statistical techniques such as ANOVA (one way) and Duncan's Multiple Range Test were used to analyse the data.

5.2 MAJOR FINDINGS

- There is significant relationship between personality and birth order
- There is significant relationship between achievement motivation and birth order
- Personality is found to be high among second born and low in third born
- Achievement motivation is found to be high in first born and low in third born
- There is difference in personality among first borns and second borns
- There is difference in achievement motivation among third borns and first borns

5.3 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The present study reveals that there exist difference in personality and achievement motivation among higher secondary students in relation to their birth order (first borns, second borns and third borns). Therefore the birth order has an impact on the personality formation and achievement motivation level among the students. The results shows that, there is difference in personality among the third borns and the second borns and it is also found that no difference between the personality of first born and second born and third born and first born. The personality is found to be higher among the second borns and low among the third borns

When coming to the achievement motivation level, the motivation is found to be higher among the first born students and low in third born. The level of achievement motivation is different among the third borns and first borns. No difference among the achievement motivation is found among the second born and first born.

5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Though every attempt was made by the investigator to make the study as objective and as precise as possible, a few limitations are noted. Some of which are inevitable, because of the limited time for completing the work.

- The size of the sample is limited to 90 only, which is not sufficient for analyzing the result in an extensive research
- The geographical area of the study is limited to Kollam district only

5.5 SCOPE FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The study can be extended in a broad way by increasing the sample size and collecting data from other districts and states. In birth orders twins can also be included in the future research. In a further study we can include a number of other relevant variables and its correlates with personality and achievement motivation can be found out.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS	
Name	
Age	Sex : Male () Female ()
Education	+1 () +2 ()
Birth Order	First born () Second Born () Third Born ()

APPENDIX 2

BFI (Goldberg, 1993)

Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

Strongly Disagree (1), Disagree (2), Undecided (3), Agree (4), Strongly Agree (5).

I see myself as someone who...

SL No	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	Is talkative					
2	Tends to find fault with others					
3	Does a thorough job					
4	Is depressed, blue					
5	Is original, comes up with new ideas					
6	Is reserved					
7	Is helpful and unselfish with others					
8	Can be somewhat careless					
9	Is relaxed, handles stress well					
10	Is curious about many different things					
11	Is full of energy					
12	Starts quarrels with others					
13	Is a reliable worker					
14	Can be tense					
15	Is ingenious, a deep thinker					
16	Generates a lot of enthusiasm					
17	Has a forgiving nature					
18	Tends to be disorganized					
19	Worries a lot					
20	Has an active imagination					
21	Tends to be quiet					
22	Is generally trusting					

23	Tends to be lazy					
24	Is emotionally stable, not easily upset					
25	Is inventive					
26	Has an assertive personality					
27	Can be cold and aloof					
28	Perseveres until the task is finished					
29	Can be moody					
30	Values artistic, aesthetic experiences					
31	Is sometimes shy, inhibited					
32	Is considerate and kind to almost everyone					
33	Does things efficiently					
34	Remains calm in tense situations					
35	Prefers work that is routine					
36	Is outgoing, sociable					
37	Is sometimes rude to others					
38	Makes plans and follows through with them					
39	Gets nervous easily					
40	Likes to reflect, play with ideas					
41	Has few artistic interests					
42	Likes to cooperate with others					
43	Is easily distracted					
44	Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature					

APPENDIX 3

A M I

(Muthee & Thomas, 2009)

Instructions: This form has 32 statements, please read each statement carefully and then indicates your opinion on each statement by putting (√) in the spaces provided beside it. Please put (√) in only one column for each statement. You can give your opinions according to the following scale:

Completely Agree (1), Mostly Agree (2), Agree to some extent (3.), mostly disagree (4), and completely disagree (5)

SL .N o	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	I feel I am a lazy person					
2	Days often go by without me having done a thing					
3	I like reading the biography of great people in order to learn how they overcome hurdles and achieved great things in life					
4	I plan ahead what subjects to study during my free time					
5	When I come to know that somebody like me, have achieved something great, I am motivated to do the something in a better way.					
6	Most people who know me say that I am hard working and ambitious					
7	I go on postponing what I should be studying to day.					
8	I take a lot of time to get started to the task of study					
9	Most evenings I kick back and relax rather than prepare for the next days school work					
10	Sometimes, I forget to do my homework.					
11	I never leave a task/assignment, I start unfinished					
12	I enjoy working with people who score at my level or lower, rather than with those who are smarter and more hardworking than me.					

13	I dislike failing in my school examinations due to unpreparedness.					
14	I always work very hard to be among the best students in my school.					
15	I find myself just taking life as it comes without planning.					
16	I aim at reaching the highest level in Education.					
17	When I grow up, I want to do something which others have not done.					
18	I am basically a competitive person and I compete just for the sake of competing.					
19	I believe that success in life has less to do with hard work and more to do with luck and being in the right place at the right time.					
20	I enjoy reading all kinds of books including those that are not part of our school syllabus.					
21	I shall be satisfied with an above average performance, even though it may not be my best.					
22	I prefer to use my time for doing something else rather than trying to perfect something that I have already completed.					
23	I enjoy spending most of my time alone concentrating on my school work					
24	I always try to stand out from the rest of my class in one way or the other					
25	I will go ahead with my plans only if I am sure that other people will approve of it.					
26	I get restless and annoyed when I feel I am wasting time.					
27	It is not a good idea to be always above others in achievement, because that may make them feel bad about themselves.					
28	I like to be the best student in my class.					
29	I enjoy finishing my school assignments even when they are difficult and time consuming.					
30	I enjoy making friends with the most intelligent student in my class so as to keep up my standards of performances.					
31	I like when people say in front of others that I am doing well in school.					
32	I would like to deal with difficult situations, so that the blame or praise for its results come to me alone.					

**COGNITIVE STYLE AND SELF-CONFIDENCE
AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS**

*Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment for the requirement
of Masters of Science in Psychology*

VIJAYALEKSHMI H

Candidate Code: P1716009



**FATIMA MATA NATIONAL COLLEGE (AUTONOMOUS),
KOLLAM**
(Affiliated to the University of Kerala)

2019

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that **Ms VIJAYALEKSHMI .H.**, the student of fourth semester MSc Psychology has satisfactorily completed the project on the paper entitled “**COGNITIVE STYLE AND SELF–CONFIDENCE AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS**” under my guidance in partial fulfillment of the requirement for MSc degree in Psychology, at Fatima Mata National College (Autonomous), affiliated to the University of Kerala.

Place : Kollam

Date :

Counter Signed by,

Dr. Anil Jose P.S
Assistant Professor & Head
Department of Psychology
Fatima Mata National College
Kollam

Supervisor

Dr. Anil Jose P.S
Assistant Professor &Head
Department of Psychology
Fatima Mata National College
Kollam

DECLARATION

I, Miss. VIJAYALEKSHMI.H, do hereby declare that this dissertation, *“COGNITIVE STYLE AND SELF- CONFIDENCE AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS”*, is a bonafide record of the research work done by me under the guidance of Dr. Anil Jose P.S, Assistant Professor; Head Of the department of Psychology, Fatima Mata National College, Kollam. I further declare that this dissertation has not previously formed the basis of any award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or other similar title or recognition. This study has not been submitted to any other University or Institution for any other purpose.

Kollam

Date :

Name

Candidate code

Signature

VIJAYALEKSHMI.H

P1716009

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ABSTRACT

*The aim of this study was to assess the **cognitive style and self – confidence among college students**. College students became the target population of the study and it was conducted on a sample of 120 college students belong to the age group 19 to 23years studying in FMNC college of Kollam district. Information about selected demographic variables such as sex, stream, education etc. was also collected. The measures used for present investigation was Cognitive Style Inventory (CSI) was developed by Dr. Praveen Kumar Jha and Self – confidence Scale was developed Dr. Rekha Gupta . The data obtained were subjected to further analysis. The statistical tool t-test were used.*

KEYWORDS: Cognitive style, Self- confidence, College students

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A . COGNITIVE STYLE

B. SELF – CONFIDENCE

C. NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

D.STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

E. VARIABLE OF THE STUDY

F. OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF KEY TERMS

Cognition is a collection of mental processes that includes awareness, perception, reasoning, and judgment. The study of cognitive processes has its roots in the Gestalt psychology of Max Wertheimer, Wolfgang Köhler, and Kurt Koffka and in the studies of cognitive development in children by Jean Piaget during the 19th century.

At the beginning of the 20th century, Carl Jung published *Psychological Types* (1923) where he postulated that personality comprised of three facets each with a continuum descriptor. The first facet, attitude, can range from extraversion, those personalities that are outgoing, to introversion, those personalities that are focused inward. The second facet, perception, deals with a person's method of understanding stimuli; an intuitive person is meaning-oriented while a sensory person is detail-oriented. Judgment is the final facet of personality and deals with a person's approach to making decisions; a thinking person tends to be analytical and logical while a feeling person tends to judge based on values.

Jung's theory is evident in the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) a standard personality test administered today in many cognitive style experiments. There is some debate in defining cognitive style. Goldstein and Blackman define it as "a hypothetical construct that has been developed to explain the process of mediation between stimuli and responses.

Cognitive Style

The term cognitive style refers to characteristic ways in which individuals conceptually organize the environment (1978, 4)." They go on to say that cognitive style is an information transformation process whereby objective stimuli is interpreted into meaningful schema. Cognitive style is an aspect of overall personality and cognitive processes. Some postulate that cognitive style is a bridge between cognition/intelligence measures and

personality measures (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 1997; Ridding & Cheema, 1991).

Cognitive style is unique in its polar nature, having an “either or” measure, where the absence of one characteristic implies the presence of its extreme. This is in opposition to personality measures that are more multifaceted (Ridding & Cheema, 1991). Learning style is also sometimes synonymous with cognitive style (Pask, 1976; Entwistle, 1981) while others disagree stating that learning style is a preferred strategy, thereby implying that a person’s learning style can change, while cognitive style is an immutable characteristic of personality (Ridding & Cheema, 1991; Roberts & Newton, 2000).

There are a variety of cognitive style measures and Ridding and Cheema (1991), as well as Roberts and Newton (2000), point out that many may be different names for the same personality dimension. Reflection -Impulsivity, Field Dependence – Independence, Holist – Serialist, and Deep-level/Surface-level processing. Additionally, two views of cognitive style research outside the realm of psychology/education will be highlighted.

Reflection – Impulsivity

Also called conceptual tempo, studies in reflectivity – impulsivity were first introduced by Kagan in 1965 and are the easiest of the theories to measure. Kagan administered the Matching Familiar Figures Test to children and measured the time it took them to make decisions. One group of children made decisions after briefly looking at the figures, thus they were cognitively impulsive, while the other group carefully deliberated the choices before coming to a decision, thus they were cognitively reflective. Kagan tested repeatedly to find that conceptual tempo is stable, that is test subjects will repeatedly test as either impulsive or reflective. There is some hesitation as to whether this applies in high-uncertainty situations only (Sternberger &

Grigorenko, 1997). It is also important to note that impulsivity, as a cognitive style is not the same as having an impulsive personality (Sternberger & Grigorenko, 1997).

Field Dependence – Independence

A measure of field dependence is one of the most researched cognitive styles to date (Witkin & Goodenough, 1981) and was initially proposed by Witkin in the 1950's and 1960's and with educational implications by Witkin, Moore, Goodenough, and Cox in 1977. Original testing was done using the Body Adjustment Test and the Rod and Frame Test. In these tests subjects were asked to determine their alignment/misalignment with true vertical given internal and external stimuli that may differ (experimental set-up described in-depth by Wikin et al., 1977). It was found that one group of subjects determined their alignment as vertical based solely on the visual cues in the room. Witkin states that, It may be astounding that someone can be tilted as much as 35 degrees, and, if in that position he is aligned to with the room, tilted at the same angle, he will report that he is perfectly straight, that 'this is the way I eat my dinner,' 'this is the way I sit in class' (1977, 5). These subjects were field dependent, that is they were unable to determine their vertical alignment because of a discordant visual field while other subjects displayed field independence and were able to perceive their alignment as separate from the visual surroundings.

Similarly, the Embedded-Figures Test determines a subject's field dependence/independence based on the time they take to find a simple figure in a more complex visual field (see Witkin et al., 1977 for examples). Subjects who were field dependent spent more time finding the figure while field independent subjects found the figure quickly. Most people fell on a continuum between being completely field dependent or field independent.

According to Witkin, The individual, who, in perception, cannot keep an item separate from the surrounding field – in other words, who is relatively field dependent – is likely to have difficulty with that class of problems...where the solution depends on taking some critical element out of the context in which it is presented and restructuring the problem material so that the item is now used in a different context (1977, 8).

Witkin's theory of field dependence – independence does have some detractors. Among them McKenna states that field dependence is not a cognitive style at all but a measure of ability or intelligence. He found significant correlations between scores on the Embedded Figures Test and standard intelligence test scores (1983). Others support this view of field dependence as an aspect of intelligence (Sternberger & Grigorenko, 1997; Ridding & Cheema, 1991). Witkin also found a slight but persistent difference among the sexes (namely, that females tended towards field dependence), but this has not held up under experimental duplication (Goldstein & Blackman, 1978).

Holistic – Serialistic

The holistic – serialistic cognitive style was researched by Pask in the early 1970's. He tested a group of children by asking them to categorize a selection of imaginary animals into groups. He found that some children tend to try to understand the overall principles and will develop and test multiple hypotheses at one time; these subjects were holists or comprehension learners. By contrast, serialists, or operation learners, proceeded with one hypothesis at a time and did not move on until that was tested. Serialists tended not to think about a larger global view of the problem (Pask, 1976). Unlike Witkin's theory of field dependence, there is little or no statistical correlation between holistic – serialistic subjects and scores on standardized intelligence tests (Ridding & Cheema, 1991).

In field dependence one trait (field independence) is generally always associated with higher achievement. Holistic and serialistic personalities are just as likely to achieve or fail regardless of style. Holists, who tend to easily conceptualize the global view of a problem and acquire additional knowledge beyond that related to the problem can become globetrotters, e.g. they lose site of the original purpose and make incorrect analogies. Likewise, serialists, who tend to be very analytical and logical in their understanding of the specific goals of the problem can develop improvidence where they are unable to identify the overall concept of a problem. Some learners seem to be able to switch between the two styles more readily and are called versatile learners. There are two controversies related to Pask's theory. First is that Pask himself defines his theory as cognitive strategies rather than styles. This implies something that can be chosen by the person, however, Pask's further research concluded that holist students that were given a 'serialist-oriented' assignment performed poorly and vice versa. Thus, if these strategies were simply the students' preferences why would they prefer to perform poorly (Roberts & Newton, 2000)? The second detraction from Pask's theory is that, according to Ridding and Cheema, Pask used only a small group of students all 15 years of age or older and the experiment has not been repeated (1991).

Deep-level/Surface-level Processing

Similar to the holist – serialists distinction is Marton and Säljö's deep-level/surface-level cognitive style research. Level of processing involves how a student (Marton and Säljö used undergraduates) approaches material for learning. Surface-level students focused their learning on what Marton and Säljö call the sign, or the literal rote learning of given material. Other students, the deep level processors, focused on what is signified rather than the sign itself, these students attempted to learn the intended meaning of the material. According to their study, surface-level processors tended to say things like, "I just concentrated on trying to remember as much as possible," while the deep-level processors said that they tried to determine "what was the point of the

article (Marton & Säljö, 1976, The processing level approach is very similar to Pask's theories.

Deep-level processors, like holists, tended to quickly grasp the overall concepts and were normally intrinsically motivated but could sometimes miss the details (globetrotting). Likewise, surface-level processors, like serialists, concentrated on the details, required extrinsic motivation, and could sometimes miss the global view of a problem (improvidence). However, both deep and surface-level processing are required to develop a complete understanding of a topic (Ford, 2000), the distinction lies in the way material is initially approached.

There are a number of divergent fields of research that are using cognitive styles. Two that should be highlighted here are in the fields of cognitive neuropsychology and computer systems design. Several studies have been conducted regarding brain hemisphere behavior and its effect on perception and information assimilation. One is Gazzaniga's work on patients with a severed corpus callosum due to severe epilepsy (1998). Work such as this is serving as a basis for the idea of "left- or right-brained" personalities, which are important in information seeking behavior (Ford, 2000). Computer engineers also look at cognitive styles in humans to design smarter automation programs for safety-critical computer systems. For example, Boy's work on a cognitive engineering model for aviation-systems, which is using cognitive theories to design cockpit computers (1998). These two views, along with the major theories of cognitive style are having a great influence on information scientists' understanding of information seeking behavior and on the design of user interfaces for information retrieval. The remaining sections will highlight the current information science research being done in the field of cognitive styles and particularly in relation to virtual environments.

Self - Confidence

Self-confidence is the belief in your own ability when doing anything, by viewing yourself positively and realistically about yourself and your environment. (Densky 2006) In addition, you also need to believe that you have the ability to succeed. (Kent 2007) Self-confidence is also when you feel certain about yourself, your actions, decisions and opinions, and self-reliance. (Hawkins, Swannell & Weston 1998, pg141) Yet, self-confidence is a very useful and powerful tool for everyone to achieve goals and fulfill wishes. Everywhere you go and everything you do, self-confidence is needed for your accomplishment of what you did.

Actually, improving self-confidence is very much depending on one's own self. Moreover, the ways to improve self-confidence are easy as long as you have a strong will to follow and never give up. Hence, self-confidence can be improved through inner of yourself by thinking positively, believing in yourself, setting realistic goals and learning.

A self-confident person is an optimistic, loving, independent, assertive, eager, self-respect and self-control person, and believe and know well about own abilities. (Mitchell 2007) Physically, a self-confident person looks confident with positive body language and good posture. That are, standing, sitting and walking with straight back, grasping hands in front or back of body, walking with wide steps, firm handshakes, making eye contact and smiling are signs of self-confidence. (2 Know Myself 2007)(Raudsepp 2007) Your viewers will see you confidence and they will have trust in you as you are telling them that "I can do it". When you talk, walk, think behave and feel, self-confidence is shown. (USA Swimming 2004).

In contrast, a lack of self-confidence person is a pessimist, passivity, distrust, perfectionist, sensitive to criticism and failure, inferior, isolated, self-doubt and depressed. (Mitchell 2007) Lack of self-confidence person always put on a sad, worry or confuse look, slump or bend shoulder when sitting and

walking, and folding arms, sometimes with crossing legs. (2 Know Myself 2007) These positions labeled you as uncomfortable, unfriendly, annoying and not interesting which caused people around feel the same as you too. Your family members, friends and people around you will unlikely to approach you as you are telling them “Do not come near me”, “I can not help you” or “I can not do it”. Hence, you should not blame them for ignoring you.

The first and main way to improve your self-confidence is thinking positively. Thinking positively is being happy, healthy with optimism and powerful with hopes. (Lopper 2007) You have to be positive even though you are feeling negative. This is because thinking negatively is very much affecting your self-confident. You may have P’s with you when you want to do something, that is, positive because if you always think about negative things, it is sure that you will fail. (USA Swimming 2004) However, this does not mean that you are ignoring the negative events but you accept them, look for the best in the events, and obtain ways to turn them into positive. There, you will see opportunity and hopes to restart again. (Lopper 2007)

Moreover, for an example, you have lost in a competition. No doubt, you were feeling depressed, disappointed, angry, embarrassed, regretful and hopeless, or even worst, want to die. Initially, calm down yourself and recall some happy or past successes in your life included during the competition and success that you desired. When you are recalling, of course, the sad moments of the competition will make you more depressed and emotional. Then, you will keep on asking yourself, “Why am I so stupid?”, “I should have done that” or “Why did I do that?” as these are negative questions that make you feeling negative. Now, you look for way and opportunity by telling yourself, “Yes, I can restart. I shall prepare for the coming next competition. I will try harder this time.” Hence, you will feel relief and happy and able to stand up again. Some events such as competition have second round but some events seem like no hope such as lost of family member. However, no matter how, there is

always hope and you should forget the past and face the future happily. This is because your family member wants you to continue your life happily.

Firstly, you need to think positively by accepting and loving yourself. If you treat, judge or criticize yourself too cruel, you are lowering down your self-confidence. You should accept, be thankful upon what you have and feel proud of yourself, as there is meaning and value beneath it. Then, you should love yourself by taking care of your health, relaxing, awarding yourself when you have done well and advising yourself if you failed. Hence, you are feeling happy, good and positive with yourself. That is, you have your self-esteem and self-confidence. The most common negative view about oneself is the physical look, that are, not beautiful, not charming, fat body, too short, small eyes or flat nose. You must not compare yourself with others because it is a bad habit where you will forget what is good about you as you comparing you poor criteria with others will put yourself at the weak end. As a result, you will lose your self-confidence.

Secondly, you also need to think positively about the predicted outcomes. People who are lack of self-confidence are tending to predict the negative outcome before they start doing anything although the reality is not that bad. (Mitchell 2007) You must focus on your strengths rather than your weaknesses. For instance, you want to take part in the competition. Before the competition started, because of certain obstacles such as difficulty or feeling threaten by competitors, you predicted that you are not going to win the competition. The reality will not be worst as if you think if you have tried. There are some people claimed that by thinking positively, they even worst, that is, they failed and by thinking negatively can be more successful than thinking positively. These are explainable because they are too focusing on thinking instead of concentrating on what they were doing and they are some people who can use negative thinking to stimulus and challenge themselves. For example using self-talk, “I am scare to lose” or “You have to do it or you

will regret". Actually, thinking is your mental preparation before you start to do.

Self Confidence- An Important Key to Success

Self-confidence is a combination of a state of mind and a strong feeling of self-belief which is commonly used when one needs self-assurance especially in one's personal judgment, power, ability etc. It is that voice which comes from your inside and gives you a boost to do something which fears you. In today's epoch, there is no place for those who lack self-confidence because there is no shortage of competition now. Infinite number of people possess it. And, a great many people are achieving their goals using confidence as a ladder. For students, confidence plays a key aspect of their school life. Higher the self-confidence, more the chances of success.

Importance-

Anyone who has inculcated this ability enjoys various perks. One of them is that the magnitude of the difficulty of a tough job decreases. It keeps you going when you face failure in your life. It helps you to focus on the areas which laid you down. It gives a spark to your mind to improve and excel in the next try. If you are deficient in this much-needed ability then, there are chances that you would be dominated by pessimism. The absence of confidence can be the reason for your sorrow and dissatisfaction. Simple chores of daily life seem to be challenging when you lack confidence.

Building confidence-

Self-confidence is the pre-requisite to success and happiness. For many, it would be a challenging thing to be confident all the time. If you too fall in the same category, then, you must learn the techniques of developing self-confidence by following the below-explained ways-

Work out-

When you exercise, your body releases endorphins which gives your mind a feeling of happiness. Furthermore, you are in the direction of gaining a healthy as well as a fit body which would automatically give a boost to your self-confidence level.

Modify your wardrobe-

It may sound absurd to you at the beginning but it makes a difference. Your attires can change the way you look and feel about yourself. Wearing the clothes according to the latest fashion gives a sense of confidence to a person. The chances of having inferiority complex become fair. So, go shopping and spend some pennies. It is worth for regaining your self-confidence.

Avoid Overconfidence-

Excess of everything is bad. Surplus amount of confidence is also not beneficial. Over-confidence has become the reason behind the failure of many. People who are experiencing it overlook the other side of the coin and tend to embrace themselves every now and then which at some point in time proves harmful. Hence, they end up with defeat.

Practice power poses-

Combination of the three P' is just magical. You can vanish all your stress and anxiety by learning and practicing the power poses. Practicing a power pose is an instant solution to this. When you practice the poses, your mind releases such hormones which uplift the level of self-assurance. Ask your teacher to take a session on "power poses" in a classroom and explain in detail what practicing power poses can actually do to your mind.

Go Get a Goal-

A person lacks confidence when he/she is in a doubtful situation and that state of mind is natural during that phase. And the most prominent problem which the youth face today is the absence of a goal. They do not know what they are passionate about and what they want to achieve in life. The picture is blurred and hence they are confidence deficient. Setting a goal and working towards it gives a sense of satisfaction in life. So, just begin the process of introspection and get rid of this problem.

Meditate-

Meditation introduces you to your soul. It takes you to another world and familiarizes you with the truth of life. Meditation holds the power of taking a person to peace and give him/her a stable state of mind. If you are in harmony then, there is no question of absence of self-confidence. All the negative vibes of the outside world cannot affect you when you reach that level in the process of meditation.

Become a helping hand-

You must have experienced this many times that when you help someone in any way it gives you a feeling of contentment and you tend to experience the presence of positive energy in the environment. And, moreover, you see yourself as a better person. Not only this, you begin the chain of assisting others and that feeling is sufficient to have an amplification in your self-confidence.

These were the most powerful and easy tips and tricks through which you can transform your life by escalating towards self-confidence.

NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Cognitive style or thinking style is a term used in cognitive psychology to describe the way individuals think, perceive & remember information. Cognitive style is an important key concept in the area of psychology, education & management. Some students process information & make decisions creatively while some traditionally. Cognitive style is an individual's preferred approach for solving problems and can be measured along a continuum from *adaptive to innovative*. While adaptors are more prone to improve the current system, innovators are critical of the current system, choosing to create entirely new products, processes, models, and solutions. Cognitive style researchers have proven that people who are more adaptive prefer to accept and work within the given paradigm; those who are more innovative prefer to solve problems by looking at them from new angles and perspectives.

The present study describes the cognitive style and self-confidence on male and female among arts and science students. This study may help the students to modify their thoughts. This study may be helpful for the teachers to identify the students cognitive style and self confidence as per their genders and stream. The study may helpful for the students to identify their own cognitive style and there by can solve the problems in the beginning itself in a systematic way.

Everyone have their own cognitive style and self confidence. The cognitive style influences the person's level of self – confidence. The present study will help the individual to improve their thinking style. Once the thinking style improved, it may influence the self confidence in a positive manner. The high self – confident person can perform any actions in a high level. Thus the study will help the person to be a highly self –confident through changing their cognitive style positively.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The aim of the study is to find out the cognitive style and self – confidence among college students.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

The important variables in the study is cognitive style and self confidence. Many studies have been conducted to determine the cognitive styles and self confidence among different settings, but limited study has evaluated the differences of systematic and intuitive cognitive styles on college students in accordance with their gender, stream, and education.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Cognitive style : Cognitive style is a psychological process, which describes the way individual perceive, think, and remember informations.

Self - confidence : Self – confidence is defined as one’s judgement of his or her capability to perform specific tasks.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. STUDIES RELATED ON COGNITIVE STYLE

B. STUDIES RELATED ON SELF – CONFIDENCE

**C. STUDIES RELATED ON COGNITIVE STYLE AND SELF –
CONFIDENCE**

D. SUMMARY OF LITERATURE

E. OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

F. HYPOTHESES

Review of literature is an analysis and synthesis of research sources to generate a picture of what is known about a particular situation and knowledge gaps exists in the situation. This chapter deals with relevant literature on cognitive style and self – confidence among college students. A large number of studies have been conducted on the basis of these two variables in different population and settings. All most all the study proved cognitive style and self – confidence positively affect the individuals performance.

STUDIES RELATED ON COGNITIVE STYLE

Blanton (2004) tested the influence of cognitive style on a standardized test of reading comprehension among community college students in developmental reading classes. The hypothesis was tested by administering three forms of test through a timed multiple –choice test, a constructed response test, and untimed multiple – choice test. Group Embedded Figures Test and paired samples test was used for analyzing the data. The data revealed that the mean of the reading comprehension test scores of the un-timed multiple-choice test being significantly higher than the timed multiple-choice test and the constructed response format among low group embedded figures test and also showed the mean of the reading comprehension test scores for the un-timed multiple-choice test was significantly higher than the timed multiple-choice test scores and the constructed response format among mid group embedded figure ground tests participants. But there was no result shows there were significant mean differences between the time multiple – choice test scores and the constructed response test scores. The study proved there were a significant mean difference between the untimed multiple – choice and the timed multiple choice scores among high group embedded figures test participants. Finally the study conclude that the cognitive style had more impact on students performance on a standardized test of reading comprehension than gender.

Cunningham-Atkins, Powell, Moore, Hobbs, and Sharpe (2004) investigated the impact of students' cognitive style on their effective use of educational text-based computer-mediated conferences. The empirical study involving students from three courses run by the British Open University. Statistical analysis of the data does not suggest that cognitive style has a strong influence on student participation in the conference, but does suggest that, contrary to expectations, 'imagers' may send more messages to conferences than 'verbalisers'. The study also suggested a possible link between certain cognitive styles and course completion, and that the interaction of different styles within a group, as described by Riding and Rayner's (1998) team roles, may have an indirect influence on task completion.

Creed and Patton (2004) investigated the relationship between cognitive styles on internal and external barriers, career development variables of maturity and indecision. The study selected 130 students from Grade 12 students from one school in the south-eastern part of Australia. It was hypothesized, first, that cognitive style (optimism/pessimism) would influence both internal (self-esteem) and external career-related barriers, second, that internal barriers would interact with external barriers and impact on decision-making self-efficacy, and third, the cognitive style affect the career development variables of career maturity and career indecision. The results show that the cognitive style was influential in determining the perception of internal barriers (for females and males) and external barriers (females only). Internal and external barriers, along with optimistic/pessimistic cognitive style, were found to influence career decision-making self-efficacy (in males, but not in females). The study reveals there was no evidence that internal and external barriers interacted to influence career decision-making self-efficacy.

Deture (2004) identified whether any relation between student's online distance education success in accordance with cognitive style and self-efficacy in a web-based distance education settings. The study was conducted in students enrolled in six web-based, general education distance education

courses from a community college. The study was conducted by Group Embedded Figures Test for assessing the field dependence/independence and the Online Technologies Self-Efficacy. Scale to assess the entry-level confidence with necessary computer skills for online learning. The study results that the students who had more field independent cognitive style are tended to have higher online technologies self-efficacy and they did not received higher grades than students who were had field dependent and had lower online technologies self-efficacy. Finally the study concludes that the student's online distant education success is not in related with Cognitive style and self-efficacy.

Price (2004) conducted a study of individual differences in learning associated with cognitive control, cognitive style, and learning style among computer science students'. The paper conducted three studies where three different learning styles were used to discriminate the preference and performance in different contexts. The studies were conducted with Learning Style Questionnaire and Group Embedded Figure Test. The results indicated that the Learning Style Questionnaire and the Group Embedded Figures Test are of little value. Whereas the Cognitive Style Analysis was useful in discriminating performance on imagery-rich materials in a simulated learning context. The paper argues that it may be necessary to match the theoretical basis of learning style with the context in which it is used in order to gain useful information. The total results showed that the value of learning style tests may be limited in individual differences in learning.

Sadler-Smith (2004) studied the relationship between cognitive style and the management of small and medium-sized enterprises. A long-standing dilemma in theories of management surrounds the question of whether effective managerial action is better served by 'rational analysis' or 'creative intuition'. The present study analysis and intuition are conceived within a framework of cognitive style in which a distinction is drawn between the processing of information (rational and intuitive) and the organizing of

information in memory (local and global). Such styles are thought to affect a range of management behaviors (including decision-making). The relationship between managers' cognitive styles and firm performance was examined from a contingency perspective in which environmental instability was hypothesized as moderating the relationship between style and performance. The study was based upon data obtained from owner-managers and managing directors of small and medium-sized firms in two contrasting sectors. There was a positive relationship between intuitive decision style and contemporaneous financial and non-financial performance that did not appear to be moderated by environmental instability. Furthermore, a statistically significant relationship between intuitive decision style and subsequent financial performance was observed.

Burns and Fedewa (2005) examined the associations positive and negative perfectionism have with multiple cognitive processes including constructive thinking, emotional, behavioral, and ruminative coping and categorical thinking and stereotyping. The hypothesis of the study was that there is an essential distinction between positive and negative perfectionists. The results indicated that negative perfectionists were poor constructive thinkers and exhibited maladaptive coping in reaction to stress. Positive perfectionists were found to engage problems actively and to be conscientious. However they may preferentially react behaviorally rather than emotionally, and they were not as creative and free thinking as expected. Positive perfectionists endorsed positive stereotypes and negative perfectionists endorsed only negative ones.

Gamble and Robert (2005) formulated a study to find out the relationship between adolescent's perceptions of their primary caregivers and negative cognitive styles includes low self - esteem, dysfunctional attitudes, and a negative attributional style and also tested whether these relations were mediated by attachment insecurity. The results from 134 high-school students suggested that adverse parenting tends to have a more negative effect on cognitive style among girls compared to boys and that the association between

parenting and cognitive style was largely mediated by attachment insecurity. The present study sought to clarify that the association between adolescents' perceptions of their primary caregivers and negative cognitive styles related to risk for emotional distress. The study concluded that the adolescents who perceived their parents as being more critical and perfectionistic would be more insecure attachment styles, which in turn would contribute to various aspects of negative cognitive style, such as low self-esteem, dysfunctional attitudes and negative attributional style. The study also explored the relationship between perceptions of parenting and cognitive style would vary across male and female.

Jones, Scott, Haque, Gordon-Smith, Heron, Caesar, and Craddock (2005) studied the effect of cognitive style in bipolar disorder and to compare cognitive style in people with affective disorders and in healthy controls among individuals with 118 bipolar I disorder, 265 with unipolar major recurrent depression and 268 healthy controls. Self – related questionnaires are given to them. Those with affective disorder were also interviewed using the schedules for clinical assessment in Neuropsychiatry. The results indicates that those with bipolar disorder and those with unipolar depression demonstrated different patterns of cognitive style from controls, negative self – esteem best discriminate between those with affective disorders and controls. The measures of cognitive style were substantially affected by current levels of depressive symptomatology and the patterns of cognitive style were similar in bipolar and unipolar disorder when current mental state was taken into account. The study concludes that the individual with affective disorder significantly differed from controls on measures of cognitive style but there were no differences between unipolar and bipolar disorders when current mental state was taken into account.

Mc Ginn, Cukor and Sanderson (2005) explored a study to find out whether the cognitive style has any central role in mediating the relationship between negative parenting and the development of anxiety and depression.

Using a clinical sample, this study examined the relationship between early experiences with low care, increased control, abuse and neglect, and symptoms of anxiety and depression, through the mediating effects of cognitive style. The result was founded that individuals who rate their parents as being more abusive and neglectful reported a greater degree of depression and that this relationship was mediated by dysfunctional cognitive style. These findings contributed to the growing literature by providing support for the role of cognitions in mediating the link between negative parenting and psychopathology.

Cook and Smith (2006) conducted a study to assess the validity of index of learning styles score with the comparison of three cognitive style through multi-trait multimedia. For testing the hypothesis the study selected four instruments such as the Index of Learning Styles (ILS), the Learning Style Inventory (LSI), the Cognitive Scale Analysis (CSA) and the Learning Style Type Indicator (LSTI). The ILS assesses 4 domains: sensing–intuitive, active – reflective , sequential–global and visual–verbal , each of which parallel a similar domain in at least 1 of the other instruments. The study administered the ILS, LSI and CSA to family medicine and internal medicine residents and among one and three year medical students and applied the multi-trait multimedia matrix to evaluate convergence and discrimination. After 3 months participants repeated the ILS and completed the LSTI. The result shows both convergence and discrimination for active reflective includes ILS, LSI and LST scores. The result also showed the sensing intuitive score on LSI and LSTI has both convergence and discrimination. The study concludes that for determining the cognitive styles in medical students and both in family and internal medicine has positively significant with the validity of ILS active – reflective and sening – intuitive scores when compared with sequential global and visual – verbal cognitive styles.

Danili and Reid (2006) conducted a study of whether cognitive styles, field dependent or field independent and convergent or divergent were had any

effect on pupils test performance. The participants were selected for the study was the students from grade – 10 from the age group of 15 – 16 among chemistry department from Greece. The test was explored in relation with three formats of assessment including multiple choice, short answer and structural communication grid. The assessment format and all the test results shows that the field dependent or field independent cognitive style was correlated with pupils' performance than with convergent or divergent cognitive styles. This study concluded that the content and presentation of the test, the format of the test, the psychology of the individual affects the performance of the students.

Happé and Frith (2006) explained the role of cognitive style in Autism Spectrum Disorders related with Weak central coherence. The original suggestion of a core deficit in central processing resulting in failure to extract global form/meaning, has been challenged in three ways. First, it may represent an outcome of superiority in local processing. Second, it may be a processing *bias*, rather than deficit. Third, weak coherence may occur alongside, rather than explain, deficits in social cognition. A review of over 50 empirical studies of coherence suggests robust findings of local bias in ASD, with mixed findings regarding weak global processing. Local bias appears not to be a mere side-effect of executive dysfunction, and may be independent of theory of mind deficits. Possible computational and neural models are discussed.

Horzum (2006) studied the effects of teaching methods (learner centered case based learning and traditional teaching method), cognitive style (field dependent/ independent) and gender on science course. 70 students in a primary school in Sakarya have been selected for the study. The cognitive style of these students has been determined and then traditional teaching method has been applied to 35 of them, case based learning method has been applied to the rest of the students for 3 weeks. In the 4th week, an achievement test has been applied about the subject. At the end of this test; it is determined that the instructional methods and cognitive styles which are dependent varian, have a

meaningful effect, but the effect of gender hasn't been meaningful statistically. When common effects are examined, it is determined that the common effects of the independent variables, which are teaching methods and cognitive style and also uniquely effective, have been in a meaningful level; but other common effects haven't been in a meaningful level statistically.

Hudson, Lia and Matin (2006) described the presence of a significant connection between an individual's ability to disregard distracting aspects of a visual field in the classical rod-and-frame test (RFT) in earlier study. In which a subject is required to set a rod so that it will appear vertical in the presence of a square frame that is roll tilted from vertical, and in paper-and-pencil tests, in which the subject is required to find a hidden figure embedded in a more complex figure (the Embedded Figures Test [EFT]; Witkin, Dyk, Faterson, Goodenough, & Karp, 1962; Witkin et al., 1954; Witkin, Oltman, Raskin, & Karp, 1971). This has led to a belief in the existence of a bipolar dimension of cognitive style that is utilized in such disembedding tasks—namely, the extent to which an individual is dependent on or independent from the influence of a distracting visual field. The influence of an inducing visual field on the perception of elevation measured by the setting of a visual target to appear at eye level (the visually perceived eye level [VPEL] discrimination) has also been found to be correlated with the RFT. The present study explored the possible involvement of the dependence/independence cognitive style on the VPEL discrimination. Measurements were made on each of 18 subjects (9 of them female, 9 male) setting a small target to the VPEL in the presence of a pitched visual field across a range of six pitches from -30° (top -backward) to $+20^\circ$ (top -forward) and on each of three tests generally recognized as tests of cognitive spatial abilities: the EFT, the Gestalt Completion Test, and the Snowy Pictures Test (SPT). Although there were significant pairwise correlations relating performance on the three cognitive tests (1.73, 1.48, and 1.71), the correlation of each of these three with the slope of the VPEL-versus-pitch function was not significant, as it was with the slope of the perception of visual pitch of the field (PVP)-versus-pitch function. VPEL, PVP, and a

cognitive factor separated into three essentially independent factors in a multiple-factor analysis, with the three cognitive tests clustering at the cognitive factor, and with no significant loading on either of the other two factors. From the above considerations and a multiple-factor analytic treatment including additional results from this and other laboratories. The study conclude that the cognitive-processing style held to be involved in the performance on the EFT and the perception of vertical as measured by the RFT is not general for egocentric space perception; it does not involve the perception of elevation.

Massa and Mayer (2006) studied whether multimedia instruction accommodate the verbalizer – visualizer cognitive style among college students and non college adults. Experiment 1 studied in college students and experiment 2 in non-college adults with a computer-based 31-frame lesson on electronics that offered help-screens containing text (text group) or illustrations (pictorial group), and then took a learning test. 14 cognitive measures related to the verbalizer- visualizer dimension including tests of cognitive style, learning preference, spatial ability, and general achievement are tested in the participants. In Experiment 3, college students received either both kinds of help-screens or none. The test results revealed that the verbalizers and visualizers did not differ on the learning test, and almost all of the verbalizer-visualizer measures failed to produce significant attribute treatment interactions (ATIs). The study results concludes that the there were not strong support for the hypothesis that verbal learners and visual learners should be given different kinds of multimedia instruction.

Mezulis, Hyde, and Abramson (2006) hypothesized that temperament, parenting, and negative life events in childhood would contribute to the development of cognitive style, with withdrawal negativity and negative parental feedback moderating the effects of negative life events to predict more depressogenic cognitive styles. These constructs were assessed in 289 children and their parents followed longitudinally from infancy to 5th grade; a

subsample (n = 120) also participated in a behavioral task in which maternal feedback to child failure was observed. Results indicated that greater withdrawal negativity in interaction with negative life events was associated with more negative cognitive styles. Self-reported maternal anger expression and observed negative maternal feedback to child's failure significantly interacted with child's negative events to predict greater cognitive vulnerability. There was little evidence of paternal parenting predicting child negative cognitive style.

Papanikolaou Mabbott Bull and Grigoriadou (2006) explored the interaction of designing learner – controlled education based on cognitive style and learner behavior. Previous research in individual differences and in particular, learning and cognitive style, has been used as a basis to consider learner preferences in a web-based educational context. Modelling style in a web-based learning environment demands that developers build a specific framework describing how to design a variety of options for learners with different approaches to learning. In this paper two representative examples of educational systems, Flexi-OLM and INSPIRE, that provide learners a variety of options designed according to specific style categorisations, are presented. Experimental results from two empirical studies performed on the systems to investigate learners' learning and cognitive style, and preferences during interaction, are described. It was found that learners do have a preference regarding their interaction, but no obvious link between style and approaches offered, was detected. The experimental data suggested that while the cognitive style information can be used to inform the design of learning environments that accommodate learners' individual differences, it would be wise to recommend interactions based on learners' behaviour. Learning environments should allow learners or learners' interaction behaviour to select or trigger the appropriate approach for the particular learner in the specific context.

Wehr-Flowers, E. (2006) examined the gender differences in the social-psychological constructs of confidence, anxiety, and attitude as they relate to

jazz improvisation participation. Three subscales of the Fennema-Sherman Mathematics Attitude Survey (1976) were modified for this task, and surveys (N = 332) were given to students of various ages participating in jazz programs. Returned surveys (N = 137, 41 % return rate, 83 men, 54 women) were analyzed using a MANOVA design with gender, school level, and instrument choice as the independent variables. A main effect was found for gender, and a subanalysis revealed significant differences between men and women on all three dependent variables confidence, anxiety, and attitude at the level of $p < .05$. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients were .93 for confidence, .93 for anxiety, and .88 for attitude. The results suggest that social-psychological issues are influencing female participation in jazz improvisation.

Barbosa, Gerhardt, and Kickul (2007) investigated the distinctive roles of cognitive style on four types of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intentions. And also studied the role of cognitive style on entrepreneurial self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intentions. Through the study the investigator tried to examine how both cognitive style and risk preference separately and interactively contribute to an individual's assessment of his/her own skills and abilities as well as to his/her own entrepreneurial intentions. The study was conducted in an international sample of 528 entrepreneurial students across three universities. The results revealed that the individuals with a high risk preference had higher levels of entrepreneurial intentions and opportunity-identification efficacy, and the individuals with a low risk preference had higher levels of relationship efficacy, and tolerance efficacy. The Individuals with an intuitive cognitive style were founded to have lower perceived self-efficacy concerning the establishment of relationship with investors, the economic management of the new venture, and their capacity to tolerate ambiguity. The intuitive individuals who had a high preference for risk exhibited higher levels of opportunity identification efficacy. Finally the study concludes that the individuals with analytic cognitive style had low preference for risk and had higher levels of relationship and tolerance self-efficacy .Where

as the individuals with intuitive cognitive style had high risk preferences for risk and had higher levels of relationship and tolerance self – efficacy..

Billington, Baron-Cohen, and Wheelwright (2007) investigated whether a cognitive style influence the performance test of systemizing being at a higher level than empathizing was better than sex in predicating entry into the physical sciences compared to humanities. The study was conducted in 415 students from both stream of physical sciences and humanities by taking 203 males and 212 females. The study measures the empathy and systemizing through the questionnaires performance. The earlier study assessment shows that there a were significant sex differences on the Empathy Quotient (EQ) (females on average scoring higher) and on the Systemizing Quotient (SQ) (males on average scoring higher) .Also confirmed that the scientists scored higher on the SQ, and scored lower on the EQ, compared to those in the humanities. The present study says SQ was a significant predictor of entry into the physical sciences compared with humanities. The final results evidenced that the males shows stronger systemizing and females shows stronger empathizing, individuals with a strong systemizing drive are more likely to enter the physical sciences, regardless of their sex.

Chambers, Lo, and Allen, (2007) assessed the impact of an intensive period of mindfulness meditation training on cognitive style and affective function among a non-clinical group of 20 novice meditators before and after their participation in a 10-day intensive mindfulness meditation retreat. Self – report scales was used for the assessment of their performance tasks like working memory, sustained attention and attention switching and also for measuring mindfulness, rumination and affect. The study results indicated that there were an improvements in mindfulness, depressive symptoms, rumination and performance measures of working memory and sustained attention among peoples those who completing the mindfulness training compared with those who did not undergo any meditation training. The study concludes that there

were a positive correlation between intensive mindfulness and cognitive style, attentional control and affect among peoples.

Kozhevnikov (2007) opinionated the need of cognitive styles in the context of modern psychology and how the integrated framework of cognitive style in future research. In this present study the hypothesis was accomplished by means of a comprehensive literature review of the major advances and the theoretical and experimental problems that have accumulated over the years and by a discussion of the promising theoretical models that can be further developed, in part, with modern neuroscience techniques and with research from different psychological fields. The results revealed that the cognitive styles represent heuristics that individuals use to process information about their environment. These heuristics can be identified at multiple levels of information processing, from perceptual to meta -cognitive, and they can be grouped according to the type of regulatory function they exert on processes ranging from automatic data encoding to conscious executive allocation of cognitive resources.

Frias-Martinez, Chen and Liu (2008) investigated how digital library users' Cognitive style affects their behavior and perception in digital libraries. The current study selected fifty participants for testing the hypothesis. The present study consider two dimensions of cognitive styles such as field dependence or independence and verbalizer or imager. The study results revealed that the intermediate users and verbalizers have not only more positive perception, but they also complete the tasks in effective ways. The study concludes that the verbalizer cognitive style positively affects the behavior and perception of digital library user's information seeking in digital libraries.

Grimley, and Banner (2008) investigated the interplay of working memory, cognitive style, and behavior. Year 8 (aged 13 years) students (n = 205) at a UK urban secondary school were tested to ascertain predictors of General Certificate of School Education (GCSE) achievement. Assessment

included Riding's cognitive style dimensions, working memory capacity, and a profile of school behavior. A stepwise multiple regression analysis indicated that behavior, working memory, verbal–imagery style by working memory, wholist–analytic style by working memory, and verbal–imagery style by wholist–analytic style predicted GCSE outcome, accounting for 58% of the variance. The results shows that poor GCSE grade points were predicted by low behavior scores, and by low working memory capacity in analytics and verbalizers.

Hodges, Stackpole-Hodges and Cox (2008) studied whether the cognitive style, self – efficacy, self – regulation affects the academic achievement with podcast instruction among seventeen female Communication Sciences and Disorders students. The exploratory study was analyzed by Multiple regression analysis for predicting the learner success based on the four predictor variables of self-efficacy for online technologies, academic self-efficacy, academic self-regulation, and cognitive style. The final result shows that the cognitive style can predicts the academic achievement with podcast instruction among female communication science and disordered students.

Steger, Kashdan, Sullivan, and Lorentz (2008) conducted a study to understand the search for meaning in life on personality, cognitive style, well – being and the approach / avoidance with a particular emphasis on understanding the correlates of search for meaning that are independent of presence of meaning through the conceptual models of the relation between search and presence were tested. The research findings suggested that people lacking meaning search for it; the search for meaning did not appear to lead to its presence. The study also founded that the basic motive dispositions moderated relations between search for meaning and its presence. The findings suggested that the personality disposition had more important to understand the search for meaning in life than cognitive style.

Blazhenkova and Kozhenvnikov (2009) conducted a study to develop new three-dimensional cognitive style model on the basis of modern cognitive

science theories that distinguish between object imagery, spatial imagery and verbal dimensions. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis demonstrated that the overall fit to the data of the new three-dimensional model of cognitive style was significantly better than that of a traditional model. Furthermore, based on the new theoretical model, the study designed and validated a new self-report instrument assessing the individual differences in object imagery, spatial imagery and verbal cognitive styles as the Object-Spatial Imagery and Verbal Questionnaire (OSIVQ). Across a series of studies, the OSIVQ demonstrated acceptable internal reliability as well as construct, criterion and ecological validity. The current study supports the validity of an object-spatial-verbal cognitive style dimension and related measures when developed on the basis of modern cognitive science theories.

Kickul, Gundry, Barbosa and Whitcanack (2009) explored whether the two cognitive styles such as intuitive and analytical has any influence on entrepreneurial self – efficacy regarding the different stages of the new venture process. The study revealed that individuals' intuition cognitive style influences the perception and assessment of their entrepreneurial self-efficacy in their intentions to create a new venture. It also founds that the Individuals' with the intuitive cognitive style were more confident in their ability to identify and recognize opportunities, without much confidence in their capacity of assessment, evaluation, planning, and marshalling of resources. Similarly, the individuals' with the analytic cognitive style were more confident in their abilities to assess, evaluate, plan, and marshal resources, but felt less confident in their abilities to search for and recognize new opportunities. The study concludes that the two cognitive styles such as intuitive and analytic had a significant relation with the individuals' self efficacy in two different ways in accordance with their intentions to create a new venture.

Abela, Stolow, Zhang, and McWhinnie (2010) examined whether negative cognitive style were each associated with a past history of major depressive episodes (MDE) in currently non-disordered university students. In

addition, also examined whether negative cognitive style as assessed by either questionnaire or interview was associated with a past history of MDE above and beyond the association between negative core beliefs (Beck in Depression: clinical, experimental, and theoretical aspects. Harper & Row New York, 1967, Treatment of depression: old controversies and new approaches. Raven Press, New York, 1983 Young in Cognitive therapy for personality disorders: A schema-focused approach, 3rd edn. Professional Resource Exchange, Sarasota, 1990 Young et al. in Schema therapy: a practitioner's guide. Guilford Press, New York, 2003 and such a history. Sixty university students completed self-report measures assessing current depressive symptoms and negative cognitive style as well as semi-structured clinical interviews assessing current and past history of MDEs, negative cognitive style, and negative core beliefs. As with hypotheses, negative cognitive style as assessed by both questionnaire and interview were each significantly associated with a past history of MDE after controlling for current depressive symptoms. At the same time, of the two approaches to assessing negative cognitive style, only the interview-based approach exhibited a unique effect.

Höffler, Prechtel and Nerdel (2010) studied the role of visual cognitive style in two multimedia – based learning environments such as text plus static pictures or animations. In the present study the highly developed visualizers who learned with static pictures performs better than highly developed visualizers who learned with animation. The study reveals there were a significant interaction between highly developed visualizers of animation learning and highly developed visualizers with static picture learning. Whereas less developed visualizers also performed as same as with static pictures or animation. The Subsequent tests revealed that highly developed visualizers outperformed low developed visualizers only when learning from static pictures, but not when studying animations. The study revealed there were no overall differences between animations and static pictures. The study concludes

that the highly developed visualizers gets more benefit from their cognitive style when they have to construct a mental animation from static pictures.

Jones, Scott, Cooper, Forty, Smith, Sham, Jones, (2010) conducted a study to examine the role of cognitive style, personality in predicting vulnerability to post natal depression episodes among women and also tested the relationship of cognitive and personality vulnerabilities for depression among women with recurrent major depressive disorders and who had experienced one or more postnatal depression episodes along with healthy females. The study also examined the recurrent depressive disorder among parous women who experienced no perinatal episodes. The study results that the women from postnatal depression shows higher level of neurotism and dysfunctional beliefs, and had lower level of self esteem than the control group. The study explained there were no significant differences between the women from postnatal depression and non postnatal depression. The study concludes that the cognitive style and personality was positively predicts vulnerability to women with a postnatal history of depression. The study also explained there were no evidences about the specific risk for the postnatal onset of episodes related with cognitive style and personality.

Lee, Hankin and Mermelstein (2010) examined whether negative interactions with parents and peers would mediate the longitudinal association between perceived social competence and depressive symptoms and whether a negative cognitive style would moderate the longitudinal association between negative interactions with parents and increases in depressive symptoms. Youth ($N = 350$; 6th–10th graders) completed self-report measures of perceived social competence, negative interactions with parents and peers, negative cognitive style, and depressive symptoms at three time points. The results indicated that the relationship between perceived social competence and depressive symptoms was partially mediated by negative interactions with parents but not

peers. Further, baseline negative cognitive style interacted with greater negative parent interactions to predict later depressive symptoms.

Al-Salameh (2011) investigated cognitive styles and its relation with gender, academic specialization and GPA. The study was conducted in 600 from BAUS faculties by simple random technique. The Arabic version of GEFT was administrated. The present study results shows that that there were no statistically significant differences in the (field-dependent & field-independent) cognitive style among gender, and there were statistically significant differences in the field-independent cognitive style among academic specialization and GPA. The findings from this study would be helpful for educators and other workers in the educational field to boost academic and vocational guidance. The conclusion of the current study was that the (field-dependent & field-independent) cognitive style attributed to academic specialization and GPA.

Grossmann (2011) conducted a study to investigate any link between cognitive style and learning strategies and also find outs any relationship between cognitive style and strategies among successful and unsuccessful learners. The study was conducted among english studying students under 19 years and also taken age group under 35 years both in males and females. The results suggests that there exist a link between cognitive style and learning strategies within the context of specific strategies. The future reveal of this study promotes the development of strategy training based on cognitive style and should be implemented on early learning stages of learners by the instructors for the maximum success.

Mampadi, Chen, Ghinea and Chen, (2011) identified the need of cognitive style adaptation in learning performance among students and also the study designed to develop an adaptive hypermedia learning system in accordance with students cognitive style. The study was conducted in 44

postgraduate and undergraduate students. Earlier research suggested that cognitive styles significantly affect student learning. The present developed an adaptive hypermedia learning system tailored to students' cognitive styles for testing the learning performance and perceptions with an emphasis on Pask's Holist-Serialist dimension. The results showed that adapting to cognitive styles positively influence student learning. The results also revealed that the adaptive hypermedia learning system have more effects on students' perceptions than their performance

Lo, Chan, and Yeh (2012) conducted study to develop an adaptive web-based learning system focusing on students' cognitive styles. The study was conducted as an experimental study. The system is composed of a student model and an adaptation model. Through a multi-layer feed-forward neural network (MLFF) the students' browsing behaviors was collected for identifying their cognitive style. The system then adaptively recommended learning content presented with a variety of content and interactive components through the adaptation model based on the student cognitive style identified in the student model. The adaptive web interfaces were designed by investigating the relationships between students' cognitive styles and browsing patterns of content and interactive components. Training of the MLFF and an experiment were conducted to examine the accuracy of identifying students' cognitive styles during browsing with the proposed MLFF and the impact of the proposed adaptive web-based system on students' engagement in learning. The training results of the MLFF showed that the proposed system could identify students' cognitive styles with high accuracy and the temporal effects should be considered while identifying students' cognitive styles during browsing. The experimental results revealed that the proposed system could have significant impacts on temporal effects on students' engagement in learning, not only for students with cognitive styles known before browsing, but also for students with cognitive styles identified during browsing. The results provided the evidence of the effectiveness of the adaptive web-based learning system with

students' cognitive styles dynamically identified during browsing, thus validating the research purposes of this study.

Pennycook, Cheyne, Seli, Koehler, and Fugelsang (2012) assessed the effect of cognitive style on history of questioning, altering, and rejecting or unbelieving supernatural claims, both in religious and paranormal beliefs..From the previous two studies it was clear that the cognitive ability had an associations with God beliefs, religious engagement (attendance at religious services, praying, etc.), conventional religious beliefs (heaven, miracles, etc.) and paranormal beliefs (extrasensory perception, levitation, etc.) whereas an analytic cognitive style negatively predicted both religious and paranormal beliefs when controlling for cognitive ability as well as religious engagement, sex, age, political ideology, and education. The study of association between analytic cognitive style and religious engagement was mediated by religious beliefs, suggested that an analytic cognitive style negatively affects religious engagement .The present study reveals that the cognitive style was significantly related with the prediction of religious , paranormal , and God belief/ unbelief.

Azari , Radmehr , Mohajer , and Alamolhodaei (2013) investigated the relationship between cognitive style and mathematical word and procedural problem solving while controlling intelligent quotient and mathematic anxiety among students. This hypothesis was tested by using inferential statistical analysis by taken 100 samples of guidance school girls. The study findings reveals there were a significant differences in student's mathematical performance in word and procedural problems on cognitive styles and also there was a significant differences in controlling intelligent quotient and mathematic anxiety on cognitive styles. The findings of this study very much applicable for psychology and mathematics researchers who interested to study the effect of cognitive style on performance in mathematical students.

Pennycook, Cheyne, Barr, Koehler, and Fugelsang (2013) studied the role of cognitive conflict detection on cognitive style and religiosity. For examining the cognitive conflict sensitivity, the study presented problems containing stereotypes that conflicted with base-rate probabilities in a task with no religious content. Recent research has indicated a negative relation between the propensity for analytic reasoning and religious beliefs and practices. The study evidenced that there were a negative relation exists between religiosity and conflict detection with cognitive styles where as the analytic cognitive style positively predicted conflict detection. The present study findings ensures the evidences for a mechanism potentially contributing to the negative association between analytic thinking and religiosity, and also illustrates the insights to be gained from integrating individual-difference factors and contextual factors for investigating the analytic cognitive style.

Van Seggelen-Damen (2013) investigated the role of reflection in an academic learning setting related with cognitive style and complexity. The study focus on in personality traits that can predict reflection or a reflective outcome. By means of a survey university students are questioned about their learning practices when working on their final thesis. To test whether certain traits influence reflection and whether reflection produces cognitive outcomes at the individual level, we performed hierarchical regression analysis. In addition, structural equation modeling is used to test for the mediation effects of reflection. The data stress a Categorized among learning practices, reflection involves cognitive processing. Some people say they reflect often, whereas others claim they are less inclined to reflect on a regular basis. The present study examines reflection in an academic learning setting. In contrast with previous studies testing reflective task accomplishment, we are interested in personality traits that can predict reflection or a reflective outcome. By means of a survey university students are questioned about their learning practices when working on their final thesis. To test whether certain traits influence reflection and whether reflection produces cognitive outcomes at the individual level, we performed hierarchical regression analysis. In addition,

structural equation modeling is used to test for the mediation effects of reflection. The data stress a mediating role of reflection in the relationship between particular personality traits, cognitive style and complexity mediating role of reflection in the relationship between particular personality traits and cognitive style.

Pezzuti, Artistico, Chirumbolo, Picone and Dowd (2014) investigated the effects of logical thinking and cognitive style on the ability to solve everyday problems among older adults. The study conducted by administering an everyday problem-solving test alongside measures of cognitive styles and logical thinking to a sample of 210 community-dwelling older adults of Southeastern Italy. The results, by structural equation modeling, indicated that logical thinking mediates the relationship between cognitive style and everyday problem solving. The study suggested that older adults who have preserved intact logical thinking abilities are more likely to see the multifaceted reality of everyday problems.

Saxena and Jain (2014) tested the impact of cognitive style on problem solving ability among Undergraduate students. The study consists of 200 male and female undergraduates from various disciplines studying in different colleges located in Durg district. The study reveals that the cognitive style has no impact on problem solving ability. In case of male undergraduates, cognitive style also does not play any significant role in - Problem solving ability. But in female undergraduates it plays a significant role upon problem solving ability, and there was a significant difference found in the problem solving ability of integrated and split style female undergraduates. It was found that female subjects of integrated type of cognitive style were found to have good problem solving ability. The subjects belonging to science streams are found to be good in problem solving as compared to their counterpart non-science undergraduates.

Şenormancı, Saraçlı, Atasoy, Şenormancı, Koptürk, and Atik (2014) investigated the relationship of internet addiction with cognitive style, personality, and depression among 720 university college students Bulent Ecevit University English Preparatory School. The hypothesis was tested by using Beck Depression Inventory (BDI), Dysfunctional Attitudes Scale form A (DAS-A), Internet Addiction Scale (IAS), Rosenbe Self-Esteem Scale (RSES) and Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Revised/Abbreviated Form (EPQR-A). The results revealed that most of the male students had Internet addiction and some of the female were addicted. While the addicted groups' BDI, DAS-A perfectionistic attitude, need for approval, RSES, EPQR-A neuroticism, and psychoticism scores were significantly higher, EPQR-A lie scores were significantly lower than those of the non addicted group. Based on the multiple binary logistic regression analysis, being male, duration of Internet usage, depression, and perfectionistic attitude have been found as predictors for Internet addiction. It has been found that perfectionistic attitude is a predictor for Internet addiction even when depression, sex, duration of Internet were controlled. The study concludes that there were a positive relationship with cognitive style, personality, and depression in university students.

Carnabuci and Diószegi (2015) examined the influence of cognitive style on social network position and innovative performance among employees. The study reveals that a social network rich in structural holes enhances the innovative performance of employees with an *adaptive* cognitive style; however, individuals with an *innovative* cognitive style were most innovative when embedded within a closed network of densely interconnected contacts. The study concludes that the contingency theory mechanism accounts for a large share of empirical variation in employee innovative performance over and existing social network among individual with innovative cognitive styles in relation with their closed social networks position.

Graham (2015) explored a study to find out the impact of cognitive style on self-efficacy among students. This study also examined with the use of cognitive styles and self-efficacy of students in relation with the promotion of academic success by providing the best learning environment in the classroom. The study was conducted in 20 students from fourth graded class with the exposure of same experiences of study during the four week period. The study rejects the original hypothesis that the student's self-efficacy will increase when learning with their cognitive style. This study reveals that the teacher has the specific role in increasing students self-efficacy through different activities in exception with their cognitive style in future for better performance.

Muhammad (2015) conducted to examine the association between cognitive styles (Field dependence/Independence) and scientific achievement in Male and Female student of biology and integrated science department of Zamfara State College of Education Maru. A population of 700 students were selected in which 150 were randomly selected by using simple random sampling technique. The current study revealed that there was significant relationship between Male and Female students cognitive styles (Field dependence and Field independence) and their academic achievement. The findings also indicate that cognitive styles (Field dependence/Independence) was a significant predictor of scientific achievement in Male and Female students.

Tsai, Ling, Shun, and Hsin (2015) tested whether any relationship between cognitive style in accordance with drawing ability, artistic creativity, creative personality among students in China with other countries. The study was conducted in 124 first year undergraduates in Macau recruited from four class sections of an introductory graphic design course. The empirical study reveals that there was a significant, positive relationship with drawing and creativity and the figural creativity. The results of regression analysis further suggest that the higher the level of drawing that the higher the level of drawing

skill, the more likely a participant was to be seen as expressing a high level of creativity. The study also reveals neither creative personality nor cognitive style had a significant effect on figural creative performance.

Khandagale (2016) attempted to identify the cognitive style of teacher educators based on gender and discipline. The present study sample contains 25 teacher educators participated in refresher course in education at UGC ASC University of Kerala, Karivottom campus. A descriptive survey was conducted by providing Alert cognitive style scale and the findings state that left brain was dominant for both gender and discipline. The study creates awareness among teacher educators participated in the present study. The findings of the study may be applicable to the teacher educator of similar educational statuses.

Sharma and Ranjan (2018) conducted a study among 9th grade students from Om Public School, Gohana, Dist. (Sonapat) to find out the correlation among cognitive styles, achievement motivation and academic achievement by using Multimedia and Traditional Instructional Strategies. The study reveals the cognitive style has very significant effect on achievement in academic level and there was a positive relationship between cognitive style and students achievement motivation. The study concluded that there was a positive correlation coefficients among cognitive styles, achievement motivation and academic achievement.

Sikand, Arshad, Beniwal Chandra and Hiwale (2019) studied the relationship between perceived parental styles and resilience mediated by cognitive styles in females who had dissociative disorders in India. The test was conducted on females at the age of 18 – 50 who all are with the dissociative disorder through a cross – sectional study. For analyzing the data, Shapiro – Wilk and Spearman rank correlation was used. The present study reveals that there was a significant relationship between emotional warmth and systematic cognitive style and also there was a relationship between systematic

cognitive style and high resilience. The final result of the study proved that the more emotional warmth was perceived by the participants, the more systematic cognitive style they were in their perception of the environment in order to become more resilient. These results help to establish some protective psychological factors in women with dissociative disorders in the future.

STUDIES RELATED TO SELF – CONFIDENCE

Beattie, Hardy and Woodman (2004) tested the pre-competition of self – confidence in relation to the role of self. Higgins' (1987) self-discrepancy theory holds that certain emotions occur as a result of discrepancies between pairs of psychological entities called self-guides. The present study explored self-discrepancies in self-confidence in relation to performance and cognitive anxiety. Slalom canoeists ($n = 81$) reported ideal, ought, and feared levels of self-confidence 3 hours before a national ranking slalom tournament. Within a half-hour of the start of the race, canoeists reported their actual self-confidence and cognitive anxiety levels. Hierarchical multiple-regression analyses revealed that self-discrepancies predicted significantly more performance variance than actual self-confidence alone. Additionally, hierarchical multiple-regression analyses revealed that, contrary to the specific predictions of self-discrepancy theory, ideal and feared discrepancies (not "ought" and "feared" discrepancies) significantly predicted cognitive anxiety.

Malkin and Stake (2004) opinionated the role of teacher alliance and student cohesion in relation to changes in self – confidence and attitudes in the women's and gender. The previous studies provide evidence that women's and gender studies (WGS) classes are successful in helping students to develop more egalitarian gender role attitudes, appreciation and acceptance of diversity, awareness of sexism and other social inequities, and agentic self-confidence in both women and men. The mechanisms by which these changes take place were the focus of this study. WGS students ($n = 328$) from 23

classes on four college campuses participated. The results indicated that (a) student readiness (positive WGS class expectations and capacity for positive interpersonal relationships) predicted the development of alliances with teachers and cohesion with classmates, (b) alliance and cohesion were associated with changes toward more egalitarian attitudes, (c) cohesion was associated with increases in confidence, and (d) links between student readiness and change were mediated by alliance and cohesion developed within the WGS classroom.

Thomas, Maynard, and Hanton (2004) opinionated there were any relationship between the intensity and direction of competitive state anxiety, self-confidence on athletic performance in basketball and volleyball players before conducting different matches. The study uses a modified version of Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2(CSAI-2) for assessing the players' athletic performance among male basketball and volleyball players prior to 11 different matches by taking 24 players from both basketball and volleyball. Through the inventory the somatic and cognitive anxiety had been measured with intensity subscale and direction sub-scale. The research findings revealed that before the matches a moderate level of state anxiety and very high self-confidence were seemed to be in players and the cognitive and somatic anxiety and self-confidence were stable prior to the different matches. The study reveals there was a positive intensity of cognitive anxiety was related with players' athletic performance. The study concludes by rejecting the alternative hypothesis, there were no correlation between the intensity and direction of somatic and cognitive anxiety and self – confidence among the basketball and volleyball players' athletic performance.

Esterl, Henzi, and Cohn (2006) tested how the senior medical student “boot camp” affects the fourth year medical students' self – confidence before starting their surgery internships. The study was conducted in sixteen fourth – year medical students .Through the pre and post survey method the self confidence of the students were assessed in anatomic dissection, administrative

skills, technical skills and patient management areas. The students were also assessed their performance by anesthesiology faculty in the mock patient code and by nursing faculty in mock nursing page sessions. The study reveals that the students seemed to be as more confident with the survey categories related with their internship skills. Students also identified several strengths and offered some recommendations for the improvements in the elective during the focus group session. The study concludes the senior medical student “boot camp” positively affects the fourth year medical students’ self – confidence before starting their surgery internships. This study result will help the medical students for getting an opportunity to develop necessary prerequisite skills to begin their surgery internship.

Gupta and Lam (2006) investigated the self confidence of medical student’s in performing direct ophthalmoscopy in clinical training. A cross-sectional survey was conducted at a Canadian university to determine the confidence of medical students in their skill in performing direct ophthalmoscopy. The results shows that the first- and second-year students, had low self confidence in performing direct ophthalmoscopy on an undilated pupil. Respondents who had practiced on more than 10 occasions outside of formal teaching were significantly more confident in their overall skill than those who had not (were “quite” or “extremely” interested in more practice and training on direct ophthalmoscopy. The study interpreted that a large proportion of medical students were unconfident in various aspects of their skill in performing direct ophthalmoscopy. However, the Self-confidence was significantly greater among students who practiced outside of formal teaching sessions. The study suggested that most of the students were interested in additional training, and medical schools should emphasize the importance of practicing whenever appropriate for future.

Strachan and Munroe-Chandler (2006) studied using imagery to predict self – confidence and anxiety in young elite athletes. The study was conducted on seventy – six athletes female participants were recruited from baton twirling competitions in Canada and the USA. Seventy-six athletes were divided into two age cohorts: 7-11 and 12-15 years. A modified version of the Sport Imagery Questionnaire (SIQ; Hall et al., 1998) and the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory 2 for Children (CSAI-2C; Stadulis et al., 2002) were given to each participant. The results indicated that the developmental differences might exist between the two age cohorts in imagery use, self-confidence, and anxiety.

Chang and Cheng (2008) explored the interrelationship between senior high school students' science achievement (SA) and their self-confidence and interest in science (SCIS) with a representative sample of approximately 1,044 11th-grade students from 30 classes attending four high schools throughout Taiwan. Statistical analyses indicated that a statistically significant correlation existed between students' SA and their SCIS with a moderate effect size; the correlation is even higher with almost large effect sizes for a subsample of higher-SCIS and lower-SCIS students. The *t*-test analysis also revealed that there were significant mean differences in students' SA and their knowledge (including physics, chemistry, biology, and earth sciences subscales) and reasoning skill subtests scores between higher-SCIS and lower-SCIS students, with generally large effect sizes. Stepwise regression analyses on higher-SCIS and lower-SCIS students also suggested that both students' SCIS subscales significantly explain the variance of their SA, knowledge, and reasoning ability with large effect sizes.

Clark, Goldsmith and Goldsmith (2008) conducted a study to test the relationship between market mavenism and consumer self-confidence (CSC). The hypothesis was tested among 190 US consumers in a survey method. The results emphasized that there was a significant relationship between mavenism and several dimensions of CSC. The regression analysis reveals there

was a relationships between information acquisition (confidence in the ability to obtain and use marketplace information) and social outcomes decision making (confidence in obtaining positive reactions from others). Through the findings we can ensure that the knowledge of the psychology of market mavenism by suggesting some motivations and suggest marketing strategies can be helpful for appealing more effectively to self confidence of consumers.

Munroe-Chandler, Hall, and Fishburne (2008) tested the relationship between imagery use and confidence in soccer (football) players. For this study 122 male and female soccer athletes between the ages of 11–14 years in both house/recreation and travel levels were selected. The test was conducted in three basis of assessment for measuring the frequency of imagery use, generalized self-confidence, and self-efficacy in soccer. Regression analyzes was used for testing the hypothesis. The result was founded that Motivational General-Mastery (MG-M) imagery was a significant predictor of self-confidence and self-efficacy in both recreational and competitive youth soccer players. More specifically, MG-M imagery accounted for between 40 and 57% of the variance for both self-confidence and self-efficacy with two other functions (MG-A and MS) contributing marginally in the self-confidence regression for recreational athletes. The study finally suggest that there was a positive, significant relationship between motivational general mastery imagery use, self- confidence and self – efficacy in competitive youth soccer players..

Asoni (2011) investigated the effect of self confidence and intelligence on business entrepreneurship. The study was conducted in two different data sources .National longitudinal survey of youth was the first data source in which a longitudinal survey was used for collecting details about demography and employment among employers in U.S population. The other data source was from 4 years experienced American colleges with institution details from National center for education statistics. The present study results that the individual with high intelligence and self -confidence are more likely to become an entrepreneurs. The study also evidenced that the intelligence

increases business survival and the self-confidence increases business creation. The study concludes that the effect of formal college education and entrepreneurship become completely disappear if we control intelligence and self-confidence.

Perry (2011) studied the meaning of the concept self – confidence /confidence , while gaining a more comprehensive understanding of its attributes, antecedents, and consequences. The was conducted in nursing students. Walker and Avant's eight-step method of concept analysis was utilized for the framework of the analysis process with model, contrary, borderline, and related cases presented along with attributes, antecedents, consequences, and empirical referents identified. The study resulted that Understanding both the individualized development of confidence among pre-licensure nursing students and the role of the nurse educator in the development of confident nursing practice, nurse educators can assist students in the development of confidence and competency. Future research surrounding the nature and development of confidence/self-confidence in the pre-licensure nursing student experiencing human patient simulation sessions would assist to help educators further promote the development of confidence

White (2011) develop, test, and establish psychometric tool for a quantitative instrument that measure the levels of self-confidence and anxiety in undergraduate nursing students while making clinical decisions. NASC-CDM scale was developed to measure the nursing student's self confidence and anxiety. The study results that the initial evidentiary support for the NASC – CDM scale as a content valid, construct valid, convergent valid and reliable measurement tool. The study helps the nurse educators may be able to utilize the NASC-CDM scale in numerous situations, around real-life or simulated clinical experiences in later. If nurse educators are aware of levels of self-confidence and anxiety, influence nursing students while moving

through the process of making clinical decisions, the effectiveness should be promoted.

Chesser-Smyth and Long (2012) explored a study to understand the influence on self – confidence among first year undergraduate nursing students in Ireland. A sequential, mixed methods three-phase design was used to find out hypothesis. The design involved pretest and posttest measurements of self-confidence, focus group interviews, a student self-evaluation questionnaire and analysis of the relevant curriculum content. Data collection matched the nature of the data, including descriptive, non-inferential statistics and qualitative content analysis. There was considerable variation in the amount and nature of theoretical preparation. Factors in clinical practice exerted the most influence. Self-confidence fluctuated during the first clinical placement and as students' self-confidence developed, simultaneously, motivation towards academic achievement increased. Conversely, self-confidence was quickly eroded by poor preceptor attitudes, lack of communication, and feeling undervalued. The study concludes there were difficult to understand the influence of self – confidence among nursing students.

Effie Maclellan (2012) tested how might teachers enables learner self – confidence. This study follows the analytic technique of concept analysis to review psychology and education literatures to provide a 'take-home' message for teachers. The study finds that teacher's attention to build on what is already positive in their classrooms are much better placed to support learners in outlining their own success and progress which was reported as improving confidence.

Filippin and Paccagnella (2012) uses Bayes' rule model of self-confidence, to identify whether the self – confidence may influence the people' learning process in related with their family background and economic outcomes. The study reveals that there was a small differences in initial

confidence can result in diverging patterns of human capital accumulation between identical individuals. The empirical literature study suggests that the differences in self-confidence are correlated with socio-economic background of people's education and learning inequalities perpetuate across generations. The conclusion of this theoretical test suggested there should be conducted a cognitive test among equally talented peoples' for avoiding systematic differences in self-confidence. If should taken place as early as possible there will happen a significant emergence of gaps in the accumulation of human capital.

Glassberg (2012) Conducted a study of training modalities and self-confidence building in performance of life saving procedures. Physicians and paramedics who were trained for the life saving procedures were selected for the study to assess the self-confidence. They were sent a questionnaire regarding their experience with and self-confidence levels for performing endotracheal intubation, cricothyroidotomy, needle chest decompression, tube thoracostomy, and intraosseous infusion. The result shows that Provider level (physician or paramedic) and gender were associated with reported self-confidence levels. Manikin and supervised and unsupervised patient experience exhibited positive associations with self-confidence, but (animal) model experience did not. For many procedure-training modality pairs, identified a plateau level above which additional experience was minimally associated with an increase in self-confidence. The study suggested that among military advanced life support providers, self-confidence levels in procedure performance are positively associated with experience gained from manikins and supervised and unsupervised patient application.

Kukulu, Korukcu, Oirzdem, Bezci and Calik, (2012) proposed a study to determine the self-confidence levels of nursing students and the factors related to such self-confidence. Data were obtained via a questionnaire for socio-demographic characteristics and a 'Self-Confidence Scale' for testing the hypothesis. The result reveals high self-confidence levels were seen in

male students than male students. The study resulted that high self –confidence was found in male nursing students than female nursing students. The study suggested that the self –confidence should be nurtured in a caring nursing curriculum; however, there is a lack of clarity as to what confidence means, how it is perceived by students and what educators can do to instill self –confidence in nursing students.

Reck, Noe, Gerstenlauer, and Stehle (2012) tested whether a current and previous history of DSM IV anxiety and depressive disorders was associated with maternal self- confidence after two weeks of delivery. The study were selected 798 women from a community population for diagnosing postpartum anxiety disorder and depression according to DSM-IV criteria. The results shows there were a significant interaction between current postpartum anxiety and depressive disorders and maternal self-confidence whereas women with a depression or anxiety disorder in their previous psychiatric history seemed to had lower interactions in maternal self-confidence with post partum anxiety. The study concludes there were a negative correlation between postpartum symptoms and maternal self – confidence. The study suggested there were a need for appropriate preventive programes to promote maternal self-confidence and through these programes we can prevent infant developmental disorders which might result from reduced feelings of maternal self-confidence and associated maternal interaction behavior.

Zulkosky (2012) conducted a study of impact on self – confidence, knowledge acquisition, satisfaction in related with simulations used in the classroom. The hypothesis of the study was to assess whether fourth-semester associate of science in nursing students who participated in debriefing sessions after watching prerecorded high-fidelity simulation scenarios in a nursing class obtained higher examination scores than those who received the same content through traditional lecture format with case studies. This study used a quantitative, quasi-experimental, comparison group crossover design and compared teaching strategies using simulation in the classroom. The test result

shows the participants were satisfied with the teaching methods used in the classroom and their feelings of self-confidence in learning the new material. Analysis of the descriptive data revealed no significant differences between the two study groups. Each of three hypotheses was tested on two different occasions through the crossover study design. Results revealed a significantly higher cardiac examination score for the participants who received a lecture and case studies for the cardiac content. However, there were no significant differences in the exam scores on hypoperfusion content between the two groups. Both participant groups reported significantly higher satisfaction and self-confidence scores with the lecture and case study teaching strategy. The result suggested the study used an active teaching strategy for a group of participants who were accustomed to a lecture format classroom.

Abaci and Okyay (2013) conducted a study of analyzing the relationship between Self-confidence and Personal growth Initiative Scale levels of employees and managers. All the employees and managers are selected from big companies and schools which is in Istanbul and the rest of the employees participants are also selected by the using random selection method from small shops or companies. Such descriptive statistics as mean, standard deviation as well as reliability analysis, independent T test and correlation analysis have been made use of within the scope of the research. The results suggested that there are relationships between the self-confidence and personal growth Initiative levels of employees and managers. Although the data acquired is rather recent, it would not be wrong to claim that they are striking. This is the first time self- confidence and personal growth initiative are investigated with level of employees and managers in a thesis therefore the research is important. As can be seen, between level of employees and managers, self-confidence and Personal Growth Initiative are positive according to gender. Some of the data acquired by means of the investigation seems to support hypotheses. It concludes there were meaningful differences in terms of age as far as self-confidence and personal growth initiative of the employees and the manager are concerned.

Sadler (2013) examined whether the teacher self-confidence influence the learning to teach in higher education. The study was conducted by three interviews over a period of two years in 11 new teachers from a range of higher education institution and discipline areas. The first phase of analysis was the creation of detailed cases studies for three of the participants, of which one is reported in the current paper to illustrate the role of self-confidence in teacher development. The second phase used a thematic analysis of all interview transcripts. The result reveals the new teachers' self-confidence influences the learning with the use of teaching strategies that actively involved with the students. The study suggests that the content knowledge and teaching skills were related to feelings of self-confidence with *experience* being a key factor in the teachers' perceptions of their knowledge and skills. The study made an implications for managers to ensure new staff have as familiar and stable teaching schedule as possible, and teacher developers to encourage dialogue and reflection in relation to the self-confidence and content knowledge of new teachers.

Bisht and Mishra (2015) tested to compare self confidence and aggression level between male students of science, physical education and commerce of post graduate government college, Chandigarh. Random sampling technique was used for this study by selecting 30 students from science, 30 students from physical education and 30 from commerce. One way ANOVA was used for the analysis. The study result shows that there was a significant difference in self confidence among different discipline of college male students. The study conclude that the mean score of aggression of science students was more than the physical education and commerce students and the mean score of self – confidence of physical education students was more than the science and commerce student .

Jahanbakhsh , Jomehri and Mujembari (2015) studied to compare women's self-confidence according to their sex role and investigate whether women of Androgyny sex role have the highest level of self-confidence among

the others. It is inevitable that a society needs contribution from both women and men on the pathway to development where men and women nowadays try to re-establish new meanings for traditional gender stereotypes and question their perceptions towards gender based behavior. Sandra Bem introduced the concept of Androgyny in order to overcome cultural stereotypes of men and women. In this research, a random sample of 350 working women from the total number of 494,315 working women in Tehran has been selected to make an assessment of their level of self-confidence using Sandra Bem Sex-Role Inventory and Bernreuter's Multi-Scale Personality questionnaires. The participants have been selected randomly from different geographical locations in Tehran and different occupational categories with ages between 18 – 65 years old. The data have been analyzed using statistical data analysis of variance, Pearson correlation, regression, and stepwise multivariate linear regression analysis. ANOVA, Pearson correlation, and multivariate linear regression analysis showed that women's self-confidence could differ as a result of their gender roles. The analysis of the gathered data showed that 30% of the subjects were of Androgyny, 26.9% of non-distinct, and 22% of subjects were of female sexual role while 21% had male sexual role. The study revealed that the women of Androgyny sex-role do not have the highest level of self-confidence among the others. The study concludes that the level of self-confidence in Androgyny women was lower than those with female sexual role and non-distinct, and only higher than those who had male sexual role.

Liu, Dong, Chiclana, Cabrerizo, and Herrera-Viedma (2016) tested the group decision making on heterogenous preference relations with self – confidence. For testing the hypothesis used a two-stage linear programming model for estimating the collective preference vector for the group decision-making based on heterogeneous preference relations with self-confidence. Finally, numerical examples are used to illustrate the two-stage linear programming model, and a comparative analysis is carried out to show how self-confidence levels influence on the group decision-making results. The

result shows there was a positive relation with group decision based on heterogenous preference related with self – confidence.

Charness, Rustichini, and Van de Ven (2017) tested whether the over self -confidence (conscious or unconscious) is motivated strategic behavior among player's. The study founds compelling supporting evidence in the behavior of participants who send and respond to others' statements of confidence about how well they have scored on an IQ test. In two-player tournaments where the higher score wins, a player is very likely to choose to compete when he knows that his own stated confidence is higher than the other player's, but rarely when the reverse is true. Consistent with this behavior, stated confidence is inflated by males when deterrence is strategically optimal and is instead deflated (by males and females) when luring (encouraging entry) is strategically optimal. This behavior is consistent with the equilibrium of the corresponding signaling game. Saribay, and Yilmaz (2017) tested the relationship between cognitive style and sociopolitical attitudes. There are reasons to believe that religiosity and conservatism may be differentially predicted by analytic cognitive style (ACS) and cognitive ability (CA), respectively. The study collected data with three ACS measures, two CA measures, and separate measures of social and economic conservatism. ACS uniquely predicted religiosity and CA uniquely predicted social and general, but not economic, conservatism, controlling for demographic variables. Further research and theorizing are needed to establish the potentially closer coupling between ACS and religiosity and CA and conservatism.

STUDIES RELATED WITH COGNITIVE STYLE AND SELF – CONFIDENCE

Hooda and Devi (2018) studied the self-confidence in relation to cognitive style among 400 students from 10th class. The study proved the cognitive style along with gender had a significant effect on self - confidence and also supports there was a positive interaction between cognitive style and gender on the self - confidence among secondary school students. The present study also reveals students with systematic cognitive style has significantly better self -confidence than the students with intuitive cognitive style. The present study helps the teachers to promote the students self -confidence through the effective teaching methods and to identify the students with low self -confidence.

SUMMARY OF LITERATURE

The various studies related with cognitive style and self – confidence were shown that cognitive style and self – confidence improves all level of performance in various settings along with gender also. There are few studies related with correlation of cognitive style and self – confidence in college students studying arts and science.

Objectives:

- To find out the significant difference between male and female college students in self – confidence.
- To find out the significant difference between arts and science students in self confidence
- To find out the significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between male and female college students

- To find out the significant mean difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between arts and science students.
- To find out the significant mean difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between male and female college students
- To find out the significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between arts and science students.
- To find out the significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between undergraduate and postgraduate students.
- To find out the significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between undergraduate and postgraduate students.

Hypotheses:

- There will be a significant difference between male and female college students in self – confidence
- There will be a significant difference between arts and science students in self – confidence.
- There will be a significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between male and female college students
- There will be a significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between arts and science students
- There will be a significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between male and female college students

- There will be significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between arts and science students.
- There will be significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between undergraduate and postgraduate students.
- There will be significant mean difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between undergraduate and postgraduate students.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

A.RESEARCH DESIGN

B.THE PARTICIPANTS

C.THE VARIABLES

D.THE MEASURES

E.PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION

F.CONSolidATION OF DATA

G.STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

Research methodology involves the systematic procedures by which the researcher starts from the initial identification of the problem to its final conclusions. The role of the methodology is to carry on the research work in a scientific, and valid manner. The methodology consists of procedures and techniques for conducting a study. The method section is important because it provides the researcher with the much need framework and an outline of the steps to be followed and the importance of this section extends even when the research report is being prepared.

A.RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure. In fact, the research design is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted; it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. As such the design includes an outline of what the researcher will do from writing the hypothesis and its operational implications to the final analysis of data.

Descriptive research design was used for this study. Descriptive research designs help provide answers to the questions of who, what, when, where, and how associated with a particular research problem; a descriptive study cannot conclusively ascertain answers to why. Descriptive research is used to obtain information concerning the current status of the phenomena and to describe “what exists” with respect to variables or conditions in a situation.

Advantages

- The participant is being observed in a completely natural and unchanged natural environment. True experiments, whilst giving analyzable data, often adversely influence the normal behavior of the subject.
- Descriptive research is often used as a pre –cursor to more quantitative research designs with the general overview giving

some valuable pointers as to what variables are worth testing quantitatively.

- If the limitations are understood, they can be a useful tool in developing a more focused study.
- Descriptive studies can yield rich data that lead to important recommendations in practice.
- Approach collects a large amount of data for detailed analysis.

Disadvantages

- The results from a descriptive research cannot be used to discover a definite answer or to disprove a hypothesis
- Because descriptive designs often utilize observational methods, the results cannot be replicated.
- The descriptive function of research is heavily dependent on instrumentation for
- measurement and observation.

B. THE PARTICIPANTS

Sample is a small group which represents all the traits, and characteristics of the population. A representative sample is one in which the measurements made on its units are equivalent to those which would be obtained by measuring all elements of the population, except for the inaccuracy due to the limited size of the sample.

120 participants were selected from the population of college students. Among 120 participants 60 were from arts stream and 60 were from science stream. The sample was further subdivided based on gender consisting of 60 males and females. The age of the participants ranged from 19 to 23 years.

Method of sampling

There are different types of sample designs based on two factors viz., the representation basis and the element selection technique. On the representation basis, the sample may be probability sampling or it may be non – probability sampling. Probability sampling is based on the concept of random selection, whereas non – probability sampling is ‘non – random sampling’.

According to Guilford, an optimum sample is one which fulfills the requirements of efficiency, representativeness, reliability and flexibility. For the present study, stratified sampling method was used. Stratified sampling method is employed to represent all groups or strata of the target population which offers accurate results and high degree of representativeness. Stratified sampling is a type of sampling method in which the total population is divided into smaller groups or strata to complete the sampling process. The strata are formed based on some common characteristics in the population data.

After dividing the population into strata’s, the researchers randomly select the sample proportionally.

Inclusion Criteria

- College students both male and female
- Age between 19 – 23 years
- Arts and science stream students

Exclusion Criteria

- Age less than 19 and greater than 23 years

Distribution of Participants

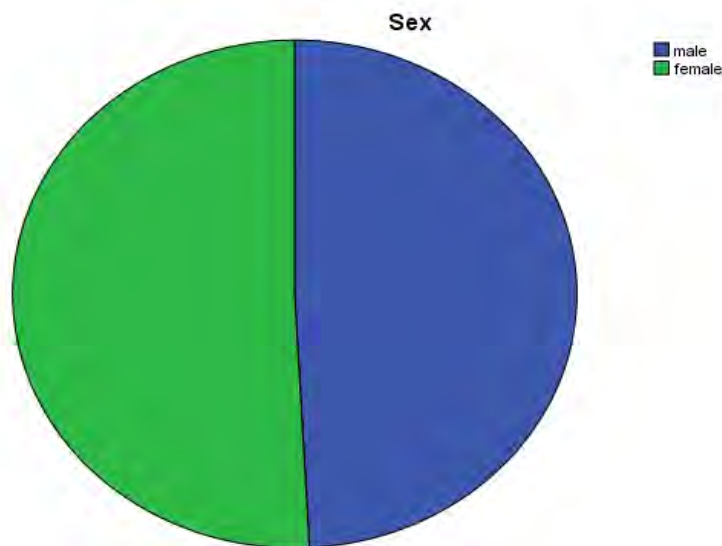
1. Distribution of Participants based on sex

In the present sample, students of both the sexes were considered and the sex – wise sample representation is provided in the table below.

Table 3.1

Sex	No. of students	Percentage
Male	59	49.2
Female	61	50.8
Total	120	100%

The table given above indicates the distribution of the participants on the basis of sex, with 59 males and 61 females making up the total 120 participants of the study.



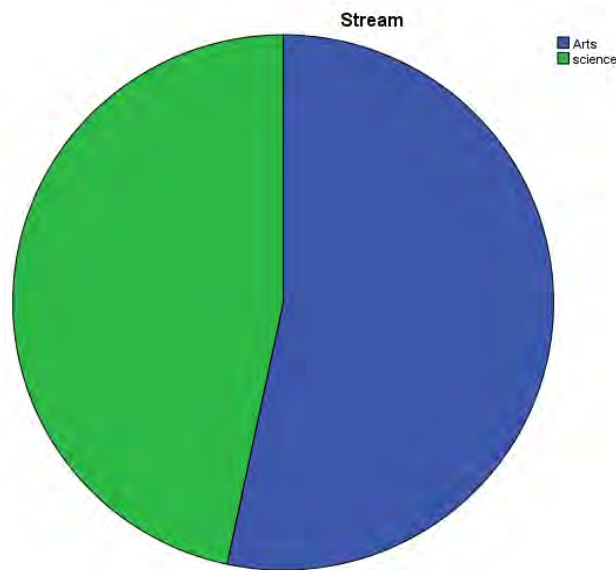
2. Distribution of participants based on stream

The study also considered stream of the participants to know if there was any link.

Table 3.2

Stream	No. of Students	Percentage
Arts	64	53.3
Science	56	46.7
Total	120	100

The table given above indicates the distribution of the participants on the basis of stream, with 64 arts students and 56 science students making up the total 120 participants of the study.



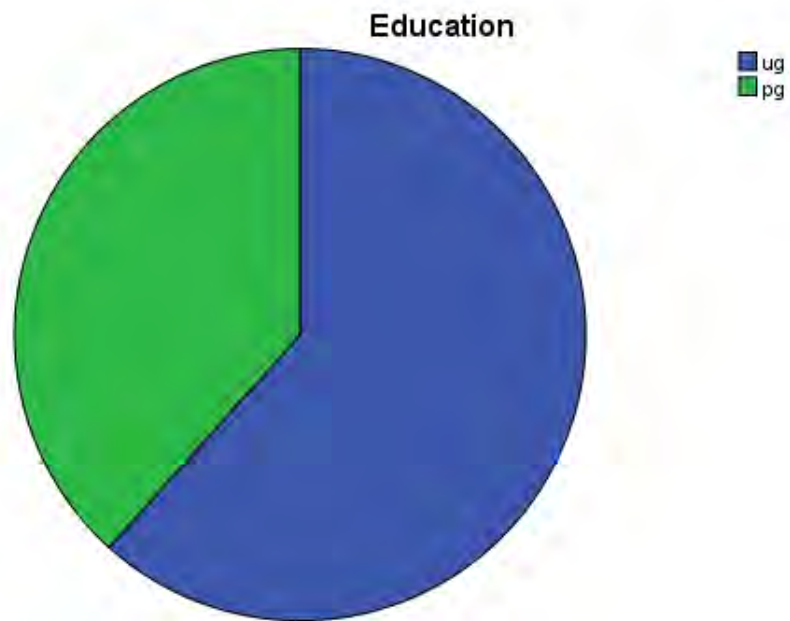
3. Distribution of participants based on education

The study also considered education of participant to know if there was any link.

Table 3.3

Education	No.of students	Percentage
UG	74	61.7
PG	46	38.3
Total	120	100

The table given above indicates the distribution of the participants on the basis of education, with 74 UG students and 46 PG students making up the total 120 participants off the study.



D.VARIABLES

Independent variables : Gender, Stream of course

Dependent variables : Cognitive style, Self – confidence

E. MEASURES

1. Cognitive Style Inventory (CSI)

The students' cognitive style was measure by using Cognitive Style Inventory (CSI) which was developed by Dr. Praveen Kumar Jha. CSI is a self – report measure of the ways of thinking, judging, remembering, storing information, decision making and believing in interpersonal relationship.

Administration and scoring

The participants were explained the purpose of the study as well as how their contributions are considered as valuable for the study initially. The instructions regarding the scale are given to the participants before starting procedure. The demographic details were included in the initial page of scale. Instructed the participants to fill the demographic information as per the sheet. CSI consists of 40 statements and it is a 5 point scale consists of totally disagree, disagree, undecided, agree, totally agree.

While scoring, for totally disagree scored as 1, disagree as 2, undecided as 3, agree as 4 and totally agree as 5. The responses are scored by adding all the response numbers as indicated in each item which yield a systematic score and an intuitive score.

2. Self – Confidence Inventory (SCI)

The students' self confidence was measured by using Self Confidence Inventory(SCI) which was developed by Dr. Rekha Gupta. SCI consists of 56 statements related with different situations.

Administration and scoring

The participants were explained the purpose of the study as well as how their contributions are considered as valuable for the study initially. The instructions regarding the scale are given to the participants before starting procedure. The demographic details were included in the initial page of scale. Instructed the participants to fill the demographic information as per the sheet.

SCI consists of 56 statements related with different situations. On scoring, put one mark for each right except some statements.

F. PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION

The participants of the study was met in their respective colleges after obtaining the consent from the respected authorities. Before starting the procedure rapport should be established with the participants. Before giving the scales , some general instructions like the need for being honest in the responses as there are no right or wrong answers, to be spontaneous and to ensure that every item has been answered are give to the participants.

The confidentiality of the responses was assured, putting the participants at ease even more further, and was also communicated not to discuss their opinions or responses while responding. Upon completion, the forms received were checked for possible items left unmarked, and the data was consolidated.

G. CONSOLIDATION OF DATA

The data collected from the participants are scored systematically. For the Cognitive Style Inventory, there are 5 ratings totally disagree scored as 1 and disagree as 2, undecided as 3, agree as 4 and totally agree as 5. The responses of each statement as scored as per the ratings.. In, Self- confidence scale consisting some statements have positive and some are negative .The

scoring was done as per the manual. The relevant data obtained from the subjects were consolidated in a coding sheet.

The personal information like that of college, age, sex, stream, education were included and the scores of variables were also entered. After completion of scoring, the data were organized and tabulated for further analysis and interpretation.

H. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The statistical techniques used in the present study was t- test.

The t- test or test of significance of the difference between means for large independent samples is used to compare the means between any two groups on any of the variables (Garrett, 1969). In other words, the independent samples t- test is used to test the null hypothesis that the means of two population are the same (Landau and Everitt,2004). This test, also commonly referred to as the independent t- test, student t test, unpaired t test or the independent two –sample t test, uses the independent or grouping variable to compare the mean difference of the dependent variable, or test variable. If the obtained t- value exceeds the critical value (depending on the degrees of freedom),then the difference between the two groups will be statistically significant.

For the present study, t – test was used to compare the groups formed on the basis of gender, stream with the variables cognitive styles and self – confidence.

CHAPTER IV

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. ANALYSIS USING t- test

The t- test or test of significance of the difference between means for large independent samples is used to compare the means between any two groups on any of the variables. In the present study, t – test was used to compare the groups formed on the basis of gender, and the stream of study with the variables cognitive styles and self – confidence.

Comparison of Males and Females on the basis of Self – Confidence

The total sample consisted of 120 participants with 59 males constituting 49.2% of the whole and 61 females constituting the remaining 50.8%. Independent sample t – test was done in order to find out whether there exists any significant difference between male and female college students in self – confidence. The result of the same are provided in the table 4.1

Table 4.1

Sl. No	Variables	Male		Female		t- value
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1	Self Confidence	26.25	6.461	26.77	7.26	-.411

The results in table indicate that there exists no significant difference between male and female college students in self-confidence. The mean score obtained by male students on self – confidence was 26.25, the female students score was 26.77 with corresponding deviations of 6.461 and 7.26 respectively. The t- value was (t= -.411) found to be not significant. This indicates that no sex wise differences exist on self – confidence.

The findings of the study conducted by Fox and Punócohar also yielded evidence that was in accordance with the findings of the current study, and the

hypothesis which states that “There will be significant difference between male and female college students in self confidence ” is not accepted.

Comparison of arts and science students on the basis of self – confidence

The total sample consisted of 120 participants with 64 from arts constituting 53.3% of the whole and 56 from science constituting the remaining 46.7 %.Independent sample t – test was done in order to find out whether there exists any significant difference between arts and science students difference in self confidence . The result of the same are provided in the table 4.2

Table 4.2

Sl.No	Variable	Arts		Science		t- test
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1	Self - confidence	26.67	6.30	26.34	7.50	.264

The results in table indicate that there exists no significant difference in self -confidence between arts and science students. The mean score obtained by the arts students on self – confidence was 26.67 and the female students score was 26.34 with corresponding deviation of 6.30 and 7.50 respectively. The t-value was (t= .264) found to be not significant. This indicates there were no differences in self – confidence between arts and science students. The reason for this may be due to the environment provided by the respected college is same to both arts and science students, there may be nothing special to arts or science students for promoting high self -confidence level.Thus the hypothesis

which states“ There will be significant difference between arts and science students in self confidence” is not accepted.

Comparison of male and female on the basis of intuitive cognitive style

The total sample consisted of 120 participants with 59 males constituting 49.2% of the whole and 61 females constituting the remaining 50.8%.Independent sample t – test was done in order to find out whether there exists any significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between male and female students . The result of the same are provided in the table 4.3

Table 4.3

Sl. No	Variable	Male		Female		t- test
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1	Intuitive cognitive style	62.08	14.55	62.82	11.64	-.306

The results in table indicate that there exists no significant difference between male and female in the use of intuitive cognitive style. The mean score obtained by the male students on intuitive cognitive style was 62.08 and the female students score was 62.82 with corresponding deviation of 14.545 and 11.637 respectively. The t- value was (t= -.306) found to be not significant. This indicates there were no sex wise differences in the use of intuitive

cognitive style. The reason for this may be both male and female students uses unpredictable ordering for solving a problem. Thus, the hypothesis which states“ There will be significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between male and female college students” is not accepted.

Comparison of arts and science on the basis of intuitive cognitive style

The total sample consisted of 120 participants with 64 from arts constituting 53.3% of the whole and 56 from science constituting the remaining 46.7%.Independent sample t – test was done in order to find out whether there exists any significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between arts and science students. The result of the same are provided in the table 4.4

Table 4.4

Sl.No	Variable	Arts		Science		t- test
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1	Intuitive cognitive style	61.86	13.030	63.14	13.26	-.534

The results in table indicate that there exists no significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between arts and science students. The mean score obtained by the arts students on intuitive cognitive style was 61.86 and the science students score was 63.14 with corresponding deviation of 13.030 and 13.26 respectively. The t- value was (t= -.534). This indicate there were no differences in arts and science students in intuitive cognitive style .The reason for this may be the arts and science students are solving their problem within same context irrespective of their education. Thus, the hypothesis which states “There will be significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between arts and science students” is not accepted.

Comparison of male and female on the basis of systematic cognitive style

The total sample consisted of 120 participants with 59 males constituting 49.2% of the whole and 61 females constituting the remaining 50.8%.Independent sample t – test was done in order to find out whether there exists any significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between males and female students. The result of the same are provided in the table 4.5

Table 4.5

	Variable	Male		Female		t- value
		M1	SD1	SD1	SD2	
	Systematic					
1	Cognitive style	64.61	14.444	63.48	13.28	.448

The results in table indicate that there exists no significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between male and female college students. The mean score obtained by the male students in systematic cognitive style was 64.61 and the female students score was 63.48 with corresponding deviation of 14.444 and 13.28 respectively. The t- value was ($t = .448$) not significant. This indicates there were no sex differences in the use of systematic cognitive style.

The findings of the study conducted by Sally and Baron also yielded evidence that was in accordance with the findings of the current study, and the hypothesis which states that “There will be significant differences in

the use of systematic cognitive style between male and female college students” is not accepted.

Comparison of arts and science students on the basis of systematic cognitive style

The total sample consisted of 120 participants with 64 from arts constituting 53.3% of the whole and 56 from science constituting the remaining 46.7%.Independent sample t – test was done in order to find out whether there exists any significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between arts and science students. The result of the same are provided in the table 4.6

Table 4.6

	Variable	Arts		Science		t- value
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1	Systematic Cognitive Style	63.97	14.37	64.11	13.29	-.055

The results in table indicate that there exists no significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between arts and science students . The mean score obtained by the arts students on systematic cognitive style was 63.97 and the science students score was 64.11with corresponding deviation of 14.37and 13.29respectively. The t- value was (t= -.055) not significant. This indicates there were no significant differences in the use of systematic cognitive style between arts and science students and the hypothesis which

states “There will be significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between arts and science students” is not accepted.

Comparison of education on the basis of systematic style

The total sample consisted of 120 participants with 74 from UG constituting 61.7% of the whole and 46 from PG constituting the remaining 38.3%. Independent sample t – test was done in order to find out whether there exists any significant mean difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between undergraduate and postgraduate students. The result of the same are provided in the table 4.7

Table 4.7

Variable	UG		PG		t- test
	M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1 Systematic cognitive style	61.28	14.804	68.46	10.805	-2.85

**Significant at 0.01 level

The results in table indicate that there exists a significant difference between undergraduate and postgraduate students on their systematic cognitive style. The mean score obtained by the UG students on systematic cognitive style was 61.28 and the PG students score was 68.46 with corresponding deviation of 14.804 and 10.805 respectively. The t- value was (t= -2.85) is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates there were a significant differences in

the use of systematic cognitive style between UG and PG students. The reason for this is may be PG students are mature than UG students.

The findings of the study conducted by Hooda and Devi also yielded evidence that was in accordance with the findings of the current study, and the hypothesis which states that” There will be significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between undergraduate and postgraduate students” is accepted.

Comparison of education on the basis of intuitive cognitive style

The total sample consisted of 120 participants with 74 from UG constituting 61.7% of the whole and 46 from PG constituting the remaining 38.3%. Independent sample t – test was done in order to find out whether there exists any significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between UG and PG students. The result of the same are provided in the table 4.8

Table 4.8

Sl.No	Variable	UG		PG		t- test
		M1	SD1	M2	SD2	
1	Intuitive cognitive style	60.96	13.324	64.87	12.49	-1.601

The results in table indicate that there exists no significant difference between undergraduate and Postgraduate students on their intuitive cognitive style. The mean score obtained by UG students on intuitive cognitive style was 60.96 and the PG students score was 64.87 with corresponding deviation of 13.324 and 12.49 respectively. The t- value was (t= -1.601) not significant. This

indicates there were no significant difference in UG and PG students in their intuitive cognitive style and the hypothesis which states “There will be significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between postgraduate and undergraduate college students is not accepted.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

- A. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**
- B. VARIABLES OF THE STUDY**
- C. PARTICIPANTS**
- D. MEASURES USED FOR THE STUDY**
- E. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED**
- F. RE-STATEMENT AND TENABILITY OF THE HYPOTHESES**
- G. MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY**
- H. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY**
- I. SUGGESTIONS AND LIMITATIONS**

A.STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The aim of the study is to assess the cognitive style and self – confidence among college students.

B.VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

The main variables in the study are cognitive style and self confidence. Many studies have been conducted to determine the cognitive styles and self confidence among different settings, but limited study has evaluated the differences of systematic and intuitive cognitive styles on college students in accordance with their gender, stream, and education.

C.PARTICIPANTS

120 participants were selected from the population of college students. Among 120 participants 60 were from arts stream and 60 were from science stream. The sample was further subdivided based on gender consisting of 60 males and females. The age of the participants ranged from 19 to 23 years.

D. MEASURES USED FOR THE STUDY

The following measures are used for the study

1. Cognitive Style Inventory (CSI)
2. Self Confidence Inventory (SCI)

E.STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED

Major statistical techniques used for the analysis of data are as follows

- t- test.

F. RE -STATEMENT AND TENABILITY OF HYPOTHESIS

1. There will be a significant difference between male and female college students in self – confidence.

Analysis was done using independent ‘t’- test and the results obtained indicate there is no significant difference in self-confidence between male and female college students. Thus the hypothesis is not accepted and is restated as;

“There is no significant difference between male and female college students in self- confidence.”

2. There will be a significant difference between arts and science students in self – confidence.

Analysis was done using independent ‘t’-test and the results obtained indicate there is no significant difference in self – confidence between arts and science college students. Thus the hypothesis is not accepted and is restated as;

“There is no significant difference between arts and science students in self –confidence.”

3. There will be a significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between male and female college students

Analysis was done using independent ‘t’-test and the results obtained indicate there is no significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between male and female students. Thus the hypothesis is not accepted and is restated as ;

“There is no significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between male and female college students.”

4. There will be a significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between arts and science students

Analysis was done using independent ‘t’-test and the results obtained indicate there is no significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between arts and science college students. Thus the hypothesis is not accepted and is restated as;

“There is no significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between arts and science students”.

5. There will be a significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between male and female college students

Analysis was done using independent 't'-test and the results obtained indicate there is no significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between male and female college students. Thus the hypothesis is not accepted and is restated as;

“There is no significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between male and female college students.”

6. There will be significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between arts and science students

Analysis was done using independent 't'- test and the results obtained indicate there is no significant difference in systematic in the use of cognitive style between arts and science college students Thus the hypothesis is not accepted and is restated as;

“There is no significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between arts and science students.”

7. There will be significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between undergraduate and postgraduate students.

Analysis was done using independent 't'-test and the results obtained indicate there is significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between undergraduate and postgraduate students. Thus the hypothesis stands accepted and is restated as;

“There is significant difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between undergraduate and postgraduate students.”

8. There will be a significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between undergraduate and postgraduate students

Analysis was done using independent 't'-test and the results obtained indicate there is no significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between undergraduate and postgraduate students. Thus the hypothesis is not accepted and is restated as;

“There is no significant difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between undergraduate and postgraduate students”.

G. MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

1. There is difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between undergraduate and postgraduate college students.
2. Post graduate students were found to use systematic cognitive style more in comparison to that of the undergraduate students.
3. Both male and female college students having relatively no more differ in their self- confidence
4. Self- confidence has no influence on arts and science students.
5. There is no difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between male and female college students.
6. There is no difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between arts and science students.
7. There is no difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between male and female college students.
8. There is no difference in the use of systematic cognitive style between arts and science students.
9. There is no difference in the use of intuitive cognitive style between undergraduate and postgraduate students.

H. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

From the findings of the study it is evident that no significant difference was found between male and female college students regarding systematic and intuitive cognitive style. It is important to consider cognitive styles as the central goal of instructions therefore; an environment should create by the college, by the Government that nurtures the capabilities of the students and develop teachers' potentials to the fittest. Students should be encouraged to use both systematic cognitive style and intuitive cognitive style for optimum results in decision making in student- learning process. So, they can plan various learning strategies to enhance learning effectiveness. Through the cognitive styles, the students' self – confidence should be encouraged for the maximum performance.

I.IMITATIONS

- The present study was limited to college students only.
- The sample size was limited to only 120 students.
- The study was limited to one college only.
- The participants age was limited to 19 – 23 years.
- The study was limited to the demographic details like sex, stream and education.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- For further study it is recommended to increase the sample size.
- It is recommended to include participants from more college
- Different demographic variables like socio economic status, area, mother's education, father's education should be included.

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APPENDICES

APPENDICES A : COGNITIVE STYLE INVENTORY (CSI)

SOCIO - DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Please provide the following information

Date:

Name:

Age:

Sex: Male / Female

Education : PG / UG

Stream: Arts/ Science

Area: Urban / rural

INSTRUCTIONS

On the following pages a few statements related to different situations are given. Read each statement carefully and mark a tick in one of the box. Kindly give response to all the statements. No answer is right or wrong. Your answers will be kept confidential.

S I No	STATEMENT	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Totally Agree
1.	When confronted with a problem, I try to judge it or try to understand it from the bottom					
2.	I prefer to analyze a problem or a situation and ensure if any specific 'meaning' is emerging from the given facts.					
3.	While solving a problem I draw a map at my mental level.					
4.	Internally I develop a system where I could collect and store the informations after solving a problem.					
5.	When I am working in the course of solving a problem I find myself talking loudly					
6.	In course of solving a problem, I first concentrate on its important parts.					
7.	While solving a problem I take into accounts its different aspects and lay down its limit.					
8.	I consider a problem in a systematic and step – wise manner					
9.	I examine a problem in its totality before considering its parts					

	separately.					
10.	The best and the most effective way to solve a problem is to solve it logically and conscientiously					
11.	To combat a problem effectively, a man should take firm and bold steps.					
12.	For finding out a solution to a problem in its entirety, I carefully link its various parts and put them in a series.					
13.	Before taking steps for the solution of a problem I examine the relationship between the integral parts of the problem besides viewing it in totality					
14.	I work with a presumption that solution of all the problems are pre – destined					
15.	All problems are open and explicit in their own states and they present many probabilities for us.					
16.	I collect all informations in my mental frame like a computer and then derive a lot of statistics by dissecting them into several parts.					
17.	I determine the most appropriate information which may solve the problem with accuracy, by using the images already present in my memory in the form of information					
18.	Before solving a problem I try to plan and search the ways for finding out a solution					
19.	Normally I depend on perceptions, determination and non – verbal indicators as auxiliary factors in the process of solving a problem.					
20.	While solving a problem I normally believe in facts and figures					
21.	While solving a problem, I think on probable alternatives quickly and at the same time scrutinize them as early as possible.					
22.	I search for the additional information systematically and select the sources of information carefully.					
23.	I contemplate various ways of solving a problem and alternative measures simultaneously					
24.	In the process of solving a problem, first of all I identify the different factors which may create hurdles.					
25.	While analyzing a problem it appears to me that I move forward from the first step to the second and then start thinking backward					

	or say, turn back to the first one again.					
26.	While making a deep analyze of the problem, I realize that I am moving systematically from one step to another.					
27.	Normally I inquire many sources of statistics and during the process of searching ways of solution, my eyes spread on to many other informations.					
28.	When I am working at a complex problem, I divide it into small units in order to make them accessible for solution.					
29.	In course of solving a problem, I apprehend that I turn back to the same logistics frequently and each time I get a different insight					
30.	I collect the given facts and sources of informations legally, logically and serially to a certain limit.					
31.	Generally I take into account the dimension of the problem and its jurisdiction so that a complete picture of the solution could be drawn.					
32.	When I seek a solution of a problem modus - operandi is well – organized and quite extensive.					
33.	I solve a problem quickly and effectively without wasting much time on modalities					
34.	I have a very good memory and have due interest in mathematics					
35.	I am not bothered by uncertainties and incredibilities					
36.	I consider myself and others credible and predictable					
37.	I possess a number of ideas and I am inquisitive by nature					
38.	It is my nature to keep away from momentary ideas with changes.					
39.	I look at myself as well as others as one who is ready to take risk.					
40.	I am never vexed by the ‘status quo’ because I feel novelty always proves to be better.					

APPENDICES B : SELF – CONFIDENCE INVENTORY (SCI)

Sl No	STATEMENTS	Right	Wrong
1.	It usually happens with you are undecided up to the time to work		
2.	You usually reply to what is said about you.		
3.	You usually feel difficulty in talking to people		
4.	You are easily hurt		
5.	To avoid meeting some people you take the other side of the road		
6.	You are fearful that people may dislike you		
7.	You can face any situation without difficulty		
8.	For certain things people unjustly treat you responsible		
9.	You refuse to play certain games because you are not good at them		
10.	You think much over everything		
11.	You cannot openly demonstrate your emotions		
12.	People generally take advantage of you.		
13	When you think to do some work, you are fearful of failure in that		
14.	You feel difficulty in speaking the truth on the opportune time		
15.	For you, life is stressful.		
16.	You fall back from facing crisis		
17.	You feel difficulty in concentrating over one job.		
18.	So many times you left the idea of doing certain work because you felt less able to do it.		
19.	You feel that you cannot face the situations properly		
20.	You spend much time over fear of future		
21.	Since you fail to take decision you have lost many good opportunities.		
22.	You remain sad usually		
23.	Yo can make friends in the same way as other		
24.	You feel discouraged when your view does not tally with others		
25.	You usually satisfy your unfulfilled desires through dreams.		
26.	You lack to take initiative for any work		
27.	You are discouraged easily		
28.	You take time to recover when upset emotionally		
29.	You generally feel that people don't understand you		

30.	Sometimes you feel so uneasy that you can't sit idle		
31.	Normally you feel yourself to be physically fit and energetic		
32.	Usually you feel yourself helpless		
33.	You feel inferior to take initiative to start talking with superior officer		
34.	You have problem in making new friends.		
35.	In a social dialogue you are generally a listener in place of the speaker		
36.	You generally feel yourself insecure		
37.	You face problem speaking before a group of people		
38.	When other people are watching, you can't perform well up to your ability		
39.	You are very much influenced by the praise or criticism by other person		
40.	You consider yourself as a successful person		
41.	You always feel that you can achieve which you want to achieve		
42.	You have problem in taking decision		
43.	You can play well in a game against a player superior to you		
44.	You decide in advance your next move		
45.	You easily solve problems and feel relaxed		
46.	You are more influenced compared to other persons in a humiliating situation		
47.	You generally take up as unworthy		
48.	You are easily hurt		
49.	You hesitate in entering after meeting has started		
50.	You are generally frustrated because you cannot do what you like to do		
51.	You feel that your friends have done better adjustments in life than you		
52.	You are generally confused		
53.	If given opportunity, you can prove yourself a better leader.		
54.	You feel that nothing can obstruct you from achieving your goals		
55.	You can behave naturally in any party		
56.	When any serious situation is over, then you think what you should have done and could not.		